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Foreword

This text's title not only reflects the great variety of topics gathered within it but also mirrors the current worldwide interest in language and communication. Apart from the contributions made by academics from Thai universities, academicians from a multiplicity of higher educational institutions have authored and co-authored the papers contained herein. In fact, researchers from around Asia and the wider world community have contributed to this compilation, namely: Hong Kong, Japan, India, Indonesia, Iran, Malaysia, Nigeria, Pakistan, Philippines, and Vietnam. The essays have been alphabetically arranged by the names of their authors.

Our special thanks to all the referees who carried out the selection of papers and to the contributors to this volume for giving us the opportunity to cover a range of different views and perspectives of what is being presently undertaken in the field. Our thanks also go to Ms Rumpung Maneekao and Ms Jareeporn Kaewsuksri for their assistance to the editors. We do hope the contents of these essays are illuminating for readers who may excuse any errors and misprints that might remain after the long editorial process.

The editors

Analysis of Naturally Occurring Interaction in Second Language Classrooms

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Abstract

Before any kind of intervention or development can be adopted to improve teaching and learning, researchers and educators should first understand what actually happens in a second language classroom. This research is conducted to compare transcripts of naturally occurring interaction in two different English language classrooms in Norway. The transcripts of English lessons are analyzed using the model and methodology of conversation analysis. The analytical results are used to discuss the organization of the interactions and their interrelationships to pedagogical focuses.

Keywords: Classroom interaction, Conversation analysis, Classroom research

1. Introduction

Although most of the recent research has used conversation analysis (CA) to examine classroom interaction from the perspective of being socially constructed and contingent activities, these studies have narrowed their focus to the studies of particular classrooms and particular types of classroom talk. What is still needed is an understanding of the more complex processes by which teachers and students conjointly produce, interpret and negotiate the meanings of a variety of features of interaction in language classrooms where different approaches of teaching are used.

This inductive classroom research applies classroom ethnography and CA to examine the aspects of classroom behavior as they naturally occurred. The corpus of transcribed classroom interactions recorded at two English classrooms in Norway was analyzed. The teachers in both classrooms devised features of interaction to achieve the pedagogical goals of the language classrooms. These features of interaction are: turn-taking systems, adjacency pairs, preference order systems, repair systems, etc. Because the interactional features can be used as a strategic tool, and the ability of the teacher to make the most effective use of the features is important to language pedagogy, it is important to understand the ways the teachers actually use them and what should be improved.

As language classroom research, it is also the aim to understand how the teachers and students engage in various activities of interaction to identify the characteristics of elicitations which may develop or hamper language development. In the present study, the analysis of classroom interaction is elaborated based on theories in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). Specifically, this research aims to answer the following research questions:

- 1) How are different organizations of interaction in language classrooms sequentially organized and accomplished?
- 2) What can be described in relation to language pedagogy from the micro-analysis of language classroom interaction?

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2. The Language Classroom Interaction

The organization of classroom interaction, especially in the traditional "whole class teacher-fronted classroom" (Jarvis & Robinson, 1997, p. 212), is generally represented by the basic three-turn structure of Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) (Mehan, 1979a, 1979b), later referred to as IRF (Sinclair, 1982). The 'follow-up' move (F-move) has become the preferred term to describe the teacher's action in the third turn because of its implication that this move may also perform other functions in addition to giving evaluation and feedback (Cullen, 2002). Traditional classroom interactions usually involve a recursive chain or progression of such three-turn sequences of interaction. Reflexive relationships exist at each turn of the interaction and these form the two parts of the 'adjacency pairs' sequence. The first pair part is teacher initiation and student response, and the teacher evaluation of the response forms the second part of the sequence. Then the response is routinely evaluated by the teacher and feedback is sometimes given. The IRF is not usually found in conversation outside classrooms. Although initiators in regular conversation sometimes provide acknowledgement of responses, it would be somewhat unusual if they subsequently evaluated the correctness of the recipient's answer in the way that teachers do in the classroom (Drew & Heritage, 1992). The IRE/IRF sequences of interaction constitute the core activities and goals of a lesson and the roles being performed in a classroom setting. For example, the way that a teacher evaluates students' answers repeatedly manifests the institutional goal of testing students' knowledge and the teacher's role as a tester of the students.

The basic procedure of *turn-taking* in language classrooms is *individual nomination*, or the allocation of turns to specific individuals or a specific group of students (i.e., when teachers call out specific names when asking questions and nominates the next specific student to answer the next question). The other notable patterns of teacher initiation and student response turn-taking are *invitation to bid* and *invitation to reply* (Mehan, 1979a). These occur, for example, when teachers initiate an initiation to any student to respond. Every student in the class has an equal chance to provide a response to the initiation.

3. The Previous Language Classroom Research

Most of the previous research into language classroom interactions or classroom behaviors has focused on the functional categorization of teachers' talks (Long & Sato, 1983), counting the frequency of use (White & Lightbown, 1984), and describing the functions of different forms of teachers' talks (Brock, 1986; Nunan, 1987). These functional categorization studies cannot provide an adequate explanation of the more complex interactional characteristics and functions of teachers' talks in the language classroom. Furthermore, the analysis of the functions of teachers' talks was conducted from an *etic* perspective. The etic perspective interprets the meanings of the teacher's utterances from the analyst's viewpoint. It does not describe the meanings of the utterances as products of contingent and intersubjective communication between teacher and students, and fails to uncover the competence of either the teacher or the students to collaborate in constructing and achieving meaningful communication.

On the other hand, *emic* analysis is based on an examination of the understandings and orientations of the participants themselves. The sensitivity of an emic approach to what is occurring in the interaction makes it more useful in the study of classroom interaction than an etic approach because "the understandings that matter are those that are incarnate in the interaction being examined" (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973). In addition, an emic analysis would allow researchers to explicate the competencies through which the participants conjointly accomplish meaningful communication and

to understand meanings or senses which are conjointly negotiated and agreed upon in the talk (Firth & Wagner, 1997). Much of the recent classroom research has applied the CA approach to analyze institutional talk as locally produced by participants, and may be influenced by institutional constraints.

4. Conversation Analysis

CA is a detailed analysis of the transcribed data of talk occurring in natural situations. It was developed by Harvey Sacks and his co-workers in 1960 with the belief that there was 'order at all points' in conversation; thus everything that happened in conversation could be described in terms of the underlying methods participants used to produce and understand it.

When they engage in conversation, participants behave according to certain types of methodical procedures and orient to rules that govern the order of interaction, for example order of turn-taking, adjacency relationship, and topic talk (Sacks, 1992). The orders in the interactions are made explicit, described and analyzed by the analyst, and become what Schegloff (2007a) terms 'generic orders of organization' and he describes:

By generic orders of organization, I mean the various organizations of practice that deal with the various generic organizational contingencies of talk-in-interaction without which it cannot proceed in an orderly way. (p. xiv)

Two major principles of ethnomethodology as described by Bryman (2001, p. 355) are *indexicality* and *reflexivity*. Indexicality is the belief that the meaning of an act is influenced by the context in which it is located. Reflexivity means that social actions are constitutive of the social context in which they occur. Therefore, participants constantly interpret talk-in-interaction. The meaning of talk-in-interaction is shaped by the preceding turn ('context-shaped') and at the same time it forms a basis for interpretation of meaning for the next turn ('context-renewal'). Verbal and non-verbal actions in an interaction perform the function of a 'contextualization cue' (Gumperz, 1971). In other words, any action in a turn's talk is produced to display meanings, to be interpreted and to shape the next action.

Participants make use of the normative features of interaction as tools to display meaning and as a basis for the interpretation of their social actions in the interaction. However, participants in interaction do not always act in compliance with the normative organization of interaction. An act that deviates from normative practices is not always an indication that the participant does not know the norms, but sometimes it explains the participant's standing in that social interaction. Some examples of normative interactional organization are:

- *Turn-taking*: the organization and transition of turns. The basic principle is that one speaker talks at a time. The actions deviating from normative turn-taking are usually in the forms of *overlap* and *interruption*.
- *Adjacency pairs*: the structure of two linked turn types produced by different speakers. These two turns are relevantly ordered; the first act ('initiative act') implies that the second act ('responsive act') of the adjacency pair will be forthcoming (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973, p. 295).
- *Preference order*: an order of asymmetrical alternative types of the second pair part which the first pair part makes relevant. The second pair parts which show alignment to the first pair part and allow for the accomplishment of the activity are referred to as 'preferred

actions.' The second pair parts which display non-alignment and block the accomplishment of the activity are called 'dispreferred actions' (Schegloff, 2007, p. 59).

• *Repair*: organizations of repair initiation and correction which are performed when there is 'trouble' or miscommunication in an interaction. Four types of normative repair organization are: (1) self-initiated repair, (2) other-initiated repair, (3) self-repair, and (4) other-repair (Schegloff, 2007, p. 101).

To apply CA to study institutional talk, Schegloff (1991) identifies two important concerns which can help analysts to convert their intuition or theoretically motivated observation into demonstrable analysis. First, research should demonstrate the local relevance for participants of their institutional contexts and identities. Second, research should also show the impact of institutional contexts and identities in procedurally consequential terms. A specification of such a linkage between institutional contexts and their procedural consequentiality helps an analyst to examine, understand and give an account of how the interaction proceeded in the way in which it did: how it came to have the trajectory, the direction, and shape that it ended up having.

5. Methodology

5.1. Research Aims

CA is applied to study the processes through which different features of interaction are organized in the interactions between the teacher and the learners in two different classrooms. The patterns of interaction will be further discussed from the perspectives of institutional talk and second language acquisition (SLA). By studying these different patterns of interaction in detail, their potential for providing learning opportunities can be assessed based on theories of language teaching and learning, and thus pedagogical recommendations about the effective use of teacher elicitations can also be made.

5.2. Research Methods

Transcripts of two different 45-minute-lessons taken from Seedhouse (1995) are analyzed in this research. The corpus of Classroom A is taken from lesson 3i in Seedhouse's data, while the corpus of classroom B is taken from lesson 4 (group 1) also in Seedhouse's data. Since the detailed transcripts are already available, the L2 classroom interaction analysis will start from the analytical part.

The analysis starts from what Psathas (1995) termed *unmotivated looking*, or the open-minded approach to discover phenomena without relying on any pre-determined phenomena or theory. This means that the analysis is not conducted to testify any pre-formulated theory, but to compare and contrast phenomena of the two different L2 classroom contexts. In summary, the analytical process in this assignment follows these steps of analysis:

- 1) identify the classroom context;
- 2) identify the pedagogical focus;
- analyze and explain how the interaction is organized in relation to the pedagogical focus, by looking at turn-taking, adjacency pairs, preference organization, repair, linguistics forms, and topic coherence;
- 4) uncover the *emic* logic underlying each turn of interaction by following Sacks et al.'s (1974, p.729) *next-turn proof procedure*; to describe the subsequent turn as an

interpretation of the previous turn, and how it creates an action and interpretational template for subsequent actions;

- 5) examine the process through which the organizations of interaction are coconstructed through interaction;
- 6) examine what teachers try to accomplish through talk, and any mismatch between the teacher's intended goals and the students interpretations of the goals.

6. Results

6.1. Analysis of Classroom Interaction: Classroom A

As shown in Extract 1, the teacher controls the pattern of turn allocation to achieve the goal of reading and pronunciation practice.

Extract 1

1 TEACHER: page sixteen two A .. how strange.. (student's name) would you be so kind as to start reading? 2 LEARNER: a cry of help .. Tasmanian fishermen could hardly believe their eyes yesterday afternoon .. suddenly at least fifty dolphins started jumping and diving around their boat the blue sea .. the six foot long animals started making loud whistling noises .. obviously they wanted something 3 TEACHER: thank you can you decide the next one to go on 4 LEARNER: (student's name) 5 LEARNER: the blue sea followed the dolphins until they reacheed 6 TEACHER: reached reached 7 LEARNER: a booyoy 8 LEARNERs: (laugh) 9 TEACHER: a buoy a buoy it's pronounced a buoy 10 LEARNER: a buoy.. there they found a baby dolphin caught in the fishing net .. it must have swum into it hungry for fish and crayfish the captain said later .. when the men set it free the intelligent dolphins whistled to thank them 11 TEACHER: yes (student's name) words here could you repeat intelligent 12 LEARNER: intelligent 13 TEACHER: and whistled 14 LEARNER: whistled

14 LEARINER. Whistled

From Extract 1, the pedagogical focus here is clearly on practicing pronunciation in English as it is shown through the teacher's act of eliciting the students' reading aloud in lines 1 and 3, and also through her act of eliciting the repetition of reading the vocabularies in lines 11 and 13. The other focus is on language forms, as the teacher corrected the students' errors by overlapping in lines 6 and 9, and providing correct forms of language.

Turns are allocated in relation to the pedagogical focuses. To encourage the students to practice reading and pronunciation, the teacher generally stops the first student from reading his/her part and allocates the turn to the next student. In line 3, the teacher asks the first student to decide the next turn taker. However, later in lines 11 and 13 the teacher decides who will be the next turn taker. In both techniques of turn allocation, the students do not have the right to manage the organization of turns, but it is the teacher who has this right. The teacher controls the organization of turns to achieve the aim of

allowing or encouraging as many students as possible to have the chance to read and practice pronunciation.

In addition to the core pedagogical focus of the language classroom (i.e., to teach English and to use English for communication), there are *pedagogical sub-focus* which occur within the single classroom context. The data shows that the students do not always understand the focus or sub-focus of the learning task. Extract 2 shows evidence of mismatch between the teacher's pedagogical focus and the student's answer in the form of IRF cycle in the integrations.

Extract 2

1 TEACHER:	Tasmanian fishermen got a shock the other day what kind of shock who can tell me
	now you speak English come on (student's name)
2 LEARNER:	there was dolphins in the net
3 TEACHER:	hm and what did some other dolphins do actually? (student's name)
4 LEARNER:	whistling
5 TEACHER:	yes they were playing and whistling and what did they want or what's their intention
	for doing this? what did they want to tell actually?
6 LEARNER:	they wanted to tell them they wanted help
7 TEACHER:	yes they wanted help and why did they want help?
8 LEARNER:	to get free the dolphin in the net
9 TEACHER:	yes what did the fishermen the Tasmanian fishermen discover? where did the dolphins
	what did they discover? what had happened to one of the dolphins? (student's name)

10 LEARNER: it was caught in the fishing net

In line 1, the teacher initiates elicitations to call for responses from the students and to test the students understanding about the text they read. The student's answer in line 2 is followed by the teacher's feedback, and the teacher initiates the next question in line 3. Then, two more sequences of IRF are developed. Without using *negative feedback* and *bald repair*, the teacher instead uses positive feedback by providing recast or the method of giving correct responses, for example 'yes they were playing and whistling...', and proceed to the next related questions. The teacher keeps renewing the question forms (for example, in lines 5 and 9), and the students do not respond to other questions except the last question of each turn. Mismatch between the teacher's pedagogical focus and the student's answer can be useful, because the teacher can use the students' response as a tool to evaluate their current level of knowledge and to provide feedback as a scaffold which helps improve their level of knowledge. The act of feedback is very important to the language pedagogy. The studies of teachers' acts in the third-turn position seem to agree that when the F-move is structured to perform functions other than evaluation this has a significant impact on the subsequent development of talk (Cullen, 2002; Richards, 2006).

Extracts 3 shows how the teacher provides repair of students' talk and at the same time uses it as a tool to give feedback and to achieve the goal of teaching language forms as well as testing comprehension of a reading text.

Extract 3

- 1 TEACHER: yes it was a koala bear and who had put it there? how had a koala bear got on the top shelf? (4 sec) well did they know actually?
- 2 LEARNER: someone put it there
- 3 TEACHER: somebody must have put it there

Line 3 in Extract 3 is an example of mitigated teacher-initiation teacher-repair. The teacher says 'yes' first for the meaning of the answer is correct (*positive evaluation*), then provides a recast to the student's response 'er bite ... bite his finger' in line 2, without making it an explicit repair (*negative evaluation*) by saying 'yes it bit his finger...', which is the correct response, without saying the word 'no'. Most of the repairs in the episodes from this classroom are in the form of *embedded correction* (Jefferson, 1987). That is, the teacher provides positive feedback to the propositional content of the students' response followed by an expansion of the response into a correct form of language.

In conclusion, the teaching approach of Classroom A, which is revealed through the analysis of classroom interaction, is a kind of text-based language teaching/learning. The main *pedagogical focus* of this classroom context is on the reading *text*. This means that every activity and interaction occurred is expected to relate to the text rather than personal meaning. The *topic* is also constrained by the text.

6.2. The Analysis of Classroom Interaction: Classroom B

Extract 4 shows how the teacher establishes the procedural context to describe the pedagogical goals. The pedagogical focus and sub-focuses which are described to the students also explain her *task-as-work plan*.

Extract 4

Within this procedural context, the teacher also encourages the students to establishes a context of which *meaning and fluency* are the focus, as he/she mentions in the last line in the extract that '*what we're doing at the moment practicing speaking English*'. By saying this, it tells the students that they can introduce topics by talking about their personal feelings, and they can manage the interactional organizations among themselves but the language they should use is the target language which is English. The sub-focuses (of the main focus on accomplishing the task) are introduced as follow: first, each student talks about the selected picture; second, agree upon one picture; and third, decide how to present it to the class. The teacher expects that these activities would take more than one session as he/she mentions that '*we won't finish today, you might get through the first and the second, then we'll continue on Monday*'. After the teacher closes the procedural context, the students start to sit in their groups and do the task. Extract 5 is a record of the students' talk when they are doing the task.

Extract 5

1 LEARNER1: =shall we take my picture? 2 LEARNER3: yes. 3 LEARNER2: yes. 4 LEARNER3: we can find about the writer er the painter, that's gonna be very easy. 5 LEARNER2: the father to Andreas. 6 LEARNER1: yes. 7 LEARNER3: Morten. 8 LEARNER2: the father's name is Morten. 9 LEARNER 3: okay..,.., how e:r 10 LEARNER1: decide what to do. 11 LEARNER3: which way are we gonna do?= 12 LEARNER1: =present it? 13 LEARNER3: yes.,,,,,,, nei ((tr: no)) present it.= 14 LEARNER1: =we say it to the class. 15 LEARNER2: we can talk about it in the class. 16 LEARNER1: yeah talk about it to the class. 17 LEARNER3: yeah and tell about the picture, then the painter. 18 LEARNER1: yeah.

As is shown in Extract 5, there are complex pairs of turn types (adjacency pairs). The first pair is the pair of giving ideas (lines 1, 4, 12, 15, 17) and explicit agreements (lines 2, 3, 16, 18). The second pair is the pair of giving ideas and implicit agreements (line 5, 7, 8). Without saying 'yes' or 'ok', L2 and L3's suggestions of who the painter is and the painter's name in lines 5, 7, 8 implicitly show that they agree to find the information on the painter. There are also pairs of questions and answers (lines 11 and 12), self-initiation and self-repair (lines 12 and 14), and the pair of repairs and uptakes (lines 15 and 16). The students know when to initiate their turns and they are able to negotiate for and develop mutual understanding of meanings. Although there are some degrees of complexity, the students can interpret, and respond to the group members turns and turn types very well.

The lesson in Classroom B is in the form of a task-based language teaching/learning approach. The main pedagogical focus is on achieving the *task*, and the expected outcomes are: (1) cultural awareness, (2) awareness of choice and the consequence of choices made, (3) working with authentic material, and (4) oral communication skills. Although the students can accomplish topic coherence, and a local management system which matches the pedagogical focus on meaning and fluency, there are deviant cases when the students' performance (*task-in-process*) does not match the teacher's plan (*task-as-workplan*) (Breen, 1989).

8. Discussion

In classroom A, the teacher does not explicitly explain the goals of the classroom but she uses language and manipulates the features of interaction as a tool to achieve the classroom goals. The teacher holds the major right to control and manipulate the classroom interaction through her talk. She controls the turn-taking system and topic in both episodes of procedural context and group work context. As a result, the students do the work as was planned but then this also controls and limits the students' chance to experience a variety of different interactional forms including errors and repairs which may be found in ordinary conversation outside the classroom.

The analysis of student-student interaction during the group-work activity in classroom A, on which the main pedagogical focus is understanding of reading text, language forms, and accuracy, indicates that at the end of lesson the students pay more attention to the comprehension of the reading text rather than language errors. This may be because the turns were restricted to one person asking a question with the other students answering and checking whether the answer is correct. If the teacher did not limit the turn types, and allowed the students to spend some time to evaluate the answer and the language forms, this activity might be more effective.

In contrast, the students in classroom B have more chance to talk about their personal ideas, to manage turns, and to negotiate meanings. Therefore, there is evidence of variety in talks made by the students themselves. The examples of the features of talks which are not occurring in Classroom A are variety of adjacency pairs, deviant cases, and repair types. Extracts 6 below shows one of the examples of repair types which are managed by the students in Classroom B during the task activity.

Extract 6

LEARNER1: =we say it to the class.
 LEARNER2: we can talk about it in the class.
 LEARNER1: yeah talk about it to the class.

The repair in Extract 6 shows *other-initiated*, *self-repair* in lines 2 and 3. These are examples of *negotiation for meaning* or *scaffolding* (Johnson, 1995) in SLA perspective; students improve their ability to produce language with help from their peers. This is similar to what Ohta & Nakaone (2004) point out that during group-work activities, students work out to solve problems before asking the teacher. Questions posed to peers overwhelmingly received correct answers.

So far, the discussion has covered what actually happened in the two different language classrooms, which have different forms of classroom interactions and language activities, from the perspective of language teaching and learning. Suggestions have been provided on how the teachers can improve their teaching and the students learning based on the detailed analysis of classroom interaction from an emic perspective using CA methodology.

9. Conclusion

In this research the researcher proposed to apply CA to analyze and describe the characteristics of classroom interactions which are socially organized in the two different language classrooms. The present research results have shown that the teacher does not just give a one-way lecture, but uses a variety of features of interactions to develop different classroom activities and to involve students in the process of transferring and constructing new knowledge. This study also makes the following contributions to language pedagogy: (1) the results have shown that classroom talks and activities are not planned, but are contingent activities, (2) the teacher should have a repertoire of different features of talk, and the ability to manipulate them to manage and to achieve classroom goals.

This research has also contributed to an understanding of socially constructed classroom interactions and provided some principles for studying classroom talks which should be useful for future language classroom research. Instead of giving teachers or people who participate in practical educational circumstances a prearranged package of teaching directions or instructions, this ethnographic research provides them with ways of looking into their own classroom behavior and reminds them of their responsibility to understand their own situations and to develop in ways they think appropriate. Although the detailed analysis of classroom interaction seems to be as complex as the conversation itself, and hence difficult to conduct, there are many advantages and limitations of applying CA as a research methodology as have been discussed elsewhere in this research. As a consequence, CA may be used in combination with other research tools, such as classroom

observation and interviews to study classroom interactions and implementation to language learning and teaching.

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Appendix

The extracts included in this research have been transcribed according to CA transcript notations available in Atkinson & Heritage (1984), and Seedhouse (2004).

Transcript Notation

::	lengthening of the preceding sound.
↑	higher pitch in the utterance
0	utterance quieter than surrounding talk
(unintelligible)	indicates unintelligible utterances
(.)	micro-pause
(2.0)	number in parentheses indicates seconds of silence
((gesture))	non-verbal actions
?	rising intonation
Underline	speaker emphasis
=	the second speaker followed the first speaker without discernible
silence	e between them
-	Abrupt cut-off
[]	point of overlap

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Development of EFL Supplementary Reading Materials Based on Social Problems of First Year Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology Students

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Abstract

The purposes of this research were: (1) to develop and test efficiency of EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems, (2) to compare the students' English reading achievement before and after using EFL supplementary reading materials, and (3) to survey the students' satisfaction towards the EFL supplementary reading materials in eight units.

The subject consisted of 35 first year EFL students of Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology during 2010. The instruments used for this experiment were eight units of EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems, the English reading achievement test, and a questionnaire was used for surveying the subjects' satisfaction on the efficiency of the constructed materials. The experimental process and data collection were conducted as follows. The subjects were given a 30-item English reading achievement pretest. Then, the eight units of the EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems were used for 12 class sessions over 12 weeks. After the completion of each unit, the English reading formative test was administered to measure the subjects' English reading achievement and a questionnaire was used for surveying the subjects' satisfaction.

The t-test was used to compare the subjects' English reading achievement before and after using the EFL supplementary reading materials. The mean and standard deviation of the questionnaire scores were used to measure the students' satisfaction towards the constructed materials.

The results of the study were as follows:

1. The efficiency of the materials was 79.86 for the English reading formative tests and 81.14 for the posttest. Therefore, the EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems constructed were highly effective.

2. The students' English reading achievement after using the eight English reading lessons was significantly higher than that before using the eight English reading lessons constructed at 0.05 level.

3. The students' satisfaction towards the eight English reading lessons was highly positive.

Keywords: EFL supplementary reading materials, social problems

Introduction

In recent times, the instructional curriculum of foreign language has been based on the National Education Act of B.E. 2542 (1999) section 22 which stipulated that education shall be based on the principle that all learners shall become capable of learning and self-development, and are regarded as being most important. The teaching-learning process shall aim at enabling the learners to develop

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themselves at their own pace and to the best of their potentiality. Moreover, section 23 stipulates that "Education through formal, non-formal, and informal approaches shall give emphases to knowledge, morality, learning process, and integration of the following, depending on the appropriateness of each level of education". Therefore, the students should have knowledge about oneself and the relationship between oneself and society, namely: family, community, nation, and world community (Ministry of Education 1999: 14).

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

Reading has a crucial role in our lives. It is so much a part of everyday living that one can hardly imagine life without it. Reading is also uniquely individual and flexible. In the age of the Internet and the information revolution, reading retains its importance as an essential skill for learners of any language. For most of us, it is the most important skill to master in order to ensure success in learning (Alderson, 1984). The process of reading involves the interaction of some complex linguistic processes and knowledge bases which can be divided into print decoding and comprehension processes (Norris & Hoffman, 2002). Here, reading is a process of combining textual information with the reader's prior knowledge. The interactive model (Grabe, 2004) views reading as the interaction between the reader and the text, with which he interacts to create meaning as his mental processes function together at different levels (Day, 2002; Carrell, 1989).

However, the interactive model appears to be the most promising in helping to explain the reading process. It encompasses different types of first language and second language reading; it incorporates both bottom-up and top-down processes and recognizes the contribution of both the reader and the text (Grabe, 1991). The interactive model description recognizes other language factors, which are either taken for granted in the top-down model or are over emphasized in the bottom-up model. The interactive model also recognizes reader variables such as background knowledge, prediction, and other global reading processes which are either unaccounted for in bottom-up models or accounted for in top-down models for everything about reading. Over the past decades, there has been sustained interest in promoting reading as a significant and viable means of language development for foreign language learners (Susser & Robb, 1990). Some researchers classify reading strategies according to the time they are used – before, during, or after reading. Others categorize these strategies as either global or local according to the part of the text on which they focus (Young & Oxford, 1997). Aebersold and Field (1997) maintain that while reading, people's minds constantly engage in different complex processes. They start by processing information at the sentence level by using bottom-up strategies. They focus on identification of a word's meaning and grammatical category, on sentence structure, on text details, and so forth. During this process, readers constantly check their own schemata to see if the new information fits using top-down strategies such as background knowledge and prediction (Barnett, 1988; Carrell, 1989).

The learning of English language by TNI students is made problematic in regards to reading because they lack motivation due to the instructional contents being lacking interest. The contents are not suitable for application in the daily lives of TNI students. Thus, instructional management

must depend on the learner's level of interest and ability to increase motivation to read (Oxford, 1990).

In conclusion, the researcher created EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems that passed expert appraisal for study improvement in reading of first year TNI students in their third semester, in the academic year 2010 and the results derived from research will serve as a guideline for the improvement and development of instruction and instructional materials in subsequent semesters.

Research Purposes:

1) To develop and test efficiency of EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems

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

3) To survey the students' satisfaction towards the EFL supplementary reading materials in eight units.

Research Design

The data was gathered and analyzed as follows.

1. Population and sampling

1.1 The population is first year TNI students at TNI, Bangkok, in their third semester of the academic year 2010. There were 520 students from three faculties which are the Faculty of Business Administration, Faculty of Information Technology, Faculty of Engineering.

1.2 The sample consisted of 35 students, and was derived from a simple random sampling technique.

2. Contents used in experiment

The topics consisted of *Teen Pregnancy*, *Narcotic drug and teenagers*, *Murders and traffic death*, *Suicides caused economic and social losses*, *Divorce of parents*, *Robbery*, *Snatching and running away*, and *Dangerous from social networks* which were chosen based on a survey of needs questionnaire.

3. Duration in experiment

The experiment ran for 10 weeks (2 hours per week)

4. Variables

Variables in this study were as follows:

4.1 The English reading ability of first year TNI students before and after the class.

4.2 The satisfaction of first year TNI students with EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems.

5. Research Instruments

5.1 Eight lessons of EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems.

5.2 A one-hour English reading proficiency test (30 items: 30 scores).

5.3 A questionnaire constructed by the researcher assessing satisfaction with EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems.

6. Construction and Development of Research Instruments

The researcher constructed the EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems and the proficiency tests by the following means:

First, the researcher studied the objectives of EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems, and focused on English reading skills and strategies. Emphasis was placed on reading for main ideas, reading for topic sentences, reading for pronoun references, reading for facts and opinions, reading for sequencing events, reading for author's purposes, and reading for inferences.

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

Rank	Торіс	Mean	S.D	Meaning
1	Teen Pregnancy	4.65	0.52	Strongly agree
2	Narcotic drug and teenagers	4.62	0.50	Strongly agree
3	Murders and traffic death	4.60	0.83	Strongly agree
4	Suicides caused economic and social losses	4.56	0.49	Strongly agree
5	Divorce of parents	4.51	0.71	Strongly agree
6	Robbery	4.50	0.93	Strongly agree
7	Snatching and running away	4.43	0.34	agree
8	Dangerous from social networks	4.42	0.53	agree

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

Lastly, the constructed table was examined for IOC by experts and lesson plans were written for all eight lessons. Each lesson plan was composed of learning objectives, topics and contents, and reading activities consisting of a pre-reading activity, a while-reading activity and a post-reading activity.

The pre-reading activity included presenting pictures and answering the questions in order to lead the students to lessons and matching vocabulary with pictures.

While-reading was categorized into five groups: true/false; yes/no question; information gap; matching; and sequencing events.

Post-reading activities were divided into several types: semantic maps, information tables, and concept mapping.

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

Proficiency Test

Students were given a pre- and post-class proficiency tests. The tests had the same format and consisted of 30 items (30 scores). The duration of each test was 60 minutes. The researcher used the textbook, journal articles and related research as an outline to create the test. The researcher also created a table of specifications including reading skills and goals for each lesson, and then created

one set of proficiency tests following this table of test specifications. The researcher derived the difficulty and discrimination of the tests (P-R value) from standard criteria consisting of 30 items. Five experts examined, corrected and improved the accuracy, validity and reliability of the language and contents of the test. The test had a difficulty level between 0.20-0.80 and a rank of discrimination at 0.20 or over. The calculation of the test reliability was used K-R 20 by Kuder-Richardson (cited in Boonriang Khajonsil 2000: 165). Then, the proficiency test was used for sampling of the research.

Satisfaction Questionnaire

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

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

There were five components of satisfaction which were content, instructional design, teachinglearning activities, instructor, and evaluation. The data from the experts was applied using the following formula:

Ι	$OC = \Sigma \underline{R}$	
	Ν	
IOC	replaces	Index of item-Objective Congruence
R	replaces	Experts' opinions
Ν	replaces	Number of experts
	-	

Questions rated less than 0.5 by the experts were considered and improved. The data obtained from a small group experiment was analyzed to find reliability by using α -Coefficient formula stated by Cronbach (1974: 161). Coefficient of reliability was 0.85.

Data Collection

The program was first tested on a single student, and then on a small group of students, before being used on an actual class. Therefore, there were three phases of data collection:

Phase 1

One TNI student who was not included in the test group went through the EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems, and took the 30-question pre- and post-tests. This enabled the researcher to investigate behavior, listen to the student's point of view, answer questions, and troubleshoot problems with the eight units and the proficiency tests. The student scored 62 out of 80 on the eight lesson tests, or 77.50%. On the post-test, the student scored 23 out of 30, or 76.66%. The effectiveness of EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems was 77.50/76.66. The highest score was on lesson 1 *Teen Pregnancy* (80%), and the lowest on lesson 3, *Murders and traffic death* (70%).

Phase 2

A small group of nine students then took the EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems, with tests after each lesson, and took the post-test. In this phase, the researcher recorded

the problems and suggestions in order to improve the effectiveness of the lessons. The scores derived from each lesson and scores from the ability posttest were calculated as 81.80/82.59. These nine students scored 589 out of 720 (81.80%) on the lesson tests. On the post-test, the students scored 223 out of 270, or 82.59%. Hence, the effectiveness of the English reading instruction was 81.80/82.59. The highest scores were from lesson 2 *Narcotic drug and teenagers* (85.50%), the lowest from lesson 7 *Snatching and running away* (76%).

Phase 3

Next, 35 students took the reading course and the post-test. The scores derived from each lesson and scores from the posttest were calculated at 79.86/81.14. Students scored 2,236 out of 2,800 (79.86%) on the lesson tests. On the posttest, the students scored 852 out of 1,050, 81.14%, with an improvement of 75%. The highest scores were from lesson 1 *Teen Pregnancy* (84.00%), the lowest from lesson 7 *Robbery* (78%).

Statistic Used in Data Analysis

1. The lesson effectiveness was determined by using E1/E2 formula followed 75/75 criteria.

2. The comparison between the pretest and posttest was done using t-test, which was calculated by SPSS/PC for Windows XP.

3. The data from the questionnaire were rated to find the mean and standard deviation and then translated based on criteria developed by Best (1981) as follows:

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

Results of the data analysis

Phase 1: Tests were given to all 35 students after each of the eight units. The statistics used in the data analysis consisted of mean (\bar{x}), standard deviation (S.D.), percentage and rank order of scores in each unit. The lesson tests received a mean score over 75% for each unit. The highest scores came from lesson 1 *Teen Pregnancy* (84.00%), the lowest from lesson 7 *Robbery* (78%).

Phase 2: Comparison of the before and after tests for the 35 students were as follows:

ſ	Test	Total core	(x)	S.D.	(\overline{D})	S.D. (\overline{D})	t	Sig
Ī	Pretest	35	9.62	2.86				
					14.87	3.69	38.720*	0.000
	Posttest	35	24.49	4.52				

* Statistical significance at 0.05 level

The post-test scores were higher than the pretest scores by 0.05 (Sig = 0.000 < 0.05). The mean score of the posttest was 24.49, higher than the pretest (9.62 out of 30). The difference between the pre-test and post-test scores was 14.87, and for the t-test it was 38.720. Results indicated that students reading ability was improved by the course, affirming hypothesis 2.

Phase 3: The results of the student satisfaction questionnaire were as follows:

The mean scores of all eight units was 4.69 (S.D. =0.53). The highest mean score was on unit 1 (\bar{x} = 4.70, S.D. =0.50). The second highest mean score was on unit 3 (\bar{x} = 4.64, S.D. =0.66). The lowest

mean score was on unit 7 ($\bar{x} = 4.28$, S.D. =0.89). The overall mean score of eight units was 4.69 (S.D.= 0.53). The results indicate high student satisfaction with the EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems, affirming hypothesis 3.

Conclusions

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

1. The efficiency of the EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems for first year TNI students in this experiment was 79.86/81.14 which was higher than determined criteria (75/75). It was demonstrated that the EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems for this group of L2 learners was very effective, confirming hypothesis 1.

2. Ability in English reading after learning by this method of instruction was improved at statistical significance at 0.05 level, confirming hypothesis 2.

3. These L2 learners indicated high satisfaction with the EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems, confirming hypothesis 3.

Discussion

Results of the study indicate:

1. The efficiency of the EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems was higher than the determined criteria. This may be on account of following:

1.1 The EFL supplementary reading materials based on social problems used specific English contents which the TNI students were able to analyze critically, and students had the background knowledge to understand the contents. This is advocated by Carrell (1983) who stated that background knowledge has played an important role in reading comprehension development for a long time. The effectiveness of background knowledge in improving reading comprehension indicates the constructive nature of comprehension, and the critical role of the reader's prior knowledge in that construction. In addition, the TNI undergraduate students might be familiar with the contents of the social problems because they had background knowledge about it which would make it easier to understand (Goodman, 1994; Koda, 2005; Sadoski, Paivio, and Goetz, 1991).

1.2 The teaching-learning activity in each unit was constructed according to an English reading theory developed by Williams (1994), and Freebody and Luke (1992). They started learners with easy activities, progressing to more difficult activities for pre-reading, and asking question in while-reading activities to check the students' understanding. In the post-reading stage, the researcher created semantic maps and information charts to help the learners fill in information in the correct way. Furthermore, the learners used reading strategies to assist in reading comprehension (Young and Oxford, 1997; Aebersold and Field, 1997; Grabe, 2003; Carrell, 1989; Harris, Albert, and Sipay, 1979).

1.3 The course was designed in accordance with experts' views on objective learning, prereading, while-reading, and post-reading activities. The contents fell into the category of specific English. The learners were able to use a reading strategy in learning because comprehending textual discourse structures is an important aspect of a reader's overall reading abilities (Trabasso and Bouchard, 2002; Grabe, 2004).

2. The students reading ability improved at the 0.05 level. This may be accounted for by the learners' satisfaction with, and interest in the required contents. The course integrated teaching English reading with strategies, semantic maps, and charts which were familiar to TNI undergraduate students (Aebersold and Field, 1997; Barnett, 1988; Carrell, 1989; Grabe, 2004).

3. Survey results indicated students were highly satisfied with the course, confirming hypothesis 3. This seemed to be because they understood and applied reading strategies. Results also confirmed statements of the educational theorist, Alderson (1984), who reported that skilled readers tend to keep the meaning of the passage in mind, read in broad phrases, skip words, and read with confidence. Moreover, positive thinking created more proficient readers to use a greater variety and often a greater number of reading strategies (Anderson, 2002; Green and Oxfrod, 1995; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Haas, 1988; Honsefeld, 1977; Krashen, 1987).

Recommendations

1. For classroom research, the content of social problems should be created in English reading instruction through Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL).

2. For further research, researchers could investigate and compare CALL with learning by instructor's teaching.

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English Academic Writing Problems of a Thai Graduate Student

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Abstract

Since writing an English academic paper is an important writing skill for graduate students, this case study was motivated to examine academic writing problems faced by a graduate student and to investigate factors of the writing problems through a mixed-method approach. A doctoral student in Animal Science Program at a Thai university volunteered to take part in this research. The participant's drafted manuscript and a face-to-face interview were employed as research instruments. The participant met with the researchers 10 times; each time for going through the draft together and identifying his writing problems and factors that may cause such problems. Data from the manuscript and the interview were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively. Primary or document analysis was applied to analyze writing problems in the drafted manuscript, followed by frequency counts and percentage. Content analysis was also used to analyze the interview data. The finding revealed 10 writing problems relating to verbs, nouns, word choices, clauses and phrases, prepositions, punctuation, word order, fragments, connectors and word forms. It was also found that four major factors causing the writing problems were word-by-word translation, a lack of vocabulary and grammar knowledge, mechanical problems, and misunderstanding of grammatical usage. This study could be beneficial for graduate students to learn how to write an academic paper and for English teachers to plan what to teach their graduate students to write for academic purposes.

KEYWORDS: Academic writing, Error analysis

Introduction

English is the dominant or official language used by people in more than 60 countries on every continent (Crystal, 1997) and is a *lingual franca*. Similarly, English is widely used in Thailand for both academic and business purposes. Since the reform of the National Education Act of B.E. 2542 (1999), the study of English is mandatory for every level of education in Thailand.

As Thai students study English in an EFL context, in which the language is used in limited situations, one of the problems often found in English education in Thailand is related to writing skill. Especially, at a university level, academic writing is one of the most essential skills for graduate students, as they are required to write an academic paper in English. However, writing for academic purposes is not easy. According to Powers' survey in 1994, non-native graduate students encountered a number of writing problems including problems relating to text organization, synthesis, clarity, conciseness, and editing. As graduate students are inexperienced researchers and writers who must start on the art of academic writing (Mullen, n.d.), training on academic writing is essential for them. Hence, this case study aimed to examine the most frequent writing problems made by the graduate student and to investigate reasons to explain the problems.

Literature Review

Writing skill is one of the important and challenging skills for language learners (Walsh, 2010). Writing is considered as a simple way to interact with friends and instructors and to express oneself. In addition, writing is used widely in higher education and work, particularly academic writing (Bailey, 2011; Fahmida ,2010; Freak & Swales, 2004; Heasley & Lyons, 2006; Henry & Roseberry, 2007; Hinnon, 2007; Hogue & Oshima, 2006).

In learning to write in another language, learners' errors are an unavoidable element, for it is impossible for language learners to learn or acquire a language without error-making (Dulay, Burt and Krashen, 1982, quoted in Bunlomchon). Students' errors are acknowledged as an essential part of reflection on teaching as well as learning (Corder, 1981: 35, cited in Bunlomchon). Corder (1967, cited in Richards, 1984) claims that learners' errors can disclose the methodology of the language employed or studied. Thus a number of studies focus on analysis of errors produced by second language learners for numerous purposes, for example, to reveal what learners use when learning a second language, to show the sources of errors which learners commit, and to know what the usual obstacles in L2 learning are.

Corder (1981, quoted in Pengpanit, 2005) believes that error analysis (EA) is important in both theoretical and practical aspects. Theoretically, EA can inform researchers about language acquisition, along with psychological process of the language acquisition. Practically, EA allows teachers to learn the extent of knowledge to which their learners know and what they need to study more (Bebout, 1974; Corder, 1973). In addition, EA makes teachers realize what causes learners learning difficulties and what aids them in understanding more easily. More importantly, it can contribute to curriculum improvement. EA can also answer whether or not learners are doing well in the target language and which level they are EA may reveal how much teaching materials and methods are effective. It suggests which lessons lead to learning trouble and how instructors resolve such problems.

Ellis (2000) distinguishes EA's processes into four steps. First, errors are diagnosed (Error Identification). After errors are identified, the next step is to describe and categorize them into each linguistic pattern (Error Description). Then they are explained why they are committed (Error Explanation). The final step is needed to inform learners about their errors and what errors they should pay more attention (Evaluating Errors).

Research Questions

Apart from the advantages of EA in language studies, this case study was motivated by the fact that few EA studies in Thailand have focused on writing an academic paper for publication. This study was guided by the two following research questions:

- 1) What are the most frequent writing problems made by the graduate student?
- 2) What factors influence the writing errors?

Methodology

Participant

This study recruited one participant who volunteered to participate. The participant was a third-year graduate student from the Animal Science Program in the Faculty of Agriculture at a Thai university. This student had passed the English proficiency test of the university.

Instruments

The study employed two research instruments. First, a draft of an eight-page manuscript written by the graduate student was used to identify academic writing problems. Face-to-face interviews were employed to ask for the participant's reflection on his writing.

Data Collection

The participant was recruited through a cooperative project between Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences and Faculty of Agriculture. Then we had a first meeting with the participant informing him about our project. After he consented to participate in the study, eight meeting times were conducted—two times a week and about two hours per each session. In the meeting, the researchers went through the manuscript with the participant, identifying writing errors, asking him about reasons behind the error production, and correcting the errors together. As the researchers are non-native English speakers, the identification of errors and their corrections were done before the meetings by consulting with native English teachers.

Data Analysis

A mixed-method approach was used to investigate the graduate student's writing problems and sources of errors. Linguistic error analysis (Ellis, 2000) was used to analyze the manuscript, following four steps including error identification, error description, error explanation and error evaluation. Content analysis (Miles & Huberman, 2004) was also utilized for interview data to categorize the grammatical problems and classify factors causing the graduate's writing errors. The quantitative analysis focused on frequency and percentage of problematic grammatical points. Only errors that appeared more than 10 times in the manuscript were included in the study.

Findings and Analysis

The Most Frequent Writing Problems

The analysis of the most frequent writing problems occurring in the manuscript written by the graduate student showed that the most frequent lexico-grammatical errors included 10 errors, relating to verbs, nouns, vocabulary, clauses and phrases, propositions, punctuation, word order, fragments, connectors, and word forms (see Table 1).

1. Verbs

As seen in Table 1, verbs are the most frequent writing error made by this graduate student (18.83%). Verb errors occurred 45 times which can be classified as four types: subject-verb agreement, passive voice, tenses and modal verbs. Among these categories, the most frequent verb problem was subject-verb agreement. The participant used singular nouns with plural verbs and plural nouns with singular verbs.

For example:

• Bovine mastitis is one of the most costly economic loss disease that <u>lead</u> to negative impact to dairy farming worldwide.

Grammatical Points	Frequency	Percentage
Verbs	45	18.83
 subject-verb agreement 	19	7.95
 passive voice 	18	7.52
 tenses 	6	2.51
 modal verbs 	2	0.83
Nouns	37	15.48
 number of nouns 	18	7.53
 determiners 	9	3.76
 relative pronouns 	8	3.34
 quantifiers 	2	0.83
Word choice	35	14.65
Clauses and phrases	24	10.04
 adjective clauses 	17	7.11
 participle phrases 	6	2.51
 infinitive phrases 	1	0.41
Prepositions	21	8.79
Punctuation	19	7.95
Word order	16	6.69
Fragments	16	6.69
Connectors	14	5.86
Word form	12	5.02

 Table 1 Most frequent writing problems found in the graduate student's paper

2. Nouns

The second most frequent problem of this graduate student was related to using nouns in his academic paper (15.48%). This type of errors can be grouped into four areas of noun usage: number of nouns, determiners, relative pronouns, and quantifiers. The number of nouns was the most common noun problem (7.53%). The participant did not make a singular form of nouns for uncountable nouns, nor did he use plural forms for countable nouns.

For example:

• In our preliminary comparison on protein expression when different of <u>pathogen</u> that stimulates mammary gland responses.

3. Word Choice

Word choice was ranked the third writing problem of the participant. The total number of word choice problems was 35 counts (14.46%). The participant could not use words appropriately with the meaning which he tried to express. In the example below, it should be better to replace "to get rid of" with a more academically acceptable phrase such as "to eliminate."

For examples:

• One strategy is improve their own ability <u>to get rid of</u> the infective agent by either selecting or inducing enhanced immune responses

4. Clauses and phrases

Incorrect use of clauses and phrases were found 24 times in the paper: 17 for adjective clauses, 6 for participle phrases and 1 for an infinitive phrase. The following example depicts an incorrect use of an adjective clause. In this sentence, the participant could not use an adjective clause to modify preceding sentences correctly and appropriately.

For example:

• The second one is subclinical <u>mastitis, there is</u> no change on udder and milk by eye observation

5. Prepositions

Prepositions were also used incorrectly by the graduate student. Only 21 counts (8.79%) were found in the manuscript.

For example:

• Bovine mastitis is one of the most costly economic loss disease that lead to negative impact <u>to</u> dairy farming worldwide.

6. Punctuation

Punctuation used by the graduate student was also found to be ungrammatical. The total frequency of this problem was 19 (7.95%). The participant often forgot to put a period at the end of sentences; moreover, sometimes he did not put a comma or semicolon to connect clauses within sentences.

For example:

- Incidence of subclinical mastitis is 24-89.7 percents
- Proteomics approach especially studies on milk protein profiles and pathogens are important to help a better understanding on changes that happen in mammary gland when response to invading pathogen.

7. Word order

The seventh most common type of writing problems was word order. This problematic type of errors occurred 16 times (6.69%). The following example shows that the participant did not arrange words, such as adverbs and adjectives, to modify other words properly.

For example:

- In our <u>comparison preliminary</u> on protein expression when different of pathogen that stimulates mammary gland responses.
- *The comparison of protein expression when different pathogenic bacteria are <u>some</u> <u>point different</u>.*

8. Fragments

Another writing problem is fragments. About 16 fragments (6.69%) were found in the manuscript. The participant did include neither subjects nor verbs in sentences.

For example:

- <u>The comparison of protein expression</u> when different pathogenic bacteria are some point different.
- And may irreversible develop to be the clinical mastitis.

9. Connectors

The next writing problem is an incorrect use of connectors in the manuscript (5.86%). The participant used connectors inappropriately and not academically.

For example:

• The inflammation of the mammary parenchyma tissue cause pathological changes to this tissue <u>, also</u> alter the milk physical and chemical changes due to milk synthetic capability of milk producing tissue decreased

10. Word form

The final writing problem made by the graduate student was about word form. Only 5.02% of the error was found. The participant did not use the forms of words—nouns, adjectives and adverbs—correctly.

For example:

• There were <u>attempted</u> to study for bovine mastitis problem solving.

Factors Influencing the Writing Problems

In addition to the most frequent writing errors made by the graduate student, the qualitative analysis reveals that the errors are caused by four major factors: word-by-word translation, lack of vocabulary and grammar knowledge, mechanical problems, and misunderstanding of grammatical usage.

1. Word-by-word translation

The participant's writing problems, especially relating to word choice and word order, were caused by word-by-word translation. The participant often said that he translated what he wanted to convey literally from Thai structures or Thai meanings to English. This led him to write incorrectly and unclearly. For example, he used the words "eye observation" instead of only using "observation" because he literally translated from Thai word "สังเกตด้วยตา" (literally translated as 'observed by eyes'). He also used the words "the most problem" instead of "the biggest problem" because he translated them from Thai words "ปัญหาใหญ่ที่สุด".

2. Lack of vocabulary and grammar knowledge

The interview data revealed that one important reason to support the graduate student's production of the writing problems was due to his limited English vocabulary and grammar knowledge. For example, he often gave reasons why he made lexico-grammatical errors that "*I don't know 'loss' is a countable noun*" or "*I don't know the word 'eliminate' will sound more academic.*" This shows that his vocabulary and grammatical difficulties were caused by limited English knowledge.

3. Mechanic problems

Carelessness is another factor causing the graduate student's writing problems. The participant often forgot to put a full stop at the end of sentences or neglect punctuation. For example, he said, "I forgot to put a full stop as I wrote hurriedly" and "I didn't check the spelling of *comparison*."

4. Misunderstanding of lexico-grammatical usage

The last factor of writing problems is misunderstanding of lexico-grammatical usage. The graduate student often interpreted the meanings of words by himself, so it could lead him to use unsuitable words, for instance. For example, he wrote:

some proteins detection and identification in groups of mastitis cows, haptoglobin and amyloid A3 <u>have identified</u> in the milk from cows with mastitis.

The underlined verbs "have identified" should be written as a passive form "have been identified." However, he admitted that he used *have identified* as he thought that a passive form doesn't need verb to be.

Discussion and Conclusion

The most frequent writing problems found in this research study support the findings from previous studies. The fact that verbs and nouns are the two most frequent errors in academic writing corresponds to Hinnon's (2007) and Ayurawatana's (2002) studies in which graduate students had problems with using verbs and nouns in their academic writing. The students from both studies used singular verbs with plural nouns and plural verbs with singular nouns. Similar to Ayurawatana's finding (2002), incorrect use of punctuation was one of the most frequent errors. In addition, our findings support Henry and Roseberry's (2007) and Fahmida's (2010) in that the students had problems about word choice and tenses and prepositions and subject-verb agreement in writing for academic purposes. These suggest that the lexical and grammatical features that often become obstacles of the students in academic writing should be focused on when teaching writing to graduate students.

The reasons underpinning the graduate student's writing problems are interesting. Word-by-word translation was one of factors influencing the student's writing errors. This may be explained by the fact that the graduate student used their first language (L1) knowledge in writing the English academic paper. In second language acquisition, this L1 interference phenomenon can happen when the learners' L1 structures are very different from their second language (Jarvis & Odlin, 2000). L1 interference influences the use of grammatical features in second language writing (Altenberg & Granger, 2001; Altenberg, 2002; Hinkel, 2002; Jarvis & Odlin, 2000); however, in some cases it can cause writing errors (Fahmida, 2010).

This study has a limitation. Since it is a case study, including one participant and one manuscript, the results cannot be generalized. Further studies should include more participants and samples of manuscripts so as to obtain more reliable results. Above all, the case study should be beneficial for teachers who teach academic writing and graduate students who have to write academic papers. In particular, common errors and authentic examples found in this case study could be used as a database in designing and developing a manual or material for academic English writing as well as an academic writing course. At least, this study can inform English teachers at the university where the project was conducted about what to be included in an English writing course of graduate students, particularly for Agriculture or Animal Science students.

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The Translation of Cultural Terms from Thai into English

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Abstract

The aim of this paper is to study the problems of cultural term translation and cultural term translation strategies from Thai into English. With regard to the particular problems of cultural term translation from Thai into English, the translators always face the following problems: the overlap in the meanings of the cultural terms between the source language and the target language, and no cultural terms in the target language. In addition, the translators use the following strategies to solve these problems: translation by a more general word (superordinate), a specific word, cultural substitution, using a loan word or a loan word plus explanation, paraphrase, and omission.

1. Introduction

According to Decha (2006, pp. 16-18); Snell-Hornby (1995, p. 46, citing Vermeer 1986), translation relates to intercultural communication because it is the important tool for transferring knowledge, culture, and understanding throughout the world. Larson (1984, pp. 431) states that "language is a part of culture and, therefore, translation from one language to another cannot be done adequately without a knowledge of the two cultures as well as the two language structures because each society will interpret a message in terms of its own culture. The receptor audience will understand the translation in terms of his own culture and experience, not in terms of the culture and experience of the author and audience of source language." Thus, the translator must know the source culture and the target culture, and try to help the receptor audience understand the meaning of the source language by transferring meaning from one patterned set of symbols occurring in a given culture into another set of patterned symbols in another culture (Decha, 2006, p. 17; Komissarov, 1991, pp. 33-34; Larson, 1984, p. 431, citing Dostert, 1955, p. 124, Ivir, 1975, p. 208; Patricia, 2002).

Translators always face problems when they translate cultural terms. In this paper, cultural terms mean the terms relating to the culture such as gestures and habit, kinship terms, planting, agriculture, seasons, architecture, games, sports, dances, clothes, food, literature, art work, music, education, history, ceremony, household utensils, institution, class, marital status, law, belief, and value. The first problem of cultural term translation from Thai into English is the overlap in the meanings of the cultural terms between the source language and the target language. For example, the meaning of "UTU" (yai) in Thai is narrower than "grandmother" in English because "UTU" (yai) means the mother of your mother but "grandmother" means the mother of your mother or father. Therefore, it is difficult to explain its meaning to the audience in other cultures.

In addition, cultural terms in the source language do not exist in the target language. For instance, translators cannot find the appropriate words when they translate Thai ceremonial terms which do not exist in English.

In order to solve these problems, this paper shows the translation strategies of the cultural terms from Thai into English. It contains five main parts: the concept of culture, the concept of

translation, the translation strategies of cultural terms from Thai into English, discussions, and conclusion. In the author's view, the results are useful for the translators and translation teachers.

2. The concept of culture

Theorists define culture in several aspects.

Margaret (1937, p. 17, cited by Varenne, n.d.) defines culture as "the whole complex of traditional behavior which has been developed by the human race and is successively learned by each generation. A culture is less precise. It can mean the forms of traditional behavior which are characteristics of a given society, or of a group of societies, or of a certain race, or of a certain area, or of a certain period of time."

In addition, Goodenough (1964, p. 36) cites that "culture is not a material phenomenon; it does not consist of things, people, behavior, or emotions. It is rather an organization of these things. It is the forms of things that people have in mind, for models for perceiving, relating and otherwise interpreting them." As we have seen, this definition relates to translation process because translators have to analyze the text before translating.

In terms of intercultural communication, Hammon (2011) explains that culture can be divided into two categories.

Big c or high culture is usually a large part of the idea of culture that many people have, or at least start with when they describe the nature of culture such as architecture, games, dance, clothes, literature, art work, music, education, history, and institutions.

Small or little c culture is internal culture or culture in the mind such as belief, value, etc. It is more powerful than big c culture.

In addition, Ratchatha (2007) cites that cultural term categorization helps the translator select the appropriate translation strategies easily. Cultural terms are categorized as follows:

Nida (1964, pp. 90-100) divides cultural terms into four main types.

- 1. Ecological terms such as seasonal, geographical and topographical terms.
- 2. Material terms such as planting, agriculture, etc.
- 3. Social terms such as class, marital status, and law.
- 4. Religious terms such as titles of deity words for sanctity, and holiness.

Besides, Newmark (1988) classifies cultural terms into five main groups.

- 1. Ecological terms such as seasons, rain, hills of various sizes, etc.
- 2. Material terms such as food, clothes, etc.
- 3. Social terms such as leisure activities, sports, etc.
- 4. Organizations, customs, ideas such as the title of a head of state, the name of a parliament, historical institutional terms, international institutional terms, religious activities, etc.
- 5. Gestures and habit terms such as wai in Thai.

As we have seen, Nida's categorization relates to both big c culture and small c culture: ecological terms, material terms, and religious terms are big c culture but social terms are small c culture. However, Newmark categorization relates to only big c culture.

3. The concept of translation

Theorists define translation in numerous aspects as follows:

According to Newmark (1981, p. 7), "translation is a craft consisting of the attempt to replace a written message and / or statement in one language by the same message and / or statement in another language."

Furthermore, Larson (1984, p. 3) defines translation as a process of transferring the meaning of the source language into the receptor language by studying the lexicon, grammatical structure, communication situation, and cultural context of the source language, analyzing the source language in order to determine its meaning, and then reconstructing this same meaning using the lexicon and grammatical structure which are appropriate in the receptor language and its cultural context. As we have seen, this definition relates to culture.

In terms of translation problems, Ali (2006), Bahameed (2008), Baker (2005), and Larson (1984) explain that the difference of the connotative or emotive meanings of words between source language and target language can cause the problem such as "Home" and "חשׁוש" (ban). In general, "home" means the place where you live. In addition, connotative meanings of "home" refer to warmth, and family. However, "חשׁוש" (ban) means the place where you live. Thus, it is difficult for the translators to find Thai word including the connotative meanings like "home" in English.

According to Baker (2005), Catford (1965, pp. 95-103), and Saibua (1999), the translators face the problems when they find the overlap in the meanings of the cultural terms between the source language and the target language such as "M1" (ta) and "grandfather". The meaning of "M1" (ta) in Thai is narrower than "grandfather" in English because "M1" (ta) means the father of your mother but "grandfather" means the father of your mother or father. Therefore, it is difficult to explain its meaning to the audience in other cultures.

In addition, Baker (2005), Catford (1965, pp. 95-103), Nida (1964, pp. 90-100), Pinmanee (2005, pp. 283-325), Saibua (1999), Suphon (1998, p. 35), and Thriveni (2002) cite that the translators encounter the problem when cultural terms in the source language do not exist in the target language such as plants, animals, technological devices, social values, point of view, etc. It is difficult not only for the audiences in other cultures to understand the meanings of these cultural terms but also the translators to find the appropriate words in the target language.

The translators use seven following strategies to solve these problems.

1. Translation by a more general word (superordinate)

Baker (2005), and Saibua (1999) explain that "this is the process which translators find the wider meaning of the word in target language". For instance, "Nounos" (foithong) can be translated as dessert.

2. Translation by a more neutral/less expressive word

Baker (2005, p. 30) states that the translators use this strategy when they cannot fine the word in the target language which are the same expressive meaning as the word in the source language. For example, "กรีกกรี้น" (kreukkreun) can be translated as "very enjoyable".

3. Translation by cultural substitution

According to Baker (2005), "this strategy involves replacing a culture-specific item or expression with a target-language item which does not have the same meaning but is likely to have a similar impact on the target reader. The main advantage of using this strategy is that it gives the reader a concept with which she/he can identify something familiar and appealing." To illustrate, "acre" can be translated as "\sigmas" (rai).

4. Translation using a loan word or loan word plus explanation

Baker (2005), Barnwell (1980), & Larson (1984) define a loan word as "a word which has been borrowed from another language and adopted into the new language." In addition, Baker (2005) explains that this strategy is particularly common in dealing with culture-specific items, and modern concepts. For instance, "กินรี" (kinnari) can be translated as "kinnaree".

5. Translation by paraphrase

Paraphrase is the strategy which the translators explain the meanings of the words. This strategy can be divided into two types.

5.1 Translation by paraphrase using a related word

Baker (2005, p. 37) states that "this strategy is used when a concept expressed by source language is lexicalized in target language but in a different form." For example, "excitedly" can be translated as "ด้วยท่าทางดื่นเด้น" (duaithathangteunten). The word "excitedly" and "ด้วยท่าทางดื่นเด้น" (duaithathangteunten) are the same meaning but the forms are different: "excitedly" is adverb but "ด้วยท่าทางดื่นเด้น" (duaithathangteunten) is prepositional phrase.

5.2 Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words

Baker (2005, p. 38) explains that "paraphrase using unrelated words by modifying a superordinate/general word can be used in a specific context if the meaning expressed by the source item cannot be lexicalized in target language." For instance, "เรืออีแปะ" (reua I pae) can be translated as "little flat-bottomed boat".

6. Translation by omission

According to Baker (2005), Decha (2006, p. 160), and Saibua (1999), the translators can omit that particular word or expression from the translation if the meaning conveyed by a specific item or expression is not necessary for the audience in his/her understanding of the text.

Example:

Source language: "In *foolish tears*, back to your native spring;"

Target language: "<u>น้ำตาแห้งไปพลัน</u>, กลับลื่นสู่แหล่งเดิมไป;" (Aungsuwan, 2007, citing Anusatnan, 2001, p. 50) As we have seen, the word "foolish" is omitted in the target language.

7. Translation by illustration

Baker (2005, p. 42) explains that "this is a useful option if the word which lacks an equivalent in target language refers to a physical entity which can be illustrated, particularly if there are restrictions on space and if the text has to remain short, concise, and to the point." For instance, "tagged" can be translated as "tagged teabags" into Arabic. The translator has to give short explanations and illustration of tagged teabag (Baker, 2005 p. 42).

4. The Translation Strategies of Cultural Terms from Thai into English

There are many studies on translation strategies from Thai into English (Aungsuwan, 2007, pp. 172-187; Boonchote, 2000; Bunrod, 2001; Buranapong, 2001; Charoennitniyom, 2009; Decha, 2006; Inboon, 2004; Jarumetheechon, 2003; Klinkajorn, 2002; Ratchatha, 2007; Roekmongkhonwit, 2006; Wongsawan, Aungsuwan, & Teprattana, 2008, pp. 251-276). In terms of cultural term translation from Thai into English, the results from the previous studies show six main translation strategies described as follows:

1. Translation by a more general word (superordinate)

This strategy is used when the translators find the overlap in the meanings of the cultural terms between the source language and target language as shown in the following example.

Kinship terms

Example 1

Source language : "เสียงของ<u>ลุง</u> (*lung*) ตองดังมาจากในครัวเรือนใหญ่" (Aungsuwan, 2007, citing Vejjajiva, 2006, p. 53)

Target language: "<u>Uncle</u> Dong's voice sounded from the kitchen." (Aungsuwan, 2007, citing Borthwick, 2006, p. 54)

As shown in the above example, the meaning of "uncle" is wider than "ब्र्ग" (lung) in the source language because "uncle" means the younger brother of your parents, or the elder brother of your parents but "ब्र्ग" (lung) means the elder brother of your parents. In the author's view, this translation strategy may confuse the audience in other cultures. Because "uncle" contains two meanings it is difficult for the audience to choose the appropriate meaning. Thus, the translator should explain the exact meaning by adding the footnote.

2. Translation by a specific word

This strategy is used when cultural terms in the source language do not exist in the target language as illustrated in the following examples.

2.1 Clothes

Example 2

Source language: "ข้าพเจ้าหัวเราะหึ ๆ เดินเลยขึ้นปางพัก... โยนกางเกงผ้าบลูยีนขายาวไว้บนราว และนุ่ง<u>กางเกงแพร</u> (<u>kangkengphrae</u>) สีเขียว แล้วกลับลงไปข้างล่าง" (Jarumetheechon, 2003, p. 44, citing Srinawk, 2002, p. 142)

Target language : "I laughed politely and went on to my room... hung my blue jeans over a rail and put on green <u>Chinese silk pajamas</u> and went back down." (Jarumetheechon, 2003, p. 44, citing Garnden, 2001, p. 47)

As illustrated in the above example, "הזאוהאנושה" (kangkengphrae) which is the big c cultural term is translated as "Chinese silk pajamas". The meaning of "Chinese silk pajamas" in the translated version is more specific because "הזאוהאנושה" (kangkengphrae) means silk pants resembling pyjamas. Jarumetheechon (2003, p. 45) explains that the translator uses the specific word in the target language because these pants are widely understood by the Thai audience as Chinese-style pants, but they may be unfamiliar to the audience in other cultures. Therefore, this strategy is used to help the audience understand the meaning of this cultural term more easily.

2.2 Household utensils

Example 3

Source language : "<u>ปิ่นโต</u> (*pinto*) เป็นของรักของกะทิ" (Aungsuwan, 2007, citing Vejjajiva, 2006, p. 16) Target language : "Kati loved her <u>tin lunch container</u>." (Aungsuwan, 2007, citing Borthwick, 2006, p. 7)

In the above example, the big c cultural term, "ปิ่นโต" (pinto) is translated as "tin lunch container". The meaning of "tin <u>lunch container</u>" is more specific because "ปิ่นโต" (pinto) means food container.

3. Translation by cultural substitution

This strategy is used when cultural terms in source language do not exist in target language as shown in the examples below.

3.1 Measurement

Example 4

Source language :	"ถัดออกไปห่างจากกระท่อมประมาณ <i>สิบวา (พล)</i> บนท่อนไม้ที่มองเห็นตะคุ่ม อินถายังกงนั่งคืดซึง คัง
	แผ่ว ๆ บางครั้งก็เงียบไปนาน แล้วจึงแว่วขึ้นอีกอย่างกระท่อนกระแท่น" (Jarumetheechon, 2003,
	p. 31, citing Srinawk, 2002, p. 138)
Target language :	"About <i>twenty yards</i> away Ingham was sitting on a log plunking glumly at
	his mandolin, the melody faltering." (Jarumetheechon, 2003, p. 31, citing
	Garnden, 2001, p. 45)

As shown in this example, "דר" (wa) which is the big c cultural term is translated as "yard". Jarumetheechon (2003, p. 31) cites that "a wah is a Thai unit of length roughly equivalent to two yards". In the translated version, Thai measurement, "מוטח" (ten wah), is changed to English

measurement, "20 yards", in order to help the audience in other cultures understand the meaning of the translated version more easily.

3.2 Musical instruments

Example 5

Source language : "เรารับประทานอาหารกลางวันที่กลางป่า แล้วกลับถึงปางพักเวลาบ่ายเล็กน้อย พบเพื่อนผู้มีความสุข ของข้าพเจ้านั่งโยกตัวคีด<u>ซึง</u> (seung)_เหยงๆ อยู่คนเดียว" (Jarumetheechon, 2003, p. 30, citing Srinawk, 2002, p. 128) Target language : Soon after lunch in the forest I returned to camp to find my friend alone, cheerfully plunking his <u>mandolin</u>." (Jarumetheechon, 2003, p. 30, citing Garnden, 2001, p. 38)

As illustrated in this example, the big c cultural term, "🖏" (seung), is translated as "mandolin". Jarumetheechon (2003, p. 30) explains that "🖏" (seung) is "a local Thai musical instrument of the lute family with three strings". In the translated version, "mandolin" which is the string musical instrument in the target culture is replaced in order to help the audience in other cultures understand the meaning of the translated version more easily.

3.3 Vehicles

Example 6

Source language : "ตาบอกว่า ถ้าจะลงทะเลตอนนี้ เห็นที่จะต้องเรียก<u>สามล้อ</u> (<u>samlo</u>) ให้พาไปส่ง" (Wongsawan,

Aungsuwan, & Teprattana, 2008, citing Vejjajiva, 2006, p. 63)

Target language : "Grandpa said that if you wanted to swim at this hour, you'd have to call a *taxi* to get you there." (Wongsawan & others, 2008, citing Borthwick, 2006, p. 68)

In this example, "สามส้อ" (samlo) which is the big c cultural term is translated as "taxi". In the translated version, "taxi" which is the vehicle in the target culture is replaced in order to help the audience in other cultures understand the meaning of the translated version more easily.

4. Translation using a loan word or loan word plus explanation

Decha (2006) cites that this strategy is used when the translators want to maintain the names of the original terms in Thai, and when there are no English terms that have close meanings to the original cultural terms as illustrated in the following examples.

4.1 Food

Example 7

Source language : "คงเป็นเพราะรสชาติแบบอาหารอีสาน โดยเฉพาะ<u>ส้มตำ (Somtam</u>) ใก่ทอด ที่แซ่บถูกใจคนชอบรสจัด"

Target language : "Here is the best place for Isaan tasty foods, especially "<u>Som Tum</u>" or Thai papaya salad, and other Northeastern barbecued chicken. All are appetizing for spicy food lovers." (Roekmongkhonwit, 2006, p. 100, citing *Jatujak Market Guidebook*, 2004)

As shown in the above example, the big c cultural term, "สัมตำ" (Somtam), is translated as "Som Tum". The translator borrows this cultural term, "Som Tum", from Thai and explain the meaning by using the phrase, "Thai papaya salad", in order to help the audience in other cultures understand the meaning easily.

4.2 Gestures

Example 8

 Source language : "การ<u>ไหว้</u> (<u>wai</u>) เป็นวัฒนธรรมไทยโบราณที่คำรงสืบสานต่อกันเรื่อยมาจนปัจจุบัน ลักษณะสำคัญอยู่ที่ การประนมมือทั้งสองข้างให้ทาบทับกันสนิท แสดงออกด้วยกิริยาท่าทางอันอ่อนช้อยงดงามตามวิถีแห่ง ความเป็นไทย"
 Target language : Thai people greet each other by putting together the palms of their hands and modesty bowing their heads in a show of respect. This gesture (<u>Wai</u>) is a

modesty bowing their heads in a show of respect. This gesture (*Wai*) is a traditional Thai custom passed from generation to generation." (Decha, 2006, p. 109, citing Kinnaree Magazine, 2003, December)

As illustrated in the above example, "[nɔ]" (wai) which is the big c cultural term is translated as "Wai". The translator borrows this cultural term "wai" from Thai and explain the meaning by using the phrase, "this gesture", in order to help the audience in other cultures understand the meaning easily.

4.3 Belief

Example 9

Source language :	"สัตว์ทั้งหลาย มี <u>กรรม</u> (<u>kam</u>) เป็นของตน เป็นทายาทแห่ง <u>กรรม</u> (<u>kam</u>) มี <u>กรรม (kam</u>) เป็นกำเนิด มี
	<u>กรรม</u> (<i>kam</i>) เป็นเผ่าพันธุ์ มี <u>กรรม</u> (<i>kam</i>) เป็นที่พึ่งอาศัย" (Buranapong, 2001, p. 97, citing
	Payutto, 1997, p. 162)
Target language :	"All beings are the owners of their <i>kamma</i> , heirs to their <i>kamma</i> , born of their
	kamma, related to their kamma, supported by their kamma." (Buranapong,
	2001, p. 97, citing Payutto, 1999, p. 100)

In this example, the small c cultural term, "nรรม (kam), is translated as "kamma". The cultural term, "kamma" is borrowed from the source language. The translator uses this strategy in order to maintain the names of the original term.

5. Translation by paraphrase

This strategy is used when cultural terms in the source language do not exist in the target language as shown in the following examples.

5.1 Buildings

Example 10

Source language : "... มีครบทั้ง เรือนนอน เรือนรี เรือนขวาง ตลอดจนเรือนครัวและ<u>ทอนก</u> (<u>honok</u>)" (Aungsuwan, 2007, citing Vejjajiva, 2006, pp. 112)

Target language : "... complete with sleeping quarters, children's quarters, a lofty hall for receiving guests, a kitchen, and a *long gallery in which to hang birdcages*" (Aungsuwan, 2007, citing Borthwick, 2006, p. 132)

As illustrated in this example, "noun" (honok) is a part of Thai traditional house which is the big c cultural term. It is translated as "long gallery in which to hang birdcages". This strategy is used in order to explain the appearance of "noun" (honok) to the audience in other cultures.

5.2 Wedding Utensils

Example11

Source language : "ในวันสุกดิบ ฝ่ายชายต้องจัดการแห่<u>ขันหมาก</u> (*khanmak*) ผ้าใหว้ ไปยังบ้านเจ้าสาว"

Target language : "On the eve of the important day, the groom-to-be's party carry the *bridal gifts* and fabrics *material* in a procession to his fiancée's home." (Decha, 2006, p. 94, citing Kinnaree Magazine, 1995, November)

In the above example, the big c cultural term, "Jumuna" (khanmak), is translated as "bridal gifts". The translator uses this strategy in order to explain the meaning of Thai wedding utensil to the audience in other cultures.

5.3 Belief

Example 12

Source language : "กรรมในช่วงขาวไกลที่สุด คือ ผลจาก<u>ชาติก่อน</u> (*chatkon*) และผลในชาติหน้า" (Buranapong, 2001, p. 44, citing Payutto, 1997, p. 102)

Target language : "... must first be convinced of the fruition of kamma on the long term basis, from <u>past lives</u> and into future lives." (Buranapong, 2001, p. 44, citing Payutto, 1999, p. 49)

As shown in this example, "ชาติก่อน" (chatkon) which is the small c cultural term is translated as "past live". This strategy is used in order to explain the meaning of this belief to the audience in other cultures.

6. Translation by omission

Decha (2006, p. 160) explains that the translators omit cultural terms from the target language because they are too specific. In addition, they may be useless for the readers or may not attract their interest or in some cases they may be untranslatable. The examples of omission are shown as follows:

6.1 Utensils

Example 13 Source language : "การเลือกวัสดุและส่วนผสมที่พอเหมาะพอดีเพื่อเตรียม "ดินดำ" เป็นเชื้อเพลิง ดอกไม้เพลิงแต่ละชนิดมี กุณสมบัติและชื่อเรียกแตกต่างอาทิ <u>พลู</u> (<u>phlu</u>) <u>ไฟดอกไม้น้ำ</u> (<u>faidokmainam</u>) <u>ไฟพะเนียงเปลือก</u> <u>ไข่</u> (<u>faiphaniangpleuakkhai</u>) <u>ตะไล</u> (<u>talai</u>) และ<u>ไฟดอกไม้พุ่ม</u> (<u>faidokmaiphum</u>)" Target language : "Materials and ingredients must be carefully selected to prepare the "black powder" that fuels fireworks each with its own different qualities." (Decha, 2006, pp. 162-163, citing Kinnaree, 2001, July)

In the target language, many kinds of Thai traditional fireworks such as "พลุ" (phlu), "ไฟดอกไม้น้ำ" (faidokmainam), "ไฟพะเนียงเปลือกไข่" (faiphaniangpleuakkhai), "ดะไล" (talai), and "ไฟดอกไม้พุ่ม" (faidokmaiphum) are omitted. The translator omits these cultural terms because they are too specific; however, the audience in other cultures can understand the core meaning of the translated version.

6.2 Currency

Example 14

- Source language : "ขนาดและราคาของเงินพดด้วงนั้นขึ้นอยู่กับน้ำหนักของเนื้อเงินที่ใช้หลอม เริ่มตั้งแต่ราคาต่ำสุดคือ<u>ไพ</u> (<u>phai</u>) ไล่น้ำหนักมากขึ้นเป็น<u>เฟื้อง</u> (<u>feuang</u>) <u>สลึง</u> (<u>saleung</u>) <u>บาท</u> (<u>bat</u>) <u>ตำลึง</u> (<u>tamleung</u>) และหนึ่ง<u>ชั่ง</u> (<u>chang</u>) เป็นราคาสูงสุด" Torract language : "In officiat, the size and value of Red Duong depended on the weight of silver used
- Target language : "In effect, the size and value of Pod Duang depended on the weight of silver used in manufacturing this money." (Decha, 2006, p. 163, citing Kinnaree, 2001, March)

This example shows the omission of many kinds of Thai traditional currency such as "ไพ" (phai), "เฟื้อง" (feuang), "สถึง" (saleung), "บาท" (baht), "คำถึง" (tamleung), and "ชั่ง" (chang). The translator omits these cultural terms because they are too specific; however, the audience in other cultures can understand the core meaning of the translated version.

5. Discussion

The results of the studies on cultural term translation from Thai into English support Baker's (2005) idea that the translators use the following translation strategies: translation by a more general word (superordinate), cultural substitution, using a loan word or loan word plus explanation, paraphrase, and omission. However, translation by a specific word is not found in Baker's (2005) idea.

The cultural term translation strategies from Thai into English are useful for the translators and the translation teachers when they find an overlap in the meanings of the cultural terms between the source language and target language, and no cultural terms in the target language. These strategies help the translators find the appropriate translation in the target language. In addition, the translation teachers can teach their students to use these strategies in order to solve these problems.

The author agrees with Ratchatha (2007) that cultural term categorization helps the translator select the appropriate translation strategies easily. For example, when they find the overlap in the meanings of the kinship terms between Thai and English, they use translation by a more general word (superordinate). In addition, when they find Thai building terms in the source language, they use translation by paraphrase. (See example 1 and example 15)

In some cases, it is difficult to categorize some cultural terms as big c culture or small c culture. For instance, Thai religious ceremonies are categorized as big c culture because they are the nature of

Thai culture and readily seen. However, there are many beliefs relating to Thai religious ceremonies so they are categorized as small c culture.

The translators ought to be aware of big c culture and small c culture relating to the cultural terms and try to explain them to the audience in other cultures. (See the following example.)

Example 15 Source language: "ตา<u>กรวดน้ำ</u> (*kruatnam*) ใต้ดันโพใหญ่" (Aungsuwan, 2007, citing Vejjajiva, 2005, p. 14) Target language: "Under the big banyan tree, Grandpa *poured water from a little brass vessel onto the ground*, completing the offering to the monks. Like a river flowing from the mountains to the sea, the water symbolized the merit they had earned and passed on to departed loved ones." (Aungsuwan, 2007, citing Borthwick, 2006, p. 5)

As shown in this example, the Thai religious ceremony, "กรวดน้ำ" (kruatnam) is translated as "poured water from a little brass vessel onto the ground". The translator adds the information "Like a river flowing from the mountains to the sea, the water symbolized the merit they had earned and passed on to departed loved ones." in order to explain Thai belief to the audience.

It is difficult to use only one word or one phrase to explain cultural terms relating to small c culture such as belief or value. In some case, the translators use a long sentence or a whole paragraph to explain them. (See example 19)

Furthermore, there are a few studies on translation strategies of small c culture such as Thai beliefs, values, and points of view. It is internal culture or culture in the mind and therefore it is more difficult to observe and to analyze.

6. Conclusion

The aim of this paper is to study the problems of cultural term translation and cultural term translation strategies from Thai into English. In terms of intercultural communication, culture is divided in two main categories: big c culture and small c culture. Translation by a more general word (superordinate) is used when the translators find an overlap in the meanings of the cultural terms between the source language and target language. In addition, translation by a specific word, cultural substitution, using a loan word or loan word plus explanation, and translation by paraphrase are used when the cultural terms do not exist in the target language. Furthermore, omission is used when the meaning conveyed by a specific item or expression is not necessary for the audience's understanding of the text. These translation strategies are useful for both the translators and the translation teachers. In addition, cultural term categorization helps the translator select the appropriate translation strategies easily. In some cases, it is difficult to categorize some cultural terms as big c culture or small c culture. However, the translators ought to be aware of big c culture and small c culture relating to the cultural terms. It is difficult to use only one word or one phrase in order to explain cultural terms relating to small c culture such as belief or value.

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Orthographic Customizations in Online Communication by L2 User-Students in Arunachal Pradesh, India

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Abstract

The use of social networking sites, such as Facebook and Twitter, have resulted a major change in the use of English. This change is manifested in the customization of orthography, style and grammar. The objective of the researcher of this paper is that notwithstanding its emergence as a genre, Internet English is proving to be a veritable medium, primarily for the L2 learners in this part of India, in having their errors overlooked and their negotiations and customizations being accepted gradually. The paper is based on first-hand observation of status updates of the under-graduate *Arunachalee* students of engineering and technology. The paper aims at showing the strategies adopted by the said group of students in negotiating polysemic communication and orthographic customization while using Facebook and Twitter, both in synchronous and asynchronous modes. A group of *Arunachalee* students, having accounts in both Facebook and Twitter, have been purposively selected and their updates were observed for a month. They were also invited to synchronous chatting on the issues they have commented upon while in the asynchronous mode. It was found in the course of the study that the levels of customization and errors in interpreting polysemic messages tend to increase more in the synchronous and active mode than in the asynchronous one.

KEYWORDS: Orthography, Customization, Phonemic Model, Cloud Learning

Introduction

The use of computers has resulted in a major change in the way we communicate. In recent times, we have witnessed an emergence of newer linguistic styles and forms. English language too has undergone a major shift, both in written as well as oral forms. This is primarily due to an electronic convergence of various dialectical, and at times, idiolectal varieties of English spoken across the world. As a result, we find an emergence of new grammatical and stylistic norms, which is more context-sensitive than a rigid adherence to the rules, with 'offer interpretation' gaining greater ground than 'propositional interpretation'. This shift from rule to context is apparent in the new forms of conversation discourse that are in vogue today. It is also a contributing factor in the formation of new web-based communities and identity (-ies), based on commonality/homogeneity of contexts and understanding. Secondly, the use of social networking sites, such as Facebook and Twitter have resulted a major change in the use of English that is manifested primarily in the customization of orthography and style.

The paper shows that though Internet English is fast catching up and proving to be a veritable medium of communication, for the L2 learners in this part of India, it is also contributing in having

their errors overlooked and their negotiations and customizations being accepted gradually. The paper is based on first-hand observation of status updates of the under-graduate *Arunachalee* students of a premier engineering institute in Arunachal Pradesh. The paper aims at showing the strategies adopted by the said group of students in orthographic customization while using Facebook and Twitter, both in synchronous and asynchronous modes and also problems faced by them in negotiating polysemy and interpreting a particular 'context'.

Objective

The primary objective of the study is to categorize errors committed by the students in using English language in oral, written and electronic modes of communication. The paper also explores the strategies of orthographic customizations to incorporate the changes in intonation-induced meanings.

Methodology

A group of hundred Arunachalee students, having accounts in both Facebook and Twitter, has been purposively selected and their updates were observed for a month. They were also invited to synchronous chatting on the issues they have commented upon while in the asynchronous mode. It was found in the course of the study that the levels of customization and errors in interpreting polysemous messages tend to increase more in the synchronous and active mode than in the asynchronous one. The target group of the students belongs to the undergraduate courses of study in engineering and sciences. As it was a purposive selection, the students belonged to Adi and the Apatani tribes of the state. In order to check their usage of the language in an electronic medium, some of the students from the selected sample were actively engaged in e-conversation through the synchronous mode of chatting on Facebook. An archive was created of these conversations, which are usually carried out at night or during holidays. The conversation ranged from commenting upon their latest Facebook or Twitter updates, a new profile picture or any other random issue that encouraged e-conversation. However, they were not informed about the objective of such conversations as it was found earlier that such a disclosure at the beginning seriously obstructs the normal flow of communication. This is because the student(s) become conscious of the fact that their conversations would be analyzed to check errors in the language use. This hinders in a smooth transaction of communication as they try to artificialize their thoughts and expression. At times, it was found that they refused to extend the communication further and logged off from the visible to the invisible mode. Their use of language in the electronic medium was tallied with their use of the same in the written medium through assignments and evaluation of their examination answer scripts. Their oral presentations were videographed to categorize and find similarities in pattern of their use of the English language. This is a working paper, as studies are being continued as a part of ongoing research on orthographic customizations and negotiating grammar by L2 users of English in the state of Arunachal Pradesh.

Historical Overview

Arunachal Pradesh is home to 26 major tribes and more than 70 sub-tribes. Each tribe is marked for its unique customary practices, traditional belief systems and dialectal variations. For many years,

the region has remained cut off from the rest of the world. This geo-political inaccessibility has also affected in the institutionalization of the educational system in the state. With no uniform script and language, with the exception of the Buddhists in Kameng and Lower Lohit areas (as they used Tibetan and Tai-Khampti for the Buddhist religious texts), the tribes of the state had used Assamese as the link language.

At the beginning of the 20th century, Arunachal Pradesh had no schools at all. The first school was established in 1918, in Pasighat, and the second in 1922, in Dambuk. The first college offering undergraduate courses was established in Pasighat in 1964. Against such a backdrop, knowledge passed across generations orally, and the senior citizens and village elders were entrusted with the responsibility to guide the younger generations regarding their cultural traits and customary practices. Ballads have continued to date and are deeply rooted in time, place, and culture.¹ They are an important means of transmitting knowledge. Gradually, community institutions were established where need-based skills were taught.² However, these institutions were largely confined to the geographical area of settlement of a particular tribe.

The real impetus to English education in the state came with the Christian missionaries. Initially, when people, particularly students, came down from the hills to the plains of Assam and to Shillong, the then capital of Assam, they witnessed the pace of societal development owing primarily to the adoption of English language as a medium of instruction, as introduced by the missionaries, and the medium of official communication as well. A large number of them started converting to Christianity and they realized English as 'the medium that would guarantee jobs in the administration³, although largely confined to the members of the Adi community. In May 1970 and January 1971, the students of Pasighat College (later renamed as Jawaharlal Nehru College) launched mass rallies and demonstrations demanding 'replacement of Assamese as the medium of instruction in schools, and intensive teaching of Hindi and English.⁴ However, this created a deep schism largely on linguistic and community lines as the Wanchos of the greater Tirap district were in favour of retaining Assamese as the medium of instruction largely because it provided a link with the people in Assam and also it was the 'lingua franca of NEFA'⁵ (renamed as Arunachal Pradesh on January 20, 1972). English education in the state was officially sanctioned in 1971 when the NEFA administration had all its schools affiliated to the Central School system with English as a medium of instruction from the primary levels itself.⁶

In the recent years, although the state has witnessed a quantitative rise in the number of educational institutions catering to the demands of primary, secondary and higher levels, yet the quality of English education has not been able to keep itself at par with the standard of education in other parts of the country. One of the major reasons for this is the lack of proper methodology for teaching language, followed by a lack of proper and advanced knowledge in the area of language acquisition and teaching on the part of the teacher himself/herself. Further, due to infrastructural bottlenecks, the information technology access, which has the potential to address most of these issues, has so far not been able to reach the prospective beneficiaries in the remote parts of the state. As a result, there remains a gap between the theoretical aspects of language learning and its application or practice part. This is evident in the category of errors committed by the students in the use of their second language, which is English. The problem is further compounded by the fact that there is no

proper course structure to deal with English grammar in a majority of schools in Arunachal Pradesh and other states of the region. The normal method of teaching grammar is to rely on a workbook, or in some cases dealing with the questions based on grammar as appended in the end of a chapter in the prescribed text; students are usually asked to cram the rules without explaining or showing the application of said rules while speaking or writing. Secondly, no special emphasis is given on developing vocabulary and correct pronunciation.

This method has also resulted in the emergence of a situation in that while most of the students *can* speak or write good or acceptable English, but they are not able to make a proper grammatical analysis or categorization of what they speak or write.

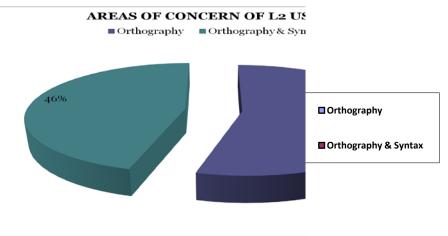
Discussion and Analysis

Linguistically, almost all indigenous dialects of the state are derived from the Tibeto-Burman language family, with most of them drawn from the single branch called Tani. The dialect chain comprising major dialects of the state like Nyishi, Adi, Galo, Apatani, Tagin, etc. have a relative uniformity in terms of their origins, but are distinctive in terms of structural, semantic and other linguistic properties.

Of the 100 students selected for the study, 67 belonged to the Adi tribe and the rest are from the Apatani community. Another parameter for the selection of the sample was that the students had their school education within Arunachal Pradesh. On evaluation of the electronic archive, their written discourse and oral presentations (which were videographed), 69% (43 students) of students belonging to Adi community have problems with orthography and 36% (24 students) with both orthography and syntax. Similarly, 68% (22 students) of Apatani students have problems with orthography and syntax. Thus, at 54%, a majority of students have problems with orthography and 46% have problems with both syntax and orthography.

The syntactic problems in English are primarily due to an entirely different word order of their mother tongue, coupled with a relatively lesser importance on teaching applications of grammatical rules of L2.

problems The with orthography stem from literal а translation of the sounds from their respective dialects to English. As meanings of words in both Adi and Apatani dialects



changes according to intonation of different sounds, the students, accordingly use the same phonemic pattern in writing English. It is compounded further when the same phonemic structure of a given word in their mother tongue gives two *offer* meanings to the native speaker. For instance, Adi dialect follows the normal phonemic pattern of English language with an additional extension in vowel sounds /e/ and /i/. Unlike the English language, the sounds like /q, /v, /x, and /z are not used in Adi and so are the sound clusters. Due to lack of a proper script, the Adis use the English script as against the Devanagari, which was officially authorized in 1971. To a native speaker, it is easy to mark the contextual differences to interpret a change in meaning owing to intonation, especially in oral discourse. However, the problem arose in written or electronic discourse, especially in transcribing short and long variations of a same sound. The problem compounded further in the transcription of the extended variation of sounds as in case of /e/ and /i/. For instance, the word 'kangki' in Adi would mean 'to hate' as well as 'to have a look'. However, the difference in the meaning would be imparted in the manner of intonation. In order to mean 'to hate' the first syllable /a/ would be short, but using 'kangki' to denote 'to have a look', apart from the short first syllable /a/, the final syllable /i/ too would be short but it has to be of the extended addition variety. Similarly, the word 'em' denotes both 'yes' and 'that' in English. But in terms of intonation, the first syllable /e/ is short to denote 'yes' and to denote 'that', the long extended /e/ sound would be used.

While communicating electronically using English script, the Adi users initially resorted to normal English alphabetic pattern $(V1)^7$ and the native users interpret the same by appropriating the context. However, this pattern failed in conveying precise meaning while communicating with the non-natives and the receptive bi-linguists. In order to negotiate this problem, a section of users started using double letters in English $(V2)^8$ to denote the long sounds. For instance, the word '*sola*' intonated with a short last syllable /a/ would mean '*to pull*', and if the same is intonated with a long /o/ and short last /a/, it would mean '*to dance*.' So, to mean '*to dance*', in Adi would be written as '*soola*'. However, such an orthographic structure would not justify the pronunciation of the word. As a result, a third variant, the *Adi Phonemic Variation Model*⁹ (APVM) is being developed. The APVM has the potential to score better over V1 and V2, primarily in the field of online communication owing to its keyboard friendly customizability. The APVM with all its user-friendly customization options, to date, are given below:

ENGLISH	ADI VOWEL SOUNDS					
VOWEL	NORMAL		VEL NORMAL E		EXTENDED	VARIATION
SOUNDS	LONG	SHORT	LONG	SHORT		
/a/	/a':/	/a'/	-	-		
/e/	/e:/	/e/	/e':/	/e'/		
/i/	/i:/	/i/	/i':/	/i'/		
/0/	/0':/	/0'/	-	-		
/u/	/u':/	/u'/	-	-		

In terms of syntax, the Apatani students, on the other hand, are found to be confused with the classification of the verbs '*has*' and '*have*'. This is because the said dialect does not have any such verbs. So, for the sentences such as:

1. She has a car.

2. They have a car.

the Apatani students would translate thus:

- 1. Mok gari do.
- 2. Mo luk gari do.

It is evident from sentence 1 and 2 in English that the verbs 'has' and 'have' are used with the second and third persons respectively, whereas in Apatani the verb 'do', as in sentence 1 and 2, is commonly used irrespective of first, second and third person in a syntactic structure. Similarly, in Apatani, there are no separate words to denote masculine and feminine gender; instead, the word 'mo' is commonly used to denote both 'she' and 'he'.

Findings and Conclusion

On evaluating their electronic archive, it was found that the students belonging to both the communities have problems in verb usage in English. The most common form of error arises in SVO agreement with them failing in identifying the singular and the plural subject and the corresponding verb.

Another common problem with most of the user-students is in the area of prepositions. Most of the dialects used in the state of Arunachal Pradesh and the neighbouring Assam have post-positions rather than prepositions. Therefore, most of the L2 users having Assamese or one of the Arunachali dialects as their mother tongue usually have a problem with using proper prepositions. For instance, in Assamese language, the most common post-position is /t/, the English equivalents of which are '*in*' and '*on*'. It is found from the evaluations that most of the Assamese students commit errors in the use of '*in*' and '*on*' respectively. This is true in case of Adi and Apatani students as well.

On evaluation of the digital archive of their oral presentations, it is found that the students *write or compose* electronically what they *say*. This means the errors they commit in the oral discourse are similar to the errors in the written and electronic discourse. For instance, apart from the category of errors stated above, owing to intonation-induced customizations of the long and short variants of Adi vowel sounds, the pronunciation of English words by the students belonging to these communities have an unmistakable impact of the intonation of the vowel sounds of their respective mother tongue.

One of the common areas of concern as derived from the available data is the replacement of English sounds with those from their mother tongues. This pattern is evident in oral, written as well as electronic modes of communication. For instance, in Adi, the sound /v/ is non-existent. So a student pronounces and writes the word *very* as *bery* or *development* as *deplopment*, etc. Similarly, the sound /f/ is not normally used in many dialects, including Apatani and Nyshi. As such words like *phone* and *forty-four* are used as *pone* and *porty-pore*, etc. In the recent times, the colloquial or 'local' variants of certain words are being used in the formal discourse. Words such as '*bittary*', '*socketjabor*', '*pronounciation*', '*daktor*', '*riska*', etc. are being used in place of '*battery*', *shock absorber*', '*pronunciation*', '*doctor*', '*rickshaw*' respectively.

The findings of this paper may be used to introduce major changes in the syllabus of English language and communication followed in the technical and engineering institutions of the state of Arunachal Pradesh. Secondly, course content of English as followed in the feeder institutions may incorporate tailor-made components pertaining to specific problems faced by the students. This may take into account the dialect-specific variations vis-à-vis their use of English language.

A proper linguistic management of the electronic medium could also be initiated, so that students are encouraged to come up with their problems, both in the synchronous and asynchronous modes and the solutions may be provided instantly. This can be done by making both the trainer and the trained accessible through cloud learning methods.

A detailed strategy to deal with the gaps in language learning is required in educational institutions of the state, with general as well as specific parameters conforming to oral, written and electronic modes of communication respectively.

NOTES:

1. Elwin, Verrier (1957) (Reprint 1997), 'A Philosophy for NEFA' Gyan Publsihers, New Delhi, pp: 79-81.

2. ibid

3. Chaube, S. K. (1973), 'Hill Politics in North-East India', Orient Longman, pp: 196-198.

4. ibid

5. ibid

6. *ibid*

7. V1: VARIANT 1 was advocated and used initially by the members of the Adi community for communicating online. This variant used the same orthographic and phonetic (transcriptive) pattern of English language. The onus was on the user to interpret the context and decipher the meaning of any written or electronically composed text. However, in the long run, V1 failed in the exact decoding of intonated sounds and the corresponding meaning.

8. V2: VARIANT 2 was developed after the failure of V1 in deciphering meaning. The development corresponded with the preliminary attempts at lexicalizing the Adi script by the Adi Literary Society, popularly known as *Adi Bane Kebang*. Similar to V1 in phonetic arrangement, the users of V2 used single and double letters to denote short and long variations of a particular sound. However, V2 failed to capture the accurate meanings in terms of the extended variations of certain vowel sounds. Secondly, the transcription of these sounds often resulted in inaccurate results in terms of transcriptional-semantic relationship.

9. The Adi Phonemic Variation Model (APVM) or VARIANT 3 (V3) is still in the process of being developed into a fully functional model. The APVM is independently conceptualized and being developed by Dr. Sarsing Gao.* The symbols in the model is extremely keyboard friendly and therefore, it can be easily used for online communications. However, the model is yet to incorporate the options for homonymic intonations.

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How Anxiety Affects Emotional Intelligence and Academic Performance of Iranian EFL Students in Tabriz Islamic Azad University

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Abstract

Anxiety is a distinct complex of behavior related to classroom language learning. Excessive amounts of anxiety can hinder students' performance. This study was intended to consider the effect of anxiety on EFL students' level of emotional intelligence and their academic performance at Islamic Azad University, Tabriz Branch. For this purpose, 110 undergraduate EFL sophomore and junior students participated. Students completed Horwitz (1986) anxiety scale and Bar-On (1997) Emotional Intelligence Inventory. Their anxiety scores and emotional intelligence (EI) scores were computed. The academic mean scores of students were also computed based on the final exam. The degree of correlation between total anxiety score and academic mean score, total EI score and total anxiety score were found. It became evident that there was a meaningful negative correlation between total anxiety score and total emotional score. It could be said that a low degree of anxiety resulted in high degree of EI and this fact resulted in better academic performance of EFL learners. Material developers are required to include techniques which pay more attention to anxiety and emotional factors.

Key words: anxiety, emotional intelligence, academic success, foreign language learning

Introduction

Generally speaking the majority of language learners experience varying degrees of anxiety even if they have a good command of the language. Although a certain amount of anxiety can drive learners in the process of language learning, excessive amounts of it can hinder language learners performance and negatively influences educational outcomes. According to Ellis (1997), learner' personal variables and their affective states are of crucial importance in accounting for individual differences in learning outcomes. Affect is a starting machine that is responsible for setting the learning mechanism in motion and learning will run into difficulty if affect does not work properly. Also, Krashen's affective filter hypothesis (1985) presented the fact that anxiety is the major effective factor hindering language acquisition.

Anxiety is a complicated psychological concept and difficult to define; however, scholars have provided helpful definitions to clarify this notion. Haskin et al. (2003) stated that anxiety is a feeling of uneasiness, aggravation, self-doubt, lack of confidence, or fear. According to Haskin et al., anxiety could be identified by physiological symptoms. Heron (1989) stated that "anxiety is associated with uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension and tension" (p.33). Also, cognitivists such as MacIntyre (1995) and Deffenbacher (1980) viewed anxiety as worry and emotionality. Thus anxiety is related to cognitive interference due to extreme instances of worry which might relate to appraisal of situations as threatening.

Horwitz et al. (1986) were the first to suggest that research had neither defined anxiety specific to foreign language learning nor described its effect on learners of foreign language learning. According to Horwitz et al, anxiety specific to foreign language learning corresponds to three related performance anxieties: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation.

Firstly, according to Casado & Dereshiwsky (2001), communication apprehension is related to feelings of nervousness while they want to communicate. The learners' inability to express themselves in a foreign language leads to communication apprehension. Test anxiety is the second type of anxiety defined by Horwitz et al. as a performance anxiety resulting from fear of failure. The third, performance anxiety, is related to negative evaluation. It is related to learners' uncertainty regarding creating a positive social impression.

Generally, Horwitz (1986) believed that FL anxiety was defined as "a distinct complex phenomenon of self-perception, beliefs, feelings and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of language learning process" (p. 27). That is why Horwitz developed Foreign Language Anxiety Classroom Scale (FLACS), distinguishing it from other types of anxiety.

According to Pishghadam (2009), from the 1900s, since the time Alfred Binet (1905) coined the term "intelligence quotient" (IQ), the conceptions of intelligence have undergone different changes. The early designers of intelligence tests focused only on cognitive abilities such as memory and problem-solving. For example, Alfred Binet (1905) equated intelligence with the abilities of logic and language. In fact, as Wechsler (1958) stated, in the first half of the 20th century IQ tests were considered adequate measures of intelligence.

However, as Love and Guthrie (1999) stated, within the last several decades, research has regarded emotional influence on learning which has been integrated with research on cognition and social processes. Mayor and Salovey (1990) were the first who defined EI as a type of social intelligence to monitor one's own feelings and those of others, to discriminate among them and to use the information to guide one's thinking and actions. According to Mayer, Caruso and Salovey (2000), the use of emotions can provide people with valuable information about themselves and others.

Bar-On was first to coin the term *emotional quotient* (EQ) as a counterpart to IQ, that is, to cognitive ability. Bar-On thought of EQ as representing a set of social and emotional abilities that help individuals cope with the demands of social life. Bar-On's model of EI relates to the *potential* for performance and success, rather than performance or success itself, and is considered process-oriented rather than outcome-oriented (Bar-On, 2002). It focuses on an array of emotional and social abilities, including the ability to be aware of, understand, and express oneself, the ability to be aware of, understand, and relate to others, the ability to deal with strong emotions, and the ability to adapt to change and solve problems of a social or personal nature (Bar-On, 1997). In his model, Bar-On outlines five components of EI: intrapersonal, interpersonal, adaptability, stress management, and general mood. Within these components are sub-components, represented in Table 1. Bar-On posits that emotional intelligence develops over time and that it can be improved through training, programming, and therapy (Bar-On, 2002).

Table 1	
Bar-On's Model of Emotional Intelligen	ice
Intrapersonal	Self Regard
L	Emotional Self-Awareness
	Assertiveness
	Independence
	Self-Actualization
Interpersonal	Empathy
	Social Responsibility
	Interpersonal Relationship
Adaptability	Reality Testing
	Flexibility
	Problem Solving
Stress Management	Stress Tolerance
	Impulse Control
General Mood Components	Optimism
	Happiness

Bar-On hypothesized that those individuals with higher than average EQs are in general more successful in meeting environmental demands. He also noted that a deficiency in EI can mean a lack of success and the existence of emotional problems. Problems in coping with one's environment was thought, by Bar-On, to be especially common among those individuals lacking in the subscales of reality testing, problem solving, stress tolerance, and impulse control. In general, Bar-On considered EI and cognitive intelligence to contribute equally to a person's general intelligence, which then offers an indication of one's potential to succeed in life (Bar-On, 2002).

Janani Vaidhyanathan (2010) stated that the various elements of EI such as self-awareness, selfregulation, motivation, empathy and social skill form the basic emotional and social competencies which are widely important in the process of language learning and academic performance. These should eliminate the emotion of fear that retards a learner and causing a negative impact in one's learning. Self-awareness gives us self-confidence. Motivation guides us towards goals and removes frustrations to quicken the progress. Self-regulation facilitates in pursuing goals. Empathy makes us understand others feelings and cultivates rapport with a broad diversity of people. Social skills can be used to persuade others, negotiate and settle disputes, for cooperation and teamwork.

According to Jaeger and Eagan (2007), academic performance is often referred to as achievement or the level at which a person has learned to perform a special skill. As they stated, there is a direct relationship between academic performance and a variety of factors among which anxiety and EI are the most important. This represents the fact that as Elder (1997) noted students feel something

about what is going on in the classroom and that feeling, at least in part, determines how they act in the classroom and thus whether or not they will engage with the material.

Anxiety specific to FLL can be defined as "situational anxiety" (Oner & Lecompte, 1983; Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000; Spielberger, 1966). Situational anxiety is the subjective fear an individual feels because of being under stress. Under high stress, the situational anxiety increases and when the stress is relieved the situational anxiety declines. When anxiety is associated with L2 learning, it can manifest itself in distorted performance; interfere with the acquisition, retention, and production of a new language, and lower test scores. If it is severe, it may even cause a change in a student's academic or career plans (Elkhafaifi, 2005; Sato, 2003).

With regard to EI, Nelson and Low (2005) believed that EI can result in a wise behavior, high achievement and mental health. Emotionally intelligent students can be successful in interpersonal communications, self-management, goal achievement, and demonstrate personal responsibility in completing assignments and working effectively. According to Nelson and Low, EI can be described as "transformative learning" which transforms the student into an effective person (p.4). In transformative learning environment, there is respect for learners, learners are encouraged to take apart in meaningful dialogues; active, cooperative and collaborative learning is taken place; and the teacher is involved actively in the learning process and learns with students through positive and engaging interactions.

Smith (2004) also noted that learning and applying EI skills are important in improving the achievement of academically at risk students. It is essential to engage actively at-risk students in the learning process. Engagement and meaningful learning are possible when students are involved actively in the learning process. Likewise, motivation and engagement are diminished when at-risk students are unable to relate to or find personal meaning in the instruction content of the material. The result is often minimal achievement and higher problem indicators.

Investigating the role of emotional factors, anxiety and EI, in the process of language learning is not something new. Much of recent research showed that anxiety is common among foreign language students and that it is associated negatively with their language performance and achievement. A good deal of such research employed the FLCAS in one way or another. Aida (1994) reported on a correlation research that involved 96 first-year Japanese college students. The author examined: (a) the paradigm of foreign language anxiety as proposed by Horwitz et al., (b) the reliability of the FLCAS, and (c) the relationship between anxiety and students' performance. On the other hand, Ganschow & Sparks (1996) employed the FLCAS with an entire school sample of first year foreign language students, with the students' scores as a reflective measurement of their anxiety about their performance in a full-time foreign language course.

With regard to EI, Aghasafari (2006) investigated the relationship between EQ and learning strategies among 100 EFL sophomore participants in Ghazvin Islamic Azad University. The results indicated that there is a positive relationship between overall EI and language learning strategies. Fahim and Pishghadam (2007) explored the relationship between EQ and IQ and also the relationship between verbal intelligence and the academic achievement of students majoring in English language. Interestingly, they found that academic achievement was strongly associated with several dimensions of EI (intrapersonal, stress management, and general mood competencies). Moreover, it was found that academic achievement correlated little with IQ, but it was strongly associated with verbal intelligence which is a sub-section of IQ test.

Due to little research done on the impact of anxiety on EQ and academic achievement, this study is intended to investigate the degree of correlation between anxiety, EI and academic success. Following research questions are developed to process the issue:

1. Is there any relationship between anxiety and academic achievement of students in EFL courses?

2. Is there any relationship between anxiety and degree of students` EI in EFL courses?

Method

Participants

110 undergraduate EFL sophomore and junior students in Islamic Azad university of Tabriz-Iran participated in this study. All of the participants were students majoring in English Language Teaching, English Language Translation and English Language Literature. In addition, because English is a foreign language in Iran, most of the students didn't have a chance or they were not interested to attend English Language Institutes; so, they had to learn English in class.

Instrumentations

This study made use of these instruments for data collection:

Foreign language classroom anxiety scale (FLCAS).

To collect data on foreign language anxiety, this study used FLCAS developed by Horwitz (1986). A translated version of FLCAS was used in view of cultural differences and also to avoid any misunderstanding regarding the content of the questionnaire for lower-level students. With the translated version (from English to Persian), the Cronach's alpha coefficient was found to be 0.76 and the reliability was found to be high, 0.86.

As Horwitz stated, the FLCAS is a 33-item, self-report measure, scored on a 5-point Likert Scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly agree*) to 5 (*strongly disagree*), the middle point (3) is (*neutral*). Anxiety scores lower than 3.0 would indicate some level of anxiety for questions 1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 29, 30, 31, 33. Anxiety scores higher than three would indicate some level of anxiety for questions 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 18, 22, 28, 32. FLCAS is also consisted of questions related to three performance anxieties: communication apprehension, general feeling of anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. FLCAS was developed to capture the extent and seriousness of L2 anxiety in a classroom setting and to provide linguists with a standard measure. It is based on an analysis of possible causes of anxiety in an L2 classroom, integrating the three related performance anxieties: communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation.

Bar-on: mixed model of emotional intelligence (EQ-i).

Reuven Bar-On's measure of EI, the Bar-On's Emotion Quotient Inventory (EQ-i), is a self-report measure of EI for individuals 16 years of age and over. It was developed as a measure of emotionally and socially competent behavior that provides an estimate of one's emotional and social intelligence. According to Dawda and Hart (2000), the EQ-i does not measure personality traits or

cognitive capacity, but rather measures one's ability to be successful in dealing with environmental demands. One hundred and thirty three items are used to obtain a total EQ (Total Emotion Quotient) and to produce five composite scales corresponding to the five main components of the Bar-On model: Intrapersonal EQ, Interpersonal EQ, Adaptability EQ, Stress Management EQ, and General Mood EQ. Items are measured on a five point scale ranging from 1 (*very seldom/not true for me*) to 5 (*very often/often true of me*).

In this research the revised version of Bar-on's EQ-i was used to increase its face validity and reliability and correlation among items. For this end, the questioner was translated into Persian by Sina Research Center in Tehran. Then the correlation among items and also the correlation between every question and the total test score were calculated. The items which showed a low correlation with the total test score were eliminated or changed. In this way, this test was reduced to 90 questions. Then the reliability of test was estimated to be 0.88.

Procedures

In this study, three intact classes of undergraduate EFL sophomore and junior students from Islamic Azad University, Tabriz-Iran, were chosen to participate. FLCAS and Bar-On's EI tests were administered to them in middle of the term and results were obtained based on the answers provided by students. The time needed to complete Bar-on's EI test was about 20 to 50 minutes and the time needed to complete FLCAS was about 5 to 10 minutes. At the end of the term, final exam was administered to determine their academic achievement scores. The scores were obtained out of 20.

To compare students more easily, after finding the results based on Bar-on's EI test scores, students were divided into three groups of emotionally high, average and low levels. As items were measured on a five-point scale ranging from one to five, the range of EI score computed to change from 90 to 450. Students receiving the scores 90 to 210 were determined to have low level of EI, students receiving the scores 211 to 330 were considered to have moderate level of EI, and students whose scores fluctuated between 331 to 450 had a high level of EI.

By taking their anxiety scores into account, they were divided into three groups. Again here as the items were measured on a 5-point scale ranging from one to five, the scores of anxiety computed to fluctuate between 33 and 165. Students receiving the score 33 to 76 were determined to have high degree of anxiety, students with anxiety scores ranging from77 to 120 were considered to have a moderate degree of anxiety, and students whose scores ranged from 121 to 165 had the lowest level of anxiety.

Also, based on their academic achievement scores, they were divided into more successful, average and less successful students. The students with academic scores ranging from zero to 10 were determined to be less successful students, students whose academic score fluctuated between 11 and 15 were considered to be average students, and students with scores from 16 to 20 were considered to be more successful students.

Results

Questionnaires related to anxiety were scored according to the guidelines provided by Horwitz (1986). Then the total anxiety mean score was computed to be (1.06). After finding the total mean score, by considering three performance anxieties in FLCAS: communication apprehension, general feeling of anxiety and fear of negative evaluation, their mean score were computed, too. The minimum score for communication apprehension was 21 and the maximum score was 58. Thus, the

total mean score calculated to be 36.8. The minimum score for fear of negative evaluation was 11 and the maximum score computed to be 39. The total mean score calculated to be 25.4. By taking general feelings of anxiety into account, it became evident that the minimum score was 23 and the maximum score was 63. The total mean score computed to be 43.9. After finding the mean score of students' academic performance (15.05), the degree of correlation between academic performance and anxiety was found with regard to the first research question:

Table 2					
Anxiety and	l academic score cross	tabulation	l		6
			score		
		low	average	high	Total
Anxiety	High	5	3	1	9
	Average	14	27	36	77
	Low	2	2	20	24
Total		21	32	57	110

Table 3			
Chi-Square Tests			
Degree of correlation between anxiety and academic performance			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	20.171 ^a	4	.000
N of valid cases	110		
p < .05			

It is clear form table 2, among 21 students with low academic scores five of them had high degree of anxiety, 14 of them had average level of anxiety, and two had low degree of anxiety. Among 32 students with average academic mean score three of them had high, 27 had average, and two of them had low degree of anxiety. And among 57 students with high academic mean scores only one of them had high degree of anxiety, 36 had average degree, and 20 had low degree of anxiety. Table 3 represents a meaningful negative relationship between anxiety level and academic performance of students as the p values is less than .05 (p=.000).

EQ questionnaires were also scored based on the guidelines provided by Bar-On (1998). Then the total EQ score was computed to be 3.34. By taking the second research question into account related to the degree of correspondence between the anxiety level of students and their EI, the degree of correlation between these two was computed:

Table 4				
Anxiety, EI Cros	s tabulation			
		EI		
		average	high	Total
Anxiety	High	3	6	9
	Average	41	36	77
	Low	6	18	24
Total		50	60	110

Chi-Square Test			
Degree of correlation betw	veen anxiety and E	[
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2- sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.469 ^a	2	.039
N o of Valid Cases	110		

As it is evident from table 4, among 50 students with average level of EI only three had high degree of anxiety, 41 had average, and six of them had low degree of anxiety. Among 60 students with high level of EI six had high degree of anxiety, 36 had average, and 18 had low degree of anxiety. Table 5 also represents a meaningful correlation between anxiety and EI. The p value equals .03 which is less than .05.

Discussion

While determining the effect of anxiety on academic performance in foreign language learning, regarding the first research question, it became evident that there was a negative meaningful correlation between mean score of academic performance and total anxiety mean score. This means that when foreign language learners have low levels of anxiety, they can have better academic performance in comparison to the time when they have moderate or high levels of anxiety. This finding is compatible with Aida (1994) and Ganschow & Sparks (1996) research findings.

With regard to three performance anxieties, by taking their mean scores into account, it became evident that anxiety related to fear of negative evaluation play a bigger role in foreign language environment than anxiety pertaining to general feelings of anxiety and communication apprehension. Also, anxiety related to communication apprehension plays a bigger role in comparison with general feeling of anxiety. Therefore, students become more anxious when they are being evaluated or when they are asked to speak, more than other situations. This information is compatible with what is actually seen in EFL classes. The situations which learners face in English speaking classes are being negatively evaluated by their teacher and by their friends and also fear of

making mistakes and errors when they communicate. The reason can be explained in this way that foreign language learners in Iran do not mostly go to English classes before going to the university and for the first time they start to speak in the university and this fact causes them to become anxious. These findings are compatible with Dina M. Al-Sibai's research findings who investigated L2 Anxiety of Saudi Female University Students Enrolled in Speaking Courses.

Regarding the second research question about the degree of correlation between anxiety and EI, it became clear that there was a negative meaningful relationship between these two. In other words, when students experienced a high degree of anxiety, their EI was low and students with a low level of anxiety had high EI. This is again actually seen in FL classes. When students have a low level of anxiety, their EI will be high; meaning that they can assert themselves well, their self-regard, self-assertiveness, social responsibility, empathy and emotional self-awareness and their reality testing will be high; they can control their emotional feelings, they can tolerate stress and solve the problems easily, they can be optimistic, flexible and happy in their life. All these facts cause them to have better academic performance. Fahim and Pishgadam's (2007) research findings also showed that high EI results in better academic performance.

Implications and applications

The findings of this study suggest several implications for ELT. If one assumes that it may be possible to educate learners to improve their abilities to better recognize their feelings (Mayer & Geher, 1996), and if one believes that one can reduce learners' anxiety level there should be programs to decrease anxiety and raise emotional competencies.

English teachers are not only expected to be familiar with methods of decreasing anxiety and increasing EI, but also they should try hard to raise their own emotional competencies. Materials developers are also required to include techniques which pay more attention to emotional factors.

Suggestions for further research

In the present research sex, age, and ethnic groups were not taken into account. A more detailed study is needed to explore the relationship between anxiety, EI and these variables in foreign language learning. Moreover, in the current study, the effect of anxiety on EI was on foreign language learning, further studies are needed to investigate the effect of anxiety on EI in second language teaching environment.

Conclusion

English is a foreign language in Iran and if one takes the nature of English classes in EFL settings into account, it become evident that learning English language is a demanding and stressful task for learners because they only study English in school without having a chance to use it. After that they continue their English studies in ESL courses. Learners also are required to apply English accurately in classes and their mistakes are corrected immediately by their teachers. On the other hand, in our society many jobs require a good command of English language. Therefore, it seems to be natural that emotional factors and stress management abilities can be of great help in this context of learning.

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A Semantic and Pragmatic Approach to Brand Naming: A Case Study of Thailand's Exported Food Brand Names

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Abstract

The semantics and pragmatics of brand names are known to be crucial to brand communication in several marketplaces. This paper aims to investigate the semantic and pragmatic components of brand names that play roles in brand communication in export markets. The study examines 175 brand names of Thailand's exported food products based on Frege's conception of Sense and Reference, Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle and Relevance Theory (Sperber & Wilson 1985, 1995). The study results indicate that brand name communication in an export market is significantly influenced by the semantic and pragmatic components of the brand names. Each brand name does contain certain 'sense' and 'reference' that institute 'semantic appropriateness' for brand name communication in certain markets. The study also confirms that all the brand name owners do have an intention behind the use of certain words for their brand names. They generally present their exported brand names by using translation, transliteration, English-only and hybrid method depending on which method can best convey their intended meaning to the target customers. The brand name owners tend to violate Grice's maxim of quality, quantity and manner, but rarely the maxim of relation. Customers are likely to perceive the intended meaning of brand names easier if the brand names exhibit a more direct sense or higher level of relevance ('pragmatic *enrichability*'). The customers tend to be able to interpret the brand names that match their personal knowledge and experience, but they may refuse to interpret the brand names that are not relevant enough to their encyclopedic knowledge. This study suggests that the exporters should consider the semantics and pragmatics of their brand names carefully. Brand names with 'semantic appropriateness' and 'pragmatic enrichability' should make brand name communication less complicated and safer to conduct.

Key Word: brand name, brand naming, semantics and pragmatics, brand communication

1. Introduction

It is widely recognized that brand names play a very important role in marketing products or services and in their acceptance by the public. A study by Kotler and Armstrong (1997) suggests that brand names contribute significantly to the success or failure of new products. A brand name seems to be the first thing that conveys product information to consumers. It is likely that consumers use brand names as a means to recognize product information such as the product type. For example, the brand name COCA-COLA allows consumers to recognize quickly that the product under that name is a cola drink (Kohli and Suri, 2000). Dawar and Parker (1994) also point out in their study that customers normally use brand names as one of their evaluative tools to justify quality of a product. The choice of a brand name is, therefore, an important strategy a company needs to take into consideration at the beginning stage of its business development. As Ellwood (2000, p. 139) has suggested, "creating, selecting and testing brand names should not be left to a minor meeting long after new product development has begun, it needs to be thought of at the start of the business, as it has the power to focus and shape the formation of the business structure". The role of brand names is becoming increasingly significant in today's marketplace since the market

situation is fundamentally different. With fewer trade barriers, the market is less restrictive, resulting in intense global competition where the products are of higher quality but of lower costs. Eventually, the competitive forces could reduce the field to commodity marketplace players, with the lowest-cost provider winning all the battles. The only worthwhile strategy, therefore, is to create and leverage brands (Agres and Dubitsky, 1996). However, brand introductions are becoming increasingly expensive. This has prompted companies to take great care in the creation, pretesting, developing, and managing of new brands. Companies carefully create brand names that convey an intended image to target consumers and are distinctive enough to be noticed. Then, they invest heavily to maintain this image. A carefully chosen brand name provides an opportunity to lend inherent strength to the brand (Kohli and Suri, 2000).

Choosing the proper brand name is a very essential point in the introduction of a new product. A wisely chosen brand name can create a favorable image and help in creating and enhancing brand awareness (Keller, Heckler, and Houston 1998). Brand name scholars propose that the brand naming system consists of three basic components: the marketing component, the legal component, and the linguistic component (Chan and Huang, 1997 and 2001, Klink, 2000, Ellwood, 2000). Among the three, the linguistic component seems to be the most fundamental, thus more crucial than the other two. As Charmasson (1988) has pointed out, the degree of market promotion and legal protection of brand names is derived from the use of a brand name, which depends almost entirely on the intrinsic characteristics of its syllables, words and phrases. The linguistic component of a brand name involves the choice of linguistic elements that consists of three parts: phonetic choice, choice of morphological processes and semantic choice (Chan and Huang, 1997). Previous studies on brand name, e.g., Kohli and LaBahn (1995), Klink (2000) Yorkston and Menon (2004), etc., often focus on the phonetic and morphological aspects of brand names. Although the meaning aspects or the semantics and pragmatics of brand names seems to be significantly essential, to the researchers' knowledge, only a few researches have paid attention to the semantics and pragmatics of brand names. It is likely that the only existing semantic and pragmatic knowledge for brand naming is that the brand name should convey positive connotations and avoid negative connotations (Ellwood, 2000; Zhang, et.al, 2004; Hong, et.al, 2002; Boonpaisarnsatit, 2009). There is still the lack of clear and systematic explanation for the nature of brand name meanings. To choose an appropriate brand name for their new product, companies need to consider the semantic and pragmatic characteristics of a linguistic form (word or phrase) used as a brand name for their product. Understanding the nature of brand name meanings should enable companies to choose the right brand name, which guarantees the success of their product trading in certain markets. This study thus aims to reveal the semantic and pragmatic characteristics of brand names, which might be useful for both business operators and linguists whose works are related to brand naming.

As Thailand positions itself as "*Kitchen to the world*" and "*Food hub of Asia*", its food industry seems to be stand out in the global market. Food products from Thailand are also various, ranging from simple agricultural produce such as rice grain, fresh fruits and vegetables, fresh meat, etc., to sophisticated processed food such as instant meals, modern snacks, ready-to-eat microwavable food, etc. The brand names of these exported products exhibit a wide variety of brand naming traditions in Thailand. The investigation of the semantics and pragmatics of brand names of Thailand's exported food products should provide useful and practical knowledge to the exporters who plan to get a brand name for their product as well as to other related personnel working in the brand naming industry.

2. Research Questions

This study addresses the following questions:

- 2.1) What can be the appropriate semantic and pragmatic approach to Thailand's exported food product brand naming?
- 2.2) What are the good semantic and pragmatic characteristics of Thailand's exported food brand names?
- 2.3) What semantic and pragmatic factors do Thailand's exporters need to take into consideration when naming their brands?

3. Objectives

This study aims to research the semantics and pragmatics of the brand names of Thailand's exported food products in order to:

- 3.1) establish a semantic and pragmatic approach to Thailand's exported food products brand naming or re-brand naming;
- 3.2) investigate the semantic and pragmatic characteristics of the brand names of Thailand's exported food products;
- 3.3) determine what factors are essential for lexical selection in brand naming Thailand's exported food products.

4. Methodology

4.1 Population and Sample

The population and sample used in this study comprise three different subjects, as follows:

4.1.1) Brand Names of Thailand's Exported Food Products

A total of 175 brand names of *Thailand's Brand¹* awarded products including 30 brand names of rice products, 23 brand names of frozen and chilled food, 35 brand names of canned and instant food, 29 brand names of snacks and candies, and 58 brand names of food ingredients and seasonings are used in this case study.

4.1.2) Thailand's Food Exporter Companies

This set of data includes 136 companies who are the exporters of *Thailand's Brand* awarded products as listed in the Food Category of *Thailand's Exporters Directory 2009-2010.*² All related information to the companies, such as the companies' addresses, years of establishment, export markets, etc., are included in the data set.

¹ Thailand's Brand is an icon licensed by the Department of Export Promotion under the Ministry of Commerce. The logo comprises of the wordings: THAILAND and Diversity & Refinement inside an oval shape which encapsulate the distinctive image of Thailand as the land of diverse productions of goods with originality, quality, refined craftsmanship and distinction. Thailand's Brand logo is highly recognized as the assurance that the quality of products and services of Thailand are up to the standard of the world's market.

² Thailand's Exporters Directory is available in two formats, hard copy and online, of the same content. This study uses the online version found at http://application.depthai.go.th/Center_Public/thailand_export_directory.html as it is more convenient to access than the hard copy.

4.1.3) Buyers and Consumers of Thailand's Exported Food Products

This data set includes 125 buyers or consumers who attended *ThaiFEX-World of Food Asia*, the largest food exhibition in Thailand organized by Thailand's Department of Export Promotion on May 25-29, 2011. The samples are selected by using convenient sampling method.

4.2 Data Collection

The collection of data for this study is divided into three stages, as follows:

Stage 1: Collection of brand names

In this stage, the researchers search for every brand name with the *Thailand's Brand* logo listed in the Food Category of *Thailand's Exporters Directory 2010-2011*. The brand names are, then, reorganized, according to their product types, into five categories: rice products, frozen and chilled food, canned and instant food, snacks and candies, and food ingredients and seasonings.

Stage 2: Collection of brand name meanings: owners' intention

In this stage, the brand name meanings as intended by the owner companies are collected initially from the official websites of the brand name owner companies. If the brand name intended meaning is not clearly stated on the company websites, an interview for brand name intended meaning is conducted via either email or telephone.

Stage 3: Collection of brand name meanings: consumers' interpretation.

In this stage, each selected buyer or consumer of Thailand's exported food products are asked to interpret five given brand names. The interviews are conducted face-to-face in a resting area provided at *ThaiFEX-World of Food Asia*. The customers' interpretations are noted down in a separate form.

4.3 Data Analysis

The analysis of data is based on Frege's (1892) conception of 'Sense and Reference', Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle and Relevance Theory (Sperber & Wilson 1985, 1995). The process of data analysis is shown in the following diagram.

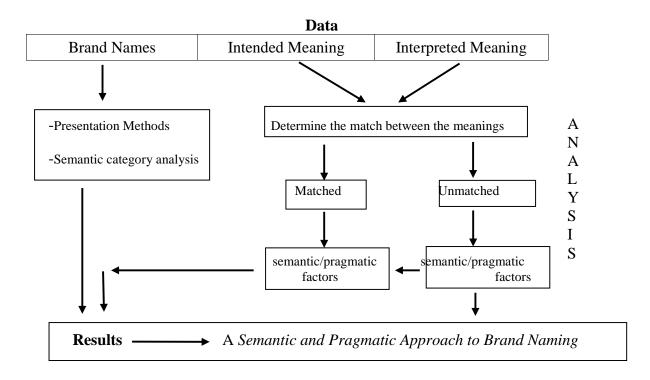


Figure 1: Process for Analyzing the Semantics and Pragmatics of Brand Names

The first set of data, or brand names, are analyzed for their presentation methods and semantic categories. The other two sets of data, intended meaning and interpreted meaning, are matched with each other in order to determine if the two meanings of brand names are matched or unmatched. Then, the semantic and pragmatic factors of the matched and the unmatched are determined in order to establish an approach for brand naming.

5. Results and Discussions

5.1 Brand Name Presentation Methods

The study revealed that the brand names of Thailand's exported food products were presented by using four main presentation methods: translation, transliteration, English-only, and hybrid method. The term 'translation' refers to the method of which the brand name owners attempt to preserve the meaning of their original brand names by translating them into English, which is now considered the language of international trade (Ku and Zussman, 2010). 'Transliteration' is the method used when the brand name owners aim to maintain the sounds of the brand names in the target markets. It is noted that the term 'transliteration', in this study, includes both Thai-to-English and other foreign languages-to-English transliteration. 'English-only' method refers the case where English words are used for both domestic and export brand names. This includes both simple English words, e.g., 'potato', 'king', 'cook' etc., and modified-English words, e.g., abbreviations (Ampro), acronyms (UFC), clippings (Euro), blending (Vitafood), etc. and 'hybrid method' is the combination of the brand names presentation methods mentioned earlier, for example, Transliteration + English-only (e.g., Tong Garden).

Apparently, the brand names of different product types tend to have different norms of the presentation method used in international markets. For example, the translation method seemed to be significantly used in the rice product category (60%) and the food ingredient and seasoning

category (39.66%). It is surprising that no translation method was found used in the frozen and chilled food category and the snack and candy category. The transliteration method was found used in every product category, but it seemed not to be very significant. The English-only method was found significantly used in frozen and chilled food category (91.30%), snack and candy category (72.41%), and canned and instant food category (45.71%). The hybrid method was found not to be the popular brand name presentation method used for presenting Thailand's food product brand names in the international markets. See the chart in Figure 1 below.

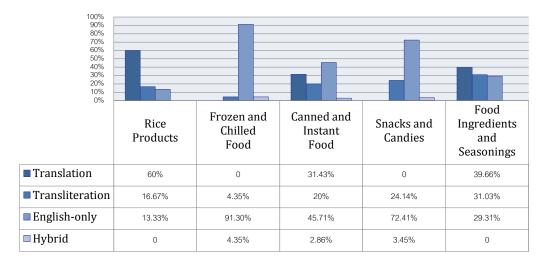


Figure 2: Overview of Thailand's exported food brand name presentation methods

Considering the presentation methods of the brand names and their product types, it is quite obvious that the brand names of traditional products such as rice and food ingredients, based on Chan and Huang (2001), tend to be significantly presented by the translation method, while the brand names of modern products such as frozen food and snacks are likely to be presented by the English-only method. It is of no matter whether the translation or English-only method is used, it is apparent that the meaning of brand names can be conveyed to the international customers. Thus, the semantics and pragmatics of those brand names should play a very important role in international brand name communication.

5.2 Semantic Categories of Brand Names

The classification of semantic categories of Thailand's exported food product brand names is based on a single word unit and its referential meaning. That is, every single word of a brand name is categorized into a suitable semantic category. For example, the brand name Golden Rabbit is considered consisting of two single words, Golden and Rabbit, thus Golden is put into one category, and Rabbit is categorized into other category. For the non-English brand names, e.g., the brand name Roza, which is originally from Arabic, the categorization is conducted on the basis of their language of origin. The analysis reveals that certain semantic categories are significantly used in different types of products, as being discussed below.

The brand names of Thailand's exported rice product can be classified into 11 semantic categories. The majority of Thai rice brand names are composed of {ATTRIBUTE}, as it was found in 23 brand names (76.67%). {ANIMAL} seems also popular among the Thailand's rice exporters. The animal term was found used in eight brand names (26.67%). {PERSON}, {PLANT}, {JEWELRY, and {HEAVENLY BODY} can be one of the significant choices for rice product brand naming.

Other semantic categories found but less significant include {ARTIFACT}, {ACTIVITY}, {EMOTION}, {SENSE} and {GREETING}.

The brand names of frozen and chilled food products are composed of eight semantic categories. The most frequently found categories are {PLACE} (47.83%), {EDIBLE} (43.48%), {ATTRIBUTE} (39.13%) and {PERSON} (39.13%), respectively. Other semantic categories found include {ACTIVITY}, {HEAVENLY BODY}, {ARTIFECT} and {DECISIVE OBJECT}.

Canned and instant food brand names fall into 12 semantic categories. The significant categories are {ATTRIBUTE} (34.29%), {PERSON} (31.43%), {PLACE} {17.14%}, {ANIMAL} (14.29%), {ARTIFECT} (14.29%), and {PLANT} (11.43%). Other semantic categories found, but less significant, are {HEAVENLY BODY}, {EDIBLE}, {EMOTION}, {FACIAL EXPRESSION}, {ACTIVITY} and {SENSE}.

The brand names of snacks and candies can be categorized into eight semantic categories. The most frequently found categories are {EDIBLE} (56.52%), {ATTRIBUTE} (56.52%) and {PERSON} (26.09%). Other semantic categories found are {PLANT}, {ANIMAL}, {PLACE}, {ENTERTAINMENT}, and {SHAPE}.

Food ingredient and seasoning brand names can be put into 14 semantic categories, and the most frequently found categories are {ATTRIBUTE} (48.28%), {PERSON} (29.31%), {ANIMAL} (15.52%) and {PLANT} (15.52%). Other less significant semantic categories found include {ARTIFECT}, {PLACE}, {EDIBLE}, {JEWELRY}, {DECISIVE OBJECT}, {FACIAL EXPRESSION}, {SHAPE}, {BODY PART}, {ENTERTAINMENT}, and {SENSE}.

Of all the semantic categories, {ATTRIBUTE}, {PERSON}, {EDIBLE}, {ANIMAL} and {PLACE} are quite significant. It is noticed that by using these categories, the exporters expect to communicate certain information through the brand names. For example, {ATTRIBUTE} such as 'golden', 'royal', 'imperial', 'super', 'great', 'classic', etc. tend to be concerned with quality of the products. {PERSON} such as 'farmer', 'chef', 'king', 'queen', 'Mae Pranom', 'Mah Boonkrong' can be considered as concerning with the products in some ways. 'Farmer' and 'chef', for example, are the professions related to the products (rice, food ingredient). 'King' and 'Queen' can be related to the superior quality of the products, and 'Mae Pranom' or 'Mah Boonkrong' can be related to original products. {EDIBLE} such as 'fruit', 'food', 'seafood', 'nut', 'candy', etc., can directly tell customers what the products are. {AMINAL} such as 'dragon', phoenix', 'Pegasus', 'elephant', 'nautilus' can mark exoticness or uniqueness of the products. The semantic category analysis seems to suggest that only certain members of the categories are selected for Thailand's exported food brand names, and those selected members should serve the exporters' purposes of brand naming.

5.3 Match between intended and interpreted meanings

This study indicated that all exporters did have intentions behind the use of their brand names. However, not all the intended meanings were perceived in the international markets. The matching between intended and interpreted meaning of the brand names helped understand what characteristics of the brand names were likely to be influential in brand name communication.

The two meanings of Thailand's exported food brand names were found both matched and unmatched. For the matched cases, the brand name meanings could be either fully matched or partially matched. The fully matched refers to the cases where all the customer groups could interpret the intended meaning of the brand names correctly. The partially matched, on the other hand, refers to the cases where not all customer samples could get the brand names' intended meanings. The unmatched means those cases where no customer sample could interpret the right intended meanings of the brand names. The following table exhibits the brand names in each case.

Due du st	М	eaning matched	Maaringaaring
Product	Fully matched	Partially matched	Meaning unmatched
Rice Product	GOLDEN PHOENIX, IMPERIAL TASTE, JASMINE GOLD, Q RICE, SUPER DRAGON	GREAT HARVEST, GOLDEN GLOBE, ROYAL ORCHID, GOLDEN CRANE, GOLDEN DIAMOND, GOLDEN HORSE, GOLDEN LOTUS, GOLDEN PEARL, GOLDEN RABBIT, ROYAL DANCER, ROYAL ELEPHANT, ROYAL UMBRELLA, SMART CHEF, URC, GOLDEN EARTH, LOVE FARMER	GOLDEN TUB, KASET, MAH BOONKRONG, PONGLARP, SUN, SURIN TIP, SWAT-D, YOUNG ELEPHANT, DOUBLE ELEPHANTS
Frozen and Chilled Food	FRUIT KING, EXCEL FRUITS, SEA FRESH, CHEF'S CHOICE	FRUIT CELLAR, OCEAN STAR, LITTLE CHEF, KC FRESH, SURAPON FOODS, VITAFOOD, VENTUNA, PFP, PTN, CMR, CNV, AMS, U.F.P, TSF, CSF	MAY, AROY-D, KISS, PAM
Canned and Instant Food	PROCHEF, OCEAN TASTE, ASIAN BOWL, ROYAL SEA	STAR, SMILING FISH, MADAME WONG, PANASIA, KC, YUM YUM, KING BELL, MAMA, QUEEN BELL, HI-Q, THREE LADY COOKS, DELIGHT, O&P, DOUBLE DRAGON, UFC	BATTLESHIP, AMPRO, ROZA, TWIN ELEPHANT & EARTH, S. KHONKAEN, PINE, NAUTILUS, BAMBOO, KIN DEE, RIVER KWAI, TROFCO, BENJAMAS, PIGEON, BEAN, WAI WAI, PICHAYA
Snacks and Candies	FLOWER FOOD, NUT CANDY, MR. SQUID, JUMBO, POTATO, SOFTLINE, MY MINT	WAFRUIT, CLASSIC, CAPUNO, KHAO SHONG NUTS, CRUSTY, TONG GARDEN, YOFRUIT, ONE MORE, FISHO, NUT WALKER, BIGGA	KOH-KAE, MANORAH, RICHO, TARO, COUGAR, EURO, PILLO, OTARI, TAO KAE NOI, JEED JARD, DURIO
Food Ingredients and Seasonings	SUN SAUCE, GOLD LABEL, NEW GRADE, NO.1 CHOICE, CLASSIC THAI, THAI CHOICE, SIAM KITCHEN	KING, OREINTAL CHEF, NEO SUKI, COOK YIM, 3 CHEFS, FLYING RABBIT, TALAD THAI, CHAO THAI, GOLDEN COINS, HAND NO.1, STAR LION, ALFA ONE, MEGACHEF, FOODEX, THAI SMILE, RED SPOON, SHOICE, WHITE ELEPHANT, FLYING TIGER	OLEEN, MORAKOT, RAMWONG, DESERT ROSE, LOBO, SUREE, PANTAINORASINGH, RIZI, RAZOR CLAM, FUANG FAH FLOWER, ROSE, THREE TRAIANGLES, MAE PRANOM, GOLDEN BOAT, KANGAROO, MAE KRUA, RUAMROS, OYSTER, GOLDEN BOY, GOGI, JADE LEAF, CHAO KOH, MAE PLOY, MAE SRI, ARROZA, TREE, RAITIP, MORADOK, JUTHATHIP, GOLDEN FISH, THAI DANCER, PEGASUS

Table 1: List of brand names with intended and interpreted meaning matched and unmatched

Considering the fully matched cases, it is noticed that only a small number of brand names can effectively convey what the exporters want to mean to their customers. Even though many brand names in the partially matched and unmatched cases seem to be meaningful, they could not completely communicate the exporters' intentions to customers. It can thus be assumed that there are certain factors that affect the meaning communication of those brand names.

5.4 Factors influencing semantic-pragmatic based brand naming

Based on the match between intended and interpreted meanings of the brand names, it was found that there were at least four semantic and pragmatic factors that influence the success of brand name meaning communication in international markets. Those factors are: 1) selection of presentation method and lexical choices, 2) reference shift and sense relation, 3) observation of Gricean Maxims, and 4) level of relevance.

5.4.1 the selection of presentation method and lexical choices

Obviously, the brand names in the matched cases were presented by translation, English-only and hybrid method. The transliteration method was found only in the meaning unmatched case. Presenting brand names using English language in international markets seems to work better than using other foreign languages. It might be because English is the language known by both exporters and consumers. The meanings of brand names are thus more understandable. However, not every translation and English-only brand name communicates the exporters' intentions effectively. Lexical choices also affected the communication of brand name meanings. For example, the brand name Golden Phoenix, which is translated from 'หงษ์ทอง', was intended to mean 'premium quality'. The use of the words 'golden' and 'phoenix' seems to be effective since, internationally, 'golden' can be associated with 'high value', and 'phoenix' is often known as a special and magical bird. 'Golden' and 'Phoenix' can thus be a good combination for presenting 'premium quality'. Nevertheless, not every word accompanied 'golden' can mean 'high quality'; for example, the brand name Golden Tub, which was also intended to mean 'high quality' product, was viewed as a strange name because the word 'tub' is associated with 'bathroom', not with 'food'. To find a good brand name, exporters should firstly be concerned with how to present their brand names in the markets and what lexical items are to be used to present their intentions.

5.4.2 reference shift and sense relatedness³

It is a fact that a brand name is used for a certain type of product, references of the brand names are, thus, shifted to refer to the product they label. For example, the brand name Siam Kitchen, which is originally referred to "a place for cooking Siam (Thai) food", is shifted to refer to 'different kinds of Thai food ingredients such as chili paste, dipping sauce, curry paste etc.' It is noticed that the shift of reference of Siam Kitchen seems to occur within the domain of 'cooking'. This suggests that if the brand name reference is shifted within the same or very close domain, the communication of brand name meaning is potentially successful. In addition, the brand names in the matched cases tend to be related to the product characteristics in some senses. For example, Jumbo can be well related to the 'size of product'; Sea Fresh is clearly related to 'freshness' of the product. This 'sense relatedness' of the brand names can be one of the factors that enable effective brand name meaning communication.

5.4.3 observation of Gricean Maxims⁴

The study showed that the more maxims the exporters observed, the more successful in brand name meaning communication it would be. In the meaning matched cases, exporters tended to observe the

³ The terms 'reference shift' and 'sense relatedness' were adapted from Frege's (1892) 'Sense and Reference'.

⁴ Gricean Maxims describe specific rational principles observed by people who obey the cooperative principle. There are four of them: quality, quantity, relation and manner. These principles are believed to enable effective communication. (see Grice, 1975)

four maxims when they named their brand. Some exporters observed the maxims by telling customers directly what their products are, e.g., the brand names Q Rice, Fruit King, Nut Candy, Flower Food, etc. Some exporters chose to talk about their product properties, e.g., New Grade, Imperial Taste, Jumbo, etc. Among the four maxims, exporters seemed to violate the maxim of quality, quantity and manner, but rarely the maxim of relation. In the cases of deviated words, e.g., Durio, Capuno, etc., abbreviation, e.g., URC, CMR, AMS, etc., blended words, e.g., Trofco, Ampro, etc., it is apparent that the maxim of quality, quantity and manner are violated. It seems that the exporters of these brand names observed only the maxim of relation. In case only the maxim of relation is observed, exporters might need to consider the level of relevance of their brand names.

5.3.4 Level of relevance

Based on the Relevance Theory (Sperber & Wilson 1985, 1995), successful communication relies on the so-called 'optimal relevance'.⁵ In the case of brand name communication, it is thus the duty of exporters to provide customers with the brand names' optimal relevance if they want their brand names to be communicated effectively. This study revealed that the relevance of brand names could reach its optimal level if things surrounding the brand names were relevant enough to intended meaning of the brand names. For example, the abbreviation brand names should be understood easier if the words the abbreviation stood for are provided immediately after the abbreviation. The brand name Q Rice can be a good example for this as the exporter showed the word 'quality' in the slogan right after the brand name: *Q Rice, the Quality of life*. Types of products can also bring about optimal relevance to the brand names. For example, the brand names such as Asian Bowl and Ocean Taste can be relevant enough because they fit their product types, instant Asian food and canned seafood. The study suggests that level of brand name relevance can also be used to determine the potential of success in brand name meaning communication.

6. Conclusion

It can be generalized from this study that the success of brand name meaning communication is apparently affected by the semantic and pragmatic characteristics of the brand names. Therefore, in brand naming a product, business owners might have to consider different factors that influence brand communication. These factors can be summarized into two main aspects: 1) 'semantic appropriateness' and 2) 'pragmatic enrichability'. Semantic appropriateness deals with the linguistic aspect of the brand names. That is, the brand names should exhibit both reference and sense that are suitable for its product types. Pragmatic enrichability is, on the other hand, responsible for the communicative aspect of the brand name. This means that business owners should provide contextual environments around the brand names that enrich their intended meanings in communication. Business owners might have to observe Grice's maxims or provide optimal relevance that enable the successful communication. It is noted that customers tend to perceive the intended meaning of brand names easier if the brand names exhibit both sematic appropriateness and pragmatic enrichability. Also, the customers are likely to be able to interpret the brand names that are not relevant enough to their encyclopedic knowledge.

⁵ An utterance is optimally relevant to the hearer just in case: (a) it is relevant enough to be worth the hearer's processing effort; (b) it is the most relevant one compatible with the speaker's abilities and preferences (Sperber & Wilson 1985)

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An Ethnographic Study of Communication and Language Use in Rural Thailand

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Abstract

Linguistic context has become more diverse with the promotion of ecotourism in rural Thailand since the 1990s. Thus, this study, which was conducted in the rural community of Ban Khiriwong in southern Thailand, aimed to discover what languages and communication strategies local people choose to use with various interlocutors. From one year of field work, the first researcher was the main instrument using field notes, interviews and archival research to gain information about how local residents communicate with Thai and foreign visitors. The findings show that Southern Thai is used in almost all situations involving local people, and Southern Thai mixed with Standard Thai is used with Thai visitors who cannot understand the local variety. For most interactions with foreigners, a combination of English and communication strategies was used. The study found evidence of both language-based strategies, such as code-mixing and circumlocution, and non-language-based strategies, such as using gestures and avoiding communication.

Keywords: linguistic context, communication strategies, language choice, ethnography

An Ethnographic Study of Communication and Language Use in Rural Thailand

In the age of globalization, the world is like one big village where people can move freely for work and leisure to any part of the world. According to Graddol (2006, p. 29), these people include immigrants, business workers, people working for NGOs and tourists. Companies in developed countries outsource their work to developing countries which provide the best cost advantage (Graddol, p. 34). In 2004, nearly three-quarters of international tourism involved non-native speakers of English visiting non-native-speaking countries, and this number continues to grow. There is an obvious need for face-to-face communication among people who do not share the same first language. In diverse language contexts, which language to use to communicate can sometimes be chosen by the speakers; sometimes, however, speakers are constrained to use English as a lingua franca even if their proficiency is low.

When people have problems in communication, they use communication strategies. Tarone (1981, p. 288) defined a communication strategy as "a tool to bridge a gap between two different languages". People use this tool because of their linguistic limitations including vocabulary knowledge in the second language (Dörnyei, 1995). People use "their hands, they imitate the sound of moving things, they mix languages, create new words, they describe or circumlocute". We can see that communication strategies can be divided into language-based (code-mixing, coining new words, circumlocution) and non-language-based (using gestures) (Savignon, 1983, p. 43, cited in Dörnyei, 1995).

Linguistic Context of Thailand and Ban Khiriwong

Thailand has about 60 ethno-linguistic groups with 70 to 80 languages from five language families: Tai, Austroasiatic, Austronesian, Sino-Tibetan and Hmong-Mien (Lewis, 2009; Premsrirat et al., 2004; Premsrirat, 2008; Premsrirat & Malone, 2003; Smalley, 1994). Premsrirat et al. (2004) classify Thai languages into three categories: Standard Thai, Regional Thai Languages and Languages for Minority Groups. Smalley (1994) proposed four categories: National language, Regional languages, Marginal regional languages and other categories of languages.

Generally, Standard Thai is officially used for various domains such as education, administration, business, mass media, and daily communication all over the country. The regional languages (Central Thai, Northern Thai, Northeastern or E-sarn Thai, and Southern Thai) are used for communication among people within each region (Premsrirat et al., 2004). However, some people from each region may use Standard Thai as a medium of communication while communicating with Thais from other regions.

Since the research site of this study, Ban Khiriwong, is in the southern region, we will now discuss both Southern and Standard Thai in more detail. In comparing of all linguistic features, the major distinctions between these two varieties of Thai involve the phonological and lexical systems rather than syntax (Chanawong, 2002; Diller, 1979; Phongphaibun, 2006; Smalley, 1994). Smalley (1994) provides an explanation for the primary difference of tone between Southern Thai and Standard Thai and why southerners often produce the wrong tone when pronouncing words in Standard Thai. He states that "a given tone in Standard Thai is not always matched by a single tone in Paktay [Southern Thai]. In fact, the Standard Thai low tone corresponds to three tones in Paktay: high, high falling and low rising" (Smalley, 1994, p. 103). Moreover, "some words in the Southern Thai are used in a reduced form of Standard Thai and are produced in more rapid manner with strong southern accent" (Chanawong, 2002, p. 319).

Research Context

Ban Khiriwong is a fruit farming community in Nakhon Si Thammarat province, southern Thailand. About 80 percent of approximately 2,500 local residents are fruit farmers who have been able to conserve their unique traditional way of life and manage their natural resources for more than 250 years. With the success of community development and natural resources management, the community was acknowledged by Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) as a prototype of ecotourism management in 1998 (TAT, 1998) and by Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) Tourism Working Group in 2006 (Heah, 2006). Because of its high-profile name, the community has attracted government organizations, NGOs, private sector operators, educational institutions and tourists to the community. With more and more people from different regions and cultures inside and outside the country travelling to the community, its socio-economy, traditional jobs and way of life as well as communication and language use may also change.

This article reports on an attempt to use an ethnographic approach to investigate an issue in applied linguistics, that of the language choices and communication strategies used in a rural linguistic context. The research reported here is part of a larger study, which was conducted for the first author's doctoral thesis. Here, we seek to answer the following two research questions:

- 1. What languages do Khiriwong people use in various situations?
- 2. What communication strategies do they use?

Methodology

This section explains the research paradigm used in this study and describes the informants, instruments, fieldwork and data analysis.

Research Paradigm

Ethnography was chosen as our paradigm because it is adept at yielding data that describe social phenomena from the insider's perspective (Agar, 1980; 2008; Creswell, 2007; Fetterman, 1998, 2010). In applied linguistics, ethnography can provide a perspective on language in society. Blommaert and Jie (2010) explain that ethnography has its origins in anthropology and quote Hymes's (1964, xiii) explanation: "It is anthropology's task to coordinate knowledge about language from the viewpoint of man".

Informants

Using informed consent forms from the Department of Language Studies at King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, the first author mingled with community members as they went about their daily lives during the year March 2009 to March 2010. Eventually, 102 local residents (i.e., headman, fruit orchard owners, tourism coordinators, tour guides, home stay hosts, and resort owners) and 96 outside visitors, both Thais and foreigners (i.e., day trippers, trekkers and groups of study visitors) acted as informants.

Instruments and Fieldwork

As is normal practice in ethnography, the instruments were developed both before and during data collection. In the fieldwork, the first author acted as a key instrument following the concept of "living with and living like those who are studied" (Van Maanen, 1988, p. 2). Field notes were taken during participant observations as well as during informal conversations and interviews; the interviews were audio-recorded.

Data Analysis

Descriptive analysis (Angrosino, 2007, p. 69) was used at the end of each week's data collection. This involved reviewing field notes, transcribing or summarizing interviews from audio files. Repeated passes through the data revealed themes and sub-themes relating to the research questions.

Findings and Discussion

This section focuses on Khiriwong residents' communication with Thai and foreign visitors in terms of language choice and communication strategies.

Communication between Khiriwong Residents and Thai Visitors Language choice.

Residents were divided over the choice of Southern or Standard Thai. Some residents were very robust in their belief that they should use Southern Thai with Thai visitors:

"This is our local dialect, so it is easy for locals to communicate with other people. They must learn some words before coming to our community." (Interview extract 1: young woman)

"They [Visitors] are able to learn the way we use the dialect in our daily life. Though they may not understand us, they can experience how to struggle with the strangers." (Interview extract 2: middle-aged woman)

Both these residents feel that Thai visitors should "learn" some Southern Thai. However, the young woman in the first extract believes it is "easy" for local residents to communicate with people from other regions of Thailand whereas the middle-aged woman in the second extract feels that visitors need to experience the "struggle" of communication across varieties of Thai.

Other residents took the opposite view, that Standard Thai was a more appropriate variety to use with non-southern Thai visitors:

"Visitors don't understand our Southern dialect, so we have to use Standard Thai." (Interview extract 3: girl under sixteen)

A more pragmatic and flexible approach is suggested by another young resident, who says he would accommodate Thai visitors on a case-by-case basis:

"It depends on the visitors, whether they can speak Southern Thai or Standard Thai." (Interview extract 4: male teenager)

Variation in viewpoint across the community may partly stem from residents' age. Overall, the data suggest that younger residents tended to be more accommodating than older residents. One reason for younger people's willingness to use Standard Thai may emanate from their more recent exposure to it in the classroom. As this teacher explains, language education policy requires the use of Standard Thai:

"At [my school], we have to use Standard Thai ... for teaching all subjects ... We have to follow the National Primary Education Act." (Interview extract 5: English teacher)

Communication strategies.

Two language-based communication strategies were reported by Khiriwong residents when communicating with Thai visitors. The English teacher cited above observes that the communication strategies of code-mixing and code-switching between Standard and Southern Thai are routinely utilized "unintentionally" and "naturally" at her school:

"Sometimes, even at school, we still use Southern Thai ... As we are all southern-born teachers, we unintentionally use Standard Thai in Southern Thai words and tones. I think codemixing or code-switching happens naturally." (Interview extract 6: English teacher)

It seems likely that this utilization of code-mixing and code-switching is a consequence of the nationwide imposition of Standard Thai on the educational system.

Communication between Khiriwong Residents and Foreign Visitors Language choice.

Two languages were mentioned for communication with foreigners, Thai (both Standard and Southern varieties) and English:

"They [Foreigners] can't understand our Southern dialect, so I talk to them in English, Standard Thai ..." (Interview extract 7: girl under sixteen)

"English is more easily understood [by foreign visitors]. But I think one language is not enough. Foreigners are the same as us; they use English, basic Thai ..." (Interview extract 8: girl under sixteen)

In Extract 7, the informant believes that foreigners are more likely to understand Standard Thai than Southern Thai, so she accommodates them by using the former variety; she also uses English. The informant in Extract 8 says that "one language is not enough". Her behavior is reactive: she uses both English and "basic Thai" because those are the languages foreigners use.

Two speakers show an awareness of the global role of English and seem to use this knowledge as a reason to use English as a lingua franca with foreign visitors to facilitate communication:

"... I use English. My teacher tells me that English is a universal language." (Interview extract 9: boy under sixteen)

"I don't know what language to talk to foreigners; many foreigners here could not speak English, either. But, as English is a universal language, it is a must, isn't it? I try to talk to them with my poor English." (Interview extract 10: middle-aged woman)

The boy in Extract 9 learn from his teacher that English is "a universal language" while the woman in Extract 10 shows an awareness that, despite its "universal" role, not all foreigners can speak English; even so, she attempts to use English, saying that it is a "must".

Again, age appears to affect language choice. Although the informant in Extract 11 does not explicitly say that younger people should learn "the new language" for the sake of the community, he seems to be excluding older people from the language-learning burden:

"I'm too old to learn the new language [English]. I have tried, but my tongue doesn't allow me to do so. It's too stubborn to speak other languages." (Interview extract 11: middle-aged man)

Communication strategies.

Khiriwong residents reported utilizing several strategies when communicating with foreigners. Some of these were language-based, others were non-language-based while, as will be shown below, the strategy of utilizing external sources might or might not involve language. Interestingly, more than one strategy might be used simultaneously.

The head of the tie-dyeing group reported using the language-based strategies of code-mixing and code-switching:

"We use many ways to communicate with foreigners: easy English, Standard Thai, Southern Thai." (Interview extract 12: head of tie-dyeing group)

A local guide, on the other hand, uses both language-based and non-language-based strategies. The field notes record that one of his language-based strategies is circumlocution. In order to explain to

some foreigners that scarecrows were placed in fruit orchards to protect fish, the guide used the terms "fish nature" for wild freshwater fish and "a doll man/a robot man chase birds" for a scarecrow. He also jots down English words. His non-language-based strategies include creating external sources by drawing pictures and using readily available sources such as maps. He is also one of many residents to report using physical gestures, in his case, using his hands:

"I'll talk and offer to help them with English. I use whatever I can think of: hands, draw pictures or maps, write down words. I don't care about grammar. I explain in my English." (Interview extract 13: local guide)

Similarly, a shopkeeper also uses both language-based and non-language-based strategies. She reports using the routine communicative function of greeting customers and "key words" in English, and utilizing the readily available external source of a calculator to give prices.

"I greet visitors in English, talk to them using only key words because the tourists also use only key words ... I can tell them the price or use a calculator." (Interview extract 14: middle-aged shopkeeper)

Other language-based external sources found in the data include phrase books and dictionaries.

The head of the handicraft group avoids English by engaging people as an external source: "translators" or "interpreters" who accompany some groups of foreign visitors. If that strategy fails, he uses his hands and his own materials to demonstrate what he is trying to convey about handicrafts:

"I almost always use translators ... My [foreign] guests sometimes bring their own interpreters ... In case there is nobody to translate, I use hands, show authentic materials and demonstrate or teach them steps [in making handicrafts]." (Interview extract 15: head of handicraft group)

The field notes suggest that using translators is the residents' preferred strategy if they have a choice. Indeed, the field notes show further examples of the strategy of utilizing people as external sources for linguistic support. For instance, staff members at the community tourism centre help each other to communicate with foreign visitors; failing that, they make phone calls to residents with a higher level of English, such as guides, or non-residents, such as English teachers at the university in the nearest city.

Finally, another strategy of avoidance is reported by a grocer, who found that, when he used English, some of his foreign customers assumed his proficiency was better than it actually was. He therefore chose to minimize his use of English:

"Once we talk to them [foreigners] in English, they think I might understand them, so they speak faster with more questions until I don't understand ... so now I usually sell things without talking; I just say 'yes', 'no' or 'OK' with gestures, calculator or I open my bilingual phrase book ..." (Interview extract 16: grocer in his early thirties)

Conclusion

This paper has aimed to exemplify how ethnography can be used in applied linguistics to describe a social phenomenon from the insider's perspective. The findings show that investigating local

people's routines and perspectives through a longitudinal study can yield rich data which, notwithstanding inevitable researcher bias in interpretation, reveal the voice of a community. In the case of Khiriwong, the residents reflected that they prefer to use their mother tongue, Southern Thai, in almost all situations as far as their interlocutors can understand them. Though Standard Thai plays a key role as a national language and is officially used as the medium of instruction in the local school, it is almost always used in mixing and/or switching with Southern Thai. English, perceived as a universal language by some local residents, plays a role as a subject to be taught at school and as an additional language for younger people in the community as well as some older people whose work brings them into contact with foreign visitors to the community. However, due to most residents' limited exposure to English, their proficiency is very limited. Thus, a range of both language-based and non-language-based communication strategies was found in their interactions with foreigners. Language-based strategies included code-mixing, code-switching and circumlocution while non-language-based ones included using body language and utilizing such external sources as translators, colleagues and English teachers.

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The Role of Mass Media in the Development of English Language Skills among AB English Students of Isabela State University

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Abstract

This study deals with the role of mass media in the development of English language skills among the AB English students of Isabela State University, Echague, Isabela. The mass media covered were radio, television, magazines, newspapers and the internet. The descriptive method of research was used since it pertains to the prevailing conditions. To gather pertinent data, a set of questionnaire composed of five parts was administered to the respondents. The data obtained from the respondents were tabulated and treated statistically using percentage, ranking and weighted average. The analyses of the data generated the following results: the respondents were frequently exposed to the radio and television and sometimes to newspapers, the internet and magazines. In the print, internet and broadcast media, the respondents preferred the lifestyle section, musical program, news program, news magazine, and text-based and voiced-based chat. Listening, speaking, reading and writing skills were all highly developed through the exposure of the respondents to various forms of mass media. The respondents, in general, encountered slightly serious problems regarding the use of the various forms of mass media in the development of language skills. As for the measures that may be implemented to enhance language skills development through the mass media, the respondents strongly recommended that teachers should require students to read magazines and newspapers and make a synthesis paper on the articles that they read.

Keywords: Mass Media, Development of Language Skills, Lifestyle Section, Musical Program, News Program and News Magazine

Introduction

In a developing country such as the Philippines, use of the English language should be enhanced among students. The language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing in English) must be developed in the youth, who will sooner or later be the leaders of the nation, particularly among the students of teacher training institutions who will become trainers of future generations. Measures should be implemented to improve the language skills of these students especially those who major or specialize in English.

Exposure to mass media may make or unmake a certain individual. It plays a vital role in the formation of language learning habits and skills and influences people from as young as one month old to as old as one hundred years or more. Mass media have the entire population as an audience and this fact makes their social importance obviously apparent. Because of questionable exposure of students to modern mass media and the awareness of the deficiency of these students in listening, speaking, reading and writing, the researcher was prompted to study the role of mass media in the development of these skills.

Objectives of the Study

This study aimed to assess the role of mass media in the development of language skills among AB – English Students at the College of Arts and Sciences.

Specifically, this study sought to achieve the following objectives:

- 1. To determine the extent of exposure of the student respondents to the different forms of mass media such as radio, newspaper, television, internet and magazine;
- 2. To identify the preferences of the respondents in terms of types of radio programs, types of television programs, types of magazine, sections of the newspapers, and educational sources on the internet useful for communication;
- 3. To determine the specific skills developed among the students upon their exposure to mass media in relation to their listening, speaking, reading, and writing;
- 4. To reveal the problems encountered by the students in the development of language skills.
- 5. To determine the measures proposed to enhance language skills development through the mass media.

Related Literature and Studies

English is a second language in the Philippines, and many books have been written about the language particularly on grammar. Some were also written about the different language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing for effective communication. The English language form the foundation for effective communication which depends upon a person's ability to construct meaning through reading, listening and viewing. These skills are essential to the health of democracy and quality of culture, and have become ever more important since the advent of modern communication media. Sadeghi (2007) stressed that lexicon and grammar are necessary elements for comprehension (the foundation for appreciation of thematic meaning and response in literature) because comprehension is a part of the interplay between the readers linguistic knowledge, the writer, the text and the context. Student use and develop important skills as they read and think about topics, themes and issues in various subject areas. An effective reader is one who can comprehend new contexts. If they see themselves and others in texts they read and the oral and media works they engage in, they are able to feel that the works are genuinely for and about them and they come to appreciate the nature and value of a diverse, multicultural society.

According to American Heritage Dictionary (2000), mass media is a means of public communication reaching a large audience through the television, radio and newspaper. Some media houses in the Philippines offer educational services to students. Specifically, the National Broadcasting Network PTV 4 has a program on English language besides other educational services. Senn and Skinner (2002) stated that students should also choose their own research topics, books and projects of personal interest in the independent reading course, which alternates with creative writing. Journalism production and yearbook production provide students with ample opportunities to discover journalistic writing such as news and feature writing and editing of drafts. The more students read and write the more likely they will be able to develop an essential understanding of the power of their written word. Not only books have been written about the importance of developing English language skills, but also many studies have been conducted. The researchers encountered some of these studies and included those which are relevant to the present study.

Study conducted by Livingstone and Bovill (2001) showed that adolescents all over the world now spend more and more time consuming entertainment media, including television, the internet, popular music, movies and videogames with media consumption estimated between 6-8 hours per day for children age 8 to 18 in the United States and other developed nations in Europe and Asia. The Internet or the new media is the world's largest interconnected environment. It is the most recent communication tool where a user can transcend borders and have access to encyclopedias, newspapers, bulletin boards, video arcades, hypermalls, broadcast stations, the movies, grapevine, travel agency, and mail order all at one stop, in a global village (Rahmah Hashim, 2001, p.72). With the advent of the New Media (Internet), the government is faced with the challenge of how it can be used to enhance national development. The new media allows interactivity coupled with the fact that it is difficult to be controlled and monitored as compared to traditional or conventional mass media. The new media and information communication technology (ICT) in general are seen as a means to speed up and accelerate development if properly applied.

In the study on the television, Colorado (2007) said that television can be another good way for English language learners to learn new words and improve their overall English skills. And it is best when television is used in moderation, and when shows are appropriate for young audiences. Carlson (2006) added that film and television distribution systems have massively expanded the range of programming choices available, intensifying the recognition that media have meaningful effects on values, attitudes and beliefs, learning and social behavior of the children. Increasingly, in the United States as well as in many other English speaking nations, educators have included media literacy activities into the context of the K-12 language arts, social studies, health, vocational education or arts curriculum. Educators in these efforts have become increasingly organized, as evidenced by the National Media Literacy Conference, which attracted more than 500 educators to Los Angeles in 1995. Research on the attitudes and behaviors of teachers who engage in media analysis, media production or computer and technology education reveals that these individuals have a pattern of attitudes towards the media, towards young people and towards their own role as educators that support their active involvement in an educational initiative such as media literacy (Hobbs, 1996).

Methodology

Instrument

The study made use of the survey questionnaire as the major instrument and an observation guide as research techniques. The questionnaire devised by the researcher was tailored from the problems of the investigation. Salient factors that formed the entire questionnaire were supported by literature readings and by the academic faculty of English Communication Arts in the study site.

Validation

The survey questionnaire was validated by the teachers of Languages and Communication Arts in terms of form, content and readability of items before it was tried out among prospective English major students.

Procedure

The researcher requested permission from the university authorities to conduct the investigation and administered the questionnaires among intended respondents. There was a 100 percent turnout of accomplished survey instruments both from the students that responded to the questionnaire and from the teachers that responded to the observation guide. The respondents were observed by their respective instructors in English in addition to observations conducted by the researcher during direct encounters with them. The list of observations from the instructors and the researcher was consolidated and used to verify findings revealed in the questionnaire.

Respondents of the study

Course	MA	LE	FEM	ALE	ТОТ	AL
AB-English	Ν	%	Ν	%	Ν	%
1ST Year	6	30	16	25	22	26.19
2nd Year	2	10	14	21.87	16	19.04
3rd Year	5	25	9	14.06	14	16.67
4th Year	7	35	25	39.06	32	38.09
TOTAL	20	100	64	99.99	84	99.99

Table 1. Distribution of respondents

There were twenty (20) males and sixty four (64) females that formed a total of eighty four (84) students across the four year levels who served as respondents in the investigation. The respondents were all enrolled in the AB-English program in the school year 2010-2011.

Presentation and Interpretation of Data

This chapter presents and interprets data gathered from 84 respondents who were AB-English students enrolled at the College of Arts and Sciences. The data were presented in tabular form and interpreted following the sequence of the specific problems raised in the study.

Extent to which AB-English major students are exposed to different forms of mass media

Mass media play an important role in the development of attitudes, values and language skills of an individual. The daily exposure to television familiarize people with celebrities they look up to as models in speaking and gradually imitate them including gestures and their enunciation. Indeed, various forms of mass media contribute in one way or another to the development of the language skills. The table 2 shows that the student-respondents were frequently exposed to radio and television which received the weighted average of 3.78 and 4.11, respectively.

FORMS OF MASS MEDIA	MEAN	DESCRIPTION	RANK
Television	4.11	Frequently	1
Radio	3.78	Frequently	2
Newspaper	2.89	Sometimes	3
Magazine	2.75	Sometimes	4
Internet	2.73	Sometimes	5
Total Mean	3.25	Sometimes	

Table 2. Extent of respondent's exposure to different forms of mass media

On the other hand, the respondents perceived their exposure to magazines and newspapers as less often which yielded a verbal description of "sometimes" with a weighted average of 2.75 and 2.89. This means that the respondents were not exposed too much to magazines because of its cost. Obviously, students are more exposed to television as being reflected in the table because they would not just be able to hear the voice of persons involved in a program but also to see them on screen.

Respondents' preferences on sections/types of mass media

The preferences of the respondents in terms of the types of radio and television program as well as the sections of the newspapers, types of magazines and educational resources/useful tools for communication on the internet were also considered by the researcher. Their preferences might have a bearing on the effort of mass media in the development of language skills.

Newspapers. The respondents' preferences on the various sections of the newspaper are indicated in table 3.

Section	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Lifestyle Section	50	59.52	1
Feature Section	45	53.57	2
News Section	41	48.8	3.5
Editorial Section	41	48.8	3.5
Sports Section	38	45.23	5
Business Section	22	26.19	6
Classified Ads Section	15	17.85	7

Table 3. Respondents' preferences on different sections of the newspaper

As indicated, 59.52 percent of the respondents preferred the lifestyle section. There were 45 or 53.57 percent who favored feature section while news section and editorial section gained their percentage of 48.80 among 41 respondents. On the other hand, 38 or 45.23 percent of the respondents preferred sports section and lastly, classified ads section with 17.85 percent.

Newspapers help to improve reading habits, knowledge, and awareness. They can be part of good study habits for students in any area of specialization (Kumar, Singh and Siddigui, 2011).

Radio. The information regarding the respondents' preferences on the various radio programs are revealed in table 4.

The table reveals that 85.71 of the respondents favored musical programs of Love Radio and Hot FM. Second in rank was newscast, such as DZMM and DZRH, which was selected by 55 or 65.47 percent of respondents. Fifty one (51) or 60.71 percent of the respondents opted to listen to soap opera.

Radio Program	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Musical Program	72	85.71	1
(Love Radio, Hot FM)			
Newscast (DZMM, DZRRH)	55	65.47	2
Soap Opera	51	60.71	3
(Mr. Romantiko, Modern Romances)			
Public Services (Mel and Joey)	26	30.95	4
Special Program (interviews, debates)	24	28.57	5.5
Sports (PBA and boxing coverage)	24	28.57	5.5

Table 4. Respondents' preferences on types of radio program

There were 24 respondents or 28.57 percent who were fond of listening to special programs and sports, while 26 or 30.95 percent preferred the public service program.

These data show that the respondents were fond of listening to musical programs. Results of the study further revealed that respondents usually prefer listening to musical programs as a form of entertainment that they could gain and they could also relax from school work and personal problems.

Television. The data on respondent's preferences on the various types of television programs are presented in table 5.

Television Program	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
News	50	59.52	1
Educational shows	48	57.14	2
Game shows	41	48.8	3
Drama	32	38.09	4
Entertainment/variety	31	36.9	5
Shows			
Cartoons	25	29.76	6
Talk shows	15	17.85	7
Sports	10	11.9	8

Table 5. Respondent's preferences on types of television program

Based on the data reflected in the table, 59.52 percent of the respondents favored news, such as TV Patrol and 24 Oras. This is followed by educational shows such as "NC Atin to" and Discovery Channel. Cartoons such as Tom and Jerry that are supposedly meant for children gained 25 or 29.76 percent. Television program on sports was the least selected by only 10 or 11.90 percent of respondents.

The respondents were fond of watching news on television since they considered news as an important assistance in their studies providing the day-to-day information on events that happen in one's life and of the country. Okunrotifa as cited by Oyinlove and Adeleye (2011) explained that educational television refers to the transmission of educational programs through the television. This has been employed in many countries with varying degree of success. One notable example is the case of Cotevodivoire (Ivory Coast), where educational television was gainfully employed to tackle the problem of under-enrollment in schools.

Magazine. The data on the preferences of the respondents regarding the types of magazines they read are indicated in table 6. The table showed that there were 69 or 82.14 percent of respondents who preferred to read news magazine. On the other hand, women's interest like MOD magazine was chosen by 53 or 63.09 percent of respondents. Playboy magazine was one of the men's major interests with 40.47 percent or 34 respondents.

Types of magazine	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
News magazine	69	82.14	1
Women's interest (MOD, Women's)	53	63.09	2
Business magazine (Say magazine)	48	57.14	3.5
Special field magazine (Teachers Forum)	48	57.14	3.5
Men's interest (Playboy)	34	40.47	5

Table 6. Respondents' preferences on types of magazine

These data convey that 48 respondents favored business and special field over other types of magazines.

Table 7. Respondent preferences on educational resources/useful tools for communication on the Internet

Frequency	Percentage	Rank
75	83.28	1
55	65.47	2
53	63.09	3
51	60.71	4
48	57.14	5
42	50	6
40	47.61	7
26	30.95	8
-	75 55 53 51 48 42 40	75 83.28 55 65.47 53 63.09 51 60.71 48 57.14 42 50 40 47.61

Table 7 shows that the respondents are more interested in text-based and voiced-based chat than any other educational and useful tools for communication on the internet. The net has become the most important e-mail system in the world because it connects people worldwide, creating a productivity gain. Further, it is time to encourage students to visit educational sites, especially on English language. This will go a long way to improve their level of English to make them more competitive.

Language skills developed from exposure to different forms of mass media

It is presupposed that exposure of an individual to various forms of mass media make or unmake him in relation to the development of language skills. Tables 8-11 give the information on the language skills developed by respondents from their exposure to different forms of mass media. These skills include listening, speaking, reading and writing skills.

Listening. It is reflected in table 8 that in listening skills, "Improve listening comprehension" ranked first which garnered a weighted average of 3.96 and was described as highly developed.

Skills	Mean	Description	Rank
• Improve listening comprehension	3.96	Highly developed	1
• Understand, evaluate, make decisions and formulate opinion.	3.89	Highly developed	2
• Identify and associate sounds with meanings	3.84	Highly developed	3
• Perceive the correct pronunciation of words	3.76	Highly developed	4
• Discriminate between sounds and words	3.69	Highly developed	5
• Stimulate imagination	3.63	Highly developed	6
• Use my auditory memory	3.58	Highly developed	7

Table 8. Listening skills developed

Whereas the skill on "Use my auditory memory" was placed last and received a weighted average of 3.58. The result revealed that their listening comprehension was highly developed through listening to the radio.

The educational radio seems to be advantageous for many reasons since students are able to listen to experts on subjects through the educational radio broadcast. It stimulates imagination as many students only hear but do not see the speakers. They also acquire listening skills, which help them in the classroom when the teacher is teaching them. Moreover, if properly and consistently employed, it could be a good way of augmenting the shortage of teachers (Oyinlove and Adeleye, 2011).

Speaking. Table 9 contains data on speaking skills which were developed among respondents.

Skills	Mean	Description	Rank
• Make the proper pauses in speaking	3.77	Highly Develo	ped 1
• Produce the vowel and consonant sounds accurately and automatically	3.75	Highly Develo	ped 2
• Speak with the proper stress in words, phrases and sentences	3.63	Highly Develo	ped 3
• Use a pleasant tone of voice	3.59	Highly Develo	ped 4
• Correct my regional defect	3.51	Highly Develo	ped 5
• Improve my enunciation and articulation	3.46	Developed	6

Table	9.	Speakin	g skills	develop	ed
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The students of AB-English believed that their speaking skills were highly developed by mass media in the following specific areas: first in rank is "Make the proper pauses in speaking" which earned a weighted average of 3.77 and was described as highly developed except for "Improve my enunciation and articulation", which was described as developed which received the weighted average of 3.46. Further, the result revealed that when respondents listen over the radio and watch television, they usually hear, see how people speak and react and later on imitated them to ensure that their pronunciation is correct. By listening, watching and imitating how hosts of programs speak, they trained themselves in proper speaking and enabled themselves to produce sound pleasantly. However, the skill of putting stress on the right place which, according to respondents, is difficult to observe in the speakers was also developed. The students reason that this is because stress in sentences depends upon what the speakers wanted to emphasize.

These findings buttress the findings of Oyinloye and Adeleye (2011) that the place of media is important in the teaching of oral skills because it affords learners the opportunity to do three things at the same time, that is, listening, seeing and doing (imitation of sound production).

The media is a vital source whereby good speaking can be learned. Virtually all of the programs broadcast on radio and television are through speech, some programs broadcast on the radio can easily influence the oral skills of listeners. Radio and television stations such as British Broadcasting Service (BBC), Voice of America (VOA), Cable News Network (CNN), Digital Satellite Television (DSTV), Aljazeera, National Geography (NatGeo), Knowledge Channel (K Channel, ABS, CBN) could improve students speaking skills as they can listen to a variety of programs such as news, debates, comments on public affairs, language and literature lessons, and science breakthroughs. Most of these talks are given by experts and highly educated individuals. These experts speak very good English, which can influence listeners.

Reading. The summary data on reading skills developed through exposure to various forms of mass media is shown in table 10.

Reading Skills	Mean	Description	Rank
• Analyze the structure of Words	3.86	Highly developed	1.5
• Use context clues in	3.86	Highly developed	1.5
discovering meanings of unfamiliar words			
• Get the main idea of passage	3.76	Highly developed	3
• Identify the figures of speech	3.73	Highly developed	4
• Associate word with a number of idea	3.66	Highly developed	5.5
• Learn the meanings of idioms and to use them	3.66	Highly developed	5.5
• Make generalization	3.61	Highly developed	7
• Note details within the passage	3.45	Developed	8

Table 10. Reading skills developed

Mass media is also believed to help improve the areas on, "Analyze the structure of words" and "Use context clues in discovering meanings of unfamiliar words" and was ranked 1.5 with an average of 3.86 and described as highly developed. Other areas that were highly developed are "Associated word with a number of idea" and "Learn the meanings of idioms and to use them," whereas the area "Note details within the passage" was the only one that described as developed.

Television viewing and reading seem to require the same cognitive processes, although this association has not been empirically studied in depth. In as much as an association is recognized, the possible shared processes include the ability to sequence events, to make inferences across time and space, to understand character motives and link them to actions and consequences, and to allocate attention to resources primarily to central instead of peripheral information. The comprehension on television and text, therefore, seem analogous in many ways (D. Anderson & P. Collins, 1988; Lorch & Sanchez, 1997; van den Broek et al., 1996).

Writing. In table 11, the data on the writing skills developed among respondents through their exposure to mass media is summarized.

SKILLS	MEAN	DESCRIPTION	RANK
• Spell words correctly	4.07	Highly Developed	1.5
• Use the capital letters correctly	4.07	Highly Developed	1.5
• Use the punctuation marks correctly	3.9	Highly Developed	3
• Write a paragraph with correct indention and margins.	3.84	Highly Developed	4
• Organize by thought construct effective paragraphs.	3.69	Highly Developed	5
• Use words that are general current use	3.66	Highly Developed	6
• Use fresh and original figures of speech	3.59	Highly Developed	7

Table 11. Writing skills developed

The same results were drawn for the areas "spell words correctly" and "use capital letters correctly" as the first in rank with a weighted average of 4.07 and were determined as highly developed. The data shows that the respondents learned to use capital letters and how to spell and write the words correctly by reading magazines and newspapers where they gained familiarity with the words.

As a whole, writing skills were described as highly developed. These skills are according to the respondents had been developed in them because of their exposure to the printed media and sometimes to broadcast media. In Oyo State, television was used in literacy instruction. Salau (2006) citing Aderinoye, says that the objective of that television instructional program was to enable adult learner to be able to read and write functionally. The report of the study showed that the program was successful to the extent that communities that were not covered requested for the extension of the programs to their areas. The implication is that the television program enlisted and sustained the interests of the listeners in learning through television.

Problems encountered by respondents in the use of various forms of mass media

The respondents were asked on the problems they encountered on the use of the various forms of mass media such as radio, television, newspapers and magazines. The data obtained from the responses of respondents are indicated in table 12.

Problems in the use of radio

Table 12 presents the data concerning the respondent's problems in the use of radio. The respondents ranked first the problem on "I cannot choose the radio program I like" which yielded a weighted average of 2.33.All problems concerning the use of radio were interpreted as slightly serious based on their weighted average. Last in rank was "I have some hearing defects" that received a weighted average of 1.88.

Skills	Mean	Description	Rank
• I cannot choose the radio			
I like	2.3	Slightly serious	1
• There is no radio at home	2.25	Slightly serious	2
• I have no time to listen	2.21	Slightly serious	3
• I am not interested	2.2	Slightly serious	4
• I cannot understand easily	2.1	Slightly serious	5
• I have some hearing defects	1.88	Slightly serious	6

The data show that the respondents considered the problems concerning the use of radio as slightly serious. Further, the result revealed that most of the respondents do not have their radio at home and boarding house and accepted that they could not choose the radio program they liked.

Problems in the use of television

The data on the problems encountered by respondents in the use of television are indicated in table 13.

Problems	Mean	Description	Rank
• I cannot choose the			
television	.21	Slightly serious	1
• There is no television			
at home	2.13	Slightly serious	2
• I am not interested	2.1	Slightly serious	3
• I cannot understand			
easily	2	Slightly serious	4
• I have some visual and			
hearing defects	1.78	Slightly serious	5

Table 13. Problems in use of television

On the use of television, the problem described as "I cannot choose the television I like" ranked first with a weighted average of 2.21 with a verbal description of slightly serious. All problems were interpreted as slightly serious however.

Problems in use of newspapers

In table 14, the data on the problem encountered on the use of newspapers are reflected.

Problems	Mean	Description	Rank
I have no time to read	2.2	Slightly serious	1
I cannot buy newspaper	2.2	Slightly serious	2
I cannot understand easily	2.1	Slightly serious	3
I am not interested	2.07	Slightly serious	4
I have some visual defects	1.08	Slightly serious	5

With regard to the use of newspapers, all problems were considered slightly serious. "I have no time to read" ranked one which had a weighted average of 2.21. Ranked second "I cannot buy newspaper" with the weighted average of 2.20. The data implied that on the use of newspapers, time to read is a problem among respondents because of their studies and domestic tasks which they give priority over reading newspapers.

Problems	Mean	Description	Rank
Expensive	2.33	Slightly Serious	1
Addicting	2.25	Slightly Serious	2
Easy access to pornographic materials	2.21	Slightly Serious	3
Mishandling can destroy one's personality	2.2	Slightly Serious	
Forget to eat	2.13	Slightly Serious	5
Distracting studies	2.1	Slightly Serious	6
Lunch time is spent for the net causing neglect of other things	2.0	Slightly Serious	7
Bad information can be acquired	1.88	Slightly Serious	8
Creates dependency and laziness	1.78	Slightly Serious	9

It can be gleaned from the table that using the internet is expensive on the part of the students and it is also addictive especially when it has become part of one's daily routine.

Problems in the use of magazine

Table 16 shows the data on the problems encountered by respondents on the use of magazines. It reveals that the identified problems were described as slightly serious.

Problems	Mean	Description	Rank
We have a very limited magazines at home	2.29	Slightly serious	1
I cannot buy magazines	2.28	Slightly serious	2
I have no time to read	2.01	Slightly serious	3
I am not interested	2	Slightly serious	4
I cannot understand easily	1.8	Slightly serious	5
I have some visual defects	1.78	Slightly serious	6

Table 16. Problems encountered by the respondents in use	e of magazine
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The problem described as "we have a very limited magazine at home" ranked first with a weighted average of 2.29. Second was "I cannot buy magazine" with an average of 2.28. Further, results revealed that respondents were not fond of buying magazines because of their cost and their time was focused on their studies.

Suggested measures that may enhance development of language skills through mass media

The foregoing problems identified with various forms of mass media which were perceived by respondents as slightly serious indicate some constraints for a continual development of language skills. However, wise use of prescribed media programs and segments can control the most obvious cause of problem on cost of accessibility so that such constraints can be outweighed by the identified benefits on the development of language skills. Hence, table 17 shows the suggested measures that may enhance development of respondents' language skills through mass media.

	Measures	Mean	Description F	Rank
•	Teachers should require students to read newspapers and magazines and react to what they read.	4.04	Strongly recommended	1
•	The use of mass media should be made a part of every unit in the syllabus.	3.89	Strongly recommended	2
•	Increase the supply of T.V, radio, tape recorder and film Strips in the instructional materials. The school should established	3.78	Strongly recommended	3.5
•	linkage with the broadcast media and publications. Students should be required to listen to a radio program and	3.78	Strongly recommended	3.5
	make a reaction to it	3.55	Strongly recommended	5
•	Students should be required to submit a project taken from a certain form of mass media.	3.53	Strongly recommended	6
•	Students should be required to make reports on what they read.	3.52	Strongly recommended	7
•	Invite regularly resource person/s experts on the various types of a mass media.	3.48	Recommended	8
•	Students should be given assignments whose answers can be taken from the mass media.	3.47	Recommended	9
•	Students should be required to share at least one item a day.	3.44	Recommended	10

Table 17. Suggested measures that may enhance language skills development through mass media

As shown in the table, the measures that may be considered in enhancing the development of language skills are "the teacher should require students to read newspapers and magazines and react to what they read", was ranked first with a weighted average of 4.04; followed by "the use of mass media should be made a part of every unit in the syllabus" with the weighted average of 3.89; "increase the supply of T.V., radio, tape recorder and the film strips in the instructional materials" and "the school should establish linkages with the broadcast media and publications" gained a weighted average of 3.78 and the succeeding three earned a weighted average of 3.55, 3.53 and 3.52, respectively. These measures were considered strongly recommended. The respondents also considered measures that state "students should be required to share at least one news item a day", and "student should be given assignments whose answers can be taken from the mass media" and "invite regularly resource persons experts on the various types of mass media" were recommended. These recommended measures had a weighted average of 3.44, 3.47 and 3.48, respectively.

Conclusion

The issue of media resources is vital in learning. This study has proved that individuals can be encouraged to learn through resources that they can find in their environments. And in the light of the findings of the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. The AB-English college students have access and frequent exposure to all forms of mass media.

2. The use of mass media among the respondents revolve around lifestyle issues, musical programs, news programs, news magazine and text-based and voice-based chat.

3. The respondents considered their exposure to different forms of mass as very helpful in developing their communicative skills.

4. The access and use of the various forms of mass media among college students create slightly serious problems.

5. The student respondents are optimistic about the implementation of necessary measures that further enhance their language skills.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are hereby presented:

1. The evident access of students to various forms of media should be used as a vehicle for maximizing the development of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills.

2. Syllabi in selected English subjects must contain lessons and developmental activities derived from programs on radio and television and relevant articles from magazines, newspapers and internet.

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Learners' Generation of Reading Material: An Innovation for Teaching Academic Reading Skills

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Abstract

This paper reports the results of an experimental research study aimed at developing an innovative method for teaching academic English reading. It was conducted to confirm the results of the pilot study on the same teaching method. The subjects of this study were 79 graduate students from different areas of study. There was one control group which consisted of 15 students. There were three experimental groups with 64 students in total. However, only 15 students in the experimental groups whose pre-test scores matched those of the control group were selected for comparison. The experiment last eight weeks (three hours each week or the total of 24 credit hours). It was found that when the role of developing reading material was transferred to the students (the independent variable), the experimental group's mean score of the reading test (dependent variable) was significantly higher than the control group's. The attitude of the students in the experimental groups (three groups in all) toward the teaching method as measured by a questionnaire was found to be highly positive. The mean score of the reading test in all the experimental groups was better than that of the pre-test, and the students had a good attitude toward the teaching method as well.

Background of the Problem

Instructional material is one of the three key components (i.e., teacher, students, and material) in language classroom. It serves as a teaching frame for teachers. One source of instructional material is commercial texts. Many educational institutions in Thailand use this source as it is the most convenient. In such a case, course syllabuses are dominated by the textbook writers—whether it is the order of instruction, content, and so on. But in many universities, either teachers of individual courses prepare material for teaching their own classes, or the material prepared by the teaching unit is available as core material. In this case, the course syllabus is usually determined by the teaching unit. Teachers are required to use such material especially when several groups of students enroll in the same course. Some universities still allow their teachers to write instructional material for their courses. Thus, teachers dominate the teaching and learning process, as they not only select the teaching method but also the material for classroom teaching. This has been a normal practice in teaching English as a foreign language in Thailand.

However, research on motivation has now contributed to a change in the trend of teaching from the teacher-centered approach to the student-centered approach, perhaps because the former approach has not satisfactorily succeeded in making students learn. In spite of this trend, teachers still dominate the construction or selection of instructional material. Students, as one of the important stakeholders, have played no role in this respect. This is also the case at the National institute of Development Administration (NIDA), a graduate institute in Thailand.

In teaching academic reading to students from different areas of study at NIDA, the School of Language and Communication have core material for all teachers to use, since there are many

groups of students taking the same required academic reading course (LC 4001 Reading Skills Development in English for Graduate Studies) and they have to take the same mid-term and final tests. These students are required to take the course because their reading score in the English entrance examination did not reach the exemption level. (Not all schools use the same criteria [score level] for exemption, however.) As they are graduate students, authentic texts are used as the carrier content. The material provided by the teaching unit, i.e., the School of Language and Communication, is assumed to contain subjects that are of interest to students in all the fields. The School sets half a day on Tuesday as the class schedule and students are split into small groups. Students from different schools are free to enroll in any group, and they usually prefer to be with their peers from the same school. Because of this, some groups have students from the same field of study, while others have a mixture of students from different schools.

More than half of the students enrolled in the reading course failed the exam and have to take a remedial reading course (LC 4011). From the course evaluation made by the students at the end of the semester, one recurrent finding is that students have often complained about the instructional material. For example, some passages are out of date; some are not interesting (some students prefer subjects of general interest, while others prefer reading selections from their own fields of study); and others are too difficult in terms of language and concept. For these reasons, their motivation to read these texts is likely to be low. That is why the researcher thinks it necessary to do something to motivate them extrinsically as well as intrinsically.

The review of related literature reveals that motivation is now accepted as an influencing factor in regards to reading behavior. The influence of motivation over reading behavior is supported by the self-determination theory of motivation, which describes the development of intrinsic motivation in terms of environmental support for the individual's need for autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Deci and Ryan, 1985, 1992). The need for autonomy is addressed through support for self-directed learning. The need for relatedness is addressed in collaborative activities. The need for self-perceived competence is partially fulfilled in evaluation that supports progress toward goals and reward for effort in learning. When these needs are fulfilled, students become intrinsically motivated and gain cognitive expertise in reading. Consistent with this framework, teachers who provide choices of reading materials (autonomy support), social interaction (relatedness support), and activity connections (competence support) are said to support motivational development (Sweet, Guthrie, and Ng, 1998).

According to Alderson (2000: 53), reader motivation affects the quality of reading. Motivation generated internally by individual readers is believed to be superior to extrinsic motivation. That is, intrinsically motivated readers focus on main ideas or what the text is mainly about, how ideas in the text relate to each other, how the text relates to other texts on the same or related subject, and what they know about the subject or the world. In contrast, those who are extrinsically motivated pay attention to just details, not trying to relate the parts of the text or to relate the text to other texts or to their world knowledge.

Factors influencing reading. Reading researchers point out that some important factors influencing reading are the reader's self-concept and perception of the value of reading, choices, and so on. Bandura (1986) states that what makes people feel that they have competence is their mastery experience, which will increase their self-confidence and their willingness to try similar or more challenging things (e.g., reading more difficult texts). Winne (1985) states that idealized readers are those who feel that they are capable readers and link reading to their personal value. Ford (1992) says that people will try to reach their goal if they see that that goal is possible to be accomplished.

Therefore in reading the teacher should make students to see reading as their personal value, and that they can use the acquired kills to read on their own.

To increase instructional efficiency, it is necessary for teachers to find new ways of teaching for effective learning. A teaching method created by the teacher is called an *educational innovation*. The goals are to solve the learning problems, to make students achieve the course objectives, and to bring efficiency to educational management. There are two categories of innovations.

- 1. *teaching methods/techniques*, e.g., collaborative learning, games, etc.
- 2. *teaching media/material*, e.g., instructional materials, printed texts, cartoons, programmed instruction, etc.(http://portal.in.th/inno_tang/pages/202/)

The researcher is interested in the second category, especially in choice of reading material. When students are supported in choosing from a wide selection of texts, sustained reading and measured achievement increase (Morrow, 1996). Choice is motivating because it affords students with control. Students seek to be in command of their environment, rather than being manipulated by powerful others. This need for self-direction can be met in reading instruction through well-designed choices.

Choices of reading material. Many studies have confirmed that choice is motivating and providing choices is a remarkable practice among reading teachers (Baumann, Hoffman, Moon, and Duffy-Hexter, 1998). A survey on elementary school teachers' beliefs about motivation in general made by Nolen and Nicholls (1994), and a study of reading specifically conducted by Sweet, Guthrie, and Ng (1998) reveal that teachers believe children need choice to develop independence in reading. Turner (1995) also found that teachers who are successful at motivating students often provide several choices during a lesson. They promote student choice by giving them input into which books will be read, and what instructional sequence will be undertaken (Pressley, Rankin and Yokoi, 1996). Worthy and McKool (1996) found that allowing students to choose their reading material for self-study made students want to read more. The finding was supported by Wigfield (2000), who stated that having students choose their reading material will increase their efforts to read. Cordova and Lepper (1996) and Lyengar and Lepper (1999) made an experiment by giving choices for students to choose assignments. Although this practice did not look important, it motivated them to learn more and to be interested in doing activities that were assigned later.

The researcher has become interested in improving instructional material for reading courses as a way to increase students' motivation. She has also taken the student-centered approach into consideration. She believes that it is the teacher who determines the real content (points to be taught) and it should be the students who provide most of the carrier content. In 2010, she formed a research team of 10 teachers at the School of Language and Communication to conduct a pilot study on having students participate in developing academic reading material. An experimental study of post-test design only was conducted in the summer session of the academic year 2009 for 24 hours (six hours a day for four weeks), using as the sample students who failed LC 4001 and had to enroll on the remedial reading course (LC 4011 Remedial Reading skills Development in English for Graduate Studies). There were 60 students in the total sample: 30 in the control group and 30 in the experimental group. It was found that the mean score of the experimental groups taught by the innovative teaching method of having students participate in developing reading material was significantly better than the mean score of the control group and the responses in the questionnaire distributed to only the experimental group revealed that the students had a highly positive attitude toward the innovative method.

However, the results of the study cannot be said for certain to be generalizable to other reading courses, especially LC 4001. Because the students used to be taught how to read single- and multiparagraphs in LC 4001 before they came to LC 4011 for remedy, it was likely that they did not need much time to teach how to read to identify the topic sentence, the main idea, the author's purpose, transitional markers, and so on. Accordingly, the researcher decided to conduct the study again to confirm the results of the pilot study, and to complete the three stages of innovation: creating an innovation, experimenting with it, and expanding the application. The research questions were as follows:

- 1. How effective is the innovative teaching method of having students participate in developing academic reading material?
- 2. Is the innovative method superior to the traditional method of having the material prepared by the teacher or the teaching unit?
- 3. What is the attitude of the students toward the innovative method?

Objectives of the study

The three objectives of the study were as follows:

- 1. to examine the effectiveness of the innovative teaching method of having students participate in developing academic reading material
- 2. to compare the effectiveness of the innovative teaching method with the traditional method of having the material prepared by the teacher or the teaching unit
- 3. to find out the attitude of the students toward the innovative method

Scope of the study

This study was an experimental pre-test and post-test design. It has one control group and three experimental groups to which the same treatment were given. The experimental groups enrolled in three courses (LC 4001 Reading skills Development in English for Graduate Studies, LC 4011 Remedial Reading skills Development in English for Graduate Studies, and LM 4002 English for Logistics Management), all of which were academic reading courses, with the same course syllabus. The LM 4002 group was comprised of graduate students in the weekend program, while the other groups consisted of those in the weekday programs. Although these students came from different areas of study, their demographic background was not studied. Only the attitude of the experimental groups toward the teaching method was measured.

Usefulness of the study

The results of the study showed the effectiveness of the innovative teaching method of having students participate in developing reading material, particularly in regards to the students having a highly positive attitude toward the teaching method. Their motivation improved as evidenced by their opinions expressed in the questionnaire. Since there were three experimental groups which included students from different backgrounds, the method could be said to be useful as an alternative to the traditional method of using reading material prepared by the teacher or the teaching unit.

Framework of the study

The study included the concept of the student-centered approach for teaching academic reading skills, the concept of motivation to learn, the concept of innovation in language teaching, and the concept of students' involvement in developing reading material. The independent variable was the teaching method: the traditional method of using reading material prepared by the teacher or the teaching unit verses the innovative method of having students participate in developing their own reading material. The dependent variable was the effectiveness of the teaching method as measured by the scores derived from the reading achievement test. Based on the results of the pilot study, the research formulated two research hypotheses:

- 1. The mean score of the experimental group, which was taught by the innovative teaching method was significantly higher than that of the control group.
- 2. The overall attitude of the experimental groups toward the innovative teaching method is highly positive.

Methodology

Population and Sampling This experimental research is a pre-test and post-test design. The population was students who enrolled in three academic reading courses—LC 4001, LC 4011 and LM 4002—in the first semester of the academic year 2010. These courses had a similar course syllabus. *LC 4001 Reading Skill Development in English for Graduate Studies* was a required course for master's degree students from all schools at NIDA whose English entrance examination score did not reach the exemption level of 660. Those who took LC 4001 but failed the examination (the passing score was 70%) were required to enroll in *LC 4001 Remedial Reading Skill Development in English for Graduate Studies*. The students in both courses are weekday students, most of whom were full-time students. Students who enrolled in LM 4002 were students who majored in Logistics Management. They were in the weekend programs, as all of them were employed.

Initially, two out of the eight groups of students who enrolled in LC 4001 were randomly selected to be one control group and one experimental group to see if the same results as those in the pilot study would be obtained. Also, a group (out of four) of students who enrolled in LC 4011 was randomly selected to be another experimental group in order to confirm the results of the pilot study which used LC 4011 students as its subjects. To expand the results of the study to other similar reading courses, the researcher also used the innovative teaching method with the students in LM 4002 course, which had only one group of students.

The total number of the LC 4001 students in the second semester of academic year 2009 was 124. Two groups were randomly selected to be a control group and an experimental group. At first, the number of students in the control group who took the pre-test was 20 and the number of the LC 4001 students in the experimental group was also 20. The number of students in the LC 4011 group was 24, and that in the LM 4002 was 20. The last two groups were taught with an innovative method, so they were also considered as experimental groups. However, when the pre-test was administered to all the groups, it turned out that the scores of the two groups of the LC 4001 course could not match well. The researcher solved the problem by selecting students in all experimental group for comparison. Finally, there were 15 students in the control group and 15 the experimental group in the LC 4001 course.

Therefore, the total number of subjects was 79: 15 in the control group and 64 in all the experimental groups (20+24+20).

Instrumentation. Because the study replicated the pilot study in 2009, the instruments were the same. The three instruments used in the research were a reading test, a questionnaire, and instructional material.

A reading test. The test was already pre-tested with 20 students of similar characteristics in the pilot study. It had the reliability of .711. Its content validity was tested by checking it against the course objectives. The test consisted of four passages and 45 questions. Most of the questions were in the multiple choice format. There were also some questions that students were required to choose between true or false, fill in the blanks or provided short answers. The total score was 45 (one for each question). The total test time was two hours.

A questionnaire. The same questionnaire as used in the pilot study was employed. It measured the attitude of the students in the experimental group toward the innovative teaching method. The 5-point Likert scale was used for the students to rate their opinions on five dimensions:

- 1) level of learning different sub-skills for comprehending English passages
- 2) benefits from learning by participating in developing reading material
- 3) level of satisfaction with passages selected by the students themselves
- 4) ability to apply the reading strategies learned to independent reading or reading alone outside the class
- 5) worthiness of time, effort, and money when the innovative teaching method is used

In the pilot study, the questionnaire was administered as a pre-test to 30 students who were taught the innovative method, and was revised to ascertain the content validity. The reliability of the questionnaire was .868.

Instructional material. There were two sets of instructional material: one set was for the control group and the other was for the experimental groups. The material taught in the control group was prepared by the School of Language and Communication. The material for the experimental group, which was used for six hours only, was only a few exercises that covered all the points taught in the control group.

Data collection procedures. The process of data collection was the same as that in the pilot study, as the research replicated it. However, there was some change in the research design as follows:

1) The pilot study was a post-test only design, while the present study was a pre-test and post-test design.

2) The pilot study had students in LC 4011, the remedial course for those who failed LC 4001, as its subjects, whereas the present study had students from three courses as its subjects. These courses were LC 4001, LC 4011, and LM 4002. The first (LC 4001) and the third course (LM 4002) was used to see if the innovative teaching method could be applied more widely and the second course (LC 4011) was included to confirm the results of the pilot study.

3) In the pilot study, students were not administered the pre-test and all the students in the control and the experimental groups were assumed to have more or less the same reading ability, since all of them failed LC 4001. In the present study all the groups were administered the pre-test so that the mean score of each group could be compared with that of the post-test to clearly see the degree of increase in the mean score after the experiment.

The data collection took place in the second semester of the academic year 2010.

In the first half of the semester the same teaching method and the same reading material were used in both the control group and the experimental groups. The topics taught in the first half were recognizing phrases, clauses, and sentences, identifying the core part of a sentence, head words and modifiers (sentence analysis), sentence comprehension and interpretation, guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words by analyzing word parts and by contextual clues, and using a dictionary, respectively. In the second half, the emphasis was reading at a single- and multi-paragraph level. The topics covered were identifying the topic sentence, the main idea, the author's purpose, the relationship between ideas as indicated by transitional markers, the movement of thought, skimming and scanning, and identifying details, respectively.

How the control group was taught. An assistant professor with a Ph.D. at the School of Language and Communication taught a group of students taking LC 4001 as she usually does and this group was used as the control group. The total teaching hours were 24 and the class met once a week for three hours. What was traditionally done in this course was to give a lecture and do the exercises together in class, or have the students do the exercises first and after that the teacher would ask them to supply the answers to the questions in the material. After the students gave the teacher their answers, the teacher would tell them the correct answers. She would teach them how to ascertain the correct answers and explain to them why they made mistakes. Sometimes she would assign the students to do exercises before coming to class next time. The material provided by the School was sufficient, so it was all too often not necessary for the teacher to find more material for her class.

How the experimental groups were taught. The researcher taught all the three experimental groups using the innovative method of having students participate in developing reading material. The total teaching hours were 24 and the class met once a week for three hours. The experimental groups were taught the reading strategies for six hours through lectures and doing a few exercises in class. The innovative teaching method was used to teach all these points. That is, at the end of the second session when all the points were taught, the teacher had the students form into groups of three members each and assign them to find three single-paragraph passages and three multi-paragraph passages of their interest. Then for each passage, they were required to identify the topic sentence, the main idea, the author's purpose, the transitional markers and the relationship between ideas as indicated by these transitional markers, and the movement of thought. Also, for each passage they were asked to write two questions that require details as the answers. Furthermore, they were to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words found in their passages. The group was asked to work as a team. The group members had to decide how to share their work to complete the assignment outside the class. The teacher set a schedule for each group to see her to seek advice during class time. She told the students to give her a copy of their passages before coming for advice so that she could have time to read them before giving advice. Each group would meet the teacher twice for one or one and a half hours. If they needed extra time for consultation, they had to meet the teacher during her office hours. The teacher would check the assignments, discuss with the group when they could not get the right answers. Sometimes, when the excerpts selected by the students contained ideas that were not fully developed or the excerpts were incomplete or were not appropriate to be instructional material to practice the real content (learning points), the teacher would reject them and ask the students to supply new passages. They were given 10% of the total score for the assignment. This was used as an extrinsic motivation. The passages of their interest were assumed to give them intrinsic motivation. In the last two sessions (6 hours) each group was told to select two passages (one single-paragraph and one multi-paragraph passages) to teach their classmates. They had to make copies of these passages and distribute them to their classmates. The consultation with the teacher before the presentation was used to build their confidence in this task.

At the end of the course, all the groups were administered the post-test. The questionnaires were distributed to only the students in the experimental groups to measure their attitude toward the innovative teaching method.

3.4 Data analysis

The data from the reading test were treated as follows:

1) The mean scores from the pretest and the post-test in each group were compared by using a paired sample t-test to find out whether the reading ability was significantly better at the end of the experiment than before the experiment.

2) Then the mean score of the control group (15 students in LC 4001) and that of the experimental group (15 students selected from the three experimental groups whose scores matched those in LC 4001) were compared by using an independent sample t-test.

The data from the questionnaire were processed as follows:

1) The frequency and percentage of the background variables of the subjects were calculated and shown in the form of a table.

2) The mean score and standard deviation (SD) of all the questions in the questionnaire in each of the three experimental groups were calculated separately and as a whole. The mean score for individual items was interpreted as follows:

The range of mean scores	Meaning
4.21 - 5.00	high
3.41 - 4.20	rather high
2.61 - 3.40	moderate
1.81 - 2.60	rather low
1.00 - 1.80	low

Findings

The subjects of the study were 79 master's degree students in the age range of 21-30 years, with the average age of 24.79. Most of them were female (69.62%) and graduated with a bachelor's degree from public universities (82.28%).

When the pre-test and the post-test scores in each group were compared by using the paired sample t-test, a significant difference was found in all of the groups at the .01 level for the control group and at the .000 for the three experimental groups. See Table 1.

Group	n	Mean	S.D.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Control group						
LC 4001	15					
• Pre-test		20.63	3.65	3.119	14	.008
• Post-test		23.33	4.86			
Experimental groups						
LC 4001	20					
• Pre-test		17.65	4.12	8.192	19	.000
• Post-test		24.20	4.10			
LC 4011	24					
• Pre-test		19.81	2.72	6.559	23	.000
• Post-test		23.43	3.76			
LM 4002	20					
• Pre-test		19.50	5.14	6.983	19	.000
• Post-test		23.75	5.05			

 Table 1: Comparison of mean scores in pre-test and in post-test within individual groups

Both the traditional method and the innovative teaching method of having students participate in generating their own reading material could contribute to an increase in the reading score at the end of the experiment. Thus, it was necessary to find out if there was a significant difference in the mean scores between the control group and the experimental group after the post-test.

Comparison of mean scores between the control and experimental group

Before the experiment took place, the researcher matched the reading scores in the pre-test of students in the control group and the experimental group so that they were more or less compatible in their reading ability. Fifteen pairs were taken into account when the data were analyzed. The results were presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Difference in reading ability between the experimental group and control group before the experiment

Group	Mean	S.D.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Experimental	20.46	3.84	.122	28	.904
Control	20.63	3.65			

When t-test was used to find out the difference in the reading scores between the control group and the experimental group before the experiment, no significant difference was found. So both groups were assumed to have more or less the same ability.

After the eight-week experiment, the post-test was administered to the students in both groups, and it was found that there was a significant difference in the reading scores between them at the .01 level. Therefore, the research hypothesis was accepted. See Table 3.

Group	Mean	S.D.	t	df	Sig. (one-tailed)
Experimental	27.30	2.97	2.694	28	.006
Control	23.33	4.86			

Table 3: Difference in reading ability between the experimental group and control group after the experiment

That is, the mean score of the experimental group was significantly higher than that of the control group (mean = 27.30 and 23.33, respectively). This indicates that the teaching method of having students participate in generating academic reading material was more effective. In spite of the significant difference in the reading score in the post-test between the two groups, the mean scores were not high, however.

Attitude of students in the experimental groups toward the innovative teaching method

To find out the students' perception of the innovative teaching method, the students in all three experimental groups were distributed a questionnaire to complete. The results showing their attitude toward the five dimensions of the teaching method were reported course by course in Table 4 below.

Please put a cross (X) in the slot that		LC 40	01	LC 4011			LM 4002		
indicates your opinion	Mean	SD	Opinion	Mean	SD	Opinion	Mean	SD	Opinion
1. Knowledge gained	3.72	.82	High	3.76	.76	High	3.77	.77	High
(1) Paragraph organization	3.65	.74	High	3.70	.62	High	3.70	.73	High
(2) Paragraph components	3.95	.75	High	3.66	.76	High	3.80	.83	High
(3) Identifying the topic sentence and The main idea	4.05	.75	High	3.83	.96	High	3.90	.85	High
(4) Writer's purpose	3.75	.91	High	3.83	.86	High	3.95	.75	High
(5) Identifying major/minor support ideas	3.35	.93	Moderate	3.58	.71	High	3.65	.67	High
(6) Relationship between ideas as shown by transitional markers	4.05	.88	High	4.04	.75	High	4.00	.79	High
(7) How to get the answers by learning how to pose questions	3.25	.78	Moderate	3.70	.69	High	3.45	.82	High
2. Advantages or usefulness	3.85	0.73	High	3.98	.81	High	3.80	.62	High
(1) Enjoying learning	3.95	.75	High	4.12	.79	High	4.00	.64	High
(2) Not feeling too burdened	3.60	.88	High	3.79	.72	High	3.95	.51	High
(3) Learning to analyze and to give Comments	4.10	.78	High	4.29	.75	Very high	4.10	.71	High
(4) Having more self-confidence in Reading	3.55	.75	High	3.79	.65	High	3.80	.61	High
(5) Becoming well-disciplined	3.75	.63	High	4.04	.75	High	3.55	.60	High
(6) Getting a habit of loving reading	3.60	.68	High	3.79	.58	High	3.50	.76	High
(7) Having more courage to ask the Teacher	4.05	.75	High	4.08	.82	High	3.80	.61	High
(8) Better adjust oneself to social life	4.20	.69	High	4.00	.78	High	3.75	.55	High

Table 4: Attitude of students the experimental groups toward each of the five innovative teaching method

Please put a cross (X) in the slot that		LC 40	01	LC 4011			LM 4002		
indicates your opinion	Mean	SD	Opinion	Mean	SD	Opinion	Mean	SD	Opinion
3. Satisfaction with selected passages	4.13	.64	High	4.12	.72	High	3.88	.78	High
(1) Degree of interest	4.30	.57	High	4.37	.64	Very	3.95	.82	High
						high			
(2) Appropriate language level	3.95	.68	High	3.95	.69	High	3.80	.76	High
(3) Variety of topics	4.15	.67	High	4.04	.85	High	3.90	.78	High
4. Applicability of the acquired	3.78	.76	High	3.76	.68	High	3.77	.64	High
knowledge									
(1) Reading better	4.00	.72	High	4.08	.71	High	3.90	.71	High
(2) Being able to read text alone	3.60	.75	High	3.66	.56	High	3.65	.67	High
(3) Being able to use the knowledge as	3.65	.87	High	3.50	.78	High	3.60	.68	High
a foundation for writing									
(4) Being able to develop one's	3.90	.71	High	3.83	.70	High	3.95	.51	High
English reading skills later									
5. Worthiness	3.96	.71	High	4.09	.71	High	3.86	.57	High
(1) Time	4.00	.72	High	4.21	.72	Very	4.00	.45	High
						high			
(2) Energy or effort	3.95	.60	High	4.08	.71	High	3.95	.60	High
(3) Money for copying reading	3.95	.82	High	4.00	.72	High	3.65	.67	High
materials									
Overall (5 dimensions all together)	3.89	.73	High	3.94	.74	High	3.81	.68	High

<u>Attitude of LC 4011 students</u> It was found that, overall, the students in LC 4001 had a highly positive attitude toward the innovative teaching method (mean = 3.89). They were the most satisfied with the selected passages (mean = 4.13, followed by worthiness of time, energy and money (mean = 3.95), advantage or usefulness of the innovative teaching method (mean = 3.85), applicability of the acquired knowledge (mean = 3.78), and the knowledge gained (mean = 3.72), respectively.

When the individual items in the questionnaire were considered, two items that were only moderately satisfying were identifying major/minor support ideas (mean = 3.35) and finding answers by learning how to pose questions (mean = 3.25).

<u>Attitude of LC 4011 students</u> As a whole, the students in LC 4011 had a highly positive attitude toward the innovative teaching method (mean = 4.09). They were the most satisfied with the selected passages (mean = 4.12), followed by worthiness of time, energy and money (mean = 4.09), advantage or usefulness of the innovative teaching method (mean = 3.98), applicability of the acquired knowledge (mean = 3.76), and the knowledge gained (mean = 3.76), respectively.

When the individual items in the questionnaire were considered, the items that were satisfying at a very high level were learning to analyze and giving comments (mean = 4.29), the degree of interest of the passages selected by the students themselves (mean = 4.37), and worthiness of time (mean = 4.21), respectively.

<u>Attitude of LM 4002 students</u> As a whole, the students in LM 4002 were found to have a highly positive attitude toward the innovative teaching method (mean = 3.81). They were the most satisfied with the selected passages (mean = 3.88), followed by worthiness of time, energy and money (mean = 3.86), advantage or usefulness of the innovative teaching method (mean = 3.85), the knowledge gained (mean = 3.77), and applicability of the acquired knowledge (mean = 3.77), respectively. All the items were satisfying at a high level.

When the results from all the experimental groups were combined to see the overall picture of the attitude toward the innovative teaching method, it was found that they were satisfied with it at a high level (mean = 3.88). See Table 5.

Table 5:	Mean Scores of Indicators of the Five Dimensions in the Questionnaire in LC 4001,
	LC 4011, LM 4002

Dimension	Mean	S.D.	Opinion
1. Knowledge gained from the new teaching method	3.75	.78	High
2. Advantages of the new teaching method	3.88	.72	High
3. Satisfaction with selected passages	4.04	.71	High
4. Applicability of the acquired knowledge	3.77	.69	High
5. Worthiness of time, energy and money	3.97	.66	High
Overall	3.88	.71	High

They were the most satisfied with the selected passages (mean = 4.04), followed by worthiness of time, energy, and money (mean = 3.97), advantage or usefulness of the teaching method (mean = 3.88), applicability of the acquired knowledge (mean = 3.77), and knowledge gained (mean = 3.75), respectively.

To sum up the findings from the questionnaire, which revealed that the students had a highly positive attitude toward the teaching method, supported the findings from the experiment that the innovative teaching method of having students participate in generating reading material was an effective method. It was superior to the traditional method of having a teacher or the teaching unit prepared reading material for students, especially in a course that focused on academic reading, which usually used authentic texts as carrier contents to teach reading strategies or skills.

Discussion

The study replicated a pilot study which compared the traditional method of having the teacher or the teaching unit construct academic reading material with the innovative teaching method of having students participate in generating academic reading material. Unlike the pilot study which was conducted with LC 4011 students as a sample, this study used a sample of 79 graduate students in weekday and weekend master's degree programs at NIDA who enrolled in LC 4001, LC 4011 and LM 4002, all of which were academic reading courses. LC 4001 was a required course for weekday students from all schools whose scores in the entrance examination did not reach the exemption level. It also examined the students' attitude toward the innovative teaching method. LC 4011 was a remedial course for those who failed LC 4001. LM 4002 was a required academic reading course for students in the weekend program in Logistics Management offered by the School of Applied Statistics. The control group consisted of 15 students from the weekday program in Business Administration. There were three experiment groups consisting of 20 students in LC 4001 (Reading Skills Development in English for Graduate Studies), 24 in LC 4011 (Remedial Reading Skills Development in English for Graduate Studies), and 20 in LM 4002 (English for Logistics Management). The scores from the pre-test of these students were matched with the scores of those in the control group and the scores of only 15 students could match those in the control group. So the experimental group that was used for comparison was composed of students from the aforementioned three different courses. A questionnaire was employed to collect the data about the attitude toward the innovative teaching method from the students in the three experimental groups at the end of the experiment. It was found that the mean score in the post-test of all the groups (both the control) and the three experimental groups were significantly higher than the mean score in the pre-test. But the mean score of the experimental group was significantly higher than the mean score of the experimental group at the .01 level. The finding indicated that the innovative teaching method was superior to the traditional method.

Also, it was found that all the experimental groups had a "highly positive" attitude toward the innovative teaching method. The students in the *LC 4001* experimental group, had a highly positive attitude toward all the items in the questionnaire except two, toward which the students had only a "moderately" positive attitude. These two items were: (1) identifying major and minor support ideas, and (2) finding the answers to comprehension questions by practicing posing questions. The students in *LC 4011* had a highly positive attitude toward all the items except three, toward which they had a "very highly" positive attitude. These three items were: (1) learning to analyze and to give comments, (2) degree of interest of selected passage, and (3) worthiness of time for study. The students in *LM 4002* had a highly positive attitude toward all the items in the questionnaire. The findings—both from the reading test and the questionnaire thus confirmed the results of the pilot study.

Although the mean score of the post-test was significantly higher than that in the pre-test, the score of the experimental group was still low, in fact quite unsatisfactory for graduate students. The mean score was only 23.33 out of 40—just slightly higher than 50 percent of the total score. It could be either because the reading test was very difficult for them or because they had a low reading ability. The latter reason seemed to be more probable. Based on the researcher's observation while teaching, she found that the students had a poor English language background—both vocabulary and grammar—and did not know how to activate schemata or world knowledge to help in comprehension.

The use of authentic texts caused difficulty to them, as they hardly read English texts in their undergraduate programs. They could not do both bottom-up processing and top-down processing well. In other words, they were no ready to read authentic texts. Teaching them sentence parsing for approximately 12 hours could not help them to master English sentence structures. Teaching them to guess the meaning from words parts and from contextual clues would not help either because they did not have an adequate supply of first-sight or general vocabulary. The reading test used in the study contained some items that asked them to guess the meaning from the context clues and they could not do well. The teaching of paragraph reading was effective in the view of the students because they used the skimming technique to find the main idea with no need to have a full understanding of the text. So the course was effective to a certain extent, but not satisfactory.

The results of the study showed the importance of the role of students in learning how to read academic texts. Overall, they found the teaching method useful or had an advantage over the traditional method. As they could select the passages for reading, their motivation increased. Therefore they felt that using such a teaching method was worth their time, effort, and money. More importantly, they were satisfied with the knowledge gained from the course and that they were confident in applying it to read on their own. All the groups found the selected passages interesting. This item had the highest mean of all of them. That is why they were highly motivated to read. However, the finding was different from that in the pilot study. In the pilot study the students considered the passages selected by the students themselves were only moderately satisfactory. This could be attributed to the fact that the students in the pilot study. They tended to understand the passages from their fields more than those from other fields because they had some background knowledge of the topics. On the contrary, the students in the present research came from the same

fields of study, so they had similar interests. Therefore, the passages they selected interested their classmates.

The students also agreed that learning how to pose questions could help to get the right answers to comprehension questions, but the strategy was helpful at a moderate level. This was because the teacher did not give them much practice in using this strategy. In addition, they found that the teaching method could help them identify support ideas/details at a moderate level. This was because the teacher concentrated more on strategies to identify the topic sentence/main idea, the author's purpose, relationship between ideas shown by discourse markers, and so forth.

Next, the findings of the study was different from the pilot study in that in the pilot study, which was conducted during the summer semester, the students did not turn in their passages they selected to the teacher before coming for advice because the students did not have much time to search for passages or to discuss with their peers. But this study, which was conducted in the normal semester (the second semester of the academic year 2010), had no such problem. Also, the number of students in each class was small so the teacher had enough time during the class hours scheduled for consultation to talk with students about the problems they encountered when trying to develop the reading material for presentation.

Most students took passages from texts they were assigned to read in other classes. The use of the innovative method enabled students to realize the difficulty to meet any single paragraph that could stand alone. They found out that ideas in paragraphs were related. They learned paragraph and longer text organization. They learned that it was not true that one paragraph would have one main idea—stated or implied. Some paragraphs had no main idea, but they were support details of the preceding paragraph. Sometimes a group of paragraphs contained one main idea. They learn from the real texts, not the texts selected by the teacher to represent the point he or she wanted to teach.

Conclusions

The innovative teaching method of having students participate in generating academic reading material was effective in motivating students to learn not only reading strategies, especially how to analyze the passages to see their organizational patterns and to identify important ideas and details and to learn other critical reading but also how to work in teams, helping each other to find the answers or solutions. The students were not stressful because they had the teacher to advise them. They were confident in their ability to apply the knowledge gained to read alone. This could be an alternative teaching method for English reading teachers who wanted to try something new, something that students themselves perceived as worth for their time, effort and money.

Recommendations

Recommendations for class division and instruction

In the student-centered approach, the teacher must take student's motivation into account, as learning takes place only when people want to learn. Students' development of their own reading material, starting from selecting passages, analyzing them together with their team members to discern the teaching points, and finally to teach their classmates reading strategies to obtain the answers is an innovative teaching method that is worthy of EFL reading teachers' attention. The passages selected by the students could serve well as content carrier for teaching real content. In the study, it was found that the students from the same field of study had similar interests; therefore, it was recommended that students in the same area of study be placed in the same class. Passages

selected by students from a field of study might not interest those from other fields. As it was now accepted that content schema could compensate for their low linguistic knowledge, the carrier content from their field could help them to activate schemata to help them comprehend what they read.

In addition, the students' reading sores were not high because they were taught and practice reading single paragraph and multi-paragraphs for only 24 hours over eight weeks. This may not be enough to increase their skills because fluent reading needs a great deal of practice. It was recommended that more time should be allocated to teaching academic reading. Instead of providing a remedial course, there should be two reading courses. The beginning course should focus on vocabulary development and sentence level reading, especially sentence parsing and making inferences. The higher course should focus on how to read single paragraphs and multi-paragraph passages, textbook chapters, and journal articles. Emphasis should be place on skimming, scanning, and study skills, such as annotating, outlining, summarizing, mapping, and the like.

Recommendations for further studies

For further research the following were recommended:

1. This research dealt with paragraph reading strategies, further research should deal with vocabulary development because students' poor vocabulary was a cause of their low reading score in the reading test. Vocabulary was a topic that students could generate instructional material.

2. Further research should be conducted on other language courses other than reading, with students playing an important role in material construction.

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Enhancing Learner Ability and Motivation in Critical Reflection on Writing through Semi-structured Learner-centered Writing Conferences

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Abstract

Writing is often not a one-off activity. It involves processes of meaning-creation, enquiry and discovery. Critical engagement with and reflection on one's own writing are essential for writing development. These are challenges for the present-day learners who are used to quick access to information and multiple sources of stimulation in the learning process but often lack sustainable and critical engagement with their writing.

This paper revisits the implementation of learner-centred writing conferences as a tool for supporting the development of writing skills in an independent language-learning centre of a university in Hong Kong. Instead of following the usual practice of allowing learners to reflect freely about their own writing, a semi-structured approach was adopted in the writing conferences to help students engage with their own writing and reflect critically about it, with an aim of fostering improvement in writing content and language, and helping students develop as independent writers. Guidance sheets and prompting questions for structuring critical reflections were used in the conferences.

The data were collected through analysing students' revisions on writing drafts and field notes on student-teacher interactions during the conferences, as well as post-conference teacher reflections on them. Results indicate that the teacher's provision of a framework to support students' reflections seem to have enhanced students' ability and motivation in reflecting critically about their own writing. This type of scaffolding may help foster an awareness which facilitates the gradual development of independent writing skills.

Key words: second language teaching and learning, writing conference

Introduction

Recent research on writing has often put an emphasis on the process-oriented approach to writing. It has been suggested that drafting and revising writing can lead to writing improvement and development of writing ability. The strategies of drafting and revising writing can often be most effectively applied in one-to-one or small group writing conferences which attend to individual learning needs.

An example is the research by Lambert (1999) which indicates that writing conferences helped high school students with writing difficulties show improvement in their attitude towards writing and their ability to write sentences that include transitions and sentence variety. Stemper's (2002) study also shows that using conferencing instructional strategies resulted in a significant improvement in middle school students' revising and editing skills in the areas of content and mechanics according to the post-intervention data obtained to indicate student achievement. Findings also indicated a significant growth in students' understanding of the importance of revising and editing.

Writing is not just a quiet individual effort, it can be an interactive activity in writing conferences where teacher and student can jointly construct meaning through pedagogical discourse, facilitated by the teacher's deployment of suitable instructional strategies, as well as the student's willingness to be agentive in contributing to the interaction (Haneda, 2004). Strauss and Xiang (2006) suggest that writing conference can serve as a locus of "emergent agency", where second-language novice writers can navigate through challenges and obstacles and develop their ability to reflect and improve their writing. According to Eodice (1998), writing conferences can be a nurturing, productive, confidence-building, and even fun experience if the teacher and the student make use of open-ended communicative strategies where the teacher prompts the student to come up with relevant answers to questions in active negotiated interaction.

Scaffolding/instructional strategies in writing conference

To make writing conferences successful, teachers need to make use of appropriate and effective instructional strategies to support students' development of reflective and writing skills. As shown in the study by Glasswell and Parr (2009), teachers could make use of effective instructional strategies to facilitate interaction in writing conferences by taking advantage of the "teachable moments" as powerful instructional episodes in which assessment and teaching merged to produce a finely tuned instructional system that helped to develop students' writing ability.

Thompson (2009) also described three types of scaffolding strategies to support students' development of writing ability: direct instruction, cognitive scaffolding, and motivational scaffolding. He suggests that while there is a need for directive instruction, helping students to develop their cognitive and motivational readiness to learn is also important. The student also needs to take part in monitoring or controlling the agenda throughout the conference.

In another study, Ewert (2009) employed two frameworks for analysis, negotiation and scaffolding, to investigate the discursive quality of writing conferences. His analysis indicated that making use of different combinations of negotiation and scaffolding moves in relation to the conference focus allowed the teacher to vary assistance to suit the proficiency of the learner and encourage more learner reflections.

The present study

This study is a small-scale action research study on the use of scaffolding strategies in writing conferences which took place in the Centre for Independent Language Learning in the Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

The study was conducted from January 2011 to December 2011 on students from various departments of the university who voluntarily attended the writing conferences conducted by the researcher to improve their writing skills. Data were collected by observation of student responses for writing improvement, field notes taken for the sessions, and analyses of students' revision notes on their writing drafts.

Subjects and types of writing

The subjects for this study were the undergraduate and postgraduate students of the Hong Kong Polytechnic University in various disciplines, including humanity and technical subjects. They enrolled voluntarily in the one-hour writing assistance sessions offered on a one-to-one basis in which students could flexibly choose their own time slots and teachers to work with, and request the type of help they need, based on a piece of writing they brought for discussion. These learner-centred writing sessions offered assistance to suit the various writing needs of university students, such as:

- (a) Assignments of different subjects, e.g., term papers, project reports, theses
- (b) Various types of applications involving jobs; postgraduate studies; exchange programmes; internship; scholarship; competitions. Examples: job application letters and CVs, personal statements for postgraduate studies and internship
- (c) Public exam practice, e.g., International English Language Testing System (IELTS), Use of English (public pre-university matriculation examination in Hong Kong that some students had to re-take)
- (d) Students' additional writing practices of their own to develop their writing ability and skills for various purposes

Research questions

The following is the research question that this study aims to investigate:

- 1. What kind of structure for writing conferences can facilitate learning and reflections?
- 2. What kinds of scaffolding and elicitation strategies are useful to help students reflect about their own writing and develop their writing skills?

Structure of writing conferences

Although instructional strategies vary to suit the needs of individual students, the writing conferences are generally structured to include four main sections:

- A. Student reflections at the beginning on the strengths and weaknesses of the piece of writing
- B. Analysis of language problems
- C. Improvement of content and organisation of ideas
- D. End-of-conference reflections and feedback

Prompting questions were used in different parts of the conference to help students reflect and revise their own writing.

The following were examples of prompting questions for scaffolding critical reflections used in the first part of the writing conferences when students reflect on the strengths and weaknesses of their writing:

- 1. What are the strengths of this piece of writing?
- 2. What are the weaknesses of this piece of writing?
- 3. What would you like to improve in this piece of writing?
- 4. Which is your weakest grammatical area / greatest grammatical problem?

The following were examples of prompting questions for scaffolding students' ability to analyse their language problems and suggest improvements in content and organisation:

- 1. What is wrong with the underlined words?
- 2. How do you elaborate your ideas further?
- 3. The meaning of this sentence is unclear. What do you want to say?
- 4. What do you mean by this word?
- 5. What do you mean by _____? Can you explain further?
- 6. What other connective words can you use instead of this one, to show a contrast between these two parts of the sentence?
- 7. The sentence contains too much information. Which is the most important idea you want to convey? What are the key words you have to keep?
- 8. If I ask you to delete three words in this sentence without any loss of meaning, which three words will you delete?

Findings

Through observation of student responses in the discussions in the writing conference, field notes taken for the sessions and analyses of students' revision notes on the writing drafts, it seems that a large proportion of the students were able to reflect and evaluate their own writing and suggest some relevant revisions. The teachers' elicitations strategies and prompting questions seems to have

worked usefully.

The following are the analyses of examples from the writing conferences where scaffolding strategies worked well.

A. Reflections at the beginning: Strengths and weaknesses

Example: Business report on the performance of a company (assignment for MA in Engineering and Management)

Elicitations of students' perceptions of their own strengths and weaknesses Strengths

• Detailed and correct information, e.g., the statistics

Weaknesses

- Structure: paragraphing, organisation and connection of ideas
- Language: parts of speech, sentence structure, inappropriate words (these we discussed)

Evidence from the piece of writing according to analysis by the teacher

- No major problem in overall structure, but some problems in organisation and connection of ideas
- All the three identified language problems were found in the piece of writing
- Other minor language problems: -ing forms, articles, use of connective words

Results indicated that the student was quite competent in evaluating his/her own writing, although his/her perceptions were not completely correct. Similar examples were found in the writing conferences with different students during the research period, with different degrees of correctness. Students seldom failed to point out any of the problems demonstrated in their own piece of writing. This shows that students have the ability to reflect on and evaluate their own writing if they are properly prompted.

B. Analysis of language problems

In this part of the writing conference, the teacher scaffold student reflections and critical engagement with the piece of writing by using prompting questions and a language problem analysis sheet.

Procedure

- 1. The teacher explained to the student about how to use the language problem analysis sheet.
- 2. The teacher asked the student to reflect about his/her writing and indicate which are his/her major problem areas by ticking several items and thinking of some examples.
- 3. The teacher read the writing draft and underlined problem areas¹.
- 4. The student was asked to suggest revisions for the underlined problem areas.
- 5. When students failed to do so, the teacher asked prompting questions to help students work out the revisions.
- 6. At the end, the teacher discussed with the student to see whether his/her reflections about the problem areas at the beginning were correct.

Examples for analyses of language problems

1. Precise words

Type of writing: Description of data in a graph (public exam)

Sample text:

In general, the total quantity of items transported increased obviously, while the amount of goods carried by railways <u>fluctuated</u> during these 28 years.

Problem: Small changes in quantity only according to the graph being described. The amount of goods did not really "fluctuate".

Solution: Replacing the underlined words with "remained quite stable".

Prompting question: Have there been great changes in quantities during the period?

Student's response: The student said "no" in response to this question. He was gradually guided to suggest words like "the same" and "stable" to replace "fluctuated".

¹ It should be noted that the teacher only selectively focused on language problems depending on the language proficiency and writing skills of individual students. Instead of underlining every language problem, the teacher only identified the major problem areas and focused on those that would benefit individual students' language development.

2. Unnecessary words

Type of writing: Responses to questions for job application

Sample text:

<u>Through planning for hiking</u>, it has strengthened my abilities in communication and project planning.

Problem: The words "through and "it" are unnecessary.

Solution: Deleting the two unnecessary words and the comma in the middle of the sentence.

Prompting question: What has strengthened your abilities in communication and project planning?

Student's response: He answered "hiking" and then "plan hiking", which made him realise that some of the underlined words were not useful in communicating meaning.

3. Variety of expressions

Type of writing: Argumentative essay on requiring students to work full-time for one year before entering university (public exam).

Sample text:

However, this has aroused the concern of parents, <u>feeling</u> that students are not mature enough to work.

Problem: The sentence is grammatical. However, it will improve writing style if other words are used instead of the "-ing" word "feeling", since the student had used an "-ing" word a few times before and after this sentence.

Solution: Replacing the underlined words with "who feel". Making use of a relative pronoun for connecting ideas here adds variety to sentence structure.

Prompting question: It seems that you have used quite a few –ing words in this paragraph, can you think of another structure for expressing the same idea of the underlined word?

Student's response: He said using "who feel" right away. This student was an advanced learner of English and just needed a small hint.

4. Collocation

Type of writing: Expository essay on problems and solutions concerning overpopulation (public exam).

Sample text:

If effective solutions are implemented, we can <u>build</u> a more harmonious and peaceful <u>life</u> to live in.

Problem: The word "build" does not collocate with the word "life".

Solution: Replacing the word "build" with "have" or "enjoy".

Prompting questions: We usually say "build a house", but we use another word with the word "life" (collocation). Can you think of other possible words? If you are happy with you life, what can you say about it?

Student's response: The student suggested words like "make" and "get". Although these words still do not collocate perfectly with the word "life", they are quite close to appropriate words like "have" or "enjoy".

C. Improvement of content and organisation of ideas

Examples from writing conferences with different students

1. Restructuring

Type of writing: Personal statement for scholarship application for social work studies

Problem: The student wrote two main paragraphs which kept repeating her interest in social work using different examples.

Solution: She was guided to condense her ideas concerning her interest in social work by using one paragraph. After that she could add another paragraph on community service and extracurricular activities as concrete examples about her involvement in social work. This could better respond to the selection criteria for scholarship application and give clear focuses to the two paragraphs.

Prompting questions: How is paragraph two different from paragraph three in terms of ideas? What selection criteria in the instruction that you have not yet covered in your personal statement?

Student's response: She suggested that both paragraphs were about her interest in social work. She thought she could have a more in-depth discussion if she used two paragraphs for this. For selection criteria, she believed that she had not said much about community service and extracurricular activities.

2. Organsiation of ideas within a paragraph

Type of writing: Expository essay on problems and solutions concerning overpopulation (public

exam).

Sample text:

In poor countries, people are facing the scarcity of food, water and other daily goods. In addition, it is common that the limit number of children per family have chances to be educated. As we all know, poor countries suffer lots of unemployment which lower the people's life standard. There is no doubt that an increase in population simply makes the situation worse.

Problem: Different problems related to overpopulation are not well connected.

Solution: Organisation of ideas under one main focus (putting the three factors of resources, education and employment under the main theme of "scarcity").

Prompting questions: Can you suggest a key word which is related to all the ideas covered in this paragraph? Do people have enough of everything? Which word in the paragraph means that you don't have enough of something?

Student's response: After a few prompting questions, the student could point out the word "scarcity". Then she was guided to indicate that she discussed three main factors in the paragraph: resources, education and employment.

3. Enhancing clarity: by using more specific words

Type of writing: Argumentative essay on requiring students to work full-time for one year before entering university (public exam).

Sample text:

Therefore, we will be more willing to improve ourselves and make ourselves more competitive in the future. We will be more active to take up different course in universities afterwards.

Though many advantages can be seen, we cannot overlook the disadvantages of the practice.

Problem: Not clear what "practice" is meant.

Solution: Describing it more clearly as "the practice of requiring students to work before entering university" (the ideas was stated in the title and the beginning of the essay, but the student has discussed three advantages after these without any reference to the idea again, and it would be hard for the reader to understand what he meant just by the word "practice").

Prompting question: What practice do you mean, since the sentence before it does not clearly refer to the type of practice.

Student's response: Students to work before entering university.

4. Enhancing clarity: by elaboration

Type of writing: Final-year project report on the topic of online apparel purchasing.

Sample text:

Online Reputation Systems (ORS), in which feedbacks of the buyers are collected, analysed and presented, which enable the good reputation of the sellers.

Problem: There is a breach in logic, as it is not clear how the good reputation of the company is related to the feedback, which can be both positive or negative.

Solution: Elaborating the benefits of feedback in helping the company to improve their services, before saying that a good reputation can be built up for the company.

Prompting question: How is feedback related to the building up of good reputation, since feedback can be both positive and negative? Is feedback good only if it is positive? Can negative feedback be good? How can it be good?

Student's response: She suggested that negative feedback can be good sometimes, as it can help the company to improve their services.

D. End-of-conference reflections and feedback

Mostly positive comments were received at the end of the conference sessions. The following are some examples of comments from students on the feedback sheets:

- Very helpful instructor I have met, many tips received.
- It's useful and interesting. I think I have learnt new knowledge from the session.
- The teacher is very helpful and provided me with good advice on improving the language of my paper, especially in terms of tenses and connections.
- I think the teacher is awesome! Very considerate and offers me a lot of insight on how to write better.
- She is a very professional teacher with enthusiasm. She really helped me a lot in my writing and logical thinking.

In short, most of the feedback received for the writing conferences was very positive. Recurrent ideas are usefulness of the instruction to suit individual needs, in terms of writing ability and specific areas such as language, connection of ideas and logical thinking. Some students also felt that the conference sessions were interesting.

Example of continuous attendance and writing development of one particular student

Most of the students in the previous discussion attended the researcher's conferences only once to meet special writing needs. Although they responded quite positively to the instructional strategies, there was no opportunity to show their development in writing ability and reflections. However, during the research period, one student has made special use of the conference sessions. She was a postgraduate student studying for an MA degree in English. She attended a total of six of my conference sessions, out of a total of seven sessions she attended in the Centre for Independent Language Learning. She seemed to have taken me as something like a personal consultant for her writing development.

The student brought different types of assignments for her MA studies to the writing conferences for discussion. The following were some examples:

- Discussion of lecturer's comments on marked assignments
- Feedback on complete writing draft
- Feedback on unfinished writing draft
- Discussion of question papers for assignments
- Discussion of presentation outline
- Discussion of PowerPoint slides for presentations: e.g., content, organisation of ideas and layout

The discussions covered various types of writing and involved different stages of the writing process: planning, drafting, revising, and post-writing reflections. The students tried to make use of these writing conferences to seek advice and improvement in writing in various stages of the writing process to tackle different types of specific writing needs.

Evidence of development

The student showed evidence of development in her ability to reflect about her own writing needs and deciding how they could be filled by working with the teacher.

At the beginning of the consultations, she was quite passive about the kind of help she needed and seemed to be quite depressed about the low grades she gained for her writing assignments. The pieces of writing she brought early in the conferences were marked assignments with numerous comments on them. As she did not understand some of them, she asked me for explanations. Other writing pieces included various types of assignments or presentations at different stages of the writing process from pre-writing planning stages to post-writing reflections stages. She was gradually able to take charge most of the time to decide the direction and the content of the discussion, thereby making the conferences truly learner-centred in fulfilling learner needs.

Feedback from student

Besides giving generally positive feedback about the usefulness of the teaching strategies, she also gave specific comments about the types of help she found useful. The following are some examples of her comments, either on the record forms or verbal feedback she gave to me:

- I like your teaching style.
- It's an effective instruction. I am aware of how to be specific in an essay.
- Helpful to make my essay more complete.
- Helpful to know how to make my essay easy to follow.

Discussion and conclusion

These conferences were conducted according to a four-part structure which included reflections at the beginning, analysis of language problems, improvement of content and organisation, and feedback and reflections at the end. Results from the study indicate that this structure seems to have worked well for the writing conferences, in facilitating critical engagement and the development of reflective ability and writing skills.

Students' performance and feedback also shows that the scaffolding strategies adopted by the teacher can help students to work out ideas for improving various aspects of their writing, whether in handling language problems or in the improvement of content and organisation of ideas. The types of scaffolding and elicitation strategies which worked best were those which prompted students gradually to arrive at the correct answers based on the ideas and language they have already used. Although students did not always work out perfect solutions to the problem areas, there was evidence that they moved towards these in making relevant suggestions for improving their writing.

Irrespective of whether students can work out perfect improvements for all the problem areas, these scaffolding strategies can clearly motivate students to engage with and reflect on their writing. Discussing their writing critically was not only useful, but also interesting to the students, as some of them had emphasised in their feedback at the end of the conferences.

In short, these semi-structured learner-centred writing conferences can suit students of different abilities and learning styles, if the teacher can make use of various types of scaffolding strategies that suit individual learning needs. Writing conference techniques always have a useful role to play in the development of writing ability and interest, if they are used flexibly to tackle the needs of individual learners.

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Effects of Audience Visual and Audio Cues on the Persuasive Writing of MSU Students

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Abstract

The researcher in this study attempted to discover whether the inclusion of audience audio-visual cues in the writing context led to an increase in the quality of persuasive writing and audience adaptation in the persuasive essays of English 2 students of Mindanao State University (MSU) in Marawi City, Philippines. It also sought to discover the degree of relationship, if any, between the respondents' profile and the quality of their persuasive essays with the intervention of audience adaptation and the assigned audience with three levels: unspecified audience, specified audience without audio-visual cues, and specified audience with audio-visual cues. The findings of the study revealed that the inclusion of audience visual and audio cues has resulted in a significant difference on the pretest and posttest holistic scores and audience adaptation of the respondents under the specified audience with audio-visual cues group. It also found that there is a significant relationship between the respondents' quality of persuasive writing and the respondents' age and English 1 grade in both the pretest and the posttest while gender and average monthly family income revealed no significant relationship. Language spoken at home and ethnic affiliation also have a significant relationship to the respondents' quality of persuasive writing but only during the posttest.

Keywords: *persuasive writing, audience adaptation, audience cues, visual and audio cues, MSU Marawi English 2 students*

Introduction

Many teachers of writing classes are becoming increasingly concerned about the continuing decline of the writing ability of college students. Writing scholars such as Carson (2001), Connor and Kaplan (1987), Kutz, Gruden and Zamel, (1993), Raimes (1987) in Myles (2006) contended that writing problems are probably due to the lack of familiarity of second language (SL) writers with new rhetorical structures and organization of ideas.

In an article titled "Crossing Boundaries: Writing Strengths and Weaknesses", Julie Lumpkins has pointed out that one major area of weakness in writing is directly connected to the lack of audience awareness. Many student writers fail to create a "dominant impression" about a subject matter simply because they seem to forget that their audience may not be aware of the subject matter. There may be no right or wrong writing but there is writing that is effective and writing that is not so effective, and the only factor that decides if one's writing is either effective or not is the audience. In line with this, Elbow (1998) suggested that writers should develop a heightened awareness of audience in order to develop a strong, powerful, and effective writing. He emphasized that an understanding of a specific, concrete audience is a fundamental building block of successful writing. This, however, is a significant challenge for many student writers who seem to assume that the person (i.e., teacher) assigning the writing task is automatically the audience for that writing.

Audience awareness has been defined as "the ability of a person to think about how others think as he engages in either writing or speaking that is aimed at those persons" (Browne, 1989). In other words, audience awareness is a writer's assessment of the mindset, opinions, and personal traits of his or her readers and how these factors may influence their understanding of his or her writing. Past research works have shown that audience awareness plays an integral role in written communication. Writers who are aware of their audience are more capable of analyzing topic, providing supporting details, and developing more organized discourse for their intended readers.

Taking the cue from the numerous writing related problems among students that the researcher has experienced in her writing classes, the idea of looking into the possibility of improving students' writing by way of a multi-dimensional presentation of audience information on student's writing has sparked interest. By conducting this study, the researcher hopes to be able to address at least some of the writing problems that teachers have been facing. The results of the inquiry are offered as a contribution to efforts to reshape learning environments and teaching writing strategies.

Statement of the Problem

The study aimed to answer the following questions:

- 1. What is the profile of the respondents in terms of:
 - 1.1. Age;
 - 1.2. Gender;
 - 1.3. Ethnic affiliation;
 - 1.4. English 1 grade;
 - 1.5. Language(s) spoken at home;
 - 1.6. Average monthly family income; and
 - 1.7. Motivation for the writing task
- 2. Is there any significant relationship between the respondents' quality of persuasive writing, and audience adaptation and the respondents' profile?
- 3. Is there any difference between the pretest and the posttest results of the respondents' quality of persuasive writing and audience adaptation moves under the following conditions:
 - 3.1. Unspecified audience;
 - 3.2. Specified audience without audio-visual cues; and
 - 3.3. Specified audience with audio-visual cues
- 4. Is there any difference on the posttest results of the respondents' quality of persuasive writing under the following conditions:
 - 4.1. Unspecified audience versus specified audience without audio-visual cues;
 - 4.2. Specified audience with audio-visual cues versus specified audience without audio-visual cues; and
 - 4.3. Specified audience with audio-visual cues versus unspecified audience

Methodology

Research Design

The study used a pretest-posttest control group which involves a random selection of subjects from the population as well as a random assignment of subjects to the three posttest conditions. This design was used in this study in order to find the difference between the pretest and the posttest scores of the respondents and to measure any improvement through the respondents' increase in scores in the posttest.

Research Locale

The study was conducted at MSU in Marawi City. MSU has grown over the years into a multicampus and is now comprised of seven autonomous campuses strategically located and operating in different parts of Mindanao, Philippines. MSU at Marawi has 17 colleges, one of which is the College of Social Sciences and Humanities (CSSH), a service college where the English Department belongs. English 2 classes are being held at the annex rooms of the CSSH. The researcher administered the tests to the respondents in their English 2 classrooms.

Respondents

The respondents of the study were 244 English 2 students of the MSU during the second semester of academic year 2010-2011. These students had different ethnic affiliations and socio-economic backgrounds. English 2 students were selected as the target population because English 2 is the basic and ideally the first writing course freshmen students of MSU have to take before they can proceed to higher English writing courses.

Data Gathering Procedure

Prior to the pretest, the researcher conducted a pilot test to check the appropriateness of the writing topics to be used in the study. Based on the results, the topics "Email Messaging" and "Family Size" were chosen as topics for the pretest and the posttest, respectively.

The study used two administration sessions, one for the pretest and another for the posttest. The pretest was given two months after the opening of classes to ensure that the respondents were already introduced to paragraph writing and forms of discourse in their respective English 2 classes. During the pretest, all students were asked to respond to the writing topic independently and all responded to the writing topic with no assigned audience. This session started by giving the students a general introduction of the writing activity. Students were all given a writing sheet with a writing prompt. They were given 55 minutes to write the pretest essay according to the topic and instructions given. After they finished writing their essay, the students answered the personal profile questionnaire.

Two weeks after the pretest, the posttest was administered. This time each English 2 section was randomly assigned to the three posttest conditions: (a) unspecified audience, (b) specified audience without audio-visual cues, (c) specified audience with audio-visual cues. Specifically, in the unspecified audience condition, the students were simply instructed to "write as persuasively as you can an essay that states your position on this issue." In specified audience without audio-visual cues, the details of audience information were provided in text format using the third person perspective. The students were given this information:

Dr. Ivy M. Delima is a dentist by profession. She is 32 years old, married, and has a three-year-old son. Lately, she and her husband have gone over again and again the issue of what should be the size of their family. At her age, Dr. Delima does not want any more kids; her husband, however, always floats the idea of having another baby in the family. Are smaller families better than larger ones?

The students in this group were then instructed to "persuade Dr. Ivy Delima by writing an essay that states your position on the issue. Use specific reasons and examples to support your position." In the specified audience with audio-visual cues condition, the audience information was presented

with a video clip of the audience conveying information from the first person perspective. The video clip ran for about 50 seconds and it gave this information:

Hello! I am Dr. Ivy Delima. I am a dentist by profession. I'm 32 years old, married and I only have one son who is now three years old. Lately, my husband and I have gone over again and again the issue on family size. Personally, I don't want any more kids. However, my husband floats the idea now and then of having another baby. Could you help me decide which family size is better? Are smaller families better than larger ones? Why or why not?

After watching the video, the students were instructed to plan and write an essay in response to Dr. Ivy Delima and to provide supporting details, reasons and examples that will make their position on the issue convincing to her.

Following the procedures used in the pretest, the students completed the posttest writing task.

Scoring of the Test. Three writing professors from the English Department of the MSU – Iligan Institute of Technology in Iligan City rated the respondents' essays. These raters were trained by the researcher in how to use the scoring guides by giving a holistic rating and coding for audience adaptation of the sample essays from the pilot test.

The researcher paired the pretest and posttest essay of each respondent to ensure that each pair of essays would be rated holistically by the same rater. A total of 488 essays of the pretest and the posttest were randomly blocked into three before they were given to the three raters, respectively. The raters were unaware whether the essays were from the pretest or the posttest.

To measure the quality of students' persuasive writing, a holistic score was obtained using the NAEP Grade 12 Persuasive Scoring Guide as used by Beach (2007). Each essay was assigned a holistic score ranging from 1 (Unsatisfactory Response) to 6 (Excellent Response). This score reflected the quality of the test in terms of communication effectiveness and persuasiveness.

The audience adaptation in students' writing was analyzed by coding for rhetorical moves using the Coding Scheme for Audience Adaptation developed by Hays et al., (1988, 1990) as used by Cheng (2005). Types and frequencies of each move were counted. In coding the essays, each rater was assigned to look for a particular rhetorical move in all of the 488 students' essays. Rater 1 was assigned to look for the naming, context and response moves. Rater 2 was charged to look for the strategy moves, while Rater 3 looked for the inappropriate moves in the students' essays. In this way, each type of rhetorical moves of the 488 essays passed through the scrutiny of the same rater.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Problem 1. What is the profile of the respondents?

Respondents' Profile	Characteristics with the Highest Frequency	Frequency (N = 244)	Percentage
Age	17-18	143	58.6
Gender	Female	169	69.3
Ethnic Affiliation	Meranao	112	45.9
Eunite Annation	Cebuano	75	30.7
English 1 Grade	2.0 (Good) - 2.75 (Very Satisfactory)	151	61.9

Table 1. Summary of the Respondents' Profile

	Bilinguals/ Multilinguals		
Language(s) Spoken at Home	(Meranao/Tagalog, Meranao/English, Meranao/Sebuano Bisaya, Meranao/Ilocano, Meranao/Tausog, Sebuano Bisaya/Surigaonon, English/Tagalog, English/ Sebuano Bisaya, Tagalog/ Sebuano Bisaya, Sebuano Bisaya/Kalagan, Tagalog/Iranon, Subanen/ Sebuano Bisaya)	160	65.6
Average Monthly Family Income	Php10,000 and below	134	54.9
	I want to improve my writing skills.	193	
Motivation for the	I need to earn a passing grade.	183	
Writing Task	I believe the writing task will help me to do better in my English 2 class.	161	

The majority of the respondents were 17 to 18 years old. This age bracket is the usual age of an MSU college freshman. Generally, English 2 is taken by a regular freshman student of the MSU in the second semester of his/her first year in the university, granting that the said student had passed his/her English 1, which is a prerequisite for English 2. In terms of gender, there were more female than male respondents. While majority of the respondents were Meranaos and Cebuano by ethnic affiliations, it is also worth noting that other Muslim and non-Muslim cultural groups from the different regions of the country were represented in the mixture. This setting where students of diverse cultural backgrounds were thrown together in a great experiment with integration to achieve unity in diversity is part of the mandate of MSU as a social laboratory, and a catalyst of change.

For the respondents' English 1 grade, the majority received a grade that range from 2.00 to 2.75 which means that most of the respondents were rated as SATISFACTORY to GOOD in their English 1. At MSU, the highest grade a student can receive is 1.0 which means excellent while the lowest is 5.0, a failing grade. The passing grade, on the other hand, is 3.0. Based on the respondents' grades in English 1, the majority can be classified as beginners to early intermediate type of English language learners. This means that these groups of students are still struggling in their learning of English in terms of their comprehension and production of the English language on their own. Most of the time, they comprehend much more than they are able to demonstrate in speaking and writing.

For the respondents' home language(s), the majority spoke two or more languages at home. These languages include English, Tagalog, Sebuano Bisaya, Meranao, Surigaonon, Kamayo and Arabic. This indicates that these students were mostly exposed to various languages as medium of communication at home. Bilinguality or multilinguality is now recognized as typical, if not the norm. Students, especially, are more open and receptive to stimuli from their environments, and have greater opportunities for broad exposure. They naturally and easily pick up other languages and use these alternately (mix, or switch) with their home language (L1). MSU students are no exception.

Meanwhile, majority of the respondents came from families that have an average monthly income of Php10, 000 and below. This finding suggests that the majority of the respondents come from low-income earning families. The fact that most of the respondents came from poor families is possibly the reason these students preferred to study in the MSU which offers quality education at a low cost.

The respondents' motivations for the writing task were classified either as intrinsic or extrinsic. In this case, the respondents were allowed to give multiple answers. Based on the data, majority of the respondents were both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to do the writing task as manifested

in the results where the majority wanted to become better writers along with their aim to succeed in their respective English 2 classes and thus, earn at least a passing grade for the course.

Problem 2. Is there any significant relationship between the respondents' quality of persuasive writing, and audience adaptation and the respondents' profile?

Variables			Correlation Coefficient (Somer's D)	Pearson Chi- Square Value	Significance Value	Remarks	Cramer's V
	Holistic	Pre	158		.004	Highly Significant	
AGE	Score	Post	134		.011	Significant	
AGE	Audience	Pre	090		.101	Not Significant	
	Adaptation Moves	Post	003		.959	Not Significant	
	Holistic	Pre		4.100	.393	Independent	
	Score	Post		3.257	.516	Independent	
GENDER	Audience	Pre		6.622	.085	Independent	
	Adaptation Moves	Post		3.110	.375	Independent	
	Holistic	Pre		24.511	.433	Independent	
Ethnic	Score	Post		37.218	.042	Dependent	.391
Affiliation	Audience	Pre		13.947	.733	Independent	
	Adaptation Moves	Post		26.011	.100	Independent	
	Holistic	Pre	407		.000	Highly Significant	
English 1	Score	Post	375		.000	Highly Significant	
Grade	Audience	Pre	237		.000	Highly Significant	
	Adaptation Moves	Post	174		.001	Highly Significant	

 Table 2. Correlation between the Respondents' Quality of Persuasive Writing and Audience

 Adaptation and the Respondents' Profile

Variables			Correlation Coefficient (Somer's D)	Pearson Chi- Square Value	Significance Value	Remarks	Cramer's V
	Holistic	Pre		34.672	.180	Independent	
Language(s)	Score	Post		50.581	.006	Dependent	.455
Spoken at Home	Audience	Pre		22.957	.346	Independent	
Home	Adaptation Moves	Post		20.273	.504	Independent	
A	Holistic	Pre		.074	.200	Not Significant	
Average Monthly	Score	Post		001	.985	Not Significant	
Family	Audience	Pre		.043	.452	Not Significant	
Income	Adaptation Moves	Post		.045	.348	Not Significant	
	Holistic	Pre		55.596	0.000	Dependent	0.322
Motivation	Score (Intrinsic)	Post		23.757	0.253	Independent	
	Holistic	Pre		18.562	0.550	Independent	
	Score (Extrinsic)	Post		33.601	0.029	Dependent	0.287
	Audience Adaptation Moves (Intrinsic)	Pre		10.871	0.762	Independent	
		Post		17.126	0.311	Independent	
	Audience	Pre		14.799	0.466	Independent	
	Adaptation Moves (Extrinsic)	Post		9.302	0.861	Independent	

Table 2 shows the summary of the positive correlation between the respondents' quality of persuasive writing and audience adaptation and the respondents' profile. First is the respondents' age, which through Somer's D correlation, is found significantly related to the respondents' quality of persuasive writing in both the pretest and the posttest. The negative correlation coefficient, as shown in Table 2, means that the higher the age of the respondents, the lower are the holistic scores they received for their persuasive writing quality. One possible cause for this is the fact that most of those students at MSU, who take English 2 after age 18 years old, are repeaters of the subject; they have previously taken the course but were not able to get a passing grade which requires them to retake the subject. The point that they have repeatedly taken the course suggests that these groups of students are not proficient in written English.

On the other hand, the ethnic affiliation of the respondents had affected the respondents' quality of persuasive writing during the posttest. The Cramer's V value as indicated in Table 2 showed that the respondents' ethnic affiliation and the quality of their persuasive writing are moderately correlated. Perhaps, the result suggests that the respondents' ethnic affiliations had affected the way they perceived the presentation of audience characteristics based on the three treatments in the posttest. In other words, their socio-cultural background or upbringing had possibly affected their attitude towards the writing task and the manner in which audience cues were presented.

Meanwhile, it appeared that the rhetorical moves commonly used by respondents reveal something about their attitudes and practices. Respondents who belong to a particular ethnic affiliation were found to be more adept at adapting to the target audience' needs by being good at using one particular rhetorical move compared to the others. Perhaps, the degree to which the respondents adapted their writing to their target audience is influenced by the norms and practices of the ethnicity they are affiliated with. For instance, the emphasis accorded to naming moves by Meranao respondents is highly suggestive of the group's high valuation of names as constitutive of one's identity and *bangsa* (lineage). Meranaos take pride in the name they carry. One's name is a matter of *maratabat* (pride) to the Meranaos. Another proof of the pervasive influence of one's culture in writing was found in the strategy moves employed by Tausog, Maguindanao and Illonggo respondents. Their lack of effort to allay the readers' emotions shows their tendency to give vent to outbursts of emotions.

The English 1 grade of the respondents also have a highly significant relationship with the respondents' persuasive writing quality and audience adaptation. Respondents with high grades in English 1 also received high holistic scores for their essays. This finding suggests that the more proficient in English the respondents are the more adept they are in tailoring and adapting their writing to their audience. A plausible explanation for this is they are linguistically competent enough to express their thoughts and ideas by way of using more rhetorical moves compared to those who have lower English 1 grades who can hardly express their thoughts in language.

The study has also found that the respondents' language(s) spoken at home and the quality of their persuasive writing were highly correlated during the posttest. This strong correlation indicates that the home language of students wields some influence on students' writing ability as affirmed by the studies of de la Seña (2009), Araya (2006), Gay (1988) and Snow (1992). Moreover, the study found out that there is a moderate correlation between the respondents' quality of persuasive writing and their intrinsic motivation in the pretest and extrinsic motivation during the posttest. Intrinsically motivated respondents received the highest score of 5 (skillful response) for their holistic scores. This supports language teachers' emphasis on intrinsic motivation, particularly in the communicative and whole language approach. Meanwhile, extrinsically motivated respondents were the only ones who received the lowest score of 1 (insufficient response). The data suggest that these extrinsically motivated respondents, specifically those who said that they write because they want to earn a passing grade or to comply with a course requirement, might be struggling to write an effective essay as reflected by their low holistic scores. However, with possible help from the teachers such as giving of positive feedbacks to these students, these extrinsic motivating factors can be turned intrinsic as they would realize by then that they can actually write comprehensible sentences or paragraphs.

On the other hand, the respondents' gender and average monthly family income had not affected in any way the holistic scores and audience adaptation moves of the respondents. This finding indicates that the respondents, whether male or female, either coming from low- or high-income earning families, generally received the same holistic ratings for the quality of their persuasive writing. The socioeconomic background and gender of the respondents were therefore immaterial.

Problem 3. Is there any difference between the pretest and the posttest results of the respondents' quality of persuasive writing and audience adaptation moves?

GROUPS		Test	Mean	Std. Dev.	t-value	Sig. value	Remarks	
GROUP 1 (Unspecified Audience)	Holistic Score	Pre	2.52	.606	.217	.829	Not Significant	
		Post	2.51	.531	.217			
	Audience	Pre	11.70	5.333	3.665	.000	Highly Significant	
	Adaptation	Post	9.66	4.805	5.005		ringing Significant	
GROUP 2 (Specified Audience without AVC)	Holistic Score	Pre	2.69	.648	555	.581	Not Significant	
		Post	2.73	.551	555	.301	Not Significant	
	Audience Adaptation	Pre	12.59	5.409	6.805	.000	Highly Significant	
		Post	8.58	5.033	0.805		ringing Significant	
GROUP 3 (Specified Audience with AVC)	Holistic Score	Pre	2.62	.721	-2.102	.038	Significant	
		Post	2.77	.796	-2.102		Significant	
	Audience	Pre	12.83	4.874	5.122	.000	Highly Significant	
	Adaptation	Post	9.96	5.455	5.122	.000		

 Table 3. Difference between the Pretest and the Posttest Results of the Respondents' Holistic Scores and Audience Adaptation Moves

Through a t-test, the means of the pretest and posttest results of the respondents' holistic scores and audience adaptation were compared. For the unspecified audience group, the comparison resulted in a t-value of .217 with a significance value of .829. The result disclosed that there is no significant difference between the pretest and the posttest results of the respondents' holistic scores in the unspecified audience group. In other words, the quality of persuasive writing produced by respondents in this group showed no particular improvement in the posttest. The non-significant difference in this group's pretest and posttest holistic scores can be attributed to the fact that in both tests, this group of respondents received no audience information.

For the audience adaptation moves, Table 3 shows a t-value of 3.665 and a significance value of .000 which indicates a high significant difference between the pretest and the posttest total audience adaptation moves in the unspecified audience group. A pretest mean of 11.70 and a 9.66 in the posttest show that despite the same audience orientation this group received in both tests, respondents' use of audience adaptation moves decreased during the posttest.

For the specified audience without audio-visual cues, the t-test that compared the respondents' holistic scores revealed a t-value of -.555 with a significance value of .581. The group has a pretest mean of 2.69 and a posttest mean of 2.73. Despite a short increase in the respondents' mean holistic scores in the posttest, the data suggest that the respondents' quality of persuasive writing did not significantly improve in the posttest where audience information was presented to the respondents in a text format using the third person point of view. On the other hand, the means of the respondents' audience adaptation showed a highly significant difference when also compared through a t-test. The comparison revealed a t-value of 6.805 and a significance value of 8.58, suggesting a decline.

For the specified audience with audio-visual cues, results of the t-test revealed that there is a significant difference between the pretest and the posttest results of the respondents' holistic scores and audience adaption moves. The holistic scores had a computed t-value of -2.102 with a significance value of .038. This significant difference is indicative of a positive effect of integrating the visual and audio cues of the target audience in giving instructions for persuasive writing. However, a pretest mean of 5.122 and a posttest mean of 9.96 with a t-value of 5.122 and a significance value of .000 for this group's audience adaptation moves indicate that the respondents exhibited a fewer number of rhetorical moves in the posttest.

Problem 4. Is there any difference on the posttest results of the respondents' quality of persuasive writing?

GROUPS		Mean	Std. Dev.	t-value	Sig. value	Remarks
(Group 1 -Unspecified Audience vs Group 2 -	Group 1	2.51	.531	-2.474	.014	Significant
Specified Audience without AVC)	Group 2	2.73	.551	-2.474		
(Group 2 -Specified Audience without AVC vs Group 3-	Group 2	2.73	.551	376	.707	Not Significant
Specified Audience with AVC)	Group 3	2.76	.786	370		
(Group 3-Specified Audience with AV vs Group 1-	Group 3	2.76	.786	-2.489	.014	Significant
Unspecified Audience)	Group 1	2.51	.531	-2.489		

 Table 4. Difference on the Posttest Results of the Respondents' Quality of Persuasive Writing

The posttest results of the respondents' quality of persuasive writing in each group were compared through a t-test. A comparison between the unspecified audience and specified audience without audio-visual cues gave a t-value of -2.474 and a significance value of .014 which means that there is a significant difference between the qualities of persuasive writing produced by the respondents from these two groups. The specified audience without audio-visual cues has a posttest mean of 2.73 which is significantly higher compared to the 2.51 of the unspecified audience group. The data suggests that the quality of persuasive writing in the specified audience without audio-visual cues has improved more compared to the quality of writing of the respondents in the unspecified audience group.

Meanwhile, a comparison between the specified audience without audio-visual cues and the specified audience with audio-visual cues showed no significant difference in each group's holistic scores. Table 4 shows that the former has a posttest mean of 2.73, just .03 lower than the 2.76 posttest mean of the specified audience with audio-visual cues. In other words, the persuasive writing made by the respondents from these two groups, based on the posttest results, have almost the same quality. What emerges as a salient factor is, there was a specified audience in both instances. Whether such audience was with audio-visual cues or without audio-visual cues did not make a significant difference.

On the other hand, a t-test that compared the posttest results of the respondents' quality of persuasive writing in the unspecified audience and specified audience with audio-visual cues showed a significant difference between the holistic scores of the respondents from the two groups. It has a t- alue of -2.489 and a significance value of .014. This means that respondents from the specified audience with audio-visual cues produced persuasive essays that were far better than the ones produced by the respondents under the unspecified audience group. **Conclusions**

1. The respondents of the study are generally classified as beginners to early intermediate type of English language learners. They can communicate basic and familiar ideas using basic words,

phrases and sentences but these may not be grammatically correct. Their inability to express their thoughts in language had barred or hindered them in more effectively tailoring or adapting their writing to their audience.

- 2. Respondents of the study are mostly exposed to various languages as the medium of communication at home and in their immediate environments which afforded them the chance to experience the culture underlying other languages. This, perhaps, supports the finding of the study where bilingual and multilingual speakers are perceived to have heightened audience awareness compared to monolinguals. Multilingual speakers used more rhetorical moves compared to monolinguals, thus showing behavioral flexibility or versatility.
- 3. Respondents of the study generally have positive attitudes towards writing. They show remarkable interest to improve their writing skills and to become better writers. Such positive attitudes of students towards writing can be very encouraging to teachers of writing who will be driven to invest effort as well in teaching these students to become better writers. With their promising and properly motivated students, they could create what Vygotsky calls zone of proximal development (ZPD) in which the former could be helped or guided to perform above their level of individual competence.
- 4. Age and language proficiency level among student writers can affect the quality of their persuasive writing as well as their ability to adapt to their audience in their writing. Adult or older students still find it difficult to adapt their writing to their audience because of their inability to express their thoughts in language. This only means that a limited or low English proficiency is debilitating or crippling in cognitively demanding tasks such as writing.
- 5. Previous knowledge or input and exposure in using the language can affect the quality of students' writing as supported by the finding of this study where English 1 grades of the respondents have a significant relationship to the respondents' quality of persuasive writing and audience adaptation skills. One's foundation or background is a prelude.
- 6. Students' personalities as influenced by their sociocultural upbringing are reflected in students' writing. This is manifested by the way students use rhetorical moves in adapting their writing to their target audience. The number and kinds of audience adaptation moves made by respondents representing different ethnic groups to a certain extent reveal ethnic tendencies or characteristics. The inferences made might be somewhat speculative, but these are given warrant by the data obtained and analyzed.
- 7. The quality of students' writing significantly improved when the writing task was presented with audience visual and audio cues. The significant mean difference between the pretest and the posttest results of the students' quality of persuasive writing in the specified audience with audio-visual cues is a manifestation of some positive effect of visual and audio cues when used as instructional aids or meditational tools in writing classes. While nonverbal cues can be used to reinforce verbal messages when trying to achieve communicative goals, audience visual and audio cues can also be considered a powerful tool for stimulating students' imaginations and critical thinking skills.
- 8. Student writers are more responsive and stimulated to write when presented with a specified audience whether it is offered without audio-visual cues or with audio-visual cues. The latter is a source of contextual cues which function as mental prods.

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Hedging Devices in Applied Linguistics Research Articles

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Abstract

The purposes of this study were to investigate hedging devices used in applied linguistic research articles. It also compared the use of these devices across research sections and across journal titles. Selection of the journals used as sources for collecting RAs in the corpus was based on the ranking of journals in Journal Citation Reports: Social Sciences Edition (2006) which covers over 1,700 leading international social sciences journals from the Thomson Scientific database. Findings revealed that among lexical verb hedges, modal verb hedges, adverb hedges, and adjective hedges, the most frequently used hedges were modal verb hedges. Moreover, as might be expected, the distribution of hedging devices in the research articles (RAs) was not even among different rhetorical sections. The highest incidence was in the Introduction section and the second highest was in the Discussion section of RAs. The results of this study also showed some differences in terms of average and types of hedging devices across applied linguistics journals. Of the five journals (Brain and Language, Computational Linguistics, Journal of Memory and Language, Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research, and Studies in Second Language Acquisition), Computational Linguistics RAs consisted of the highest amount of hedging, particularly modal verb hedges. Discussions and recommendations for classroom practices and for future studies were provided in the details.

Key Words: hedging devices, corpus-based study, research sections, applied linguistics, ESP

Introduction

It is important for research writers to appropriately use hedging devices for academic argumentation. Hedges have been typically used among high-level scientists to present their findings and seek to establish their importance in results and discussion sections (Hyland, 1999) as a means of gaining ratification for claims from a powerful peer group (Hyland 1996:434) and as face-saving devices (Halliday, 1994). In the past decade, several studies were conducted to see how hedges are used in different contexts. Some investigate types of hedges used in the research article sections (Falahati, 2007; Lin & Liou, 2006; Vassileva, 2001). These researchers found that hedging devices used in the research articles (RAs) varied from one section to another. Some indicated that hedges were most frequently used in the Discussion section of RAs (Burrough-Boenisch, 2005; Falahati, 2007; Lau, 1999; Salager-Meyer, 1994). Others found that hedges were most frequently used in both Results and Discussion section (e.g., Varttala, 1999). In addition, Adam-Smith (1984) indicated that the authors used modality 50 percent when making claims in Introduction and Discussion sections. However, research studies conducted to investigate the use of hedging devices and compare them across sections and across applied linguistics journals have been scarce. The findings of the present study will not only benefit non-native postgraduate students in the area of applied linguistics and related areas but also non-native English researchers in making their RAs more professional.

Purposes

The purposes of this study are to:

- 1. Investigate hedging devices in RA sections.
- 2. Compare the use of hedging devices across RA sections and across journal titles.

Review of Related Literature

The problem under investigation in this study is one which cuts across the boundaries of two areas. In the first section, hedging approaches are analyzed as a fundamental knowledge base for the study. The second section describes studies investigating hedging.

Hedging Devices

Hedging is one mechanism used to manage the tone, attitude, and information within spoken or written discourse. In academic writing, hedging involves using language that is tentative or qualifying in nature to enable speakers or writers to maintain an attitude of objectivity. In discourse analysis and speech act theory, hedging involves the qualification and toning down of utterances or statements, so common in speech and writing. This can be done through the use of conditional clauses, modality, tentative verbs, adjective or adverb hedges, etc. to reduce the degree of risk of what one says. Mitigation of what otherwise seem too forceful may be one reason; politeness or respect to strangers and the superiority of the other (Wales 1991).

Much of the available literature on hedges concentrates on their functions as devices of positive politeness. Brown and Levinson (1987) believe that hedges can be used as positive and negative politeness devices.

In 1987, a number of functions of hedges are discussed by Brown and Levinson. One is that hedges may be used to soften face-threatening acts (FTAs) of suggesting or criticizing or complaining. Another is that some of them can serve to avoid a precise communication of a speaker's attitude. On their forms, Brown and Levinson (1987:145) define hedges as "a particle, word or phrase that modifies the degree of membership of a predicate or noun phrase in a set". They extend the boundaries of hedging to "negative" politeness which is used for avoiding threats to the face of the participants. Hedging in their model is still limited and mostly applied within the scope of speech acts theory and interpreted as a sign of politeness.

Hyland (1998: 5) defines hedges as "the means by which writers can present a proposition as an opinion rather than a fact: items are only hedges in their epistemic sense, and only when they mark uncertainty". Through the use of hedging devices, the writers try to show the amount of accuracy of their statements. They simultaneously attempt to save face in case of any possible incorrect judgments. Through using hedges and attributing the ideas to oneself, writers also invite readers to evaluate the truth value of the proposition as an independent and intelligent individual.

Hyland (1998), divided the hedges in academic discourse into two main categories: content-oriented hedges and reader-oriented hedges. He asserts that content-oriented hedges "serve to mitigate the relationship between propositional content and a non-linguistic mental representation of reality; they hedge the correspondence between what the writer says about the world and what the world is thought to be like." (p. 162)

Further, Hyland divided the content-oriented hedges into accuracy-oriented and writer-oriented hedges. These hedges include attributive hedges and reliability hedges. The attributive hedges

include adverbs or adverbial devices expressing precision in terms of degree or frequency. The reliability hedges include modal auxiliaries, full verbs, adverbs, adjectives, and nouns. These hedges indicate "a conviction of truth as warranted by deductions from available facts." (p. 167)

In addition to accuracy hedges, the content-oriented hedges include writer-oriented hedges. Hyland states that hedges of this kind include impersonal constructions, passive voice, and other means of avoiding references to authors.

The second type of hedges is reader-oriented hedges. These hedges "confirm the attention the writers give to interactional effects of their statements" (Hyland, 1996:446). The reader-oriented hedges deal with the interpersonal interaction between readers and writers. These hedges include personal attribution, hypothetical conditions, and questions.

However, in this study, the researcher was interested to investigate verb hedges, modal verb hedges, adjective hedges, and adverb hedges.

Empirical Studies on the Use of Hedging Devices

Hedges have been typically used among high-level scientists to present their findings and seek to establish their importance in results and discussion sections (Hyland, 1999) as a means of gaining ratification for claims from a powerful peer group (Hyland 1996:434) and as face-saving devices (Halliday, 1994). In the past decade, several studies were conducted to see how hedges are used in different contexts. Some indicated that hedges were most frequently used in the discussion sections of RAs (Burrough-Boenisch, 2005; Falahati; Lau, 1999; Salager-Meyer, 1994). Others found that hedges were most frequently used in both results and discussion sections (e.g., Varttala, 1999). Several studies investigate types of hedges used in the RA sections (Abdullah, 2011; Falahati, 2007; Lin & Liou, 2006; Vassileva, 2001).

Burrough-Boenisch (2005) asked 45 biologists from eight countries to review and improve the preciseness of the discussion sections of three articles in vegetation science written by three Dutch authors. Among the 45 biologists, there were native speakers (NSs) and non-native speakers (NNSs) of English, reviewers and non-reviewers. Burrough-Boenisch reported that the Discussion section of RAs in the Introduction, Methodology, Results, and Discussion (IMRD) classification is regarded as the most heavily hedged section as it contains mainly interpretations or tentative propositions for the research results.

Furthermore, Lau (1999) investigated how the academic writers signal their claims in terms of tentativeness. Using the 100 published academic articles written by Taiwanese graduate students of both the hard and soft disciplines as the corpus, he interprets the low frequency use of hedging in the Method section as the fact that the truth is simply reported rather than commented on. He has found the higher frequency use of hedging in some other rhetorical sections as "academic writers are generally busy with the logical reasoning when they present experimental results in the discussion section, while they discuss the significance of previous studies by the other researchers in the introduction section." (p. 433)

Also, Salager-Meyer (1994) analyzed a corpus of 15 articles drawn from five leading medical journals to see whether the communicative purpose of different rhetorical sections (IMRD) of research papers and written case reports (CR) in medical English discourse affected the frequency and category distribution of hedges used in each section. In the analysis, a contextual analysis was employed to identify hedges. The frequencies were recorded in the different rhetorical sections of the 15 articles, and their percentages (over the total number of running words) were computed. The

hedges recorded were then classified according to five pre-established categories, and their distribution per category was evaluated in each rhetorical section. The results were analyzed by means of chi-square tests. Hedges were most frequently used in the Discussion (RP)/Comment (CR) sections and least frequently used in Methods (RP) and the Case Report sections. The researcher claimed that the very high frequency of hedges in the Discussion section as compared to that observed in the other three sections was due to the fact that the claim is the important part of the Discussion.

Similarly, Varttala (1999) analyzed a corpus of 15 medical articles from a leading scientific journal *Scientific American* (SA), and 15 specialist RAs from *The New England Journal of Medicine* (NEJM). Findings indicated that the use of hedges is more popular in Results and Discussion sections. Moreover, modal auxiliaries showing tentative possibility, such as may, might and could were found in their epistemic meaning and obviously in hedging function in both article types. The findings also revealed that adjectival hedging was employed in Discussion and Introduction sections of specialist articles rather than in the popularizations (15 medical articles), while the hedging devices normally recommended in style manuals were quite usual in the popularizations.

With regard to types of hedges, Falahati (2007) examined and compared the forms and functions of hedging in the Introduction and Discussion sections of 12 RAs in medicine, chemistry, and psychology. The corpus consisted of 25,983 running words. The three main categories of "main verbs", "non-main verbs" and "modal auxiliaries" were used to show the distribution of hedging forms in the study. Main verbs were subcategorized into "epistemic judgmental and epistemic evidential" verbs. Non-main verbs were also divided into "nouns", "adjectives" and "adverbs". The two main categories of "accuracy oriented" and "writer oriented" were used to show the distribution of hedging functions in the study.

Results indicated that the discussion sections contained more hedging forms and writer-oriented functions than the Introduction sections. With regard to the comparison among disciplines, some interdisciplinary differences in frequency and forms of hedges were found. The psychology RAs had the highest number of hedges. There was no significant difference in overall distribution of hedges between medical and chemistry RAs.

In addition, Vassileva (2001) examined similarities and differences in the degree of commitment and detachment in English, Bulgarian and Bulgarian English RAs in linguistics. Results indicate considerable differences in the overall distribution of hedges and boosters throughout the three main parts of the articles – the Introduction, Discussion and Conclusion – which may lead to misunderstandings in cross-cultural communication. The hedging devices in the corpus (modal verbs, semi-auxiliaries, adjectival and adverbial phrases) are also investigated. Results revealed that there were no differences in the Discussion and the Introduction part as far as the English texts are concerned except that some adverbial means of expressing hedging are used. The most frequently used modals were *may* and *might*, but there were also some occurrences of *could*. However, *could* was used as a modal verb "higher on the scale of commitment" as compared to *may* and *might* in expressing a higher degree of possibility/probability in terms of traditional grammar. Results also indicate the difference between English and Bulgarian in the use of adjectives and adverbial phrases. Bulgarian used twice as many adjectives and adverbial phrases as compared to English. Specifically, Bulgarian equally used modality and adjectives/adverbial phrases.

Similarly, Abdollahzadeh (2011) conducted a quantitative study to investigate the employment of interpersonal metadiscourse in applied linguistics articles written in English by Anglo-American and Iranian academic writers. The metadiscourse markers which are focused in this study are *hedges, emphatics,* and *attitude markers*. The Conclusion sections of 60 extracted linguistic articles

were collected. Half of the articles were written by English academic writers and the other half were written by Iranian authors selected from the leading local research journals in the field of Applied Linguistics. Interpersonal metadiscoursal markers presented in the articles were searched and systematically analyzed. The overall findings reveal that the English writers used more interpersonal metadiscourse markers than the Iranian authors in the whole corpus (p<.05). The researcher claimed that the English academic writers establish more dialogic interaction with their readers to gain acceptance for their claims. For each interpersonal metadiscourse markers, "hedging" is found to be mainly used by both groups. The researcher indicates that this heavy use of hedging reflects the important weigh of their arguments to look persuasive to their audience as well as to show humility and respect to readers. According to Abdollahzadeh, among seven types of hedges found in the corpus, modal auxiliary verbs (i.e., may, might, could, would, should) are predominately employed in both groups. The other five types - lexical verbs (seem, appear), nonmain verb hedging (i.e., possible, probable), approximators of degree, quantity, frequency, and time (i.e., approximately, somewhat), introductory phrases (i.e., to our knowledge, it is our view that), and compound hedges (i.e., it would appear, it may imply that, it seems reasonable to assume that) - show equally frequent use by both groups. For if clauses (i.e., *if true, if anything*), it can be seen that Iranians are more likely to use 'if clauses' to hedge than English academic writers (Iranian=8 and English=3). With regards to emphatics, the findings show English writers express more emphatic words for a variety of purposes than Iranian writers. Four categories of emphatics have been found: (1) modal verbs (i.e., must and should), (2) adverbials (i.e., much, clearly, obviously), (3) adjectival (i.e., clear, signigicant), and (4) verbs (i.e., demonstrate and show). The last interpersonal metadiscourse explored is "Attitude markers". The findings report that English writers show greater awareness in attitude markers than Iranian writers in social construction of knowledge and gaining community acceptance for their claims.

Walko (2007) conducted a qualitative research study to explore the hedging devices in four English as foreign language (EFL) research articles. The four stages of research articles (Stage I: Introduction and Methodological sections, Stage II: Setting and Participants, Sage III: Claims, and Stage IV: Formulating Conclusions) were investigated. Walko found that the polite redressing is found such as the use of hedging devices including the use of lexical choice (i.e., *suggest, seem*) and the use of modality hedges (i.e., *may, might*, etc). However, the claims as the stage III are categorized into four types which are: (1) the explicitness of face threatening acts (FTA) expressed by lexical choice, (2) the off-record FTA expressed by lexical choice, (3) the distancing negative content from the participants, and (4) the distancing negative content from author. It appears that there are strong and explicit FTA particularly when the participants described problems in their teaching explicitly, as well as some indirectness and hedging are found as indirect criticism or an off-record manner.

Also, Lin and Liou (2006) conducted the corpus-based study of 20 published journal articles in applied linguistics published during 1998-2005 to identify communicative moves for expressing various written purposes and genre linguistic conventions on hedging devices. In their study, the hedging devices were classified into five categories: modal auxiliaries, lexical verbs, nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. Findings showed that modal auxiliaries appeared to be the most frequently used class with the total usage numbers as 496 times (40.22%), while the lexical verbs (29.12%) and nouns (16.87%) were the second and third classes for the most frequently usage. The adjective was the least used class (6.65%). The researchers claimed that modal auxiliaries seemed to be the most straightforward devices to express modality, while lexical verbs served as a set of powerful verbal repertoire for RA authors to express epistemic modality via reporting or committing to the propositions of their studies. Results also indicated that the most frequently used hedge words are: show, suggest, may, can, finding, case, likely, possible, often, and further.

Data Collection

Selection of the Corpus

The RAs were collected from applied linguistics journals published in the year 2006. The top five applied linguistics journals based on the ranking of journals in *Journal Citation Reports: Science Edition* (2007) were sampled to make sure that the corpus represents high-quality journals in the field. Twelve articles were selected to represent the publications of each of the journal covering the one-year period of 2006. Data were collected from the IMRD parts of RAs.

Selection of Articles

A selection of 12 RAs from each of the five journals in the year 2006 was made. Based on the availability, the 60 RAs were then downloaded from electronic journals in the NIDA e-Library. Following Swales (1990), the corpus was selected from the four conventional IMRD sections. The total corpus contains approximately 803 pages of text or about 430,877 words of running text.

Description of the Internal Sections

The IMRD sections were identified based on the subheadings of the sections or visual divisions among sections. However, across the five journals the subheadings were not uniform. For example, in the *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research* (JSLHR), the Introduction section can be identified by a box separating it from the Abstract and by a label, "Issues of Methodology", for the following section. The *Brain and Language* (B&L) journal exhibit the IMRD organization most clearly.

Editing and Dividing the Corpus

The corpus of 60 RAs was then edited to make the counts of hedging devices. The tag "ref" was used instead of parenthetical citations or non-integral citations (e.g., Hovy and Lin, 2003). Moreover, the tag "pointer" was used instead of text to direct readers to visual presentations (e.g., see Figure 2). After editing, the corpus contained 431,381 words. Then, the divisions of the research sections were identified by typo-graphical features and linguistic clues (Connor & Mauranen, 1999; Swales, 1990). Thus, there are 4 sub-corpora (I, M, R, and D). Each sub corpus consists of 60 texts resulting in 240 files. After each section was classified, three applied linguistic specialists were consulted to confirm the divisions of the text.

Grammatical Tags and Frequency Count

The Mono Conc. Pro 2.2 (Barlow, 2004), a concordancing program recommended by experts in the field of multidimensional analysis such as Reppen (2001), will be used to determine the frequency of each hedging strategy. When text length is varied, as in this study, Biber (1995) suggests that the frequencies should be normalized. Therefore, the raw frequencies were normalized following Biber's (1995) method by having the raw frequency count divided by the number of words in the text and multiplied by 1000.

Data Analysis

The descriptive statistics was used to analyze the data. The mean was used to elucidate the average of use of each hedging strategy. The ANOVA tests were used to determine the differences in the

use of hedging devices across RA sections and across journal titles. Then the post hoc Scheffé test was used to determine where differences occur. The reason for using Scheffé's method is that it is a single-step multiple comparison procedure which applies to the set of estimates of all possible contrasts among the factor level means, not just the pairwise differences considered by the Tukey-Kramer method. The confidential level was set at .05.

Results, Discussions, and Recommendations

Results of the analyses are presented. The results are divided into three sections. Section one explains and discusses the use of hedging devices. Section two presents and discuss differences in the use of hedging devices across research sections. Section three presents and discusses differences in the use of hedging devices across five journal titles. This is followed by the conclusion. Abbreviations used in the tables and their full forms are provided as follows:

Abbreviation	S	Full	Forms	
	_			

B&L	Brain and Language
CL	Computational Linguistics
JOM	Journal of Memory and Language
JOS	Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research
SLA	Studies in Second Language Acquisition
Ι	Introduction
Μ	Methodology
R	Results
D	Discussions

Results

Use of Hedging Devices

The results of the analysis of the use of hedging devices in RAs are presented in Table 1.

Journal Section	Average Use of Hedging Devices
Introduction	4.13
Methodology	1.15
Results	.85
Discussion	2.46

 Table 1 Average Use of Hedging Devices in Each Research Section

The figures in this table are rounded off to the first two decimals.

As might be expected from previous literature (Burrough-Boenisch, 2005; Lau, 1999; Salager-Meyer, 1994) the incidence of hedging devices is greater in the Introduction and Discussion, where evaluation is most frequently located to pursue convergence. This study shows that hedging devices were most frequently used in the Introduction section. This is followed by the use of hedging devices in the Discussion section. The distribution of hedging devices confirms that the rhetorical function of each section influence the use of devices is also true for RAs in applied linguistics.

Average of hedging devices in all RA sections

The results of the analysis of the use of hedging devices in RAs are presented in Table 2.

 Table 2 Average of hedging devices in all RA sections

 Hedging devices
 N
 Minimum
 Mean
 Store

Hedging devices	Ν	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Lexical verb hedges	240	0	6	.31	.65
Modal verb hedges	240	0	30	4.35	4.42
Adjective hedges	240	0	7	.74	1.16
Adverb hedges	240	0	6	.15	.55
Valid N (listwise)	240				

The figures in this table are rounded off to the first two decimals.

As shown in Table 2, modal auxiliaries appeared to be the most frequently used strategy with the average of 4.35. This finding is consistent with that of Lin & Liou (2006). The adjective hedges (.74) and lexical verb hedges (.31) were the second and third classes for the most frequently usage. The adverb was the least used strategy (.15). Modal auxiliaries seemed to be the most straightforward devices to express modality, while lexical verbs served as a set of powerful verbal repertoire for RAs authors to express epistemic modality via reporting or committing to the propositions of their studies. The next table shows the results of the analysis of the use of each hedging strategy in each RA section.

 Table 3 Average of Each Hedging Strategy in Each RA Section

Hedging Devices	Ι	М	R	D
Verb hedges	.21	.04	.09	.12
Modal verb hedges	3.50	.89	.64	2.00
Adjective hedges	.38	.20	.09	.29
Adverb hedges	.04	.02	.03	.05

The figures in this table are rounded off to the first two decimals.

As shown in the table, the four sections show different tendencies for hedging devices. Modal verb hedges are mostly used in Introduction (3.50) and Discussions (2.00). The greater use of modal verb hedges in this corpus partly supports Adam-Smith's (1984) findings which showed that the modality is the most frequent hedging devices used for making claims in Introduction and Discussion sections. Similarly, the highest incidence of adjective hedges and verb hedges is in Introduction (.38) followed by the Discussions. With regard to the use of adverb hedges, Hyland (1996) reported the use of adverb hedges as the second rank after verb hedges in English RAs. However, the use of adverb hedges in this study is relatively low as compared with other hedging devices. It is also important to note that a few occurrences of verb hedges, adjective hedges and adverb hedges were also found in each research section.

Differences in the Use of Hedging Devices across RA Sections

The results of the ANOVA test are presented in Table 4.

Hedgi	Hedging Devices		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Verb hedges	Between Groups	7.64	3	2.55	6.41	.000
	Within Groups	93.74	236	.40		
	Total	101.38	239			
Modal verb	Between Groups	1516.29	3	505.43	37.81	.000
hedges	Within Groups	3154.99	236	13.37		
	Total	4671.27	239			
Adjective	Between Groups	50.23	3	16.74	14.67	.000
hedges	Within Groups	269.38	236	1.14		
	Total	319.61	239			
Adverb	Between Groups	2.95	3	.98	3.36	.019
hedges	Within Groups	68.86	236	.29		
	Total	71.80	239			

Table 4 Differences in the Use of Hedging Devices across RA Sections

As shown in Table 4, the differences occurring across RA sections were highly significant at P<.01 for verb hedges, modal verb hedges, and adjective hedges. The difference in the use of adverb hedges across RA section was significant at P<.05. The results in an ANOVA table serve only to indicate whether means differ significantly or not. They do not indicate which means differ from another. Thus, the post hoc Scheffé test was conducted to determine where differences occur.

The differences in the use of verb hedges between the Discussion section and Introduction as well as between the Discussion section and the Method section were highly significant (P<.01). In addition, the difference in the use of verb hedges between the Discussion section and the results section was significant (P<.05).

With regard to the modal hedges, the differences in the use of modal verb hedges between the Discussion section and the Introduction section, between the Discussion section and the Method section, as well as between the Discussion section and the results section were extremely significant (P<.001).

With regard to the adjective hedges, the differences in the use of adjective hedges between the Discussion section and the Introduction section as well as between the Discussion section and the Results section were extremely significant (P<.001). In addition, the difference in the use of adjective hedges between the Discussion section and the Method section was highly significant (P<.01).

Though the few occurrence of adverb hedges were found in this study, the difference was found between the Discussion section and the Introduction (P<.05).

In sum, the greater use of modal hedges in the Introduction and Discussion sections in this corpus agrees with the tendency found in empirical studies (Adam-Smith, 1984; Lau, 1999; Salager-Meyer, 1994). It may be that in the Introduction section, applied linguistics research writers discussed the significance of previous studies by other researchers by employing hedging devices to avoid face threatening acts whereas in the Discussion section, applied linguistics research writers cautiously presented their results of studies and would like to gain acceptance from the scholars in their field.

Differences in the Use of Hedging Devices across Journal Titles

The results of the ANOVA test are presented in Table 5.

Hedging devices	B&L	CL	JOM	JOS	SLA
Verb hedges	.17	.55	.43	.18	.21
Modal verb hedges	3.23	7.28	3.68	3.29	4.26
Adjective hedges	.49	1.37	.69	.59	.58
Adverb hedges	.11	.38	.11	.09	.06

Table 5 Average of Hedging Devices across Journals

As shown in Table 5, when compared with the other three devices, modal verb hedges are mostly used in all journals. Moreover, this strategy is mostly used in *Computational Linguistics* (7.28), followed by *Studies in Second Language and Acquisition* (4.26) and *Journal of Memory and Language* (3.68). The use of this strategy is quite similar in *Brain and Language* as well as *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*.

Verb hedges are mostly used in *Computational Linguistics* (.55) followed by *Journal of Memory and Language* (.43), *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (.21). The use of this strategy in *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research* as well as *Brain and Language* is quite similar (.18 and.17 respectively).

The highest incidence of adjective hedges is in *Computational Linguistics* RAs (1.37) followed by *Journal of Memory and Language* (.69). The use of this strategy is quite similar in *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research* as well as *Studies in Second Language and Acquisition*. The lowest incidence occurs in *Brain and Language*.

As for adverb hedges, *Computational Linguistics* RAs show the highest incidence of this strategy (.38) followed by *Brain and Language* as well as *Journal of Memory and Language* (.11 equally). The lowest incidence of this strategy occurs in the *Studies in Second Language and Acquisition*.

Hedging devices		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Verb hedges	Between Groups	5.36	4	1.34	3.28	.012
	Within Groups	96.03	24	.41		N CONTRACTOR OF CONTRACTOR
	Total	101.38	24			
Modal verb	Between Groups	548.32	4	137.08	7.81	.000
hedges	Within Groups	4122.95	24	17.54		
	Total	4671.27	24			
Adjective	Between Groups	24.15	4	6.04	4.80	.001
hedges	Within Groups	295.46	24	1.26		
	Total	319.61	24			
Adverb	Between Groups	3.43	4	.86	2.95	.021
hedges	Within Groups	68.37	24	.29		
	Total	71.80	24			

Table 6 Differences in the Use of Hedging Devices across Journal Titles

The results of the ANOVA test indicated that the differences are highly significant across journal titles at P=<.01 for modal verb hedges and adjective hedges as well as significant at P<.05 for verb hedges and adverb hedges. Then the post hoc Scheffé test was conducted to determine where differences occur. Results indicated that no differences existed in the use of verb hedges across journals from the followed up test.

As for modal verb hedges, highly significant differences occur between *Computational Linguistics* and *Brain and Language*, *Computational Linguistics* and *Journal of Memory and Language*, *Computational Linguistics* and *Journal of Speech*, *Language*, *and Hearing Research* (P<.01). The difference in the use of this strategy was also found in *Computational Linguistics and Studies in Second Language and Acquisition* (P<.05). This is to confirm that the highest use of modal verb hedges occurs in *Computational Linguistics*.

Discussions

The central claim of this study has been to consider hedging devices within the cooperative contractual structure of the research articles. As can be noticed, hedging devices can be used to mitigate certainty and create an effect of anticipated comment or remark by means of tentative verbs either lexical (seem, appear...) or modal (can, could, may, might...), adjectives of doubt (possible, probable...) and their adverbial counterparts (possibly, probably...). Hedging devices can also be used to elucidate the significance of findings within the research framework. This section discusses the conclusions of the study and provides a comparison to findings of other studies. The discussions address the purposes as summarized here:

- 1. Those which deal with the distribution of hedging devices across research sections.
- 2. Those which are concerned with the distribution of hedging devices across journals.

Hedging Devices across RA Sections

This study showed that the most frequently used hedges are modal verb hedges. Moreover, as might be expected, the distribution of hedging devices in the RAs is not even among different rhetorical sections. The highest incidence is in the Introduction section and the second highest is in the Discussion sections of RAs. Moreover, this study is not consistent with the findings of several studies (Burrough-Boenisch, 2005; Falahati, 2007; Lau, 1999; Salager-Meyer, 1994) which indicated that hedges were most frequently used in the Discussion sections of RAs. Others found that hedges were most frequently used in both Results and Discussion sections (e.g., Varttala, 1999).

Variation in hedging within the rhetorical sections of an RA can illustrate the different purposes of the rhetorical sections. According to Swales (1990), the main concern of RA Introductions is to create a research space in which to locate the study. To this end, the writers try to "establish a territory" by reviewing the previous research and "establish a niche" by referring to the gap and shortcomings which exist in the previous research. West (1980) indicates that the main rhetorical function of the Introduction is to justify the reason for investigation. The writers make this justification through showing the problem or gap in previous works and emphasizing the significance of their own work. Both Swales and West state the similar function for the Introduction sections of RAs.

In the RAs corpus, the writers try to introduce their work in the Introduction sections of the RAs. In order to introduce and justify the conduct of their studies, writers generally cite the previous studies to show the flaws which exist with different aspects of the study. They are simultaneously aware that being too assertive while discussion the others' studies strongly

might not be appropriate in scientific and academic context. Therefore, the hedging devices were used to cautiously introduce their views towards the other studies. Hedging also reveals that writers know the rules of conduct by showing concern regarding the face of others. Failure to employ hedging devices may cause confrontation with other members of the community whose works were criticized.

As reviewed earlier, Swales (1990:133) states "the Discussion section mirror-images the Introduction by moving from specific findings to general implications". The purpose of the Discussion section is to make claims about the findings of the study, to summarize results, state conclusions and suggestions with reference to previous research. Writers try to gain acceptance by "going beyond their data to propose the more general interpretations" (Hyland, 1998:154). Therefore, several devices were employed to protect writers against any probable falsification of their assertion and the rejection of their ideas by the scholars in their community. Hedges also help writers to show their uncertainty regarding the interpretation of the findings and leave some room for any other interpretations. Surprisingly, in this study, the Discussion section consists of fewer hedges compared to the Introduction section. It should be noted that the writers in this corpus pay more attention to saving face of others when pointing out the gap needing to be filled in for their studies.

Hedging Devices across Journal Titles

Even in the same discipline, the results of this study show some differences in terms of average and types of hedging devices across applied linguistics journals. Of the five journals (*Brain and Language, Computational Linguistics, Journal of Memory and Language, Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research,* and *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*), *Computational Linguistics* RAs surprisingly consist of the highest amount of hedging devices, particularly modal verb hedges. As might be expected, *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* should have contained more hedges than other four journals since the other four lean toward natural science and technology. The higher incidence of hedges in *Computational Linguistics* RAs can be attributed to the tentative nature of the field where linguists apply computers to the processing of a natural language. Linguists have been involved with computer scientists, experts in artificial intelligence, mathematicians, logicians, philosophers, cognitive scientists, cognitive psychologists, psycholinguists, anthropologists and neuroscientists, among others. Therefore, they may be more aware of saving face of others.

In research concerned with *Brain and Language, Journal of Memory and Language, Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research* and *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, the setting of the experiments may be more controlled and the material and procedures may be closely measured. The researchers in these fields can explain the procedures of the experiment and also make conclusions with more confidence. This may be account for the lower incidence of hedging devices.

Recommendations

Given the findings from this study, the following implications can be drawn for classroom practice and for further research.

Recommendations for Instruction

1. The findings of this study support the assertion that professional research writers employ several hedging devices when writing each research article section. The use of these devices

depends primarily on the functional properties and the textual variation. Findings may inform course designers of genre structures relevant to research or academic writing curriculums. For example, when developing teaching materials, instructors should include several devices identified for particular functions such as how to write established knowledge and politely make comments and how to cautiously frame claims.

- 2. When teaching research writing, instructors should help students become aware of different kinds of hedging devices as well as point out the relationships among functions and language. Moreover, the similarities and the differences across research sections should be pointed out.
- 3. Findings of this study also provide a valuable resource for teachers of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) or English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Instructional activities designed to raise the language awareness especially the use of hedging devices should be provided for students (Wishnoff, 2000).
- 4. The corpus can be used as an authentic example of RAs. A useful tool in this context is a concordance program such as Monoconc Pro. 2.2 (Barlow, 2003) which allow non-native English speaking students or researchers to search large amounts of computer-readable text for each hedging strategy and display every occurrence with its surrounding co-text. Such a list enables users to look for patterns of use and to see how each device functions across a range of texts: observing its most frequent senses and the company it typically keeps. Teachers can make suggestions to students as they research the language using a data-driven, inductive approach (Beatty, 2003). With teacher encouragement, this process can both stimulate students' curiosity and encourage them to actively and independently engage with the language. Incorporating this actual strategy into the curriculum may help students efficiently read and to eventually write this style of discourse in order to increase the chance of having their papers accepted for publication.

Recommendations for Further Research

Conducting a corpus-based analysis is complicated and time consuming; however, it may be worthwhile to investigate the following:

- 1. It may be interesting to investigate hedging devices in research articles across disciplines.
- 2. This study covered only verb hedges, modal verb hedges, adverb hedges, and adjective hedges. Future research may investigate content-oriented hedges and reader-oriented hedges (Hyland, 1996).
- **3.** Future research should explore how certain hedging devices are used in each research section. For example, how three types of modals: possibility, necessity, and predictive modals are used in Discussion sections.
- **4.** It may be interesting to conduct a meta analysis of the evolution of hedging devices used in research article sections during 2000-2010.
- **5.** Future research should be conducted to determine how the data-driven approach can best be facilitated in EAP or ESP instruction.

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Language Learning Strategies Used by Students at Different Proficiency Levels

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Abstract

The purposes of this study were to identify the kinds of language learning strategies used by students and to investigate the use of language learning strategies of students at different proficiency levels. The participants were 156 first year students from the Faculty of Liberal Arts studying in the 2010 academic year at Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus, Thailand. Two types of research instruments were utilized: Strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0 which was adapted based on Oxford (1990), and follow-up individual interview. Proficiency levels were determined by using Ordinary National Educational Test (ONET) scores in English subject. The major findings reported that frequency of strategy use by the first year students was moderate overall, with students reporting most frequent use of metacognitive strategies and least of memory strategies. High proficiency students showed more frequent use of all six strategy groups than the low proficiency group. Language proficiency influenced the use of compensation and metacognitive strategies. The implications of the findings are discussed along with suggestions for further research.

Keywords: first-year students, low English proficiency students, high English proficiency students, language learning strategies

Rationale of the study

There has been an extendive change within the field of language learning and teaching over the last 20 years with greater emphasis on learners and learning rather than on teachers and teaching (Goh, 1997; Tomoko & Osamu, 2009). According to this change of interest, how learners process new information and what kinds of strategies they employ to understand, learn or remember the information has been the primary concern of the researchers dealing with the area of foreign language learning (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Cohen, 1998).

Language learning strategies are of interest not only for revealing the ways language learners apply learning strategies, but also for demonstrating how the use of strategies is related to effective language learning (Cohen, 1998; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Hashim, 1994). The assumption behind strategies research is that learning strategies are teachable (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). It is believed that strategies used by successful learners may be learned by unsuccessful learners and language instructors can assist the process by helping learners develop appropriate strategies.

There is some evidence demonstrating the relationship between how students perceive their language proficiency and their use of language learning strategies. Rubin (1975), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), Green and Oxford (1995) mention that the better students become aware of their language proficiency, the more often they use various learning strategies to assist them learn

English. In addition, Dickinson (1987 cited in Wenden 1991) maintain that the use of appropriate strategies allows learners to take more responsibility for their own learning and help develop learner autonomy, independence, and self-direction. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Yang (1998) also stated that unsuccessful language learners are able to improve their English through the appropriate use of strategies. As claimed by Wharton (2000), the appropriate use of strategies influences language achievement and helps to improve all four basic skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. In other words, learners can improve language competence through using appropriate strategies. It seems that there is relationship between language proficiency and the choice of strategy use. For this reason, it seems to be essential for foreign language teachers to recognize and understand how their students use strategies.

Apart from foreign scholars, many Thai researchers also recognized the need to explore language learning strategies. For example, Kaotsombut (2003) conducted a study on the use of language learning strategies of graduate students. The study by Pawapatcharaudom (2007) was conducted with fourth year Thai students in International College. Tapoon (2008) studied the relationship between strategies and life skills of first year university students. However, so far studies which focus on language learning strategies used by first year university students at different proficiency levels have not been found. Moreover, there is no information about strategies employed by first-year students from the Faculty of Liberal Arts at Prince of Songkla University. To fill this gap, this study will focus on strategies applied by first-year students from the Faculty of Liberal Arts at Prince of Songkla University and whether students with different proficiency levels have similar or different choice of strategies use.

Research questions

The study was carried out to provide the answers for the three following questions:

- 1. What language learning strategies are used by students?
- 2. How do first year students at different proficiency levels use language learning strategies?
- 3. Does English proficiency influence the choice of language learning strategies?

Definition of terms

First-year students refer to first-year students from the Faculty of Liberal Arts at Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus in the 2010 academic year.

Low English proficiency students refer to students of the bottom 27% group according to ONET scores in English subject.

High English proficiency students refer to students of the top 27% group according to ONET scores in English subject.

Language learning strategies refer to specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques that students use to improve their progress in developing foreign language skills (Oxford, 1990).

Framework of the study

The present study was dedicated to identifying the use of language learning strategies and to explore whether there are any differences among the use of those strategies employed by students of different English proficiency levels. It was conducted with first-year students from the Faculty of

Liberal Arts studying in the 2010 academic year at Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus only. The instruments used in this study were adapted from the SILL version 7.0 and interview technique was employed.

Research Methodology

Subjects

The subjects of this study were first-year students from the Faculty of Liberal Arts at Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus in the 2010 academic year. They are from four majors: Language for Development (English), Language for Development (Thai), Community Studies, and Chinese for Communication. The number of the subjects was calculated using the criteria set up by Krejcie and Morgan (1970). That is, if the population is 269, the sample size is 156. The proportionate stratified random sampling was used in order to determine the representative subjects from each major. They were selected by simple random sampling.

The subjects were classified into two groups: high and low proficiency groups according to the ONET scores in English subject. The scores of 156 subjects were divided into two groups by using 27% technique (Hughes, 1989). That is, the top 27% of scores was placed to be the score of high proficiency group and the bottom 27% of scores was placed to be the score of low proficiency group.

3.2 Instruments

To collect data for the study, the following two research instruments were employed: the SILL, version 7.0 and the individual interview.

3.2.1 Questionnaire

The research instrument used for collecting quantitative data on students' use of language learning strategies is SILL version 7.0 for students of English as a second or a foreign language which was adapted based on Oxford (1990). The SILL is a 5-point Likert-scale presenting a set of strategies for language learning across skills. It is ranged from 1 "never or almost never" to 5 "always or almost always." The questionnaire consists of 50 strategy items.

The SILL version 7.0 was selected for this study because the subjects are native Thais who study English as a foreign language. Furthermore, it is currently recognized as the most detailed comprehensive and widely used instrument to identify the strategy use of all language learners throughout the world (Green & Oxford, 1995; Goh, 1997). To avoid misunderstanding of the directions and the items, SILL Thai version translated was employed in the present study.

3.2.2 Individual Interview

As a follow-up to the data from the questionnaire, the individual interview was conduct. There are five subjects from low proficiency group and others five subjects from high proficiency group. They were interviewed individually to gain additional information about their use of learning strategies. The interview questions were adapted from the SILL version 7.0. It focused on the strategies employed for their English language learning.

3.3 Pilot Study

To examine the reliability and validity of the instruments, a pilot study was conducted. The questionnaire was pilot with 30 first year students who were not involved in the study. The cronbach's alpha reliability of the SILL Thai version was 0.93. If they cannot understand any items, they can ask the researcher. After the pilot study, confusing or unclear items were adapted or revised before being used in the actual study. Moreover, the individual interview was pilot the individual interview with three first year students who were involved in the pilot questionnaire. After that, unclear items were improved and were examined by the advisor and the experts.

3.4 Data collection procedure

All data were collected after the midterm examination of the first semester in the 2010 academic year. The questionnaires were administered by the researcher at the end of class. The researcher explained the purposes of the study and the directions for completing the questionnaire. The subjects were allowed to take about 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

After that, to gather additional information, individual interviews were conducted. Each interview took about 20-30 minutes. The interviews were tape-recorded with permission of the interviewees.

3.5 Data analysis

The quantitative data from the SILL questionnaire was calculated using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences program (SPSS). Means and Standard Deviation were used to report the frequency of students' use of language learning strategies in each category in order to answer the first and second research question. As for the third research question, the Independent-Samples T-test is used to find out the difference using strategies among the proficiency groups.

The researcher transcribed the dialog from the individual interview. The content in the transcriptions was classified into theme of strategies to gain additional information of the data from the questionnaire.

Level of Strategy Use	Frequency of Strategy use	Average Means Scores		
High	Almost or almost always used	4.50 to 5.0		
	Usually used	3.50 to 4.99		
Medium	Sometime used	2.50 to 3.49		
Low	Generally not used	1.50 to 2.49		
	Never or almost never used	1.00 to 1.49		

Table 1 Criteria for Assessing the Frequency of Strategies Use (Oxford, 1990)

Results

1. Language Learning Strategies Used by First Year Students

Strategy	$\overline{\mathbf{X}}$	S.D.	Levels
Groups			
Metacognitive	3.54	0.66	High
Compensation	3.43	0.56	Medium
Social	3.39	0.60	Medium
Affective	3.27	0.61	Medium
Cognitive	3.26	0.59	Medium
Memory	3.33	0.53	Medium
Overall	3.34	0.47	Medium

 Table 2: Use of language Learning Strategies by First Year Students

According to Table 2, the findings revealed that participants used learning strategies at a moderate level (3.34).

The metacognitive was the highest employed by first year students (3.54), followed by compensation (M = 3.43) and social strategies (3.39) respectively. Memory strategies were the least employed by first year students (3.25).

2. Language Learning Strategies Used by High Proficiency Students and Low proficiency Students.

Table 3: Use of Language Learning Strategies by High Proficiency Students and Low Proficiency Students

High Proficiency			Low Proficiency				
Strategy Group	$\overline{\mathbf{X}}$	S.D.	Levels	Strategy Group	$\overline{\mathbf{X}}$	S.D.	Levels
Memory	3.33	0.53	Medium	Memory	3.14	0.54	Medium
Cognitive	3.35	0.66	Medium	Cognitive	3.15	0.55	Medium
Compensation	3.52	0.55	High	Compensation	3.29	0.54	Medium
Metacognitive	3.72	0.73	High	Metacognitive	3.42	0.61	Medium
Affective	3.30	0.68	Medium	Affective	3.21	0.58	Medium
Social	3.46	0.64	Medium	Social	3.30	0.60	Medium
Overall	3.46	0.50	Medium	Overall	3.23	0.47	Medium

Table 3 shows the use of language learning strategies of two groups of participants: high and low proficiency students. The findings revealed that for high proficiency students, the use of compensation and metacognitive strategies were at the high level, while memory, cognitive, affective, and social strategies were at a medium level. Meanwhile, for low proficiency students, all six categories were used at a medium level. In other words, students who have high English proficiency level employed overall strategies more often than those who have low English proficiency level.

3. Differences in the Frequency of Overall Strategy Use between High and Low English Proficiency Students

High Proficiency			Low Proficiency				t	Sig.2	
									tailed
Strategy Group	$\overline{\mathbf{X}}$	S.D.	Levels	Strategy Group	$\overline{\mathbf{X}}$	S.D.	Levels		
Memory	3.33	0.53	Medium	Memory	3.14	0.54	Medium	1.574	.119
Cognitive	3.35	0.66	Medium	Cognitive	3.15	0.55	Medium	1.406	.163
Compensation	3.52	0.55	High	Compensation	3.29	0.54	Medium	2.012	.047*
Metacognitive	3.72	0.73	High	Metacognitive	3.42	0.61	Medium	2.223	.029*
Affective	3.30	0.68	Medium	Affective	3.21	0.58	Medium	.713	.478
Social	3.46	0.64	Medium	Social	3.30	0.60	Medium	1.186	.239
Overall	3.46	0.50	Medium	Overall	3.23	0.47	Medium	1.936	.056

Table 4: Relationship between Language Learning Strategies Use and Proficiency Levels.

* p<0.05

Table 4 reported that significant differences were found in the use of compensation and metacognative strategies. The high proficiency students used compensation and metacognitive strategies more frequently than the low proficiency students in metacognitive strategies, there were significant differences in strategies use by students at different proficiency levels (p = 0.029). In compensation strategies, there were significant differences in strategies use by students at differences in strategies used by students at different proficiency levels (p = 0.029). In compensation strategies, there were significant differences in strategies used by students at different proficiency levels (p = 0.047).

The individual interview revealed that the high proficiency student employed various kinds of metacognitive strategies such as centering one's learning, arranging and planning learning. In addition, they used compensation strategies such as guessing intelligently, and overcoming limitations in speaking and writing.

Discussion

Language learning strategies used by first year students

The results indicate that the participants used learning strategies at the moderate level. These results were similar to those of Lee (2000) which also found the moderate use of all kinds of learning strategies. The metacognitive strategy was most commonly employed and memory strategies were the least employed by first year students. This result different from Ni (2007) who found that memory strategies were most commonly employed by first year students.

Language learning strategies used by high proficiency students and low proficiency students.

The result showed the students who have high English proficiency level employed overall strategies more often than those who have low English proficiency level. The students reported most frequent use of metacognitive strategies and least of memory strategies. The result is also consistent with the evidence of other studies. The findings seemed to correspond with the study conducted in Taiwan by Lai (2009). He found that high proficiency learners used all learning strategies more than low proficiency learners did. They used metacognitive strategies frequently and memory strategies least frequently whic the present study also found. That means language proficiency influenced the use of compensation and metacognitive strategies. Many researchers have found that effective learners reported a great frequency and range of strategies use (Goh and Kwah, 1997; Hashim, 1997; Wu, 2008).

Differences in the frequency of overall strategy use between high and low English proficiency students

The result reported that significant differences were found in the use of compensation and metacognative strategies. The high proficiency students used compensation and metacognitive strategies more frequently than those with low proficiency.

According to Ellis (1994), learners' successful learning experience and level of second language proficiency can influence their choice of strategies. Consequently, there is a relationship between strategies and language performance. A number of empirical studies have investigated the relationship between language learners' proficiency and strategy use. Most findings indicate that a conscious use of strategies is related to language achievement and proficiency.

The result was similar to the study of Green and Oxford (1995). They also found that intermediate students used compensation and metacognitive strategies significantly more than did basic students and the result was consistent with the finding that intermediate level students tended to use proportionally more metacognitive strategies than students with lower proficiency level proficiency. Tomoko & Osamu (2009) found that metacognitice strategies use rises as the foreign language course level increased. The positive relationship between compensation and metacognitive strategies use and English proficiency represents that the high English proficiency using compensation and metacognitive strategies have better performance on English proficiency.

Recommendations for Pedagogical Implications

Based on the findings of this study, some pedagogical implications are suggested. English teachers should develop an approach to teaching which is related to the use of language learning strategies by students. The syllabus, activities, and contents should be designed to encourage the students to practice and use a variety of strategies, particularly metacognitive strategies, because students use this strategy most frequently, and metacognitive strategies are effectively for language learning.

Recommendations for Further Research

Since there are many more factors than proficiency such as age, sex, motivation, learning style which can affect language learner's choice of strategies, further studies on the relationship between the use of language learning strategies and those factors should be conducted.

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Language Attitudes and Communicative Realities of Code-Mixing in Contemporary Nigerian Gospel Music

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Abstract

Nigeria, as a multiethnic society with approximately 400 indigenous languages, contends with the challenge of its linguistic heterogeneity by the adoption of English as a unifying language in bridging communication gaps in the country. The communicative importance of English has thus necessitated Nigerian scholars to examine the linguistic realities of the Nigerian nation with attention paid to bi/multilingual issues such as code-switching, code-mixing, interferences, language attitudes, and translation amongst others. Many of such studies (Akere, 1980; Amuda, 1986, 1994; Goke-Pariola, 1983; O'Mole, 1987; Lamidi, 2004; Ayeomoni, 2006) examine bi/multilingual issues using corpus from conversations and written discourses. However, few studies have been able to examine bilingual issues contexts such as music. This present study thus attempts to examine code-mixing in music. The case study explores the music of two Nigerian gospel musicians from the Yoruba-speaking ethnic group and focuses on the employment of codemixing as a deliberate bilingual communicative behaviour in music. We discover that while the musicians creatively mix English codes with their music, the employment of code-mixing in their song lyrics does not occur as a mere characteristic of bilingualism but as a stylistic strategy that enables wider acceptability/marketability. Furthermore, the phonological description of the mixed English codes indicates why corpus from music can serve as an appropriate data for the English as a second language (ESL) teacher to predict probable problem areas and to develop appropriate methods and tools for problem-solving.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

Nigeria is a multiethnic society with approximately 400 indigenous languages at its disposal. The linguistic challenge of this heterogeneity explains the necessity for the adoption of English as a unifying language in bridging communication gaps in the country. The communicative importance of English has thus triggered the examination of the linguistic nature of the Nigerian nation with particular attention paid to bi/multilingual issues such as code-switching, code-mixing, interferences, language attitudes, and translation amongst others. However, few studies have been able to examine bilingual issues within contexts such as music.

Currently, the Nigerian music setting continues to witness an unprecedented rise and popularity in the display of bilingual behaviours such as code-switching, code-mixing, borrowing, and translation. The waves such a new music genre are creating call for the need for scholars to expand the contexts for the examination of bilingual issues beyond face-to-face and/or written communication in order to give room for the consideration of other contexts of language use such as music. This paper is thus an attempt to examine the bilingual behaviour of code-mixing in a contemporary Nigerian gospel music setting. By focusing on the music of Dr. (Mrs.) Bola Are and Mr. Yinka Ayefele (MON), two gospel musicians who have demonstrated extensive employment of code-mixing in their song lyrics, this study examines this new linguistic trend in Nigerian music.

1.1 AIM OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study are to examine the nature and trend of the bilingual behavior of codemixing in music, discuss the stylistic implications of code-mixing in music, and reveal the cultural implications of the practice of mixing codes in music.

1.2 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This research focuses on the selected music of two Yoruba Christian musicians: Dr. (Mrs.) Bola Are and Mr. Yinka Ayefele (MON). We have chosen musicians from the Yoruba speech community partly because of the accessibility of their music but mainly because the Yoruba Language plays a significant role in the practice of mixing codes in Nigerian music (Babalola and Taiwo: 1). The selection of the two artists is influenced by three major facts: the popularity and dexterity of the artists which have been earning them different awards within and outside the country; the constant and continued influence of the two musicians on the music atmosphere of the church and the Christian community in Nigeria, and the prolificacy of the musicians.

This work categorizes the phenomenon of code-mixing occurring in the music of the artists into types, discusses the stylistic implications of code-mixing in music, and examines the phonological realisations of code-mixed words. In the phonological aspect of description, the work accounts for the phonemes of the code-mixed words.

1.3 METHODOLOGY

Data and Data Collection

Three music CDs of each of the two selected musicians are purposefully selected to provide the corpus for the research. The purposeful selection process is undertaken by listening to the commercially available music of the musicians and thereafter selecting those with a considerable number of code-mixed words.

Multiple passes are made through the lyrics of each music CD in order to ensure that all code-mixed words are accounted for. Although other bilingual behaviour such as borrowing, translation, and code-switching are reflected in the music CDs, this research has limited itself to the consideration of only English code-mixed words. Equally, code-mixed words from languages other than English are not analysed. For the sake of brevity, we have shortened the lyrics of all the six music CDs by leaving out those portions of the music that do not feature code-mixed English words. Nevertheless, the data are not mutilated.

Data Analysis

Upon collecting and transcribing the data, the occurring code-mixed words are classified into three categories: simple, complex, and compound code-mixing. Upon the classification, the stylistic implications of the occurring code-mixed words are discussed after which the phonological description of the code-mixed words is carried.

2.0 Previous Research

2.1 Code-mixing

Code-mixing, otherwise known as intra-sentential code-switching or intra-sentential code alternation, is a characteristic linguistic behaviour in the possession of the bilingual/multilingual speaker. In practical terms, code-mixing involves the incorporation of elements from one or more languages into the system of a matrix language. In this direction, the term code-mixing is used in this work following Muysken (2000: 1) who defines the term as "all cases where lexical items from two languages appear in one sentence."

2.2 Code-mixing and Song Lyrics

The study of code-mixing and code-switching as a general term has chiefly concentrated on the language-mixing behavior of bilingual/multilingual speakers in the context of speaking. The fact that bilinguals/multilinguals can be artful with their language-mixing indicates why it may be necessary and worthwhile to investigate the phenomenon across various semiotic fields. The examination of code-mixing in music as a communicative attempt properly premeditated upon may yield insights that reflect the songwriter's language attitude and artistic prowess as well as the songwriter's speech community's linguistic behaviour and cultural identity.

Early investigation of language mixing in songs is Stølen (1992) who investigated Danish-English code-switching in the songs of a mid-western Danish-American songwriter in the first half of the twentieth century. Winer (1986 and 1990) has examined calypso lyrics and reggae lyrics, respectively; Oke (2001) (the author) has analysed the phenomenon of code-mixing among five Yoruba gospel musicians; Davies and Bentahila (2008) have undertaken a detailed investigation of Arabic-French switching in the lyrics of Algerian *rai* music; and Babalola and Taiwo (n.d.) have also examined code-switching in Nigerian hip-hop music.

Oke (2001: 74) (the author) concludes her investigation with the submission that "Code-mixing is a deliberate and conscious effort in the communicative life of a musician." Following the same line of thought, Davies and Bentahila (2008: 2) note that:

Code-switching, in addition to being a useful resource for the bilingual in everyday interaction with other bilinguals, may also serve a poetic function, contributing to the aesthetic and rhetorical effects of discourse that is not spontaneous, but carefully constructed.

Davies and Bentalia (2008: 2) particularly point out that lack of spontaneity and intimacy in the act of code-switching within song lyrics makes the phenomenon very different from that of conversation. For Sarkar, Winer and Sarkar (2005: 2060), "When code-switching moves into the arena of public discourse, discourse intended for large audiences of strangers and carefully pre-written at that, it requires a different approach to analysis."

The fact that songwriters have premeditated on the lyrics of their songs before going to the studio for the production of CDs explains the approach to the analysis of the mixed codes in this work. The absence of spontaneity in the song lyrics, indicates why the various forms of phonological interferences noticeable in the mixed codes initiates the song lyrics as adequate corpus for the ESL teacher to predict probable problem areas for the Yoruba learner of English and to consequently provide reasonable problem-solving methods.

3.0 Data Analysis

3.1 Types of Code-mixing in the Song Lyrics

Atoye (1995) critically examines the phenomenon of code-mixing in the Nigerian linguistic setting and identifies three types of code-mixing: simple, complex, and compound.

Simple Code-mixing

Simple code-mixing involves the insertion of one "foreign" lexical item in a matrix language's finite clause within the Systemic Functional Grammar framework. Muysken's (2000) insertion type corresponds to Atoye's simple code-mixing. There are four instances of simple code-mixing in lines 2-5 of Bola Are's *Olorun Automatic*. While there is no instance of simple code-mixing in Bola Are's *Anointed Praise*, there are eleven instances of simple code-mixing in her *Bola Are Live*:

- 1. Orin ti sun siwaju ilu deti <u>change</u> o Our music has moved forward and the drumbeats have changed
- 2. Baba mi o, lat'ori baba kuse ni <u>1977</u> *My Father, I say well done since 1977*
- 3. L'<u>August</u>, iwo loseyi o... In August, You who did it
- 4. Awon <u>keyboardist</u> ki le n se? *Keyboardists what are you doing?*
- 5. Awon oni <u>guitar</u> nko? *Guitarists, what about you?*
- 6. Ayo <u>graduation</u> omo mi, temi ni *The joy of my child's graduation, it is mine*
- 7. Ayo <u>salvation</u> mi o, temi ni *The joy of my salvation, it is mine*
- 8. <u>Sister</u> mi kilayo re o, Jesu ni My sister, what is your joy, Jesus is
- 9. <u>Everybody</u> kilayo yin, Jesu ni Everybody what is your joy, Jesus is
- 10. Gbogbo <u>hall</u> yi loti gbina Emi mimo je The entire hall is ignite with the fire of the Holy Ghost
- 11. Awon angeli de n ya o ni <u>photo</u> iwo loo mo o... *The angels are taking your photographs, you only don't know*

In the lyrics of Yinka Ayefele's three songs, there are a total number of 29 instances of simplecode-mixing: 21 in *Tugba Fiesta*, 4 in *Fulfilment*, and 4 in *Next Level*. The first nine instances of the simple code-mixing in *Tungba Fiesta* are presented below:

- 1. <u>Hypertension</u> ko le raye mo ninu wa... *Hypertension can no longer hold sway*
- 2. Opo je <u>engineer</u> Many are engineers
- 3. Awon kan je <u>professor</u> *Some are professors*
- 4. Awon kan <u>reporter</u> Some are reporters
- 5. Awon kan je <u>broadcaster</u> *Some are broadcasters*
- 6. Awon kan nta <u>part</u> Some others sell spare parts

- 7. Awon kan se <u>doctor</u> Some are doctors
- 8. Awon kan j'<u>undertaker</u>, *Some are undertakers*
- 9. Teeba fe jo, ijo to je ti <u>gospel</u> If you want to dance to gospel music

Complex code-mixing

This type of code-mixing is evident whenever there is the consecutive or non-consecutive use of at least two structurally unrelated "foreign" words within a single sentence. Instances of this type of code-mixing occur only in Yinka Ayefele's music while it is absent in Bola Are's music lyrics:

 E gbo <u>new dimension</u> ni <u>gospel music</u> Listen to the new dimension in gospel music
 <u>Holy Ghost fire surround</u> mi

<u>Compound code-mixing</u> This is the occurrence of two or more consecutive or non-consecutive foreign items which are structurally related. Various examples of this type of code-mixing are evident in the data. Two examples of compound code-mixing from Bola Are are:

1. Kilayo re o <u>my dear sister</u>? What is your joy my dear sister?

Holy Ghost fire surrounds me

2. Olorun agbaye o <u>you are marvelous</u> Oh God of the whole earth you are marvelous!

Two examples from Ayefele are:

- 1. O ya <u>shake, shake, shake your body</u> Come on shake, shake, shake your body
- 2. <u>I just want to say</u> Baba o, e se *I just want to say father, thank you*

3.2 Phonological description of the code-mixed words: Implications for communication and ESL teaching

In a second language situation, speakers sometimes employ the knowledge of their first language whenever they encounter problems in their second language. Where the use of the first language enhances the second language, there is a positive transfer but if otherwise, there is a negative transfer, that is, linguistic transference.

Phonological interference occurs where the phonemes of a language A negatively influences the phonological system of a language B. Such phonological interference usually occurs when some phonemes of a bilingual's second language are absent in the bilingual's first language. Olumuyiwa (1997: 31) says that interference occurs when "learners substitute secondary language sounds which do not occur in primary language."

The phonological interferences noticeable in the data will be considered under two broad topics: articulation problem and syllable structure problem.

3.2.1 Articulation Problems

Basically, articulation problems occur in the song lyrics when there is either the over-differentiation or under-differentiation of English phonemes. Adetugbo (1984) differentiates two types of phonological interference noticeable in the secondary language: over-differentiation and under-differentiation of phoneme. Over-differentiation occurs when a speaker employs the phonemes of the first language which are absent in the second language in the context of the second language. According to Adetugbo (1984), with over-differentiation, there is the imposition of distinction valid in the primary language but insignificant in the second language. A notable example in the Yoruba language is the fact that the language accounts for nasalized vowels where English does not.

Normally, the Yoruba phonological system accounts for both oral and nasal vowels whereas that of English accounts for oral vowel sounds only. As a result, a Yoruba ESL speaker may overdifferentiate oral English vowels in the environment of nasal consonant sounds. For example words such as "undertaker" and "change" in the data have their first vowel soundsand /ei/ are nasalized in the artists' articulation of the sounds.

/i:, I/ are re	alized as	/i/,
/æ/	as	/a, ε/
/a:, ə/	as	/a/
/ɔ:/	as	/ɔ/
/Λ/	as	/a, ɔ/
/ʊ, u:/	as	/u/
/3:/	as	$3 \text{ or } \epsilon/$

Word	RP	ESLPr	Under-differentiated vowel sound	Supposed equivalence
apostle	/əpɒsl/	/appstu/	/ə/	/a/
one	/wʌn/	/wan/	///	/a/
thank	/θæŋk/	/tɛnk/	/æ/	/ε/

For the Yoruba ESL speaker, the problem of articulation can also occur in the production of diphthongs since Yoruba language does not attest to diphthongal vowel sounds. In processing diphthongs, the musicians, as typical Yoruba ESL speakers, articulate the diphthongs as just one sound or as two full and distinct vowel sounds. Examples of under-differentiated diphthongs in the song lyrics are as tabled below:

Word	RP	ESLPr	Under-differentiated vowel sound	Supposed equivalence
photo	/fəʊtəʊ/	/fəto/	/əu/	/ɔ, o/
salvation	/sælveiſn/	/sælveʃɔn/	/eɪ/	/e/
dimension	/daɪmɛn∫n/	/da-imɛn∫ən/	/aɪ/	/a-i/
hypertension	/haɪpətɛn∫n/	/ha-ipatɛn∫ən/	/aɪ/	/a-i/
lion	/laɪən/	/la-jon/	/aɪ/	/a-j/

The problem of under-differentiation also occurs with English consonant sounds that are nonexistent in Yoruba language. The non-existent English consonant sounds are /p, v, θ , δ , z, z, \mathfrak{f} , \mathfrak{g} /. When these consonant sounds are under-differentiated

/v/ is realised as /f/ / θ / as /t/ /z/ as /s/ /tʃ/ as /ʃ/ /ŋ/ as /ŋ/

Some examples of the under-differentiation of consonant sounds in the song lyrics are illustrated in the tabled below.

Word	RP	ESLPr	Under-differentiated vowel sound	Supposed equivalence
thank	/θæŋk/	/tɛnk/	/0/	/t/
three	/θri:/	/tri/	/θ/	/t/
junction	/ʤʌŋkʃn/	/dzonfon/	/ŋ/	/n/
ancient	/eɪntʃnt/	/eʃɛnt/	/ʧ/	/ʃ/

3.2.2 Syllable Structure Problem

The difference between the syllable structures of English and Yoruba languages explains why the musicians find it difficult to produce certain phonological structures in the code-mixed words observable in their song lyrics. English syllable structure $C^{0-3}VC^{0-4}$ permits the occurrence of both consonant clusters and closed syllables. However, Yoruba syllable structure $(C^{N1})V$ does not give room for either consonant clusters or closed syllables. This situation thus explains why the musicians encounter problems with the syllable structures of some of the English words mixed with their song lyrics.

There musicians employed three strategies in processing the phonological difficulties associated with consonant clusters in their song lyrics: insertion, elision, and substitution.

<u>Insertion</u>: This is the process where one or more vowel sounds are introduced to break the consecutive occurrence of consonant sounds as found in consonant clusters. The table below features some of instances of insertion in the song lyrics.

Word	RP	ESLPr	Consonant Cluster	Inserted vowel
graduation	/grædzveisn/	/graduefon/	/-∫n/	/ɔ/
dimension	/daımɛn∫n/	/da-imɛn∫ən/	/-∫n/	/ɔ/

<u>Elision</u>: This situation is evident whenever there is the entire omission of one or more consonant sounds in a consonant cluster. One example is processing consonant cluster with elision is noticeable in the word "junction" which involves both the elision of a consonant word as well as the insertion of a vowel sound with a single consonant cluster.

Word	RP	ESLPr	Consonant Cluster	Elided sound
junction	/ʤʌŋkʃn/	/dzənʃən/	/-ŋk∫n/	/k/

<u>Substitution</u>: Substitution, in its own case, is the process where a sound in the consonant cluster is substituted with a vowel sound. This substitution problem is occurs mostly with the syllabic consonant /l/. Some examples of this phenomenon in the data are illustrated in the table below:

Word	RP	ESLPr	Substituted RP sound	Substitute sound
apostle	/əpɒsl/	/apostu/	/1/	/u/
gospel	/gɒspl/	/gɔspu/	/1/	/u/
sample	/sa:mpl/	/sampu/	/1/	/u/

4.0 Discussion

Code-mixing is currently gaining unprecedented popularity and acceptance in Nigerian music. As Babalola and Taiwo (n.d: 2) who examined code-switching in Nigerian hip-hop music suggest, young musicians are the major practitioners of such brand of music which continues to be in high demand by both youths and adults. In the recent years, both Bola Are and Yinka Ayefele have wielded influence not only on upcoming gospel musicians but also on the praise/worship atmosphere in churches. Taiwo (2008: 16) submits that "The multiligual nature of most Nigerian cities is encouraging the mixture of major language in discourse and this likewise is increasingly reflected in Pentecostal songs". It is a widely known fact that successful Nigerian musicians are those who have been able to gain control in the entertainment markets in the cities. By this, it can be deduced that the practice of mixing codes in music is primarily undertaken to gain fans across the various ethnic groups which form the populace of Nigerian cities while, at the same time, still maintaining close ties with ethno-cultural roots. For Bola Are and Yinka Ayefele, the continued employment of code-mixing in their song lyrics goes beyond gaining acceptance to include the need to sustain their popularity and relevance in the entertainment markets.

Bentahila and Davies (2002: 206) whose work examined the use of French switches in Arabic *rai* lyrics, concluded that code-mixing performs the two important functions of "globalization" and "localization" in music: "the expansion of international communication and global media seems to be making it easier for a group to assert their own, local identity and at the same time offer a universal message to the rest of the planet". This implies that as musicians demonstrate links with a global culture outside their local ethno-cultural contexts, they simultaneously maintain close ties with the culture and roots of their local contexts. The same conclusion is relevant to the employment of code-mixing among the Nigerian gospel musicians whose works are examined in this research. With the matrix language of their music being Yoruba, the musicians ably maintain ties with their Yoruba ethno-cultural roots such that the songs perform localisation functions. Giving consideration to the multiethnic condition of the Nigerian nation and the adoption of English as the unifying language, the musicians achieve both nationalisation and globalisation through the mixing of English codes with their music. The massive international exportation of the music of the two musicians either through CDs or their live performances also attests to the fact that the music of the musicians performs globalisation functions.

While the song lyrics of the musicians examined in this study may be concluded to have achieved localization, nationalization, and globalization, the phonological description of the English mixed codes indicate that the existence of interferences may hinder the music from properly performing globalization functions. The fact that language use in music entails premeditation indicates that the phonological interferences noticeable in the song lyrics display the probable problems that a Yoruba ESL learner may encounter in her/his course of learning English. In essence, we conclude that song lyrics will successfully serve the ESL teacher in predicting the probable problem areas for the Yoruba learner of English in order to be able to develop appropriate tools and methods for problem solving.

5.0 Conclusion

The employment of code-mixing in the selected music is a stylistic strategy which appeals to the multiethnic nature of the Nigerian nation so as to gain wider acceptance and marketability. In this wise, the practice of mixing codes in the song lyrics of Bola Are and Yinka Ayefele enable their music to achieve both localisation and nationalisation functions. The phonological interferences observable in the song lyrics may hinder the music from achieving globalisation. As a result, the musicians need to further develop their English phonology if they hope to gain global acceptance and sustain it.

In the pedagogical context of ESL teaching, the premeditated nature of song lyrics may indicate song lyrics with English code-mixed words as language use setting which the ESL teacher may study in order to detect probable English language learning problems for the Yoruba learner of English and to be able to develop appropriate tools and methods for problem solving.

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APPENDIX

1a <u>Olorun Automatic</u> – Bola Are

- 1. Emi o mo o, emi o mo
- 2. Emi o mo ibi tin n bati mope mi wa Olorun automatic...
- 3. Olorun mo ranti ore ti o se lojo kini, osu kini, eighty-five...
- 4. Ori oke <u>Apostle</u> Ayo Babalola nilu Erio-Ekiti...
- 5. Ori oke yii ti wa lati <u>1930</u>...
- 6. Too bade junction brewery ni ilu Ilesa...

Translation

- 1. I don't know, I don't know
- 2. I don't know how to really thank the God of automatic answers...
- 3. Lord, I remember what you did on the first day, the first month of '85...
- 4. The mount of Apostle Ayo Babalola in Erio-Ekiti...
- 5. The mount has been in existence since 1930...
- 6. When you get to brewery (company) junction in Ilesa town.,,

1b Bola Are Live – Bola Are

- 1. ...Orin ti sun siwaju ilu deti <u>change</u> o...
- 2. E se, Oba awon oba o
- 3. Okiki Eledumare
- 4. Ajanaku ode orun,
- 5. Qbanirin k'uuya tan
- 6. Arugbo igbaani,
- 7. The Ancient of days,
- 8. The Lion of the tribe of Judah,
- 9. <u>The Lily of the valley</u>,
- 10. The Rock of ages,

- 11. Oluwa, Oluwa, Oluwa, Oluwa, Oluwa,
- 12. The Rose of Sharon,
- 13. The Almighty God,
- 14. The Captain of my salvation,
- 15. I celebrate you Jesus,
- 16. Qkan mi yin Qba orun...
- 17. Baba mi o, lat'ori baba kuse ni 1977
- 18. L'August, iwo loseyi o...
- 19. Eyin Oba ogo oun ni Olorun,
- 20. Yin funse yanu ti o ti fihan,
- 21. O wa pelawon ero mimo lona,
- 22. O si je imole won losanloru...
- 23. Awon keyboardist ki le n se?
- 24. E fi duru si
- 25. Awon oni guitar nko?...
- 26. Emi ni mo ni ayo mi, ayo ti Jesu fifun mi
- 27. Satani ko le bami du rara
- 28. Ayo omo bibi, temi
- 29. Ayo graduation omo mi, temi ni
- 30. Ayo salvation mi o, temi ni...
- 31. Ore mi kilayo re? Jesu ni,
- 32. Sister mi kilayo re o, Jesu ni,
- 33. Everybody kilayo yin, Jesu ni...
- 34. Gbogbo hall yi loti gbina Emi mimo je o mo ni,
- 35. Awon angeli de n ya o ni photo iwo loo mo o...
- 36. Kilayo re o my dear sister, Jesu ni

Translation

- 1. Our music has moved forward and the drumbeats have changed...
- 2. Thank you, King of kings
- 3. The fame of the Almighty
- 4. The great one of the heavens
- 5. The only one who ends misery
- 6. The Ancient of days
- 7. The Ancient of days
- 8. The Lion of the tribe of Judah
- 9. The Lily of the valley
- 10. The Rock of ages
- 11. My Lord (5x)
- 12. The Rose of Sharon
- 13. The Almighty God
- 14. The Captain of my salvation
- 15. I celebrate you Jesus
- 16. My soul praises the King of glory
- 17. My Father, I say well done since 1977
- 18. In August, You who did it
- 19. Praise the King of glory, He is God
- 20. Praise him for the wondrous works He has shown
- 21. He was with the saints in their paths
- 22. And He was their light both day and night

- 23. Keyboardists what are you doing?
- 24. Add the flavor of the piano
- 25. Guitarists what about you?...
- 26. I own my joy, the joy Jesus has given me
- 27. Satan cannot smuggle it from me
- 28. The joy of motherhood, it is mine
- 29. The joy of my child's graduation, it is mine
- 30. The joy of my salvation, it is mine
- 31. My friend, what is your joy, Jesus is
- 32. My sister, what is your joy, Jesus is
- 33. Everybody what is your joy, Jesus is
- 34. The entire hall is ablaze with fire of the Holy Ghost, you only don't know
- 35. The angels are taking your photographs, you only don't know
- 36. What is your joy my dear sister, Jesus is

1c Anointed Praise 1 – Bola Are

- 1. ...Olorun agbaye o you are mighty,
- 2. Sebiwo lo foju orun saso bora
- 3. Olorun agbaye o you are mighty
- 4. Olorun agbaye o you are marvelous
- 5. Olorun agbaye o you are wonderful...

Translation

- 1. The God of the whole earth you are mighty
- 2. It is You who covers yourself with the skies
- 3. The God of the whole earth you are mighty
- 4. The God of the whole earth you are marvelous
- 5. The God of the whole earth you are wonderful...

2a <u>Tungba</u> Fiesta – Yinka Ayefele

- 1. Ayefele tun ti de alujo tun ti de
- 2. O ya wa ka jo jo ilu oloyin momo
- 3. <u>Hypertension</u> ko le raye mo ninu wa...
- 4. Opo je engineer
- 5. Awon kan je professor
- 6. Awon kan reporter
- 7. Awon kan je <u>broadcaster</u>
- 8. Emi ni temi, mi o mo jorin lo...
- 9. Awon kan ngbegilodo
- 10. Awon kan nta part
- 11. Awon kan se doctor
- 12. Awon kan j'undertaker,
- 13. Emi ni temi mi o mo jorin lo...
- 14. Teeba fe jo, ijo to je ti gospel,
- 15. Teeba fe jo, orin to je ti gospel
- 16. E ko latori titofidesale
- 17. E rora maa mi lati jojo gospel
- 18. Tungba gospel ree, o ya ka jo jo
- 19. Ijo Jesu re o e dide je ka jo jo...
- 20. Everybody e tete bo sagbo kajo jo...

- 21. Teyin ba ti <u>ready</u>, a ti setan o...
- 22. Ayefele sawa lonilu awa lotun lere
- 23. Ododo ni gbogbo aye to gba pawa ni master wa...
- 24. Eyin temi sehun <u>listen</u> si, ilu yi le laleju...
- 25. E wa bawa yo, e gbo new dimension ni gospel music...
- 26. Oluorun ye sign soro mi...
- 27. O ya shake, shake, shake your body...
- 28. B'Ayefele ti n pede tawon boys n lulu...
- 29. K'anybody ma soro si wa bi Eledumare...
- 30. Nigbati moti l'Olugbala ni o je n worry mo...
- 31. So anybody ma soro bi Eledumare si mi mo...
- 32. se o Jesu, iwo loni ogo,
- 33. Thank you, thank you, thank you papa ye
- 34. I say Thank you, thank you, thank you Jehovah
- 35. Emi dupe lo'o Re o se o Baba mi
- 36. Iwo logbe mi soke ti mowa yi
- 37. You are the God of glory, Iwo loni ogo...
- 38. Jejejeje I go praise you Baba
- 39. No matter my condition I go praise you Baba

Translation

- 1. Ayefele has come again, real music has come
- 2. Come on let's dance to the rhythmic music
- 3. Hypertension can no longer hold sway
- 4. Many are engineers
- 5. Some are professors
- 6. Some are reporters
- 7. Some are broadcasters
- 8. As for me music is my business
- 9. Some are timber loggers
- 10. Some others sell spare parts
- 11. Some are doctors
- 12. Some are undertakers
- 13. But as for me music is my business
- 14. When you want to dance gospel dance
- 15. When you want to dance to gospel music
- 16. Start from your head through to your legs
- 17. Shake your body with ease to dance to gospel music
- 18. This is tungba gospel music, come on let's dance it
- 19. It is Jesus' dance, let's dance it together
- 20. Everybody come to the stage, let's dance
- 21. If you are ready, we are set
- 22. Ayefele has unique music and drumming skills
- 23. The truth is that everyone has agreed that we masters
- 24. My fans are you listening, the music is unique
- 25. Rejoice with us and listen to the new dimension in gospel music
- 26. The Almighty God has endorsed it
- 27. Come on shake, shake, shake your body
- 28. As Ayefele is talking and his boys are drumming
- 29. Let no one talk like the Almighty again

- 30. It is because God is my God that I'm no longer worried
- 31. So let no one talk to me as if he is God Almighty
- 32. Thank you Jesus, all glory belongs to You
- 33. Thank you, thank you, thank you Father
- 34. I say Thank you, thank you, thank you Jehovah
- 35. I appreciate you, I thank you father
- 36. You lifted me to this present pedestal
- 37. You are the God of glory, all glory belongs to you
- 38. With all ease I will praise you father
- 39. In spite of my condition I will praise you father

2b <u>Fulfilment</u> – Yinka Ayefele

- 1. <u>I just want to say</u> Baba o, e se ibi tetibere
- 2. <u>I just want to say</u> Baba o, e se...
- 3. <u>Holy Ghost fire surround</u> mi mi o ni beru, o yes (2x)
- 4. Greater is He that is in me, o yes (2x)
- 5. Greater than he that is in the world, o yes
- 6. Greater than he that is in the world, I'm very sure, o yes
- 7. To ba ti ni Jesu ma mikan, <u>no cause for alarm, o yes</u>
- 8. Sebi na true, o yes na true o, o yes...
- 9. O ya tota e mole, <u>one</u>
- 10. Tota e mole, <u>two</u>
- 11. Tota e mole, three
- 12. Tota e mole, <u>four</u>
- 13. O ya tota e mole <u>left</u>, <u>right</u>
- 14. Tota e mole left, right
- 15. <u>March</u> am (x3) <u>left</u>, <u>right</u>
- 16. Tota e mole, <u>left</u>, <u>right</u>

Translation

- 1. I just want to say thank you father for where you started from
- 2. I just want to say father, thank you...
- 3. Holy Ghost fire surrounds me, I shall not fear, o yes (2x)
- 4. Greater is He that is in me, o yes (2x)
- 5. Greater than he that is in the world, o yes
- 6. Greater than he that is in the world,
- 7. I'm very sure, o yes
- 8. If you have Jesus, do not panic, there is no cause for alarm
- 9. I guess it is true, o yes it is true, o yes
- 10. Come on march your enemy, one
- 11. Come on march your enemy, two
- 12. Come on march your enemy, three
- 13. Come on march your enemy, four
- 14. Come on march your enemy, left leg, right leg
- 15. March your enemy, left leg, right leg
- 16. March him (3x), left leg, right leg

2c <u>Next Level</u> – Yinka Ayefele

1. ...Iwo lo gbe mi soke ti mowa yi

- 2. se o Jesu iwo loni ogo
- 3. You are the God of glory, iwo lo ni ogo titi aye
- 4. Thank you, thank you, thank you Baba...
- 5. Eyi de ni new dimension lorin temi o
- 6. Mo de le fi gospel music ko tungba...
- 7. Eyin temi se e n <u>listen</u> si...
- 8. Bi moba lahon to po to one thousand
- 9. Ko tile le to lati yin O
- 10. Akaba igbega yi ti mowa ni next level
- 11. Iyin atope fun Jah Jehova...
- 12. Awon to ku to ba n binu
- 13. Je kinu won ro, je kinu won ro kale jo fidunnu jaye pe
- 14. Ti won ba wa ko pawon o gba wa sewon mose
- 15. Ki O fi won se sample iya kon le mope iwo loba...
- 16. <u>Hypertension</u> ko le raye mo bi moba nkorin...
- 17. Booba se ri ma pe paddy e lole
- 18. Because boni ti ri ola le salai ri be mo...

Translation

- 1. You have lifted me to this present pedestal
- 2. Thank you Jesus all glory to you
- 3. You are the God of glory, all glory to you for evermore
- 4. Thank you, thank you, thank you father...
- 5. And this is now the new dimension in my music
- 6. I can sing gospel music as tungba...
- 7. My fans are you listening to it...
- 8. If I have up to one thousand tongues
- 9. They are not enough to praise You
- 10. This success ladder, in the next level
- 11. All thanks to the Jehovah God
- 12. All those who are still aggrieved
- 13. Lord persuade them, so that we can all dance with joy
- 14. If they however refused to be entreated
- 15. Treat them as samples of scapegoats that they may know You are God...
- 16. Hypertension has no place when I am singing...
- 17. When you are successful, don't assume your poor neighbour is lazy
- 18. Because tomorrow may not be like today

How Corrective Feedback and Graphic Organizers Reflect Students' Writing Competency

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Abstract

This research aimed to study how corrective feedback and graphic organizers enhanced students' competency and motivation on learning English writing. The research samples were 40 English major students at Suratthani Rajabhat University who enrolled in an English writing course. They were randomly selected. One Single Group Pretest-Posttest design was the experimental plan of this research. The students were asked to complete the questionnaire about their motivation on writing strategies. Furthermore, they had to undertake a writing achievement test after learning by using lesson plans taught by the researcher. The findings revealed that corrective feedback and graphic organizers could enhance the students' competency in learning English writing and increased their motivation on these aspects.

Background and Rationale

The English language is one of the most important languages in the world because it used to communicate in our lives. However, English literacy does not only pertain to conversation, but also includes writing, which is considered very essential in English education. According to Thomson (2008), writing is significant and every educated man, woman, and child should be skilled. Writing is a trade, which anyone can master if he or she goes about it in the right way. At present, Thai students are confronted with writing problems. It was difficult for them to write with accuracy or fluency. In addition, this skill plays the important role in language learning because the students have to use it to communicate in their daily life especially when studing in higher education. Thus, English teachers should pay more attention to developing student's English writing skills, especially the skills of those who intend to become English teachers in the future.

Dealing with these problems, one of the best ways was using graphic organizers to manage thinking skills before students start to write. Having a way to organize ideas, facts, and concepts graphically facilitates effective student learning. Many students are visual learners, thus, a visual approach to brainstorming or organizing information is essential. Graphic organizers appear to be a valued approach to utilize in teaching and learning. Students are required to think in multiple directions when using graphic organizers which makes learning an active and meaningful process. Organizers help the students generate mental images to go along with information and create graphic representations for information. Graphic organizers are called a variety of names, including knowledge maps, story maps, concept maps, mind maps, cognitive organizers, advance organizers, or concept diagrams.

Ausubel (1963) believed that the manner in which knowledge is represented can influence learning. The appropriate organizers can help students form relationships between previously acquired knowledge and new concepts. Learning takes place when the cognitive structure expands with the new knowledge. According to Ellis (2001) noted that information is more easily learned and understood with visual organizers. Once students acquire the basic, yet solid foundation of a

concept, then future content can be addressed at higher cognitive levels leading students to become more strategic learners.

Moreover, corrective feedback was also a factor to motivate them to write effectively, depending on type of feedback. As mentioned in Storch and Wigglesworth's study (2010), who examined the efficacy of direct (reformulation) and indirect (editing symbols) feedback and the factors impacting advanced learners' processing, uptake, and retention, editing symbols prompt learners to engage more deeply than reformulation-type feedback. Furthermore, it was revealed that the more students engage with the feedback, the more likely they are to learn from it.

As aforementioned, the researcher was motivated to use graphic organizers and corrective feedback to enhance students' achievement and see their improvement in writing English.

Purpose of the Study

To study how corrective feedback and graphic organizers enhanced students' competency and motivation to learn English writing.

Methodology

1. Data and Data Collection

Data was from 40 third-year students majoring in English enrolled the Paragraph Writing Course at Faculty of Education, Suratthani Rajabhat University. Data was collected by using 10 teaching writing plans together with graphic organizers and corrective feedback (editing symbols). In addition, they had to complete a questionnaire about motivation on writing strategies.

2. Data Analysis

Data was analyzed by using SPSS for Windows to clarify the students' achievement in writing English and motivation.

Result

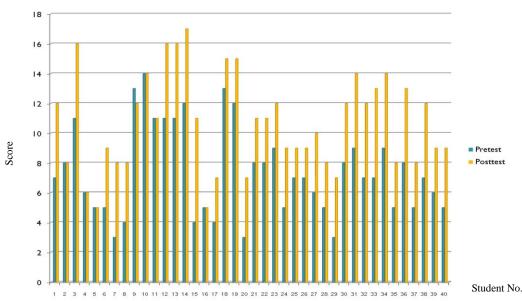


Figure 1: Achievement of students in writing English

From figure 1, it can be seen that students' achievement overall reached a satisfactory level. That was because of the higher post-test score.

No	Detail	Score
1	Writing skill takes an important role in language	4.33
	learning	
2	Graphic Organizers helps me to create the idea of	3.50
	writing	
3	I can think effectively with Graphic Organizers	3.69
4	Feedback is good for me	3.42
5	Editing symbol motivate me to learn more about	4.42
	writing	
6	I can write English better	2.80

Table 1: Motivation on Writing

From table 1, most aspects of motivation on writing were in the high level except writing competency. Some students thought that they can write English better, but some specified that they need more improvement.

Discussion

According to the results, the majority of students had better improvement in writing and were motivated to write more tasks with graphic organizers. These results are in harmony with the studies by Sheen et al. (2009) and Ellis et al. (2008) who seem to suggest that targeted written corrective feedback is more effective than untargeted feedback. It will result in the students gain more confidence in their writing skill. Using editing symbols also improves their writing achievement, resulting in less mistakes or errors. Furthermore, they can be a path way leading to students being more confident in their writing skill. Also, types of graphic organizers can enhance their thinking competency. Students can gain more ability in creation or analyzing, and design of the organizers helps motivate them to learn and manage information from background knowledge with less tension.

Conclusion and Recommendations

This research contributes to the body of knowledge on the value of providing corrective feedback together with the graphic organizers to L2 writers, who can gain more effective writing competency. Also, by increasing motivation to develop writing skills can facilitate student learning in class by decreasing tension.

In this study, subjects were a small group of students enrolled in a writing course at Suratthani Rajabhat University. Therefore, English teachers or researchers should expand this research with students at other levels and educational institutions. Also, other aspects and English skills such as listening, speaking, and reading should be investigated to study language acquisition in depth. Moreover, integration among corrective feedback, types of graphic organizer, and other effective strategies can be explored to enhance students' capability in learning languages.

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Cohesion and Meanings

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Abstract

Text analysis is a way of describing language functions. A text is defined as any passage, spoken or written, that forms a whole. According to Halliday, every text has a texture, "A text derives this texture from the fact that it functions as a unity with respect to its environment." Cohesive elements are important linguistic features that pitch in the textual unity. The aim of this paper is to use linguistic tools that are useful in analyzing and understanding any written text. The principles of referencing, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion stated by Halliday and Hasan (1976) were applied on the selected short story to reveal the significance of the cohesive elements that are present in the text which provide semantic links among the words, phrases and sentences for the interpretation of meanings that exists within the text, thus furnishing the texture of the text and transforming it into a piece of discourse. Understanding how cohesion functions within the text to create semantic links could be beneficial for students of English as a second or foreign language to help "decode" meaning.

Introduction

Cohesion is the relationship between structurally independent elements of a text. Example of such a relation is between a proper noun and a pronoun; Maria she. This type of semantic relation may be either within a sentence or out of the sentence within a discourse. The function of cohesion in a language is formation of text. Text refers to any spoken or written passage of unlimited length, which forms a unit. A collection of unrelated sentences can easily be differentiated from a text where the sentences are related to one another and providing meaning. A text can be: prose, poetry, dialogues of a novel or story, monologue, a proverb or a discourse. A text is a semantic unit; a unit of meaning. As it is not the structural but the semantic unit, it is something embedded and encoded in the structure which can be decoded by realizing the features constituting a text. Texture, ties and cohesion are the constituents of text as identified by Halliday and Hassan.

Texture is that feature of text which makes it a unified whole. According to 'The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics' by P.H. Mathews (1997), "cohesion and coherence are sources which create texture". Crystal adds 'informativeness' to cohesion and coherence. For example:

Pick up two Victorian novels from the shelf. Take them to the counter.

In the sentences above <u>them</u> is referring back to <u>two Victorian novels</u> and is creating cohesion between the two sentences. Reference is a **tie** here in the example. It is a simple example where only one tie (reference) is connecting the two sentences. If the above sentences are: Pick up two Victorian movels from the shelf. Take the novels to the counter.

Now there are two ties in the above example, reference and repetition.

Cohesion according to 'The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Linguistics' is a syntactic unit (sentence). According to 'A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics' by David Crystal (1997), cohesion is a grammatical unit (words). Halliday and Hassan (1976) have taken cohesion as a semantic concept. According to them, cohesion is the type of relationship that exists within the text and can be referred to the "non-structural text-forming relations". Thus, cohesion creates interdependency in text, as Halliday and Hasan (ibid) states, "The continuity that is provided by cohesion consists, in the most general terms, in expressing at each stage in the discourse the points of contact with what has gone before... It is the continuity provided by cohesion that enables the reader or listener to supply all the missing pieces, all the components of the picture which are not present in the text but are necessary to its interpretation."

Five types of relations are identified, which according to them create texture of a text: These relations are also known as cohesive devices (ties) and are:

- (i) Reference
- (ii) Substitution
- (iii) Ellipses
- (iv) Conjunction
- (v) Lexical Cohesion

Reference, substitution and ellipses and conjunctions express grammatical cohesion whereas lexical cohesion is non-grammatical and is created by reiteration of the same lexeme or other lexemes from the same semantic field. There are three general types of referencing: homophoric referencing, when reference is made through sharing of cultural context; exophoric referencing, where referred information is retrieved from the situational context; and endophoric referencing, which refers to a type of reference when information is within the text. Endophoric references are of three major types: anaphoric, cataphoric, and esphoric (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

Anaphoric, when there is a reference which refers back to someone or something that has been mentioned or discussed previously. Use of pronouns instead of the repetition of nouns is an example of anaphoric references. Phrases such as "as stated earlier", "the above mentioned", "the aforementioned", "as already said", etc. are other common examples. Cataphoric reference is the reverse of anaphoric: someone or something is mentioned in the text before it is introduced. For example: "Here she comes, a writer, a producer, a director and our host... it's none other than Humanyun". Esphoric refers to any reference within "the same nominal group or phrase which follows the presupposed item."

There are three main types of cohesive references from the functional point of view: personal, demonstrative, and comparative. Personal reference keeps track of function through the speech situation using noun pronouns such as "he, him, she, her", etc. and possessive determiners such as

"mine, yours, his, hers" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). Demonstrative reference keeps track of information through location using references such as "this, these, that, those, here, there, then, and the" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976: 51). Halliday refers demonstrative referencing as "verbal pointing" to indicate a scale of proximity to the presupposed references. Comparative reference keeps track of identity and similarity through indirect references "same, equal, similar, different, else, better, more", etc. and adverbs such as "so, such, similarly, otherwise, so, more", etc (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

Substitution and ellipsis are used when "a speaker or writer wishes to avoid the repetition of a lexical item and is able to draw on one of the grammatical resources of the language to replace the item" (Bloor and Bloor, 1995). Substitution and ellipsis are functionally the same as the linguistic link for cohesion; however, ellipsis differs in that it is "substitution by zero" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

Substitution and ellipses can be further classified as nominal, verbal and casual. The nominal substitution can be referred as "one and ones" as they substitute nouns. In verbal substitution, verbs such as "do" are substituted and are occasionally used in conjunction with "so" as in "do so." In clausal substitution, an entire clause is substituted and though it may seem to be similar to either nominal or verbal substitution, the difference is the presupposed anaphoric reference (ibid). Conjunction acts as a semantic cohesive tie. They are "Cohesive tie between clauses or sections of text in such a way as to demonstrate a meaningful pattern between them." (Bloor and Bloor, 1995). Halliday and Hasan (1976) asserts that "conjunction is a different type of semantic relation, one which is no longer any kind of search instruction, but a specification of the way in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before." There are four kinds of conjunctions: additive, adversative, temporal and casual. Additive conjunctions coordinate by adding to the presupposed item and are indicated through "and, also, too, furthermore, additionally", etc (ibid). On the other hand, adversative conjunctions act to specify "contrary to expectation" (ibid) and are signaled by "yet, though, only, but, in fact, rather", etc. Causal conjunction expresses "result, reason and purpose" and is signaled by "so, then, for, because, for this reason, as a result, in this respect", etc. The last conjunctive category is temporal and links by signaling sequence or time. Some sample temporal conjunctive signals are "then, next, after that, next day, until then, at the same time, at this point", etc (ibid). Lexical cohesion includes non-grammatical elements and refers to the "cohesive effect achieved by the selection of vocabulary" (Halliday and Hasan, 1976). The two basic categories of lexical cohesion are reiteration and collocation.

Reiteration relates to the repetition of a lexical item, either directly or through the use of a synonym, or related word. Halliday and Hasan (1976) explain reiteration as "one lexical item referring back to another, to which it is related by having a common referent. A reiterated item may be a repetition, a synonym, a super ordinate, or a general word." On other hand, collocation refers to lexical items that are likely to be found together within the same text (ibid.). There will be the stronger cohesive effect if lexical items are closer to each other.

Cohesive devices in the text knit the semantic pattern of text which in turn shapes the overall meaning carried by the text. In Halliday's view, "A language is interpreted as a system of meanings, accompanied by forms through which the meanings can be expressed." What gives meanings to text is texture which provides a basis for unity and semantic interdependence of the grammatical and non-grammatical elements of text. The study attempts to analyze a selected text to show the role cohesive devices play to develop semantic links in the text which then gives it meaning. Understanding the

functions of cohesion in the text to create semantic links could be helpful for the learners of English as a second language to "decode" meaning.

Methodology

The present study is analytic in nature. Using a short story by Paulo Cohelo, 'The Story of the Pencil' the textual aspect of meaning extracted through cohesion was analyzed. The analysis was based on the principles of referencing, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion put forth by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and Bloor and Bloor (1995) to reveal the importance of the cohesive devices in the text to give it meanings. Clauses of the story were numbered to refer them during analysis. Then each cohesive device was dealt with as a separate category of analysis. References were identified and placed under relevant category one by one.

Analysis of the text

1. REFERENCING

Nunan (1993) defines references as those cohesive devices in a text that can only be interpreted with reference either to some part of the text or the outside world. In a text, referencing shows the author's strategy of introducing the participants and keeping track of them throughout the text (Eggins, 1994).

Anaphoric refers to any reference that "points backwards" to previously mentioned information in text. In the story, "you" in line 3 is anaphoric reference as it refers to the boy. On other hand, cataphoric refers to any reference that "points forward" to information that will be presented later in the text. In order to create interest and to raise curiosity in the mind of readers, cataphoric references are used. For example, in line 18 "there is a hand," we find reference to the God. This cataphoric reference of 'hand' also stands for love, intimacy, support, strength and relationship. Esphoric refers to any reference within "the same nominal group or phrase which follows the presupposed item". In the story in line 25 "they" refers to the "pains and sorrows" in line 24. Here the reference is esphoric as it is within the same nominal group or phrase.

In the selected text there are 46 incidences of personal referencing. Of the personal references, there are 14 incidences of personal pronoun "you". The rigorous use of the personal pronoun "you" in the story addresses not only to the boy who is explicitly the major addressee of the discourse but also refers to mankind in general. In the text, there are eight incidences of pronoun "it". On five occasions "it" is used for pencil: however in line 23, the pencil is referred as "he". The use of pronoun "he" instead of "it" changes the state of the pencil from inanimate to animate; thus personifying the pencil. There are also incidences of possessive pronouns in the text. In line 5 "her letter" refers back to grandmother mentioned in line 1 and thus reference is anaphoric. The use of "his" in line 1 and 5 and "her" in line 5 and 6 refers back to the boy and grandmother respectively. The use of possessive pronouns "his" and "her" shows the intimate, close and warm relation between the two characters, the grandmother and the grandson. Moreover, the use of "we" in line 3 shows the strength of their relationship. In the text, there are 21 incidences of demonstrative references. In the text, there are 10 incidences of the determiner "the". Out of 10, five times it is used for the pencil. The recurrent use of "the" adds specification to the

metaphysical implication of the word pencil. That is, it stands for the life which is further reinforced by the personal pronoun "he" in line 23, this personifying pencil for life.

Moreover, "that" has been used seven times in the text which also helps keeping track of information. For example, in line 19 "we call that hand…" refers back to "a hand guiding" in line 18. In line 22 "that" refers back to the act of erasing in line 21-22. Similarly, in line 36 "that" refers back to the fact stated in line 35 i.e., "everything we do in life will leave a mark".

There are only four incidences of the comparative referencing in the story. The role of comparative references acts to show similarity or likeness, which itself is a referential property. With regard to the use of comparative referencing, on the thematic level the pencil has been compared to human beings. For instance, in line 30 "what really matter" show a comparison between the external and internal qualities of the pencil and indirectly that of human beings. In line 23 "he's much sharper" compares the state of the pencil before and after the use of the sharpener; as the pencil is much sharper latter. Symbolically, it refers to the condition of man after bearing "pains and sorrows" as it makes people better.

2. SUBSTITUTION AND ELLIPSIS

Explicit examples of substitution could not be marked but the largest example noticed was that of the theme where the success of human life was explained by assigning it the characteristics which are associated with an object of minor importance in the lives of human beings. Comparison of the qualities of a low level inanimate object with that of an animate entity of highest grade is drawn through ellipsis in general.

3. CONJUNCTION

In the story, there were various notions of conjunctions and they function extremely well to create cohesion in the text. In the story "and" is used three times. In line 19 "and He always guides us …" links back to the lines 18-19 that "…there is a great hand guiding your steps" and "We call that hand God…." Furthermore, in the text "but" is used four times and acts to signal opposite to expectation. In the line 17-18 "but you must not forget that there is a great hand guiding…" refers back to the line 17 that "you are capable of great things." Likewise, in line 23 "but afterwards, he's much sharper" refers back to the line 22-23 in which there is reference to the use of sharpener "That makes the pencil suffer a little…" In the text casual conjunctions are used to show cause and effects relationship between sentences. The conjunction "so" is used two times, whereas "because" is used once only. In line 31-32 "So always pay attention to what is happening inside you" links back to lines 30-31 in which the graphite inside of the pencil has been given importance as compared to the wooden exterior of the pencil. In the line 35 "So try to be conscious…" links back to the lines 34-35 as "…everything you do in life will leave a mark."

In the text, temporal conjunctions are used to link the text by signaling sequence. In line 23 "afterwards" and in line no 33 "finally" are used to signal the sequence in the narration of the qualities of the pencil.

II. LEXICAL COHESION

Cohesion using the similar or near similar terms is seen throughout the text. There is repetition of the word "writing" in lines 3, 5, 7, 21 of the story. Similarly, the word "pencil" has been repeated eight times in the text as the whole story revolves around the qualities of a pencil which, if people follow, will make him or her a person at peace with the world. In the text, there is also repetition of the word "quality" five times as the world is related to the main theme of story. In the appendix 3 a word list is used to generalize the pattern of lexical cohesion in the story. Five categories have been identified. For instance, the writing activity is the major category which identifies the things that are involved in the writing process. The vocabulary related to the writing activity is used in the story such as "hand", "sharpener", "eraser", "pencil", "mark" and "rub." This categorization, however, is purely subjective. Another lexical categorization sets up the role of the God towards His mankind. The words used under this category are "guides", "will", "guiding", "helps" and "capable of great things".

In the story, the lexical collocations are missing, however, certain grammatical phrases collocate in the grammatical sense. Phrasal verbs such as "grow up" in line 10, "now and then" in line 21 and "rub out" in line 27 bond together to help bind the text and thus can be considered as cohesive devices.

Conclusion

The analysis shows cohesion in text plays a major role in interpretation of the meanings the words are carrying. It also shows that the more cohesive ties are included, the better the readers' comprehension. Cohesion analysis has revealed the principles that develop semantic links within text. Cohesion in texts weaves the texture that knits the ideas and experiences which creates meaning within the language. Texture is one of the three meta-functions for creating meaning within language. This has implications for cohesion analysis in the second language classroom, and for reading comprehension in particular. In Pakistan, most learners have the knowledge of the theoretical structure (i.e., grammar) of the English language, but they are deficient in the functional usage of this knowledge with semantic patterning. Using principles of cohesion as a basis for teaching with a focus on lexicogrammar, learners might gain an understanding of the identification and application of meaning in English.

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Appendix 1

The Story Of The Pencil

- 1. 'Third quality: the pencil always allows us to use an
- 2. eraser to rub any mistakes. This means that correct-
- 3. ing something will did is not necessarily a bad thing ; it
- 4. helps to keep us on the road of justice.
- 5. 'Fourth quality: what really matters in a pencil is not
- 6. its wooden exterior, but the graphite inside. So always
- 7. pay attention to what is happening inside you.
- 8. 'Finally, the pencil's fifth quality: it always leaves a
- 9. mark. Just the same way, you should know that
- 10. everything you do in life will leave a mark, so try to be
- 11. conscious of that in your every action'.

Appendix 2

Line no	Reference	Line Reference no.	Referenced Item
	His	1	Boy
2	He	1	Boy
;	You	1	Grandmother
}	We've	1	Boy and Grandmother
Ļ	It	3	Story
Ļ	Me	1	Boy
;	His	1	Boy
j	Her (letter)	1	Grandmother
1	Her	1	Grandmother
1	You	1	Boy
1	I	1	Grandmother
8	- I'm	1	Grandmother
, }	I (Hope)	1	Grandmother
	You	1	Boy
)	You	1	Boy
0	It	8	Pencil
2	It's	8	Pencil
2	I've	1	Boy
3	You	1	Boy
3	You	1	Boy
3	It	8	Pencil
4	You	1	Boy
4	Them	14	Qualities
5	You	1	Boy
.7	You	1	Boy
.8	You	1	Boy
8	Your	1	Boy
.9	We	1	Boy and Grandmother
9	HE	19	God
.9	US	19	Boy and Grandmother
20	HIS (will)	19	God
.0 21	I HIS (WIII)	19	Grandmother
	He's	———————————————————————————————————————	
23 23		22 1	Pencil
	You		Boy
25	You	1	Boy
26	US		Boy and Grandmother
8	We	1	Boy and Grandmother
28	It	27-28	Act of correcting
.9	US	1	Boy and Grandmother
31	Its	8	Pencil
32	You	1	Boy and Grandmother
33	It	8	Pencil
34	You	1	Boy
5	You	1	Boy
6	Your	1	Boy
28	It	27	Act of erasing

DEMONSTRATIVE REFERENCES

Line no	Reference	Line Reference no.	Referenced Item
8	The pencil	8	Pencil/man
9	This	8	Pencil/man
8	The words	1	Letter
10	The boy	1	Boy/ mankind
13	That	12-13	Factwhat you see depends on how you see
14	Them	14	Qualities
15	The world	15-16	Real world
18	That	18-19	Factthere is a hand
18	There	18	Hand guiding our way
19	That hand	18	Guiding hand
21	Now and Then	22	Sharpening the pencil
22	That	22	Act of sharpening the pencil
25	They	24	Pains and sorrows
26	The pencil	8	Pencil/ man
27	This	26-27	Use of eraser
28	That	?	?
29	The road	29	Path of life
33	The pencil	8	Pencil/ man
34	The same way	33-34	The way pencil leaves a mark
34	That	33-34	Facteverything we do leave a mark
36	That	33-35	Facteverything we do leave a mark

COMPARATIVE REFERENCES

000000000000000000000000000000000000000			
Line no	Reference	Line Reference no.	Referenced Item
12	Like any other pencil	8	Pencil (of the story)
23	Much sharper	23	As compared to earlier/later
30	What really matters	30-31	Wooden exterior/graphite inside
34	Same way	33-34	Human being compared to
			pencil.

ELLIPSIS AN	D SUBSTITUTION		
Line no	Reference	Line Reference no.	Referenced Item

CONJUCTIO	DNS		
Line no	Reference	Line Reference no.	Referenced Item
5	And	5-6	stopped writing/said to her grandson
7	But	7-8	Words/ pencil
17	But	17-18	capable of great things/there is a great hand
19	And	19-20	call that hand/guides us
22	And	21-22	Stop writing/ use a sharpener
23	But	22-23	suffer a little/afterwards he 's much sharper
23	So	23-24	Pencil sharper after /man better after suffering too
24	Because	24	Bearing pains makes better person
12	But	11-12	very special/just like any pencil
31	But	30-31	exterior/ inside.
31	So	31-32	Inside matter more than exterior/ attention to inside
35	So	35-36	Everything leaves marks/conscious of your action
33	Finally	33	Quality of pencil

Appendix 3

LEXICAL COHESION SUMMARY

 Writing tools

 Hand/sharpner/eraser/pencil/mark/rub

 Writing genres

 Letter/story

 Human traits

 Steps/pain and sorrows/mistakes/correcting/forgot/learn/attention/conscious/action

 God

 Guides/will/guiding/helps/capable of great things

 Pencil

 Graphite/wooden exterior

 Writing

 Write/writing/writing/writing

 Watch

 Watching/looked/look/seen

Communicative Headlines in Bangkok Post

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Abstract

Newspapers are mass media which present the news to the masses. Headlines are the beacons of the newspapers. This paper is a case study of headlines with reference to Bangkok Post's front page. This is an empirical study based on teaching reading headlines in *Bangkok Post* and teaching writing headlines to students for the past eight years and making an in-depth study of the front page headlines of the newspaper for three months. According to Wimmer and Diminick (2006) "Case studies are conducted when a researcher needs to understand or explain a phenomenon." They further elaborate that "They can be Particularistic which means that the case study focuses on a particular situation, event, program or phenomenon, making it a good method for studying practical, real-life problems. It could also be a detailed description of the topic under study." The front page is the face of the newspaper which displays the most important news of the day. Its headlines sum up the news of importance and present it aiming at maximum communication for the readers. This paper aims at assessing the communicative power of these headlines in three ways. Experts have outlined that headlines either summarize the news or highlight an important point in the news. This needs to be ascertained to realize the focus of the headlines. Communicative headlines also use specialized language. An attempt will be made to ascertain the kind of language used in the headlines. Furthermore, certain formatting is utilized by the newspapers to display the headlines to attract the attention of the readers. This paper will highlight the important aspects pertaining to this.

Keywords: Front page, headlines, summary, highlight, language, format

Introduction

Dor (2003) says "that the literature on newspaper headlines covers a wide range of theoretical and empirical topics, all the way from the grammar of English headlines to the effects of headlines on news comprehension and recall." Surprisingly, however, the literature dealing directly with the communicative function of headlines is rather sparse. The use of the term communicative is used as given in <u>www.dictionary.com</u> as "inclined to communicate or talk." Headlines are important since they cap the news, hence this paper aims to study the content of headlines with reference to the special words used and presentation which make the headlines "communicative." For this, the chosen sample is the front page headlines of the newspaper for the months June, July and August, 2011.

Literature Review

Traditionally, newspaper headlines have been characterized as short, pithy summaries of the news they head; especially headlines related to news. Van Dijk (1988) cited in Dor (2003) states:

"Each news item in the press has a headline...Headline precedes Lead, and together they precede the rest of the news item. Their structural function is also clear. Together they express the major topics of the text. That is, they function as an initial summary. Hence, as in natural stories, we may also introduce the category summary, dominating headline and

Lead. The semantic constraint is obvious: Headline + Lead summarize the news text and express the semantic microstructure"

However, at times headlines do not summarize the news. Bell (1991) makes a distinction between headlines which "abstract the main event of the story" and headlines which "focus on a secondary event or a detail". Nir (1993) also distinguishes between headlines which function as "a summary of the story" and "headlines which, rather than summarize the story, promote one of the details of the story".

None of these writers goes beyond the descriptive labeling of headlines. However, Bernstein and Gorst (1982) say that "the headline contains the main highlight of the story. Since it is the most conspicuous part and the part that is read first, the copy editor must present the essence of the news before it goes further." In this short quotation, Bernstein and Gorst seem to equate the essence of the story with its highlight, thus equating the function of summarizing with that highlighting.

Bell (1991) says that headlines are "a part of news rhetoric whose function is to attract the reader". Nir (1993) reiterates that the headline has "to attract the attention of the reader and provoke the reader to read the whole story." However, Iarovici and Amel (1989) contend that "headlines have a 'double function'. The main function of the headline … is to alert the reader (receiver) to the nature or the content of the text. This is the pragmatic function of the headline enables and it includes the semantic function as well. The headline helps the reader to grasp the meaning of the text."

Hodgson says they should draw the attention of the reader and it forms a visual pattern on the page. The sub-editor who synthesizes the page without damaging the facts or by over-simplification or distortion does this. Hodgson (1987) says the language is "often pared down to the bone, producing the maximum effect from the minimum words which, in addition, must submit to a typographical discipline quite alien to ordinary speech" All words used in a headline need to be weighed carefully and measured, legality and factual accuracy considered and a visual effect achieved with the result. Putting the subject first and using the active voice, omitting some words such as the verb "to be" and "to have" is also done.

Regarding the display and layout, Hodgson says that single column headlines are usually two, three or four lines though sometimes they have as many as five or six if they have dominant end-column positions. Double-column headlines are usually of two or three lines, generally of a bigger type size than single-column heads and often to be found on the half lead or the third story in importance on the page. The page lead might have a headline that crosses the entire page – a banner or streamer-running into perhaps a shorter second line alongside a picture or another story.

Today much newspaper research has been completed, and communication researchers argue that many newspaper readers may read only the headlines to form their opinions (Tannebuam, 1953; Condit, et al., 2001). It is hard to say the extent of the influence the headline has on the average reader, but that it has an influence is emphasized by experts. Since headlines introduce practically every newspaper item, and they are what attracts the reader' attention first and foremost by their very visual nature it is this which distinguishes headlines from the rest of the text (Stovall, 2002). Previous research shows that not only does a headline entice a reader, but it can also influence a reader's interpretation of an article (Pfau, 1995; Condit, et al. 2001). However, Emig's (1928) previous research demonstrates that 51% of 375 participants in his study admitted basing their opinions of the day's news on headlines. Further, Emig, stated: "When you stop to think how few people read beyond the headlines and how much of the public opinion is made by the headlines, you

begin to realize the enormous influence exerted by the journalist (or editor) who sits at a desk and writes headlines."

Given the nature of media and its influence on public opinion one realizes that news affects public opinion. "Yet as the world becomes a global village and audiences learn more about the world outside and form "pictures in their heads' about issues the power of the media to influence is not to be under estimated" (Kosicki, 1997). In the last century, the influence of the media on public opinion has been widely considered by many communication researchers (Tannebaum, 1953; Condit et al, 2001). Many reasons have been given for this influence on public opinion, one being the newspaper, and specifically newspaper headlines (Scheufele, 2000).

Objectives & Significance

The objective of this paper is a case study of the front page headlines of *Bangkok Post* for the month of June, July and August, 2011 with reference to headline content, language and layout. This study is significant because it goes beyond the descriptive and labeling of headlines to find out their content, elements of creativity, and whether they would be relevant for the reader of this particular newspaper. Also an attempt has been made at understanding the format adopted.

Methodology

This paper takes into account the specific research context, the exploration of communication strategies of a group of headlines in *Bangkok Post*. This is a qualitative research and makes a case study of the headlines in the given months. This is an empirical study of the headlines, research strengthened by the researcher having taught headline reading and writing to students in the classroom for more than eight years. The focus of the research was on the content of the headlines with relation to summarization or highlighting or both; the creative headlines written, the terms or language peculiar to the headlines and the display format of these headlines.

A detailed observation of the kind of headlines used with reference to geographical context has been made. How has "journalese" or the use of specific words coined for the newspaper been incorporated into the headlines for effectiveness has been studied.

Discussion

It was found that an overwhelming majority of the headlines highlighted one important aspect of the news. Approximately 68% headlines highlighted one of the main aspects contained in the news in the lead or in the first one or two paragraphs of the news. The headline made a particular aspect of the news the subject of the news. Around 14% headlines studied used the summary pattern where the headline summarized the news, while 16% of summarized as well as highlighted the news. About 2% were creative headlines which capped human interest stories. These headlines were found to be creative. Looking at the overall picture, the incidence of these headlines was rather small.

Types of Headlines N(Population)=271	Percentage
Headlines which summarize the news	14%
Headlines which highlight one important point	68%
Summary + Highlight Headlines	16%
Creative Headlines	2%
Ratio of International News to National News:	Percentage
International News	1%
National News (Thailand)	99%

Dor's (2003) emphasis on headlines as "Relevance Optimizers" underlining the fact that "Headlines provide the readers with the optimal ratio between contextual effect and processing effort, and direct readers to construct the optimal context for interpretation" is relevant. Dor's study also emphasizes that the construction of a successful headline requires an understanding of the readers. Keeping this in mind an in-depth study was made, it revealed that most of the news was related to Thailand while international news was found to be minimal or not at all in most issues. Only three news of international importance made it to the front page in one month.

The "journalese" used by the newspaper or the specially coined words used by the newspaper for headlines included the following: "graft" (corruption); "probe" (investigation) "in the thick" (intense), "bottoms out" (falls apart), "poised" (ready), "brings down" (provides humor), "Takes a hit" (affected), "Tops" (priority), "seeing double" (), "plummet" (goes down quickly), "cuts" (trims), "prioritizes" (makes it the most important), "plans to boost" (increases), "backs" (supports), "slams" (criticizes strongly), "likely sickened" (led to being sick), " row" (quarrel), "likely" (possibility), "takes a hit" (affected by), "tumble" (drop), "slashed" (cut down), "rule" (decision by a court), "vows" (promises), "pounce on" (draw attention to), "slams" criticize), "inflicts wrath" (angers), set (ready), "holds sword" (threatens), "race" (competition), "mull" (think about). Under pressure of a deadline and the restraint imposed by typographical considerations, headlines have to "fit" the news report. Thus, journalists have coined these new words with special meanings which are used extensively in the headlines.

News had either two or three decks depending on the length of the news. The first deck included the most important element while the second deck was a longer headline in a smaller point size and highlighted the second most important part of the news. The longer headlines which covered three, four, five or even six columns of the newspaper on the front page, most of these headlines had a second bank. The second bank highlighted another aspect of the news which was not covered in the main headline. The news concerning the second bank began half-way through the news report which was related to the first half of the news but was not as important. News spread across five columns or six columns had a headline of only six words used on average to caption it.

As observed by Outing and Ruel (2004), "The eyes fixated on the upper left of the page then hovered in that position going left to right. Only after perusing the top of the page for some time did their eyes explore further down the page." In keeping with this the main news was positioned on the left hand side. This pattern was broken sometimes when there was a large photograph concerning the news. Then the photograph was displayed at the top and the news began in the centre of the page. There were very few instances when the most important news was displayed on the right side of the front page. News displayed in the sixth column, was often single column news often in two banks and lengthy. The first headline highlighted the main point and the second one highlighted another point. Single quotes were used to highlight the news. For example, Thaksin demands a "clean" cabinet or Obama "likely" to visit Thailand in November.

Conclusion

This case study of the *Bangkok Post* revealed that highlighting the news in headlines is done more frequently than summarizing the news. The focus of headlines was to highlight the most important facet of the news. Two banks were used for the longer news report, each headline highlighting a different aspect of the news. Regarding the context of the news, an overwhelming majority of the news in *Bangkok Post* was related to Thailand. Few pieces related to international affairs made it to the front page. Creative headlines were used for human interest stories, which had humor, a play upon words, or a twist of some kind to get an attention grabbing focus.

Regarding the layout, the most important news was relegated to the top left hand corner. Use of second bank was common for longer news report and this highlighted the second part of the report. Long headlines covering five or six columns were capped by relatively short headlines with an average of six words. Display of photographs related to top priority news are often displayed on the top half of the page while the news is relegated to the bottom half. The sixth column single news headline was found to be displayed in two banks. Single quotes were used effectively in most headlines to focus on particular aspects of the news. The journalese or phrases and words peculiar to newspapers were used throughout the newspaper headlines. This covered most accepted newspaper terminology or jargon. Given the constraints of headline writing, optimization of these words would probably lead to a special dictionary in the future.

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A Discourse Analysis of Linguistic (Im)Politeness and Symbolic Power among Filipino Professoriate

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Abstract

The study ascertained the types of speech acts, the level of politeness and the effects of both on the symbolic power of Filipino college teachers in academic consultations using Leech's Taxonomy of Speech Acts, Stiles' Verbal response modes, and Locher and Watts' Social Model of Politeness. Surprisingly, in a high context culture such as the Philippines, college teachers used impositives and assertives. Teachers were indirect in their speech acts in order to enforce their intentions on their students. Teachers, too, used non-polite language in the interactions and these were complimented by the use of mitigated symbolic power. These results show that today, more than ever, teachers do not need to impose their hierarchical status over their students in order to attain respect and to demand attention. While it is true that teachers have language power because of their attained position and rank, the Filipino way of indirectness, non-confrontation, and lack of verbal expressiveness mitigated their symbolic power. The need to empower both Filipino teachers and students in terms of verbal expressiveness in institutional communication is a continuing imperative.

Introduction

Politic behavior has long been investigated as an academic domain. Many Western scholars of communication, linguistics, psychology, sociology, and even history, believe that a look at the patterns of (im)politeness of a race lead to the establishment, verification, and understanding of that nation's communicative patterns, heritage, and cultural identity. This belief led to the wave of politeness researches over the past decades. Initially most, if not all, theories crafted on (im)politeness come from the perspectives of the West, with research conducted by: Penelope Brown and Stephen Levinson (1976), Geoffrey Leech (1983), David Monard (2002), Richard Watts (2003) and Miriam Locher (2006). Subsequently, the politeness principles and findings would find their way to the East. Thus, the subject of politeness has become celebrated as a universal phenomenon.

Across Asia, the investigation of the linguistic nature of politeness flourished over the last decade. Some perspectives of the Western theories have been adapted, discussed, argued against, and disproven in some cultures of the East: namely in China (Kadar, 2007; Wei and Wu, 2009; Schnurr and Chan, 2009; Han and Cai, 2010), Pakistan (Qurat-ul-ann, 2010), Japan (Haugh, 2004; Sreetharan, 2006; Cook, 2006; Tamaoka, 2010), Taiwan (His-yao Su, 2009) and Korea (Brown, 2010).

Context of current research and research hypotheses

Filipino characteristics, process and language power achievement have been generally described. A study on compliments showed that Filipinos who are brought up in a close conservative culture find it difficult to directly give direct feedback to one another (Mojica, 2002). In a recent study, Filipino

interpersonal relationships are described as being characterized by harmony and non-confrontational communication. (Worthington, et al., 2010).

It is within this light that the researcher wishes to inquire into the nature, function, and effects of (im)politeness as a pragmatic and linguistic device. The research works around the premise that the Filipinos' (im)politeness, as shown in college professors' spoken languages and linguistic markers during dyadic encounters, is part of the crystallizations of its identity. The researcher chooses to analyze the communicative and linguistic operations of Filipino politeness in the language and structure of professors in the Philippines during academic consultation sessions/conversations with their Filipino students in colleges and universities in the capital Manila. The research studied how these Filipino professors/communicators articulate particular linguistic politeness markers in interactions with their Filipino students, and how they inform the larger discourses in the affairs of intra-cultural communication.

College teachers have been chosen as respondents for the study because of their generic and vested language power that they exercise or sometimes even exploit whenever they professionally interact with their colleagues and students (Trees, et al., 2009). Moreover, teachers are expected to give effective feedback to the students in order to minimize the threats from and maximize the potentials of the students (Partin, et al., 2010).

This research would largely use the taxonomy of Speech Acts by Geoffrey Leech (1983), the politeness frameworks of Miriam Locher and Richard Watts (2006) and the symbolic construct of language power in interactions model by Norman Fairclough (1989; 1995) and Sarah Mills (2005). The data will be supported, decoded, and investigated using spoken discourse analysis, particularly Deborah Schiffrin's Conversation Analysis (1994 in Cameron, 2001) and John Searle's Speech Act Theory (1969). The realm of analysis falls within the discipline of pragmatics. Pragmatically and linguistically, therefore, the researcher attempts to map how these theories, concepts, and viewpoints work within the language of the Filipino professors within the academic consultation sessions.

A. Speech Acts as Intention Markers

Speech Act Theory is the driving force of this paper. Speech act, Schiffrin (1994) states, as an approach to discourse, contributes to sequential coherence, and how the speech act functions on one utterance contributes to that of another (1994: 61). Speech act is "composed on a communicative activity (locutionary act) defined with reference to the intention of speakers while speaking (illocutionary force) and effects achieved on the listeners (perlocutionary effect)." (Crystal, 1991:323)

To interpret utterances in discourse, we have to go beyond the decoding of the words. Researchers have to work out how the speaker intends us to take the utterances. John Searle (1969) stated that the speech act is the basic unit of communication specifically if we are to put it in the context of spoken language. Talking, he added, is performing acts according to rules that are part of every man's linguistic competencies. He proposed four types of Speech Acts: (1) utterance act – simple pronunciation of words, (2) propositional act – referring and predicating or saying something the speaker believes to be true, (3) illocutionary act – stating, questioning, commanding, promising, etc. It is an act designed to fulfill an intention, and (4) perlocutionary act- the consequences or effects such acts have on the actions, thoughts, or beliefs, etc. of hearers. Moreover, these acts must meet certain considerations such as: (1) the acts may happen simultaneously, (2) an act may not be a prelude to another act, (3) lilocutionary and prepositional acts consist characteristically: uttering words in sentences in certain contexts, under certain conditions and with certain intentions, (4) the

division of acts is not a constant division, and (5) the meaning of a speech act is its illocutionary force. Searle mentioned five taxonomy of illocutionary acts namely: representatives, directives, commissives, expressive, and declarations.

Leech (1983) modifies Searle's five taxonomy (1969) and instead moved that speech acts can be categorized into four taxonomies. These allow regulation of the social equilibrium and cooperation among communicators. These functions are: (1) expressives such as thanking, congratulating, pardoning, praising, condoling, apologizing, greeting, and others that fall in the category of expressing one's likeness towards another individual; (2) cmmissives such as promising, pledging, vowing, offering, confirming, and agreeing that allows a speaker to commit to the act one has proposed; (3) impositives such as interpreting, reflecting, ordering, requesting, asking, begging, and all other acts that require one to impose one's act towards the other speaker; and (4) assertives such as boasting, complaining, reporting, declaring, reflecting objecting to, describing, identifying, assessing, and all other acts that attempts to proclaim truth or an opinion for or against the other speaker.

In this study, the four classifications of Leech's (1983) and the aid of the Verbal Response Modes (Stiles, 1992) have been employed in order to know the intentions of Filipino professors in their utterances. Intentions or speech acts play a substantial role in naming the desired politeness effects of the utterances of the teachers to their students. Intentions, too, point to effects of the language power of the professors.

By focusing upon the meanings of the professors' utterances as acts, speech act theory offers an approach to discourse analysis in which what is said is chunked (or segmented) into units that have communicative functions that can be identified and labeled. Speech acts can estimate the responses of the students and thus create alternatives for the professors' next utterances. In essence, a single sequence of utterances from the professor may actually be the outcome of a fairly wide range of different underlying functional and power relationships. Each of the utterances of the professors will be classified and gauged into: (1) Expressives; (2) Commissives; (3) Impositives; and (4) Assertives. The speech act verbs, illocutionary forces, and the pragmatic effects of the general statements are taken into consideration since the collaboration between the meaning constructions is both the burden and the obligation of the two communicators in order for the speech acts to success (Leech, 1983).

B. (Im)Politeness in Relational Work

Secondly, this study is anchored on Richard Watts' (2003) "Social Model of Politeness". It argues that politeness has a social value. It claims that politeness enables two people to interact, understand or even, end a conversation. It is part of the relational work of two or more individuals. Unlike earlier politeness models by Brown and Levinson (1978) which puts politeness as a prepared manifestation of respect for another individual's face, Watts (2003) believes that a person will not immediately know politeness strategies in dealing with another individual as if trying to state that it is easy to choose one amidst the choices in his talk. He further states that the "speaker will not have to go through a system in order to decide which strategy is the most appropriate" (2003:93). There must be a system in being polite but this system should be considerate of the speaker's relationship with his co-communicator which allows that speaker to state a specific utterance. The on-going discourse activity and communicators' knowledge of the social situation must be taken into consideration. Utterances in different types of interactions may not be inherently polite but become so in the context of the communication. This is supported by social construction perspectives which

state that social identities are not given before the realization of the social situation but are formed in the on-going social interactions (Sacks, 1992; Cook; 2006).

Now that the theoretical anchoring of politeness as a research topic has been explained, the literature review discusses individual factors that determine the nature and values of politeness across cultures. Locker (2004) mentioned that a polite utterance is a speaker's intended, marked and appropriate behavior which displays face concern; the motivation for it lies in the possibly, but not necessarily, egocentric desire of the speaker to show positive concern for the addressees and/or to respect the addressees' and the speaker's own need for independence. Hearers will interpret an utterance as polite when it is perceived as appropriate and marked; the reason for this is understood as the speaker's intention to show positive concern for the addressees' face and/or the speaker's intention to protect his or her own face needs (2004:91).

Locher and Watts (2005) described a continuum of relational work that may be classified as overpolite (i.e., negatively marked, non-politic) to polite (i.e., positively marked, politic) and non-polite (i.e., unmarked, politic) to impolite (i.e., negatively marked, non-politic) behaviour. They argue that most behaviour are unmarked and hence constitute politic and non-polite behaviour which goes unnoticed in everyday interactions (unlike positively marked and polite behaviour). The figure below shows the process for the classifications of utterances and their implied markers:

≡ 🔺	Judgment (a):	impolite	+	inappropriate/non-politic	+	negatively marked
n n u	Judgment (b):	non-polite	+	appropriate/politic	+	unmarked
o n t i	Judgment (c):	polite	+	appropriate/politic	+	positively marked
0♥	Judgment (d):	over-polite	+	inappropriate/non-politic	+	negatively marked

Figure 1. Aspects of the spectrum of relational work (Locher, 2006)

Locher (2006) postulates that "rude/impolite and over-polite behavior appears as non-politic and inappropriate behavior that is negatively marked. Both polite as well as non-polite behavior appears as politic/appropriate behavior. Polite behavior, however, is seen as positively marked, while non-polite behavior is the unmarked norm. It is important to point out that any judgment on politeness will thus automatically involve knowledge about expectations of appropriate behavior more generally. In other words, politeness cannot be assessed in isolation." (2006:258). Together with Watts (2003) and Mills (2005), Locher argues that "only a small part of what has previously been called polite behavior in the literature will be interpreted as such by interactants. Instead, much of relational work will be perceived as the unmarked norm, rather than as a negatively or positively marked version that we label impolite and polite behavior." (2006: 251)

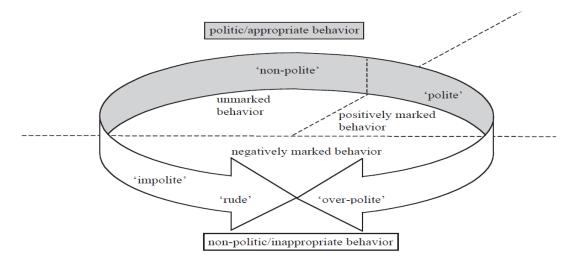


Figure 2. Relational work (Watts, 2003)

As shown in the figure above, positively marked politic behavior or polite relational work that is outside of what is required and necessary in an interaction is referred to as linguistic politeness. Linguistic politeness is a "linguistic behavior which goes beyond the bounds of politic behavior that is open to potential classification as polite." (Watts, 2003) This is a form of linguistic payment that is made in the acquisition or maintenance of power in verbal interaction. Even though linguistic structures are not inherently polite, we have utterances that have formulaic-ritualized and semiformulaic structures. In interactions, these contextualized utterances are open to potential interpretation as polite or as excess of politic behavior because they make supportive contributions towards the facework being negotiated among participants and thus contribute towards the politic behavior of the interaction. If these utterances are omitted in the interaction, such interaction leads to an evaluation of "impoliteness". On the other hand, if they are used in excess of what is necessary to maintain the politic behavior of an interaction, they are open to understanding as polite.

In the context of this new study, utterances will be subjected to tabulations of frequency to determine where Filipino professors fall in the category of the continuum mentioned by Watts and Locker (2005). Utterances will be coded into 5 categories: (1) Overly polite; (2) Polite; (3) Non-polite, and (4) Impolite. Overly polite utterances are classified as linguistic politeness that is marked by one's use of expressives. Polite utterances are linguistic payment that is given in excess of what is required. These are marked by the illocutionary forces of both expressives and commissives. Non-polite utterances or politic behaviors are neither polite nor impolite but are appropriate to the situation that is often marked by commissives and impositives. Impolite utterances are marked by words that threaten and attack the well-being of a co-communicator such as in the intentions of assertives. Therefore:

H1: The frequent use of expressive and commissive speech acts during academic consultations lead to politeness and over-politeness of the Filipino professoriate.

C. Politic Behavior and Symbolic Power

Fairclough (1995) refers to symbolic language power as "every power which manages to impose meanings and to impose them as legitimate by concealing the power relations which are the basis of its force." Watts (1991:60), highlighting the same concept, refers to the possession of power as the achievement of goal that an individual has set for him/herself because of freedom of action, regardless of whether or not this involves the potential to impose an individual's will on the others

to carry out actions that are in that individual's interests. In a way, this involves a communicator's ability to achieve goals that he/she has set for him/herself in social practice.

In this present study, symbolic power will be examined based on the language power in consultation sessions of Filipino professors to detect power and dominance in the utterance of the communicators and examine how the politic and impolite utterances reveal power and dominance. This study carries the claim of Fairclough that the communication of interlocutors will be affected by linguistic features of dominance that are present among the participants. The utterances were coded into three categories of symbolic power namely: (1) Forceful (statements that are both non-polite but gearing towards impolite and impolite statements); (2) Mitigated (statements that are both contextually non-polite but gearing towards polite and polite utterances); and (3) Weak (overly polite).

Hypothesis 2: The more frequent the use of expressive and commissive speech acts and the more polite the Filipino college teacher would lead to weak symbolic power.

Research Purposes

Overall, the purpose of the study is to investigate the speech acts, politeness level and its effects of both on the symbolic power of Filipino teachers in academic consultation sessions. Specifically, the objectives of the study are:

- **1.** To determine the types of speech acts of the Filipino college teachers in academic consultation conversations;
- **2.** To determine the linguistic politeness level of the Filipino college teachers and its effects on co-created communicative situation with the students ; and
- **3.** To determine the effect of the speech act usage and the level of politeness (or impoliteness) of Filipino college teachers to their symbolic power.

Significance of the Study

Since the research focused on how Filipino professors/communicators articulate particular linguistic politeness markers and strategies in interactions with their Filipino students, the study contributed to the on-going construction of discourses of the Filipino identity. This study fills the cultural gap by investigating the Filipinos concept and notions of politeness.

Methods

Participants

Letters of request were sent to 10 private and public colleges and universities. Of these, only four schools agreed to take part in the study. Four respondents are from the University of the Philippines. Three are from the Colegio de San Juan de Letran, Manila. Two are from the San Sebastian College, Recoletos. One is from the Far Eastern University, Manila. All schools are in Manila, Philippines. The respondents are teaching Zoology, Speech Communication, Political Science, Academic English Writing, and World Literature.

Procedure

In this study, the research analyzed transcripts from 40 interactions that the teacher/respondents had with their students. The researcher employed spoken discourse analysis of the collection of recorded conversations of college professors and their Filipino students using random sampling method. Ten non-native English speakers from five colleges and universities were observed. The research had an assumption that since these communicators speak constantly with their Filipino students in both the Filipino and English languages during the course of two months, they would produce a sufficient quantity of oral texts that can be closely analyzed from the formation, development, integration, and disintegration of both the politeness and dyadic nature of their talks. There were five male and five female teachers involved. In this study, both public and private schools were considered since it is assumed that any tertiary school in the Philippines may have an academic consultation session designated for teachers and students.

Since this study used naturally occurring conversations, data gathered were totally based on the discretion and flow of the talk between the teacher and the student. A total of 1737 utterances from 40 consultation sessions were carried out over a six-week period, four for each teacher during any of their consultation time. Field recorders were supported by interviews and observation notes taken by the observer from the back part of the classroom.

Measures

Verbal response modes (Stiles, 1992) have been used to classify the literal and pragmatic meaning of the utterances. The corpus was coded twice in order to determine the speech acts' source of experience. With eight VRM modes and two dimensions for coding – literal and pragmatic – the samples could be identified with 64 possible form-intent combination. In this way, the VRM taxonomy holds true to its promise of consistently classifying and distinguishing direct and indirect speech acts.

The study also used a modification of Monard's (1996) measurement of speech act and politeness. Frequency count of speech acts were done to categorize the different statements. Every speech act type, then, was assigned to the four politeness levels. The resulting speech act category and the politeness levels were determinants of the professoriate's symbolic power. To determine reliability, the author and two other communication teachers coded the transcripts. All except the researcher were blind to the treatment conditions of the study. Speech acts' classification of politeness levels were based on a Likert-type scale ranging from "overly-polite" to "impolite". Three coders for the politeness levels were given time to listen to the recordings and read the transcripts before assigning a scale to the statements. To determine the level of symbolic power, all coders sat down together in naming the classifications. All speech acts, politeness levels, and symbolic power type issues were resolved by virtue of discussions and consensus.

Results

Table 1

Speech Act	Ν	%	Politeness Level	Ν	%	Symbolic Power	Ν	%
Expressives	55	3.2	Overly polite	1	0.1	Forceful	593	34.1
Commissive								
S	213	12.3	Polite	118	6.8	Mitigated	976	56.2
Impositives	755	43.5	Non-polite	1275	73.4	Weak	168	9.7
Assertives	714	41.1	Impolite	343	19.7			

Profile of the Respondents' Speech Acts, Politeness Level, and Symbolic Power Occurrences

The table presents the speech acts, politeness level and symbolic power occurrences of a select group of college faculty representing both private and government institutions. From the 1737 recorded utterances of 40 recorded conversations, the respondents used the impositives speech act the most (43.5%) and expressive speech act (3.2%) the least. As to their politeness level, majority belongs to the non-polite level (73.4%) with only 1% belonging to the overly polite group. Notably, 56.2% or 976 of the speech occurrences are classified as mitigated symbolic power followed by forceful (34.1%) and only 168 or 9.7% are weak.

Table 2 Significant Difference in the Speech Acts, Politeness Level, and Symbolic Power Among College Faculty Members

	Mean Sd F-ratio			
Speech Acts	3.23	.781	3.248*	
Politeness Level	3.13	.501	7.051*	
Symbolic Power	1.76	.615	6.071	

*significant at $\alpha < .05$

Interestingly, results of One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) revealed marked differences in the respondent teachers' speech acts (F-ratio=3.25, p-value < 0.05), politeness level (F-ratio=7.051, p-value < 0.05) and symbolic power (F-ratio=6.071, p-value < 0.05).

Table 3 Correlation Matrix

	Symbolic Power	Politeness Level
Speech		
Acts	-0.38*	0.27*
Politeness Level	-0.45*	

0

The correlations between the independent variables are provided in Table 3. Results show that speech acts, politeness level, and symbolic power are significantly related at $\alpha < .05$. Correlation results show that speech acts and politeness level have moderate and significant relationship as the r-value of 0.27 indicates. However, a negative and moderate correlation was noted between speech acts and symbolic power (R=-0.38) and politeness level and symbolic power (r=-0.45).

Discussion

As shown in this study, the social model of politeness mentioned by Locher and Watts (2005) was evident in the spoken language of the Filipino professoriate in the capital Manila. Such a scenario reflects the cultural factor in not just the use of politic language in everyday communication (Watts, 2003; Watts and Locker, 2004; Cook, 2006; Alfattah, 2009; Brown, 2010) but also of speech acts (Smith, 1897; Church, et al., 2006; Limberg, 2007; Nodoushan, 2008; Schnurr and Chan, 2009) and symbolic power (Monnard, 1996; Kerssen-Griep, et al., 2008, Park, 2008a, 2008b). Moreover, continued use from Filipinos of politic markers, speech acts, and linguistic markers to signify symbolic power can be attributed to the continued practice and reality in the academe where both teachers and students struggle to negotiate power.

Results also indicated that Filipino teachers use impositives the most. Teachers used acts that question, order, request, command, advise, recommend, instruct, require, dare, and challenge. In this study, teachers, too, used the assertive speech acts (41.1% or 714) of complaining, declaring, reflecting objecting to, describing, identifying, assessing, and all other acts that attempts to proclaim truth or an opinion for or against the students. In some countries, impositive and assertive speech acts are used to intrude in the co-communicator's territory and therefore, inherently impolite and face-threatening (Brown and Levinson, 1987; Leech, 1983; Felix- Brasdefer, 2005).

At the same time, the lesser use of indirect illocutions (commissives and expressives) by the teachers seems to be an interesting result as literature indicates that indirect speech acts are the better choices of superior individuals like teachers in order to increase the degree of camaraderie and friendship among speakers (Blum-Kulka, et al., 1989; Buitkiene, 2008), to diminishes the illocutionary force in an utterance (Leech, 1983; Felix-Brasdefer, 2005), and to minimize status difference (Pateman, 1980 in Mullany, 2004).

Results of this study run parallel with the findings of Baker and Griffin (2010) which indicates that teachers must be responsible advisers, mentors, and developers of students. Teachers must still invest time to be critical of their students' academic outputs in order to help in the essential development of student learning inside and outside the classroom. Teachers are expected to deliver positive reinforcements for students' to respond correctly (Partin, 2010). Despite the negative connotation to impositives and assertives as negative speech acts, it appeared that the aim of the academic consultation situations between the Filipino professors and students is to create engaging, critical, and evaluative communicative activities between teachers and students. The use of the illocutionary forces of the impositives and assertive goes beyond negativity that naturally threaten students (Leech, 1983; Brown and Levinson, 1987; Felix-Brasdefer, 2005).

Results also indicate a great impact of the role of verbal politeness levels in the teacher respondents' language in the academic consultation sessions. This runs parallel to what Watts (2003) and Locher (2004:91) indicated in their study stating that "the motivation for using a level of politeness lies in the possibility and not on the egocentric desire of a speaker to show positive concern for the addressee and/ or to respect the addressee." Non-politeness or politic language, the most used level in this study, was the most possible and feasible politeness level since the academic consultations are non-threatening social interaction (Watts, 2003; Locher, 2006; Cook, 2006). Filipino teachers did not use a lot of polite (6.8% or 118), overly-polite (0.1%) and impolite statements (19.7%) since they know that they are not in the presence of higher status or are in contact with people who are perceived as being powerful (Wolfson, 1989 in Nodoushan, 2008). It was also pointed out in a number of researches that manifestations of linguistic politeness are only seen when social distance affects the communication between individuals (Wolfson; 1989; Watts, 2003; Scollon and Scollon,

2001 in Nodoushan, 2008) and when there is weight in the gravity of the threat of the person in contact (West, 1995 in Mullany, 2004; Terkourafi, 2004; Nodoushan, 2008).

In this study, the categories of symbolic power that make the teachers dominant were also investigated. As interpreted from the sample professoriate's oral language, symbolic power consist of two factor motivation related to one's speech act use and level of politeness. Both these factors point to the presence of hierarchical authority (Werkhofer, 1992; Scollon and Scollon, 2001 in Nodoushan, 2008) as a validation of teachers' symbolic power. Though symbolic power is validated through hierarchy, the teachers showed mitigation (56.2% or 976) or neutrality in the exercise of such authority (Mullany, 2004) because of the teachers' concept of solidarity (Holmes, et al, 1999 in Mullany, 2004; Mills, 2002) and the democratization of discourse (Fairclough, 1992) in such communicative situations. Because of such neutrality, it seems that the symbolic power asymmetries manifested itself in covert manner (Fairclough 1989, 2001; Holmes et al., 1999; Reid, 1999; Mashiri, 2009).

The results are also in consonance to the attributed interpersonal character of the Filipino – one that is characterized by harmonious and non-confrontational communication (Worthington, et al., 2010) that even expands to discomfort especially in giving compliments (Magay, 1999; Mojica, 2002). As shown in the results, though the Filipino teachers struggled to exercise covert symbolic power in the academic consultations, there is still mitigation in the language use of the teachers to openly use their symbolic power because of their pedagogical relationship with the students (Gibbons, Bush, and Bradac, 1991 in Reid, 1999; Trees, et al., 2010).

Results also showed slight differences in the respondent teachers' speech acts, politeness level and symbolic power. On the one hand, the teachers appeared to be more motivated to use in academic consultation sessions impositives and assertive. Teachers may have used forceful and commanding speech acts and these acts are part of their critical relationship with their students (Trees, et al., 2009; Baker and Griffin, 2010). On the other hand, the teachers manifested a higher level of non-politeness in their utterances. This seems to be in consonance with the findings of Watts and Locher (2005) that politic tactics can help minimize the threat in face-threatening activities such as feedback in consultation sessions.

Results indicated that the speech act has moderate and significant relationship with the politeness level of the teachers. On the one hand, as a Filipino teacher use impositives and assertives, the politeness level moves closer from polite to non-politeness. If the teachers become too impressive in posting their questions, orders, requests, commands, advices, recommendations, and instructions, then they would eventually move closer to non-politeness (Locher, 2006). On the other hand, if a teacher negatively complains, describes, identifies, or assesses the performance of the student, then the teacher commits impoliteness. This is in consonance with the Social Model of Politeness (2003) that states that politeness is an assessment of the ongoing verbal interaction and not a system of strategizing to achieve a good face (Watts, 2003).

Results also show that speech act and politeness levels have negative and moderate correlation to symbolic power. As the teacher's speech acts becomes increasingly direct and negative such as in impositives and assertives, their politeness levels also move from non-polite to impolite. This, therefore, leads their symbolic power to become forceful. In the present study, however, the teachers maintained a non-polite language use so the impositives and assertives were neutralized since socially equal participants have enough power to give to each other (Monard, 1996; Buitkiene, 2008; Partin, 2010). The language of the teachers and their pedagogical dictations determined the control that they exercised so as not to indicate coercion against the students (Reid, 1999).

Moreover, the Filipino's culture of non-confrontation and group identity helped the dynamics of the communicative activity (Worthington, et al., 2010). Speech acts and politeness markers, however, are not the only indicators of symbolic power as age, social status, familiarity, gender (Blum-Kulka, Olshtain, and Meir, 1989; Hong Wei, 1996; Bella, 2009) are other factors in naming the power relations in communication activities.

Conclusion

This study attempted to ascertain the types of speech acts, politic behavior, and category of symbolic power of a select group of Filipino college teachers in academic consultations. Surprisingly, in a high context culture such as the Philippines, college teachers used impositives and assertives. Teachers were indirect in their speech acts in order to enforce their intentions on their students. Teachers, too, used non-polite language in the interactions and these were complimented by the use of mitigated symbolic power. These results show that today, more than ever, teachers do not need to impose their hierarchical status over their students in order to attain respect and to demand attention. While it is true that teachers have language power because of their attained position and rank, the Filipino way of indirectness, non-confrontation, and lack of verbal expressiveness mitigated their symbolic power. The need to empower both Filipino teachers and students in terms of verbal expressiveness in institutional communication is a continuing imperative.

Considering the dearth of literature on Filipino's politeness and language power, this study has successfully accounted for the phenomenon of how teachers in a developing country such as the Philippines, using a quantitative assessment tool such as the instrument used in this exploratory study. Though initial findings of the paper may not present a complete picture of the phenomenon, the researcher is firm in his belief and argues that a more collective variety of institutional type of talks amongst law makers, the judiciary, and even between doctors and patients, may eventually lead to more vivid descriptions of the dynamics of Filipino politeness and language power. Future studies and replications of these findings in a wider context are needed in order to make sound judgment in the area of linguistic politeness and symbolic power. Finally, politeness studies in written communication amongst Filipinos could generate interesting results that would add to the characterization of the Filipino discourse.

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Translation of Politeness Strategies in Animated Films from English into Thai

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Abstract

This study examines the way politeness strategies have been extensively used in the world of animation and the way dubbing acts as a cross-cultural communication tool to mediate politeness between two cultures. It also observes whether politeness strategies in Thai translation versions are equivalent to the English original. The study investigates six animated films released in 2010 by the United States' studios. The methodological approach is based on the politeness theory by Brown and Levinson (1987) and pragmatic parameters by Geoffrey Leech (1983). The data reveals three main kinds of politeness strategies found in the selected films: positive, negative and off-record politeness strategies. Positive politeness strategies outnumber the others. Furthermore, most utterances of politeness in the dubbed versions clearly show the unique nature of Thai linguistic elements in matters of politeness. This is due to the hierarchical Thai social system and cultural values. Differences in culture and limitations in synchronized dubbing or "lip-sync" may pose problems for translators in terms of equivalence in translating politeness.

Keywords: Translation Studies; Pragmatics; Politeness; Dubbing

1. Introduction

Every culture has the concept of politeness. Normally, in daily life, interlocutors are concerned with each other's "face" to avoid conflicts. The concept of face leads to the theory of politeness strategies, proposed by Brown and Levinson in 1987. The theory proposes that people use politeness strategies in communication to soften "face threatening acts" (FTA). What interests this researcher is whether these politeness strategies remain equivalent to the original versions when they are translated, from one culture to another. Hence, this research, drawn from the researcher's thesis, is a correlation between translation studies and pragmatics. It investigates the translation of politeness strategies in animated films dubbed from English into Thai.

2. Previous Studies

There are various pragmatics studies concerning politeness. The most well-known theory on politeness is Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1987), explaining politeness through strategies based on the concept of face. Face is an individual's identity to the public. It is the self-image that one has and expects others to respect. Brown and Levinson categorizes face into two types: positive and negative face. A positive face is a desire to be respected, accepted and complimented by others as a member of the same group, and that desire needs to be recognized by others as well. A negative face, on the other hand, is a desire to have freedom of action, to be independent, and not to be imposed on by others (Brown & Levinson, 1987, pp. 61-62).

3. Methods

The data in this study is drawn from six animated movies' DVDS. All movies were released in 2010, the year prior to the study. These animated films, created in studios in the U.S., are as follows:

'How to Train Your Dragon'
 'Shrek Forever After'
 'Despicable Me'
 'Legend of the Guardians: The Owls of Ga'Hoole'
 'Megamind'
 'Toy Story 3'

As a matter of fact, in 2010, there are eith animated films released by American studios, however, during the period of data collection, only six movies were available on DVD. Therefore, only six movies were selected for this study due to the limitation of data available.

4. Results

This study found that politeness strategies were used in every animation movie selected in accordance with Brown and Levinson's categorization: on-record and off-record strategies. The onrecord strategies can be categorized into two sub-types: positive and negative politeness strategies. Among these strategies, positive politeness strategies outnumber the others. They are strategies that express friendliness towards the Hearer. They include the Hearer as a member of the same group who shares the same purposes, wants, and values of others in the group (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 101). Positive politeness strategies are intended to save the Hearer's positive face.

This study also found that, in the dubbed versions, the translators were in nearly all cases able to maintain politeness strategies' equivalent to the originals. There were only three examples in which the politeness strategies were not maintained as in the original and these were caused by: 1) omission in translation; 2) variation of passive voice structure in the translation; and 3) translation in the opposite way to the original's meaning. These may be because of following reasons:

1) The translators may have considered that the main idea would be unaffected by the omission

- 2) To make the dubbed version seem more natural
- 3) To make the dubbed version appropriate for the contexts

The following example from the data shows how the dubbing maintains the politeness strategy as in the original.

Example 1

Situation: After causing trouble to the village and being sent home by his father, Hiccup complains about his father to Gobber saying that his father never listens to him.

Interlocutors: Hiccup - Gobber (Hiccup is the only son of the village's chief, while Gobber is responsible for taking care of him.)

Hiccup:	"He n	"He never listens."							
Dubbing:	$/p^{\mathrm{h}}\hat{\mathfrak{d}}$:	maĵ k ^h e:j	faŋ	lv:j	?a./				

	Dad	never li	sten F	P FP						
Gobber:	"It ru	"It runs in the family."								
Dubbing:	/peːn	peːn kammaːp ^h an		a lɛ`./						
	is	genetic	F	P FP						

(How to Train Your Dragon (2010), 08.43 - 08.44)

Criticism is one of the speech acts that threaten the Hearer's face. In example 1, the Speaker indirectly criticizes the Hearer by saying that the Hearer and the Hearer's father are just the same. The criticism is from the fact that the Hearer and his father are both stubborn and never listen to others. The Speaker's strategy is consistent with Brown and Levinson's 1st off-record strategy by giving hints to his direct meaning. The dubbing still retains this strategy.

The study shows how the translators naturally utilize various Thai linguistic elements to express politeness in utterances. These are some examples:

4.1 Thai Adverbs

4.1.1 Measurers

There is utilization of Thai adverbs that gauge levels or quantities, to reinforce a compliment adjective and/or minimize the FTA. The study found that adding adverbs in some examples elevates the illocutionary force in the dubbed versions. Thus, it renders a higher level of politeness in the dubbed versions. For example, in the compliment in the 1st positive politeness strategy (*Notice, Attend to Hearer (His Interests, Wants, Needs, Goods)*), there is use of the adverb /mâ:k/ (Very) as in example 2:

Example 2

Original:	"You	are a	beautiful	wom	an."		
Dubbing:	/kʰun	pen	pʰûːjĭŋ	thî:	suaj	mâːk./	
	you	are	woman	that	beautiful	Adv	
							(Despicable Me (2010), 27.24 - 27.26)

4.1.2 In-group Adverbs

The translators use some adverbs to include the Speaker and the Hearer in the same group, e.g. in the 4th positive politeness strategy (*Use In-Group Identity Markers*) and the 12th positive politeness strategy (*Include both Speaker and Hearer in the Activity*), the translators use adverbs /duâj kan/ or /kan/ (Together). The Thai adverb /kan/ is used to encourage someone to do something, and includes the Hearer and the Speaker in the same activity. (Dictionary of The Royal Institute, 2003, p. 104) The Hearer will feel that he and the Speaker are members in the same group. Thus, it seems like an invisible commitment for the Hearer to assist the Speaker in what he asks.

Example 3

Original:	"If you he	lp us, <u>one</u>	toy to	o and	other, I'd	sure be grat	eful."		
Dubbing:	/t ^h âː naːj	tc ^h uâj	raw	naj	t ^h ăːná	k ^h ðːŋ lêːn	duâj kan,	tchăn	tcà
	if you	help	us	in	position	toy	Adv	Ι	will
	kʰɔ̀ːb tɕaj	mâːk./							
	thank	very							
						(Toy Story 3	(2010)), 55.53 - 55.55)

4.1.3 Adverbs of Time and Adverbs of Frequency

These kinds of adverbs play an important role in the 3^{rd} off-record strategy (*Presuppose*). In this strategy, the Speaker uses utterances implying that that kind of situation has occurred before, and the Speaker presumes that the Hearer witnesses or be in that situation (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 217) as shown in examples:

<u>Example 4</u> Original: Dubbing:	"It's not like the last few times , Dad! I really, actually hit it!" /hê:jmâj mu:ăn 2-3 k^hráŋ t^hî: lź:w ná p ^h ô:! k ^h â: jiŋ dâj Excl. not like times last FP dad I shoot can teiŋ teiŋ do:n teaŋ teaŋ lx:j ?a!/ really hit very hard FP (How to Train Your Dragon (2010), 07.35 - 07.40)
Example 5 Original: Dubbing:	 "Stop! Just stop. Every time you step outside, disaster follows." /p^ho: lé:w! k^hê: p^ho: t^hx`. lû:k jâ:ŋ kra:j ?ò:k ma: k^hâ:ŋ nô:k enough Adv just enough FP. son step go out outside t^hi: raj, mi: hă:j jana ta:m ma:/ Adv have disaster follow (How to Train Your Dragon (2010), 07.46 - 07.53)

The adverb of frequency /2-3 $k^{h}rán t^{h}i:l\epsilon:w/$ and the adverb of time /t^hi: raj/ show that the situations have occurred before. In the second example, the adverb of time also states the truth to the Hearer that he has done that kind of action before, thus, implies that he should stop.

4.2 Thai Conventionally Indirect Speech Act

Conventionally indirect speech act in Thai such as the use of interrogative sentences that does not expect an answer or rhetorical questions, is considered the 1^{st} negative politeness strategy (*Be Conventionally Indirect*). The study found that in some examples, the translators add this strategy though the original already uses other politeness strategies. This means the dubbed versions contain more layers of politeness than those in the original. For example, dubbed versions were translated using interrogatives as in these examples: Example 6

<u>Example o</u>	
Original:	"You got so fafancy."
Dubbing:	"tcâw du: tam maj t ^h uǐŋ daĵ tu:a jàjjà:ŋ lò: tcaŋ ly:j" you look QP Prep body big handsome very (Shrek Forever After (2010), 49.15 - 49.19)
Example 7	
Original:	"Look at all your clothes! I can't believe you never brought me up here!
Tennis	whites? Mission to Mars!"
Dubbing:	/há: su:â p ^h â: k ^h un jx' tcaŋ! tam maj mâj p ^h a: tc ^h án ma: rew
-	Excl cloth your many many QP not bring me early
	kwà: ní: lǎ! tc ^h úd Tennis? nákbin awakà:d!/
	than this FP cloth astronaut
	(Toy Story 3 (2010), 01.01.17 - 01.01.23)

4.3 Thai Final Particles

The translators used Thai final particles in two ways: 1) to express politeness, such as $/k^{h}rab/$ found in the 1st positive politeness strategy (*Notice, Attend to Hearer (His Interests, Wants, Needs, Goods)*); and 2) to soften the FTA, e.g. /si/ and /na/ found in the 6th positive politeness strategy (*Avoid Disagreement*) as explained in the following example:

Example 8

Situation: After Metroman's death, Hal asks Ritchi to go to his party. Ritchi, as a mourner, does not want to join the party.

Interlocutors: Hal - Ritchi (co-workers/ Hal likes Ritchi.)

Ritchi: Oh. I... I don't know, Hal. I don't really feel like being around a bunch of people.

?v: mâj sì ná, Hal. tc^hǎn jaŋ Dubbing: rŭ: maĵ jù: naj a:rom know FP still not DM not Hal. be in mood Ι jà:k ter: kon ix ix ly:j ná. want meet people a lot of FP (Megamind (2010), 27.14 - 27.17)

Refusing the Hearer would threaten his/her face, especially when the Hearer offers good things to the Speaker. In this example, the Speaker does not refuse the Hearer immediately. She uses the 6^{th} positive politeness strategy (*Avoid Disagreement*), by uttering the vague refusal "I don't know" before rationalizing her FTA. The translator used the Thai final particle /sì/ and /ná/ in the indirect refusal. Ratchada Plaboothong (2008, pp. 64-65, 75) states that Thai final particles /sì/ and /ná/ are kinds of final particles that express the Speaker's emotion or point of view. The Speaker uses them to indirectly show her different point of view. In the researcher's opinion, using these final particles helps soften the refusing tone in the utterance when compared with an utterance that does not have the final particles; "mâj rŭ: sì ná" and "mâj ŭ: ." The latter utterance, without final particles, seems bold and impolite.

The translators also use final particles to show the Speaker's hesitation, persuasion and request, such as a final particle /nx'/ in the 11th positive politeness strategy (*Be Optimistic*), and final particles $/t^hx'/$ and $/n\hat{a}$:/ in the 12th positive politeness strategy (*Include both Speaker and Hearer in the Activity*), shown in example 9 and 10.

Example 9

Original:	"But	we can	try again,	right?"	
Dubbing:	/raw	lo:ŋ	?ìːk rôːb	kô: dâj	nv′?/
	we	try	gain	all right	FP

(Toy Story 3 (2010), 08.39 - 08.40)

The final particle /nx'/ in example 9 shows the Speaker's hesitation, persuasion and request. The Speaker's hesitation helps soften the FTA, as he implies that he respects the Hearer's opinion.

Example 10										
Original:	"Come o	n, it's t	ime to get	t in the	e Metro	o Man Day s	pirit.'	,		
Dubbing:	/mâj ?aw	nâː,	wan ní:	pen	wan	Metroman	na	raw	maː	te ^h alóːŋ
	come on	FP	today	is	day		FP	we	come	celebrate
	kan	th %`/								
	together	FP								

(Megamind (2010), 08.18 - 08.21)

In example 10, the Thai final particle $/t^hx'$ implies persuasion (Plaboothong, 2008, p. 69), while the final particle $/n\hat{a}$:/ expresses request.

4.4 Honorific Terms in Thai

The translators use Thai honorific address terms to accord honor to the Hearer, such as the personal pronoun $/t^{\hat{h}\hat{a}:n/}$ (You) which use to address the Hearer with respect. Normally, Thais use this personal pronoun when the Hearer is in a higher position than the Speaker.

4.5 In-Group Identity Markers

4.5.1 Kindred Terms

Kindred terms are unique to Thai communication style as Thais address the Hearer, even strangers, with the same address terms they use with family members. This is consistent with the 4th positive politeness strategy (*Use In-Group Identity Markers*) in which the Speaker includes the Hearer as a member in the same group. In example 11, the translator uses the kindred term /p^hî:/ (Older brother/Older sister) which helps soften the illocutionary force of the FTA. The Hearer will feel that the Speaker is humble in front of him, rather than feel forced by the Speaker.

Example 11

<u>Example 11</u>	
Original:	"Kludd? Could I just show you how? Without you being so angry?"
Dubbing:	/?s:` Kludd? k ^h â: t ^h am hâj p^hî : du: di: máj? lɛ́:w p^hî :
-	DM I do brother see QP then brother
jà:	kròːd ná./
0	do not angry FP
	(Legend of the Guardians: The Owls of Ga'Hoole (2010), 07.37 - 07.41)
Example 12	
Original:	"You've got no reason to worry, boy. "
Dubbing:	/tɛâw mâj miː sìŋ daj tôːŋ kaŋwon lফːj, tɛâw nŭ ː/
-	you not have anything must worry boy
	(Legend of the Guardians: The Owls of Ga'Hoole (2010), 01.00.49 - 01.01.00)
	-

The kindred term /tcâw nŭ:/ in example 12 incorporates various social factors, such as the Hearer's gender, and the age difference between the Hearer and the Speaker. It is used to address little boys, and the Speaker is supposed to be old. It also possesses a tone of endearment towards the Hearer.

4.5.2 Terms of Endearment/ Possession

The Thai verb /rǎk/ (Love) can function as an adjective when it is used with nouns. In translating terms of endearment, the translators effectively use this verb as they translate "Honey" as /t^hî: rǎk/ (Honey/Darling/Beloved). In some example, the translators borrow the English word "love," as they translate "my main man" as /pu:ân Love/ (Best Friend).

4.5.3 In-Group Address Terms

Use is made of in-group address terms such as the personal pronoun "We," the possessive adjective "Our," and words that state the classification/species of the Hearer and the Speaker, if they are animals in the same group, such as:

Example 13 Original: hurt."	"That request remains the same, owl. Do you have a place to rest? My friend's
Dubbing:	/tɛː`wâ: raw ?vː` jaŋ juu:n jan kʰam dvːm ná: hû:k hvː^ mi:
	but we DM still insist word same uncle owl DM have
	t ^h î: hâj raw p ^h ák máj? puːân k ^h â: bàːd tcèb/
	place for us stay QP friend my get hurt
	(Legend of the Guardians: The Owls of Ga'Hoole (2010), 33.35 - 33.40)
Example 14	
Original:	"Mildly, owls. We're trying to seek the truth."
Dubbing:	/tcaj jen sahă : j . raw $k^{h}\hat{\epsilon}$: tcà k^{h} ón hă: k^{h} wa:m tciŋ/
	calm down mate we just will seek truth
	(Legend of the Guardians: The Owls of Ga'Hoole (2010), 49.07 - 49.09)

In examples 13 and 14, the original uses the same address term whereas the dubbed version is different due to the context and the interlocutors' social status. The original uses the address term "Owl/Owls" as a politeness strategy since interlocutors in this animation are owls. However, the translator has dubbed "Owl" in example 13 as /ná: hû:k/ (Uncle Owl), a kindred term and bird's species, and "Owls" in example 14 as /sahă:j/ (Mate/Pal).

Example 15

Original: Oh, perfect. And, while I'm busy, Hiccup can cover the stall. Molten steel, razor-sharp blades, lots of time to himself. What could possibly go wrong? Dubbing: /?ô:w... tee: m ly:j. rawà: η t^hî: k^hâ: wûn pen k^hru: fui`k kô: perfect DM while Ι busy as trainer hâj Hiccup du: klan săn plò: j hâj jù: kon diaw kàb t^hawlð:m arsenal let alone furnace watch live with să:rap^hád să:rap^he: ?aːwúd miː k^hom mâj mi: ?araj nâ: hu:àn ly:j multifarious not have anything weapon sharp worry tc^hí:b./ Cheif (How to Train Your Dragon (2010), 10.05 - 10.15)

(110w to 11um 10ur Diagon (2010), 10.03 (10.13)

In example 15, the dubbed version adds the in-group address term /t $e^{hf:b/}$ (Chief) which is borrowed from the English word "Chief." In this context, the word "Chief" refers to the Hearer who is the Chief of the Viking village. Thus, the dubbed version contains a stronger politeness strategy than the original due to the social status of the Hearer and the Speaker.

4.6 Personal Pronoun Omission in Thai

In Thai, the personal pronoun can be naturally omitted. This kind of omission is consistent with the 7th negative politeness strategy (*Impersonalize Speaker and Hearer*). With this strategy, the Speaker

does not mention the hearer directly to mitigate the FTA, such as the omission of the personal pronoun "you." In example 16, the translator omits "you" in the dubbed version.

Example 16 Original: "You gotta give something..."

Dubbing: "Ø to^:ŋ jo:m siːǎ jà:ŋ" must yield lose something

(Shrek Forever After (2010), 17.36 - 17.37)

4.7 Thai Minimizers

4.7.1 Minimizers

Thai minimizers are also used such as /n \hat{s} .ŋ/ (Little), /prà di:ǎw/ (In a minute), /t^hâw nán/ (Only), /krà tcí:d/ (Tiny), and /nìd/ (Little/Small) etc., to minimize the imposition (the 4th negative politeness strategy). Example 17 shows how the translator uses Thai minimizers in the translated version.

Example 17

Situation: Minion reports Megamind that the gun is not yet ready to shoot the sun. It is still warming. He tells his boss to wait.

Interlocutors: Minion - Megamind (Assistant - Boss/ Best Friends)

One second more and... just tippy-tappy tippy-tap-tap, tip-top more, Minion: Dubbing: ì:k $k^{h}\epsilon^{2}$... nui n wína: ti: tâw nán lé ko² ... i: k $k^{h}\epsilon^{2}$... more just ... one second only and more just krà tcí:d ì:k níd ì:k níd...kàprìd kàpro:j ko^: tcà... more little more little will tiny little lé:w raw teà pró:m p^ha:j naj we: la: i:k **níd**. daĵ tî: readv then we will ready within time more little. (Megamind (2010), 18.04 - 18.17)

Minimizers in this example consist of short vowels that portray small units. The translator also uses Thai minimizers with short vowels, such as, /krà teí:d/ (Tiny) /kàprìd kàprɔ:j/ (Little) and /níd/ (Little).

4.7.2 Repetition in Thai

The use of repetition in Thai to mitigate the FTA functions like a minimizer. For example, the translator uses a repetition of a verb/ k^h ăm/ (To laugh) as / k^h ăm/ (Humorous/ Nothing serious), which functions like a minimizer.

 Example 18

 Original:
 "It was a little attempt at humor."

 Dubbing:
 "kô: kʰεˆ: klɛˆ:ŋ haĵ kʰun kʰǎm kʰǎm lê:n" just kid you RE

 (Despicable Me (2010), 54.50 - 55.52)

4.8 Thai Hedges

In the 2nd negative politeness strategy (*Hedge*), the Speaker might use hedges or vague expressions to obscure the Speaker's needs or intention, and hence, lessen the FTA. Thai hedges are expressly used in dubbed versions, such as /?à:d teà/ (Perhaps/Might), /ba:ŋ t^hi:/ (Perhaps), /koŋ jà:ŋ ŋán/ (It might be like that), /koŋ teà/ (Might/Maybe), /mâj nê: ná/ (Maybe), and /ku:àb ku:àb/ (Nearly), etc.

The translators also use Thai discourse markers, such as /?r: '(Well,...), which function similarly to a hedge as they reflect the Speaker's hesitation to do the FTA. Some Thai final particles also act to express the Speaker's hesitation in the same way as a discourse marker, such as the final particle /máŋ/, which marks the Speaker's unsure tone.

5. Conclusion

The study found that the politeness strategies used in the dubbing of the animated films under study correlated with Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies. The dubbed versions in the study clearly show the uniqueness of Thai politeness via Thai linguistic elements. It may be the influence of Thai culture and its hierarchical social system that affects communication style and renders politeness elements more complicated in Thai.

*Abbreviations used in this paper

- FTA = Face Threatening Act
- Excl = Exclamation
- Adv = Adverb
- Prep = Preposition
- FP = Final Particle
- QP = Question Particle
- DM = Discourse Marker
- RE = Repetitions of the same words in Thai
- \emptyset = Omission in translation

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Effects of Communicative Language Teaching through Local Cultural Content on Students' Speaking Ability

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Abstract

The purposes of this study were to examine the effects of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) through local cultural content on students' English speaking ability and their local cultural knowledge. The sample population comprised 32 undergraduate students majoring in Business English at Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University. They were purposively selected in the first semester of the academic year 2010 from among the third-year Business English program cohort enrolled in English for local tourism. The research instruments used in the study were English speaking ability and local cultural knowledge tests. The duration of experiment was 12 weeks with three periods per week. The data was analyzed using t-test. The findings of the study revealed that the experiment group had significantly higher English speaking ability post-test mean score than their pre-test mean score; and the standard score (at 60%) at the .05 significance-level. The experiment group had a significantly higher local cultural knowledge post-test mean score than their pre-test mean score and the standard score (at 60%) was also at the .05 level. The findings of this study will provide valuable references for English language teachers in other educational levels contemplating employing local culture as a useful teaching frame. Teachers should emphasize teaching English for communication through the use of local cultural content.

Key words: Communicative Language Teaching, Local culture

Introduction

Learning English as a foreign language has become very important and essential to daily life in the present global society. English serves as an important tool for communication, education, seeking knowledge, improving livelihoods, and creating understanding of cultures and visions of the world community. English language enables learners to be aware of cultural diversity and diverse points of view in the world community, which is conducive to friendship and cooperation with various countries. They contribute to learners' development by providing them with a better understanding of themselves and others. The learners are thus able to gain an understanding of differences of languages and cultures; customs and traditions; diversity of thinking and social contexts; and varieties of social, economic, political and administrative modalities. By and large, they will be able to use English language for communication as well as for easier and wider access to bodies of knowledge. Moreover, they are more likely to expand their vision in leading their lives in more-empowered ways. The main contents of the program include: (1) Language for communication, (2) Language and culture, (3) Language and relationship with other learning areas and (4) Language and relationship with community and the

world. Germane to language and culture, the stated purpose is that students should use of English language in ways that harmoniously dove-tail with culture of native speakers; relationships; similarities and differences between languages and cultures of native speakers; languages and cultures of native speakers and Thai culture; and appropriate application of language derived from the program (Ministry of Education, 2001).

The national curriculum and concepts of local culture

As a result of the Thai Government's instituting the National Education Act in 1999, there have been vast improvements and new directions and guidelines for Thailand's educational system. Many of these improvements have centered on curriculum reform; teacher recruitment and training; educational administration; and national educational requirements. The Act was designed to provide core guidelines taking into consideration the local community problems and needs. Each educational institution providing basic education was to develop its own syllabuses and learning content (Foley, 2005). According to Section 23, the connections between teaching EFL and its relationships to cultures are apparent. Knowledge about religion, art, culture, sports, Thai wisdom, and the application of wisdom are emphasized for learners to improve their chances to pursue careers and lead a happier life. In addition, learners should have knowledge about oneself and the relationship between oneself and society, namely: family, community, nation, and world community.

Even though some principles in the Act can be applied to foreign language teaching, there are many more dimensions of education that need to be included. According to Todd and Keyuravong's research (2004) about the processes and products of English language learning in the National Education Act, they suggested that "the carrier content of English teaching should concern Thai and local culture and issues or general and scientific knowledge". In conclusion, it is clear that a local cultural content in English language teaching can promote both English language skills and awareness of one's own culture.

Rajabhat University Act 2004 and policy on local cultural knowledge

The value of local cultural content is also one of the basic principles of Rajabhat University's Act of 2004. According to Section 7, the philosophy of the university is to promote local cultural knowledge in each student's own community. Moreover, the university must strive to develop and experienced a balanced and sustainable management framework. Life-long learning and openness to learners' needs and interests in the community are to be promoted as well. According to Section 8, the university is responsive to enhancing learners' appreciation of their own country and communities. In addition, learners are encouraged to understand and to be proud of Thai identity and their communities. Other statements expressly support learning for community-development and encourage learning in the learners' own communities.

English instruction has played an important role for quite a long time in Thailand; but Thai students still encounter problems in their efforts to learn English. Most Thai students spend a very long time learning English, but they cannot learn to use English skills efficiently; especially when it comes to speaking skill. Thai students hardly practice their speaking ability. This is because the emphasis in language classrooms pays strict attention to accurate grammatical rules. However, if one wants to

communicate with foreigners in everyday life situations, speaking skills become essential. For this reason, English oral communication plays an increasingly significant role in Thailand as the tongue has become the most important tool of communication in national, international, personal, academic, and professional arenas. Although speaking is considered very important mode to expose EFL students to learning, it still causes difficulties. The main difficulty lies in that speaking in a foreign language is more complex than speaking in one's first language. It is, therefore, crucial that some attention be paid to a speaking method to help EFL students improve their speaking ability. This is one of the main reasons why there is now an emphasis on teaching English speaking-skills all over the world.

Another problem of English speaking skill is that learners are usually not engaged or practice enough in both in-classroom and outside-the-classroom situations. Moreover, the background knowledge, English competence, and language aptitude of each learner are also different. Many learners still lack the necessary skills and English speaking strategies that would enable them to learn new study skills and how to search for the information they need. Furthermore, many of these students cannot use English in "real situations" efficiently. In additions, learners still have problems of learning new vocabularies so it is difficult for them to comprehend the text because the context of lessons are not related to their lived experiences. The learning that emerges in this situation is not meaningful and learners' roles in English classes are limited to just sitting and answering questions posed to them.

The purpose of this research was thus informed by the concept that teaching English through communicative language teaching (CLT) that uses local cultural content may be an interesting perspective on English language teaching and learning.

Research questions

Considering the importance of English speaking ability and local cultural knowledge, this study aimed to develop students' English speaking ability and students' local cultural knowledge. The researcher thus attempts to find answers to the following questions:

- 1. To what extend does CLT through local cultural content affect the English-speaking ability of Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University students?
- 2. To what extend does CLT through local cultural content promote local cultural knowledge of the Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University students?

Objectives of the Study

The purposes of this study were:

- 1. To examine the effects of CLT through local cultural content on student's English speaking ability.
- 2. To investigate the effects of CLT through local cultural content on students' local cultural knowledge.

Framework of the Study

This study is pre-experimental research. The research employed the one-group pre- and post-test experimental design which compared the English speaking ability and local cultural knowledge of one sample group before and after the intervention. The independent variable is CLT through local cultural content and the dependent variables are the students' English speaking ability and local cultural knowledge as measured by an English speaking ability and local cultural knowledge tests.

Hypotheses

- 1. The post-test mean scores on English speaking ability of students who learn through CLT using local cultural content are higher than the pre-test mean scores at the significance level of 0.05.
- 2. The post-test mean scores on English speaking ability of students who learn through CLT using local cultural content are higher than the standard score (at 60%) at the significance level of 0.05.
- 3. The post-test mean scores on local cultural knowledge of students who learn through CLT using local cultural content are higher than the pre-test mean scores at the significance level of 0.05.
- 4. The post-test mean scores on local cultural knowledge of students who learn through CLT using local cultural are higher than the standard score (at 60%) at the significance level of 0.05.

Methodology

Population and samples

The population was comprised of third-year English major students at Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University enrolled in the first semester of the academic year 2010. The students were grouped according to their concentration: English Program (B.A), Business English Program (B.A), and English Education Major Program (B.Ed). The sample population consisted of 32 undergraduate students majoring in Business English at Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University. They were purposively selected from the third year Business English program students enrolled in English for local tourism course. The study was part of an English course in the regular curriculum and was conducted in 36 hours.

Instrumentation

There were two categories of research instruments: those instruments used in the research procedure, and those instruments used in data collection. The instruments used in the research procedure were 12 lesson plans for CLT through local cultural content. The instruments used in data collection were English speaking ability test, local cultural knowledge test and learner's diary. The criteria used in scoring were pragmatic speaking tests of the Foreign Service Institute Oral Interview (FSI) (Oller, 1979: 320-323). The local cultural knowledge test consisted of 50 multiple-choice questions. The learner's diary was used to find out students' reflection on learning through CLT with local cultural content.

Data collection

The data were collected during the first semester of the 2010 academic year. The whole experiment lasted for 12 weeks. Prior to CLT through local cultural content, the English speaking ability and local cultural knowledge pre-test were employed to the students to assess students' English speaking ability and local cultural knowledge. Then, students participated in CLT through local cultural content for 12 weeks. At the end of the instruction, the students were post-tested with the English speaking ability and local cultural knowledge tests to examine the effects of CLT through

local cultural content on students' English speaking ability and local cultural knowledge. Furthermore, students also wrote the learner's diary at the end of every lesson.

Data analysis

To test the hypotheses, the mean scores of the pre- and post-test of the experiment group were compared by using t-test (Paired samples test) and the mean scores of post-test of the experiment group and the standard score (at 60%) were compared by using t-test (one sample t-test). The data from the learner's diary was analyzed by using content analysis.

Results

To answer the research questions, this section describes the results from pre- and post-test English speaking ability test and local cultural knowledge test.

Research question 1: To what extend does CLT through local cultural content affect English speaking ability of Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University students?

The instrument used to answer research question 1 was an English speaking ability test. The total score was 99 and the passing score was set at 60 percent. When the first hypothesis was tested, the results showed that the mean score of the students' English speaking ability on post-test of each aspect: accent, grammar, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension were higher than pre-test mean score with the statistically significance at the 0.05 level. In addition, the overall aspects mean score of the students' English speaking ability post-test were higher than pre-test mean score with the statistically significance at the 0.05 level. The results from pre-test and post-test mean scores, standard deviations, t-values, and statistical significance were presented in Tables 1 below.

Aspects of	Score	Before	After	MD	S.D.	t	sig
speaking ability		\overline{X}	\overline{X}				
1. Accent	6	2.906	4.172	1.265	.635	11.28	.000*
2. Grammar	24	12.188	16.375	4.188	1.635	14.49	.000*
3. Vocabulary	24	11.250	16.563	5.313	1.874	16.04	.000*
4. Fluency	21	9.703	14.344	4.640	1.765	14.87	.000*
5. Comprehension	24	11.719	17.063	5.344	1.753	17.25	.000*
Total	99	47.766	68.516	20.750	3.935	29.83	.000*
*n < 05							

Table 1 Comparison of mean score from the students' English speaking ability in

five aspects before and after the experiment

p < .05

When the second hypothesis was tested in order to confirm that the mean score of English speaking post-test of the experiment group was significantly higher than the standard score (at 60%) at the 0.05 level, the mean score of each aspect and overall aspects were compared using one sample t-test. The results showed that the mean score of the students' English speaking ability on post-test of each aspect: accent, grammar, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension were higher than the standard score (at 60%) with the statistically significance at the 0.05 level. In addition, the overall aspects mean score of the students' English speaking ability post-test were higher than the standard score (at 60%) with the statistically significance at the 0.05 level. The students' post-test mean scores, standard deviations, t-values, and statistical significance were presented in Table 2.

Aspects of	Score	After	Percentage	S.D.	t	sig
speaking ability		\overline{X}				
1. Accent	6	4.172	69.53	.747	4.33	.000*
2. Grammar	24	16.375	68.23	2.893	3.86	.000*
3. Vocabulary	24	16.563	69.01	2.699	4.53	.000*
4. Fluency	21	14.344	68.30	2.592	3.80	.000*
5. Comprehension	24	17.063	71.09	2.271	6.63	.000*
Total	99	68.516	69.23	9.786	5.26	.000*

Table 2 Comparison of the students' English speaking ability post-test means score in five aspects with the standard score (at 60%).

*p < .05

Research question 2: To what extend does CLT through local cultural content improve local cultural knowledge of Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University students?

The instrument used to answer research question 2 was the local cultural knowledge test. The test consisted of 50 multiple-choice questions. The total score was 50 and the passing score was set at 60 percent. The results from mean comparison found that students earned a higher local culture knowledge post-test mean score ($\overline{X} = 34.438$) than a pre-test mean score ($\overline{X} = 20.969$).

When the third hypothesis was tested it was found that the mean score of the students' local cultural knowledge post-test were higher than pre-test mean score with the statistically significance at the 0.05 level. The results from pre-test and post-test mean scores, standard deviations, t-values, and statistical significance were presented in Tables 3 below.

Table 3 Comparison of mean scores from pre and post local cultural knowledge test

 of the experiment group

Mode of assessment	\overline{X}	MD	S.D.	t	sig
Before	20.969	13.469	4.439	27.38	.00*
After	34.438		6.221		
* 05					

*p < .05

When the fourth hypothesis was tested to confirm that the mean score of the local cultural knowledge post-test of the experiment group was significantly higher than the standard score (at 60%) at the 0.05 level, the mean score of local cultural knowledge post-test were compared using one sample t-test. The results showed that the mean score of the students' local cultural knowledge post-test were higher than the standard score (at 60%) with the statistically significance at the 0.05 level. The students' post-test mean scores, standard deviations, t-values, and statistical significance were presented in Table 4.

Mode of assessment	Criteria	$\frac{\text{After}}{\overline{X}}$	Percentage	S.D.	t	sig
Local cultural knowledge post-test	60	34.438	68.91	6.221	4.03	.00*
*p < .05						

Table 4 Comparison of the students' local cultural knowledge post-test means score with
the standard score (at 60%).

Results from qualitative data

The data from the learner's diary was analyzed by using content analysis. The researcher read all the learner's diary that the students reflected their knowledge, language skills and local culture then placed them into three categories: knowledge, speaking skill and attitude towards learning English through CLT using local cultural content. The findings revealed that students reflected their feelings, opinions towards learning English through CLT using local cultural content which promoted their English speaking ability and local cultural knowledge as the following topics:

1. Knowledge

Students think that learning through the developed lesson plans supported them to gain knowledge from the language situations, understand their local culture and are able to use English in daily life and their future careers. The knowledge from the language situations showed that students participated in the activities; especially new vocabularies about local culture. Students think that the situations are closed or related to their lives so the lessons made learning easier. Students could use their prior knowledge or experience to speak in the classroom. Students also think that learning English is not as boring as before as showed in their reflection below:

"I have learnt English a lot from the lessons especially new vocabularies in the dialogues. For example I just know that 'fermented fish' means "לומול in Thai. If I see another word

such as 'fermented vegetables', I will know the meaning. So I have more knowledge to communicate with other people."

"The situations of each lesson are related to our lives. We learn from listening, reading, speaking and writing about something around us."

"Although we are Khorat locals but we have never learnt our local culture and local wisdom in English class before. The lessons made me know that we have a lot of wonderful things around our city."

"Learning English through the local cultural context is easy to understand because I already have some experience about the topic. I've already known how to make Khorat stir-fried rice noodles. There is not difficult to understand the directions of how to cook Kharat stirfried rice noodles."

"I have learnt the background of our local culture, cultural tourist attractions and ways of life of Khorat people. I think I could use this knowledge in daily life."

"If I have a chance to talk with foreigners about local culture, I think I have enough knowledge and vocabularies to talk with them confidently."

"Learning local culture in English is suitable for me because I hope to be a tourist guide in the future."

2. Speaking skill

Students think that learning through CLT using local cultural content can promote and develop English language skills especially speaking skill. They reflected their thinking as showed in their reflection below:

"I have learned a lot of new vocabularies about Nakhon Ratchasima local culture so I can talk about local tourist attractions in our city. And it is a good opportunity to disseminate our local culture worldwide."

"Practice speaking through local cultural content made me feel that speaking English is not to difficult to do."

"The comprehension about our local culture really help me to speak English more fluently" "Talking about the things around us made my speak fluently."

3. Attitude

Students think that learning through CLT using local cultural content can promote students' attitude towards learning English. They reflected their feelings that they like the varieties of learning activities, learning atmosphere, local cultural content around their town and they also enjoyed learning through the activities arranged by the teacher. They reflected their thinking about learning activities, and local cultural content as showed in their reflection below:

"I have learned not only the language but also the local culture at the same time.

The lessons are not boring. It's a good idea that students could let the teacher know what he or she think about the learning activities through the learners' diary."

"I think that students should begin learning English through local cultural content from the primary level until university level because it is necessary content that students should know."

"Learning from the local cultural content made me proud of our local culture and aware of the value of local culture."

"It's worth learning about our local wisdom especially the silk weaving procedure."

From the samples of students' reflection about knowledge, language skills and attitude towards learning English through local culture found that the communicative learning activities and local cultural content could promote and develop students' speaking ability and students' local cultural knowledge. The reason for this is that students' background knowledge is an important part of speaking ability. Practic speaking through local cultural content is then related to students' real lives and it is also conducive to meaningful learning. Thus the conclusion of this study is that the improvement of speaking ability and local cultural knowledge of the students come from the integrating CLT through local cultural content appropriately.

Discussion

This section discusses the results of the study along with the literature review. The answers to the two research questions showing the improvement of students' speaking ability and local cultural knowledge were discussed.

Research question 1:

The first research questions was "To what extend does CLT through local cultural content affect English speaking ability of Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University students?" The findings consist of two parts: The comparison of mean score from the students' English speaking ability in five aspects before and after the experiment and the comparison of the students' English speaking ability post-test means score in five aspects with the standard score (at 60%).

The implementation of CLT through local cultural content in this study had an effect on students' English speaking ability. The results of this study support the first hypothesis that the post-test mean score on English speaking ability of students who learn through CLT using local cultural content are higher than the pre-test mean score at the significance level of 0.05; and students' speaking ability was increased from level 2 to level 3 according to FSI criteria. The results of this study also supports the second hypothesis: that the post-test mean scores on English speaking ability of students who learn through CLT using local cultural content are higher than the standard score (at 60%) at the significance level of 0.05. It was concluded that this method significantly improved students' speaking ability. The learning procedure together with local cultural material was important in enhancing their speaking abilities. The success of CLT through local cultural content increased students' speaking abilities was discussed as follows.

First of all, the characteristics of CLT activities were interesting, which confirms the principles and characteristics of CLT and the introduction of authentic texts into the earning situation stated by Nunan (1990), Littlewood (1981) and Richards and Rodger (2003). Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities. CLT emphasizes learning English through communication in the realistic situation and meaningful context through functional communicative activities and social interaction activities. The learning activities were authentic, experiential, and career-related. In other words, the activities were meaningful and relevant to students' lives. The use and practice of local cultural content in the real context enabled them to conduct the speaking activities confidently.

Secondly, background knowledge about local culture could help and assist the students practice speaking English in meaningful context. Because local cultural materials tended to be familiar to them, learning through local cultural topics such as the information about the city, local foods, local wisdom, ways of life, significant people and cultural attractions could activate their prior knowledge. Students could then bring their previous knowledge about local culture of the province to the language classroom. For example, student A states that "Learning English through the local cultural context is easy to understand because I already have some experience about the topics. There is not difficult to understand the directions of how to cook Khorat stir-fried rice noodles. This comprehension really helped me to speak English more fluently."

Background knowledge subsequently helped them produce more content in speaking. At the same time this knowledge also helped them improve comprehension and interpretation in listening language activities and reading texts. These findings were relevant to previous literature review, based on principles to support English language learning and teaching. Ausubel (1968) believed that learning must be meaningful to be effective and permanent. The meaningful material must be related to existing knowledge that the learner already possesses. The results supported the previous studies of Boonsue (2003), Thipdang (2006) and Rueangmanee (2006).

In summary, CLT activities together with local cultural materials appear to be helpful tool for language learning in the classroom. The students in this study were exposed to real-world type circumstances in a variety of situation; in this way, they gained knowledge by practicing and creating sentences to improve their speaking ability. In addition, the students enjoyed the language class more than the typical class, resulting in a positive attitude towards English learning.

Research question 2:

For the second research questions was "To what extend does CLT through local cultural content promote local cultural knowledge of Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University students?" The findings consist of two parts: The comparison of mean scores from pre- and post- local cultural knowledge test of the experiment group and the comparison of the students' local cultural knowledge post-test means score with the standard score (at 60%).

The implementation of CLT through local cultural content in this study had an effect on students' local cultural knowledge. The results of this study supports the third hypothesis that the post-test mean scores on local cultural knowledge of students who learn through CLT using local cultural content are higher than the pre-test mean score at the significance level of 0.05. The results of this study also supports the fourth hypothesis that the post-test mean scores on local cultural knowledge of students who learn through CLT using local cultural content are higher than the standard score (at 60%) at the significance level of 0.05. It was concluded that CLT through local cultural content significantly improved students' local cultural knowledge. The learning procedure together with local cultural material was important to help enhancing their local cultural knowledge. This finding was in agreement with the study of Rattanaphumma (2006) and Lornklang (2007) that the success of CLT through local cultural content increased students' local cultural knowledge was discussed as follows.

First of all, language cannot be separated from the products, practices, perspectives, communities, and persons of the culture. To practice the culture, one also needs language. One needs to be able to express oneself and to communicate with members of the culture as one engages with them in the myriad practices and products that make up one's way of life (Moran, 2001). Secondly, according to schema theory that in comprehending language people activate relevant schemata allowing them to process and interpret new experiences quickly and effectively. Schemata serve as a reference store from which a person can retrieve relevant existing knowledge and into which new information is assimilated. When encountering a topic in reading or listening, the reader activates the schema for that topic and makes use of it to anticipate, infer, and make different kinds of judgements and decisions about it (Richard and Schmidt: 2002). This means the prior knowledge about local cultural content could help and promote students to learn and understand the local cultural component in English language teaching can promote both English language skills and one's own culture.

Conclusion

This study showed that CLT through local cultural content was very effective in enhancing students' speaking ability and students' local cultural knowledge; therefore English teachers in Thailand should consider conducting this kind of instruction and materials in their class. Since communicative ability is the goal for English class, implementing CLT through local cultural content in English class is worth considering. English teachers can apply CLT through local cultural cultural content as a whole or integrate the concept in other kinds of communicative activities.

Implications

Based on the grounded concepts, theories, and notions used in constructing the lesson plans and the results from the back-up research, it is hoped that the study will lend itself to the benefits of Thai university students as well as teachers. The findings may provide useful implications for English language teaching and learning. For teachers, it will be an alternative way of selecting or creating material, which is worth trying and experiencing. As for the students, it is believed that through the support from teachers and their cooperative efforts in group and paired activities based on local cultural content, they will not only improve their speaking performance, but also increase local cultural knowledge.

Recommendations for further research

The recommendations for further research include four points. First, further research should be conducted with the primary or secondary level to see whether CLT through local cultural content can help students improve their speaking ability or not. Second, further research should study the relationship between CLT through local cultural content and other skills such as writing skills. Third, researchers should study other specific purposes in authentic situations such as One Tambon One Product (OTOP), tour guide, receptionist together with communicative activities. Fourth, English Education Major Program (B.Ed) which aims at in-dept training in language teaching methodologies should include material development based on local cultural content of each area.

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Exploring Culture and Religion in Literacy

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Abstract

This paper is an ethnographical study to ascertain if code-switching and mixing are highly linked to the cultural and religious background where a child emerges. In particular, the subject of this study, a male child, comes from an English-speaking background but has ethnic roots entrenched in the Chinese culture and Buddhism/Taoism in Singapore. Examples of the subject's literacy texts and transcripts of his language use acquired in the research project will be displayed to illustrate the close linkage between use of the English language and his linguistic background. Research results suggest that the child code-mixes and switches immediately to Mandarin when referring to Buddhist¹/Taoist² related deities such as *Kuanyin* and *Dua Pek Gong* as well as relevant objects. Innovative pedagogical implications suggest the inclusion of cultural material and interactive videos in the process of English language teaching. Lexis and sentence structures of the child's speech production will be presented in this session. These materials could be presented in English, yet relevant to the divine practices that children can relate to induce a higher motivational learning curve in relation to learning the English language.

Introduction

This section discusses the rationale of why this paper on literacy practices a child at the age of six years old, in a Singapore primary school, is being undertaken and how these practices are affected by the religious practices of his parents, namely his mother. In general there exists a common belief that the Taoist religion is closely tied up with the Chinese language and its culture. I am interested in finding out to what extent literacy media in their simplified version can convey educational yet interesting values to children at the primary school level of education.

Research Questions and Theoretical Framework

Fishman (2006: 15) has noted that "religious languages/varieties are more stable than others and impact their secular counterparts more than the latter do the former". Within this theoretical perspective is the indication that there are indeed words that are naturally considered to be that of a certain "religion", and religion is frequently associated with the culture which practices the religion. The study is motivated by this theoretical perspective to explore the use of language in a six year old boy who studies in a Catholic school but has developed distinctive language patterns of Chinese influence from Buddhism and Taoism, who has introduced the boy to the religions via frequent visits to the temple.

My discussion is based on ethnographical data collected while going out with this boy and his mother. My research goal was to ascertain if there were a link in the lexis used that could be influenced by the media and books relevant to Taoism/Buddhism found in the boy's home. I intend to explore the idea that religious words are indeed borrowed for use in the context of secular activities such as video gaming and lunching at a restaurant in contrast with a more religious place such as the temple. Would there be a greater instance of code-switching to the Chinese language by virtue of the fact that the mother and son are visiting a Chinese temple? Would there be more lexical items such as "lucky" instead of the word "blessed" which might be more likely used by a

Christian child? Are the lexical patters more relevant to the Chinese religion practiced in Singapore, in contrast with other types of religions that are practiced in Singapore?

Research questions are formulated in relation to Fishman's (2006) theoretical framework which postulates that religious languages are more stable than some other language varieties. I explore if words used by the six year old boy in his religion is not only borrowed from the Chinese language, but if the lexicon he uses has an association with his predominant religious influence, which is Taoism/Buddhism. Some of the research questions are:

- How does the lexicon used by a six year old boy correlate with the language "associated with" the religion that the child practices?
- How does the language policy of *English as a First Language* have an impact on sacred (Syncretic Buddhist) practices?

Before these research questions can be answered, there is a need to address the questions that might arise in readers' minds, i.e., is language associated with a religion at all, or is the language of religion universal? After all, if the divine were to exist, would it not be more appropriate to assume that the divine is omnipotent enough to answer the prayers offered in various languages, regardless of the religion? There is, however, still this practice of visiting a Chinese temple in Singapore, and the author finds that devotees have to translate their non-Chinese names to the Romanised version of Chinese before thanksgiving rites to deities and buddhas can be conducted. A translator is present and readily completes the translation of English names to Chinese equivalents before the religious rites are conducted. Is this not a strong indication of the great bond between the Chinese language with the religion of Taoism and (Mahayana) Buddhism in Singapore? This practice occurs despite the widespread translation and import of Buddhist books in English print in very recent years, i.e., 2005-present.

The types of available books or media available and appropriate for this boy, coupled with motherese from his mother, frames the discussion of religious literacy that is generally developed within a Taoist/Buddhist child and observable via discussion with him or her. We examine how the English language is shifted as a result of the child's religious background at the following places:

- Ma Maison Restaurant, the child's favourite restaurant, where he was much more relaxed and could talk more naturally.
- The temple
- Video gaming arcade
- Supermarket
- His home, where the media literacy texts that he used and the Buddhist-related items could be observed.

Brief Background of the Chinese Religions in Singapore

In Singapore, there is often a fusion of the practices of Buddhist and Taoist religions, so much so that both the older folk and the younger generation thinks that there is hardly any difference between the two types of religion. Strictly speaking, however, a person who practices Buddhism does not worship any God, but rather, it is a way of life that would eventually lead a person to a higher state of evolvement and eventually Nirvana. Taoism, on the other hand, involves the worship of different deities and the highest order of such a God or Deity being the Yellow Jade Emperor. Taoism, particularly started in China and Buddhism had its roots in both China and India. Initially, Taoism focused on a way of life, but the religion evolved to an extent that Taoist practice involves worship of deities and God, such as the Kitchen God, Goddess of Mercy (Kuanyin) and Heavenly Emperor (Yu Huang Da Di).

Participant Background

The subject's mother (Mme N) proclaims to be a Buddhist whose parents grew up praying to the Yellow Jade Emperor (a Taoist practice). Initially, she preferred to visit at an ad hoc basis because her husband does not really believe in religion. However, during the birth of her third son Mme N was bleeding, and she became convinced that the comfort of having Goddess Kuanyin's photo by her side and chanting *Om mani pad me hum* (a mantra that was taught by her friend) helped pull her through the ordeal and deliver her child safely. Because of this, Mme N tries to make a monthly visit to the temple whenever possible, taking her eldest son with her. Mme N has agreed to participate in this qualitative research as she wants to share the literacy practices that she has with others, practices which are tied to the religious practices of her family. The participants in this background are aware of both the practices of praying to the Heavenly Jade Emperor (Yu Huang Da Di) and God of Wealth (Dua Pek Gong). In addition, they pray to Lord Buddha of the Future (Rulai Fozu) and Goddess Kuanyin (also known as Goddess Avalokitsevara) and are very much aware of Lord Buddha Shakyamuni.

Data Collection

Mme N and I arranged to have several short sessions of conversation whereby the child and I could interact and I could ask questions, so we could examine his tape-recorded language to ascertain if his lexicon correlates with the religious background.

Apart from revealing how much his language was influenced by his religion, I was also interested to know about his contact with the religion and how much he knew about it. We went to five places to collect the data: lunch at Ma Maison in Bugis Junction, the temple, the video arcade, the supermarket, and finally, the child's home. There were reasons for sequencing the sessions in different orders as such. Initially we had to have lunch before moving on to the temple because the child was more animated and willing to speak to a stranger (i.e., the interviewer) after eating his favorite spaghetti. The video arcade was to be arranged after the temple and there was an important reason for doing so: the child needed to be coaxed into knowing that there was a reward as a result of going to the temple before he was able to agree to be interviewed on his literacy practices based on religion. This has important implications on the views of youth towards the religion of Taoism and Buddhism, which I will discuss in the implications section of this paper.

In addition, the supermarket shopping session was necessary for the ethnographic observation of how Mme N and her child actually talked to each other using Colloquial Singapore English, with some code-mixing in the conversation. It was interesting to observe how mother and child enjoyed the informal session together, using a lexicon that was observably relevant to the religion in question, before, during, and after the temple visit. It was also interesting to note that the child viewed temple visiting or the worship as a "waste of time" and grumbled about it while walking to the temple with his mother, but obediently observed the rituals and prayed for his wishes once he was there. The final part of the data collection took place in the home of the mother and child, where I had the opportunity to observe books that contributed to his knowledge of religion. One was entitled "Journey to the West", based on mythological creatures, the Goddess of Mercy, as well as the Rulai Buddha, the latter two of whom are found in almost every temple in Singapore. Another book was the "Kungfu Panda", which has connotations of moral values based on Chinese history and ethics.

A Child's Understanding of Taoism/Buddhism as a Result of Literacy Text

Journey to the West

I was observed that the child uses code-mixing and switching consistently in his conversation particularly when he is referring to the deities in his culture, for instance, the Goddess of Mercy (Kuanyin Niang Niang).

Let us examine the transcript below to observe how the child viewed certain characters In Taoism/Buddhism and the language that he used as a result of conveying his understanding of the subject. In the dialogue, "C" represents the child's speech, "M" represents the mother's speech and "I" represents my speech.

- C: There are two humans and two animal gods...also got...there are two humans, one human rides a horse and the other one doesn't although he wears a string and shovel...the other one, the other two are animals, the pig one has black suit and black armour has also belly button
- *I:* You even remember how they look like
- *C*: Yeah but the[c.u.t] has a very shiny armour...the shoulders here are golden and then the rest the part is red and then the buttons are golden,
- I: Oh
- *C: He also has a crown and a weapon,*
- I: A crown?
- *C*: An underwater weapon
- I: I see.. yeah when he say[c.u.t] he means Sun Wu Kong.. I kind of caught that
- *M*: *He also...partly...because at home I have taught this...[..?] he wanted, there was one afternoon..[..?].*

One can observe throughout the thread of conversation that the child is interested in the fighting and warrior aspects of the myth of *Journey to the West*, a story that has long captivated the hearts of children in Singapore because of its fantasy nature of involving mythological creatures, fairies, and deities. It is interesting that rather than directly tell children about what Taoism/Buddhism is really all about, parents in Singapore who are Taoists/Buddhists prefer to use books and videos of this nature to relate the story of Taoism/Buddhism, as well as in an effort for the children to better understand the Chinese culture.

The child uses terms such as "Monkey God" and "Pig God", and even the words "Human God". Given the fact that this child is primarily English speaking due to the fact that he attends from a Catholic primary school, it is indeed noteworthy that he does not use the word "shen" after the entity to indicate the nature of a "deity" who is referred to as a certain type of "God". For instance in Taoism, there is a particular deity called "Cai Shen Ye" or "Tai Sui Ye Shen". The word "shen" means "deity" but to the Chinese, a deity has "God-like" features such as the ability to live in a different realm and to answer prayers in a powerful manner. This is the reason why "Taoism" is also known as "Shenism". Coming back to the theoretical perspective borrowed from Fishman, it is also possible that adding "God" to the Chinese words helps to explain the direct translation from a child's perspective. He uses a descriptive adjective as a pre-modifier to the type of deity, for

instance The Monkey God, The Pig God, The Ox God, and when it came to describing Tripitaka, a Buddhist monk who eventually became Buddha rather than God, he used the term "The Human God" in the literature *Journey to the West*.

Of InterestIinstances of Code Mixing

In the course of conversation

- I: What's that?
- M: Show Aunty, go...baibai song
- B: Baibai song
- I: The baibai song? ("Prayer")
- B: Yeah
- I: Baibai song, that's interesting. What does it mean Yangyang, what is baibai song?
- B: Baibai song is baibai song
- C: Liangyang it's kawkaw's ("Brother" in Chinese) robot
- I: Can you turn it louder?
- M: Pass to Aunty
- **B**: No not louder I'm scared
- M: Press this to change the song
- I: Scared?
- M: He finds it scary
- C: I switched
- M: This one seems to be faster
- B: Aunty, I found this one
- M: Nautilus
- C: You know about nautilus; this is a picture of a nautilus
- M: This is the Guanyin Niang Niang this is the third tune
- I: This is the Guanyin; there are different tunes you mean?
- M: Yeah there are
- C: I love the 2^{nd} one
- I: Which one?
- C: This is the 2^{nd} one I love this. Don't you have a picture of you?
- *I:* Which one? Yeah. In my bridal grown. Wait I take a photo of this first. Let me ask you, you said you like the 2nd song, why? What does it make you feel?
- C: I don't know, when I hear this I just think about my grandmother; my mother's mother
- I: You think of your grandma, your mother's mother when you listen to this, why is that so?
- C: I don't know, because I hear the words 'popo'
- I: Oh 'popo' I see, I see , ok
- M: I didn't realise
- *I:* How do you feel? What are your feelings when you listen to the song?
- C: I don't know

I: You are happy, contented, peaceful ; you need help?

In the course of many conversations with both the subject and his mother, it was noted that both of them code-mixed a fair amount when it came to **speaking about** the religion, but not actually when it came to other matters. Both the subject and his mother came from Catholic schools where English was the first language. This has been the situation since the 1980s when the Singapore government implimented the policy of English as a First Language. Despite the fact that English has been designated as a first language, it is noteworthy that every time the child code-mixes with a Chinese word, this is usually a word relevant to the religion. This highlights and reaffirms the theoretical framework that Fishman (2006) has put forth in terms of language stability of religions. A very clear example is why was C's and M's first instinct to call it the "Bai Bai" song and not the "Prayer Song", even though their standard of English is relatively high. The words "Bai Bai" are indicative of the Chinese religion Shenism, where the act of offering jossticks or any form of communication with the deities (shen) is called "Bai Shen" where "bai" means "pray".

In reality, we are not supposed to Bai Shen the way we worship a Buddha. However, this is one instance where the lexicon of "Baishen" is borrowed from Taoism and used in Buddhism, such that the buddhas are viewed as "deities" and worshipped in the same manner as well. This is true of many households in Singapore, and even the Goddess of Mercy, a goddess who is well known in Chinese history as a deity, is half-known as a sub-category of Buddha, i.e., Bodhisattva.

Doubling of nouns bai-bai

The repetition of the noun bai in the manner of bai-bai is common child-talk in Singapore. It connotes a sense of affection, and is presumably borrowed from the Chinese Language. It was noteworthy however that during the conversation, the child did not use Chinese words at all but he only used such words in the context of referring to the praying object such as the musical chant. Below is a picture of the musical chant that enabled the child to sleep at night.

- C: And this is the extra arms there are two arms but they are in different places so it can attack anytime when the guy is close to this part then he will use this hand and these are weapons and this one has no hands
- I: What's that?
- M: Show Aunty, go..baibai song
- **B**: Baibai song
- *I: The baibai song?*
- **B**: Yeah
- I: Baibai song, that's interesting. What does it mean Liangyang, what is baibai song?
- B: Baibai song is baibai song
- C: Liangyang it's kawkaw's (brother's) robot
- *I*: Can you turn it louder?
- M: Pass to Aunty
- B: No not louder I'm scared
- M: Press this to change the song
- I: Scared?
- M: He finds it scary
- C: I switched
- M: This one seems to be faster

- B: Aunty, I found this one
- M: Nautilus
- C: You know about nautilus; this is a picture of a nautilus
- M: This is the Guanyin Niang Niang this is the third tune
- I: This is the Guanyin; there are different tunes you mean?
- M: Yeah there are
- C: I love the 2^{nd} one
- I: Which one?
- C: This is the 2nd one I love this. Don't you have a picture of you?
- *I:* Which one? Yeah. In my bridal grown. Wait I take a photo of this first. Let me ask you, you said you like the 2nd song, why? What does it make you feel?
- C: I don't know, when I hear this I just think about my grandmother; my mother's mother
- I: You think of your grandma, your mother's mother when you listen to this, why is that so?
- C: I don't know, because I hear the words 'popo'
- I: Oh 'popo' I see, I see , ok



The child has acknowledged that this is one song that soothes him at night and yet makes him scared when played louder. The reason for his fright is perhaps the song that is emitted from the musical box is "Ambitapho" which is a Buddhist chant that is also sung at funerals in Singapore. The subject is typical of many children in Singapore whereby there is little exposure to religion other than attending temples once a week (sometimes for free food or free gifts) but without much explanation of what chants such as Ambitapho mean. The last word "pho" (sometimes known as "fo" in Romanized form as in Fozu- Lord Buddha) is also the word written on the box seen in the figure above, and it sounds phonemically similar to "popo" which means grandmother. Once again, we see evidence of child language whereby there is an extension of the noun so that there is an element of affection in the double noun formation known so well amongst the Chinese as well as Singaporeans who borrow the lexical items from Mandarin into the English language.

Child's Knowledge of Religion

Below is a transcript to reflects that via conversation the relationship between the child's explaining of the religion and his use of the Chinese language to convey his thoughts.

C:Jambu fishball C:These are all baby books I: You must read, very interesting. Do you know why this guy I: Do you know what happened in the end? You only read the goes around zooming around everywhere beginning C:I don't know C:Yeah I: Ok he trying to travel to the west with his friend, the Pig and I: What happened in the end? Do you know why they went to the Ox the West? C:Is this Mr Ox? C:I don't know I: This is human god like what you said but he's not really a I: Do you know who is this guy? do you remember you were human god, he is called a human going to be Buddha praying Guanyin Niang Niang and this guy is behind Guanyin C·Oh Niang Niang that's the guy in [c.u.t]. M:that's Lai Fo .. I: Yeah very interesting book, I also like [c.u.t] I: The lord Buddha, the lord of all Buddhas C:This is the pig god. I've made a sculpture of the pig god before C:This god is very big I: Really where is it? There Guanyin Niang Niang I: These are all the Buddhas, the different types of Buddhas so they are not really gods

Discussion

Many youths in Singapore are unaware of the concepts of Taoism and Buddhism, even though they may be older than the child featured in this paper. We have observed that the linguistic structures produced by the child are partly the socialization influence of the Chinese language, and partly the religious influence that results in the linguistic repertoire that he possesses today. For instance, if we are discussing Catholicism, it is almost impossible to envisage children of the same age calling Mother Mary "The Mary Goddess" or "Fairy Mary", or "Jesus God" or "Gabriel God" (Gabriel the saint). The reason for this is that in Christianity and in Islam there is only one God and the other figures cannot be called "a kind of God". This is dissimilar to the folk religions which are similar to it such as Hinduism. As Sapir Whorf (1940) once mentioned, "language reflects reality", and the existence of the words "Monkey God" and "Human God" truly reflects the existence of many different deities or divine beings in the religion of Taoism and Hinduism where there are generally no equivalent in other religions.

Coming back to the theoretical framework of Fishman's theory that religious language is indeed more stable than other forms of languages, we can understand why the six year old child extends the language of "Monkey God" or "Pig God" in his own language. This is despite the fact that his primary language is English and not Mandarin. The proper way to address deities, Buddha and Bodhisattva are as follows, in the Chinese language popularly used in Singapore and certain parts of Asia.

Yu Huang Da Di	The Heavenly God		
Dua Pek Kong (Shen)	The Dua Pek Gong Deity (governing money)		
Sun Wu Kong (Da Sheng- which mean.	s Sage) The Monkey Deity (note: there is also a monkey described in Hindu scriptures very similar to this monkey sage and is assumed to be the same deity in some cultures. He is called "Lord Hanuman" in Hinduism).		
Hu Ye	The Tiger Deity (to stop defamation by others)		
Tai Sui Ye	Deity in charge of Wealth, Health and Luck		
Er Lang Shen	A Warring Deity with a Third Eye		
Guan Yin Niang Niang/Fo			

The Goddess of Mercy (note that it is interesting they do not call her "The Bodhisattva of Mercy", which means that the lexis of Goddess and Bodhisattva are now intermixed internationally).

Rulai Fozu	The Buddha of the Future
Shikyamoni Fo	The Shikyamoni Buddha

Having examined the data based on a the child, a closer look at the lexis of the Chinese language will lead us to conclude that most deities are called "Ye" and "Gong" – such as Dua Pek Gong the God of Wealth" (a grandfatherly and respectable form of addressing to a nobleman) or "Shen" (which simply means "deity"). The term "Fo" means "Buddha". However, to make it simple, when translating to English, many children and even adults like to end with the word "God" or "Goddess", even if the entity such as Guan Yin is supposed to be a Bodhisattva and not a Goddess. In addition, as a side-note, we notice that in Hinduism, the deities are often called "Lord XX". For instance, "Lord Hanuman", "Lord Vishnu", etc. This is similar to the use of "The Lord" in Christianity, except of course, the lords in Hinduism are much more specific than the one and only Lord that is known in Christianity. This could be due to long colonial rule in India of the British (where the majority believed in Christianity), whereas China (where Singaporean ancestors originated) had little such influence.

Conclusion

The implementation of English as a first language in a multi-religious, and multicultural society such as Singapore has caused the child to develop methods of conveying linguistic structures learnt from motherese as well as influence from his own cultural religion. The subject is typical of many children in Singapore who know hardly anything about Buddhism or Taosim, and yet are born in such a family where Chinese folk religion has become a tradition of offering incense to ancestors and Taoist deities such as Dua Pek Gong yet attending temples and praying to the Bodhisattva Guanyin and Buddha Rulai. Chew (2010) has noted that the youth these days go to the temples because their ancestors/parents do so, and not because they have the heart to, or truly understand the reasons behind going to the temple. In the course of my observation of the subject in this ethnographic study, I have recorded him saying that going to the temple is "a waste of time" as he much preferred to get it over and done with to play video games. Nonetheless, when he was at the temple itself, he was all-respectful and knew that he had to use three joss-stick incense to offer these to the Buddha/Bodhisattva and knew how to ask for wishes of well-being for his brother.

Unfortunately, he had not known why he had to make constant visits to the temple (other than receiving sweets) and he had not known about consequences of being a "good" or "bad" person in relation to the religion itself, as was evidenced in the earlier dialogue transcripts. My recommendation is that similar to church services and catechism classes held in Singapore, there would hopefully be more mandatory services in the form of holding sermons to share with the youths of Singapore the reasons behind religious practices to enhance the knowledge of Taoist/Buddhist youths.

The code-mixing and double-noun constructions produced by the child subject support the theoretical framework of Fishman, particularly on the point that features of religious languages hold stable and strong to the point that they are carried over to the ordinary conversations of people in everyday life. There is indeed evidence of the Sapir Whorf Hypothesis that the language one uses reflects the reality that he or she experiences, for instance, the use of the words "Monkey God" and "Pig God" is a very strong manifestation that this child has strong Taoist/Buddhist influence and not influence from other religions

where it might not be even acceptable to acknowledge that indeed there is more than one God. I hope that this leads to further future research on more language aspects that are distinctive in a person's speech and writing as a result of his or her religion.

Pedagogical Implications

In order to teach children of this age group a language such as English, we need to be aware that children from different religions and cultures are put together in the same class. They may therefore produce different lexis types when referring to the same entity. For instance, a "fairy" may be a word used by a child who has read many storybooks on Western mystical creatures while a "goddess" may be used by a child to refer to the same entity when she or he comes from a Taoist/Buddhist family. The teacher who is conducting a class of students with such diverse experiences needs to be aware, culturally and sensitively, and to point out to the students the use of words in certain contexts rather than prescribe "fairy" is the "correct word".

Father Laurence Freeman's mentioned the word "church" to be a term which could mean "a cold building on a wet Sunday morning, a global religion, a spiritual body extended backward and forward in history from the birth of Jesus" in the book based on His Holiness The Dalai Lama's perspectives of the gospel (Freeman, 1996). Similarly, a "temple" can mean a building where ash is flying all over with the burning of "good fortune papers", jossticks, or simply the space at the centre of one's forehead. Linguistically, these words only make sense when situated in a particular context, for instance, in a place of worship or otherwise. Thus, religious words can be used to illustrate the different manifestations of the ways in which a word could possibly make sense in a particular culture.

One suitable method of producing materials fairly and sensitively is to advise that the same entity can be referred to in a different way, as defined by the culture or religion of the person who is using it. This method of diplomacy is particularly effective when teachers are exploring culture and religion in literacy.

The language policy of Singapore with English being the first language of the nation, has resulted in the child speaking mainly in English, and code-switching or code-mixing with Mandarin whenever describing a religious artifact or deity.

Footnotes

1.Buddhism: Buddhism originated from India before an Indian monk joined China in Early Eastern Han.

Today, we know of Mahayana Buddhism (influence from the Chinese) and Theravada Buddhism (influence from Indians and Thais).

Mahayana Buddhism: Buddhism with "Chinese Influence" evolved around the same time as "Tao Practices" for thousands of years, and Buddhism got accepted only recently in the Song Dynasty during the times of the more significant leaders of China such as Emperor Xiaowen in Beiwei Dynasty and Empress Wu in Tang Dynasty.

Worshipping Bodhisattva is similar to worshipping Buddhas, chanting, meditation, belief in realms: animal, hell, hungry ghosts, human, semi-god and God realms. http://www.bellaonline.com/articles/art34036.asp.

2. Taoism: Many Singaporeans pray to **the Heavenly Jade Emperor** (in Chinese religion, this means the leader of all deities) Taoist deities such as "**Dua Pek Kong- The Deity of Wealth**" and **Kuanyin** (not a deity, but a Bodhisattva like Buddha).

The term **Taoism** (Palmer, 1991) is also known as "**Chinese Folk Religion**" (Chamberlain, 2009) or "**Shenism**" (**Elliot**, **1950**).

Venerable Shravasti Dhammika (2009) argued the point further by explaining that the folk religion of worshipping gods and spirits, and Taoism, were in fact two separate belief systems.

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Techniques of English to Thai Translation of Religious Teaching: A Case Study of Translating Buddha's Teachings Regarding Meditation Practice

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Abstract

Buddhism is the state religion of Thailand and approximately 95 percent of the Thai people are Buddhists; hence Buddhism is involved in almost all occasions of their daily life. Buddha's teaching has a heavy influence over the people, and is a part of their culture. In addition, they usually go to a temple to make merit and practice Buddhist meditation. In Buddhism, meditation practice is the technique to lead the mind to peace and tranquility. English to Thai translation of Buddhist meditation is rendered problematic because this is a particular type of translation that is directly related to the transfer of national images, values and culture. For instance, the words "rising" and "falling" used to describe the abdominal motions should not be simply translated into Thai as "ขึ้น" and "ลง" but as "พองหนอ" and "ยุบหนอ" instead because these words are translated in the context of Buddhist meditation practice. To assist the readers to obtain a relatively more comprehensive view of the source language (English) compared to the target language (Thai), the coexistence of multiple techniques of English to Thai translation of meditation is required, because no single translation can reach the closest approximation in all respects of the original language. In this paper, the diverse techniques for English to Thai translation of meditation practice are proposed, including: transliteration literality, modification, explication, substitution and interpretation.

Introduction

It is obvious to those familiar with meditation that the practice leads to tranquility of the mind. The practice of meditation can assist those, including both Thais and foreigners, who wish to gain calmness and insight. It is noteworthy that at present there are many Westerners who are meditation instructors teaching Vipassana meditation in English. In translation, therefore, it is of importance to understand both English (the source language [SL]) and Thai (the target language [TL]) equally. However, English to Thai translation of Buddhist meditation is complicated for a number of reasons including: this translation directly relates to the transfer of culture and beliefs; and English and Thai words in this aspect are not perfectly matched, resulting in multiple translation techniques being required including: literality, modification, explication, substitution and interpretation.

Techniques for English to Thai Translation of Meditation Practice

The following are the suggested techniques for English to Thai translation of meditation practice:

1. Transliteration

This is the means of transferring source text (English words) to the target text (Thai words). This strategy is often used to solve the problem of proper nouns and spelling of words. Transliteration is also used to transfer the sounds from the original text to the translation. It is usually accompanied with explication. Some examples are given below:

a. <u>Vipassana</u> was discovered by the <u>Buddha Gotama</u> more than two thousand, five hundred years ago.

<u>พระพุทธโคคม</u>เป็นผู้ก้นพบ<u>วิปัสสนา</u>มากว่าสองพันห้าร้อยปีมาแล้ว

b. When paying respect, we are offering homage to the <u>Buddha</u>, meaning wisdom, and to the teachings – called the "<u>Dhamma</u>".

เมื่อแสดงความเคารพ เราจะน้อมสักการะ<u>พระพุทธเจ้า</u> ซึ่งหมายถึงปัญญา และคำสอนคือ

<u>ธรรมะ</u>ของพระองค์

2. Literality

Literal translation means that Thai (the TL) words exactly follow the original English (the SL) words. The pattern of the original form in the translated text is also kept as much as possible. Literality is usually used with semantic metalanguage to preserve only one meaning for suiting the context, as in the examples below:

a. During <u>meditation practice</u>, apply the step-by-step technique whenever you <u>change</u> <u>posture</u>.

ระหว่าง<u>ปฏิบัติกรรมฐาน</u> ให้ประยุกต์ใช้วิธีการตามลำดับขั้นตอนเมื่อใหร่ก็ตามที่ท่าน<u>เปลี่ยนอิริยาบถ</u>

b. Know the pose with your mind, not your eyes.

ให้รู<u>้อิริยาบถ</u>ด้วย<u>จิต</u> ไม่ใช่ด้วย<u>ตา</u>

c. Because <u>insight knowledge</u> can arise at any time, even while eating or brushing your teeth, every activity during a <u>retreat</u> should be performed <u>mindfully</u>.

้เพราะ<u>การรู้แจ้ง</u>สามารถเกิด ได้ทุกเวลา แม้ขณะรับประทานหรือแปรงฟัน ระหว่าง<u>ปฏิบัติกรรมฐาน</u>ท่าน

ควรทำทุกๆ กิจกรรม<u>อย่างมีสติ</u>

d. Sit down slowly, being <u>mindful of the movement of the body</u>. นั่งลงอย่างช้าๆ ให้<u>มีสติรู้กายเคลื่อนใหว</u>

3. Modification

The receptor language (Thai) is slightly modified in terms of word, meaning, and structure. Some particular words of the TL may be added. The meaning is slightly adjusted. And its structure is also changed in order to meet its grammar. The details are given below.

3.1 Modified word

Some words of the SL are added when they are translated into Thai to make the translated text become more comprehensible. Look at the examples:

a. This is <u>Achan Sobin Namto</u>, a Buddhist <u>monk</u> from Thailand.

นี้คือ<u>พระ</u>อาจารย์โสบิน นามโท พระ<u>คุณเจ้า</u>จากประเทศไทย

b. As the abdomen expands, say "rising". As the abdomen falls, say, "falling".

้งณะที่ท้องงยายออก พูดว่า "<u>พองหนอ</u>" งณะที่ท้องแฟบลง พูดว่า "<u>ยุบหนอ</u>"

c. Lift the right foot and place it down, <u>then the left foot</u>. As you move, say in your mind, "<u>placing</u>".

้ยกเท้าขวาขึ้นและวางลง แล้ว<u>ยก</u>เท้าซ้ายขึ้นและ<u>วางลง</u> ขณะที่ย่าง<u>เท้าขวา-ซ้าย</u> ให้ภาวนาในใจว่า "<u>ขวา</u>ย่าง

<u>หนอ</u>"

d. Before eating, look at the food. Say in your mind, "seeing". Next, note the intention to move.

้ ก่อนรับประทาน ให้มองดูอาหาร ภาวนาในใจว่า "เห็น<u>หนอ</u>" หลังจากนั้น ให้กำหนดจิตที่จะเคลื่อน<u>มือ</u>

3.2 Modified meaning

The meaning of the SL and the TL word is slightly adjusted in order to suit the context of meditation practice, for example:

a. Sit on the floor with your legs crossed.

<u>นั่งขัดสมาธิบนพื้น</u>

The English phrase "sit with your legs crossed" is normally used to explain a sitting posture by having your foot crossed over each other, but your knees wide apart, while the Thai phrase is more specific and describes the sitting pose for practice meditation.

b. That concludes our demonstration of insight meditation.

นั่นคือบทสรุปการสาธิตวิธีปฏิบัต<u>ิวิปัสสนากรรมฐาน</u>

The word "insight" is used to explain general understanding of a complicated problem or situation, while the word "วิปัสสนา" in Thai specifically means deep understanding of Four Noble Truths.

3.3 Modified structure

The structure includes the parts of speech, phrases, and sentences respectively. The translation pattern may be adjusted in order to meet its grammar, for example, by changing a word in the SL into a phrase, or a sentence in the TL, changing a phrase into a word or a sentence, etc. For example:

a. standing (word)

ขึ้นหนอ (phrase)

b. Begin by standing, <u>your hands in front of your body</u>, one hand clasping the other. (simple sentence)

เริ่มต้นด้วยการยืน <u>วางมือไว้ด้านหน้า</u> มือข้างหนึ่งกำมืออีกข้างหนึ่งไว้ (verb phrase)

c. When practicing on your own, say the mental notes silently in your mind. (phrase)

<u>เมื่อท่านปฏิบัติด้วยตัวเอง</u> ให้ภาวนาในใจเงียบๆ (clause)

4. Explication

This is sometimes also referred to as addition. Some words or explanations through this translation strategy are added to make the translated text become more comprehensible.

a. <u>Vipassana</u>-also called "insight meditation" – is the effort to observe your own mind and body in order to understand their true nature.

<u>วิปัสสนา</u> หรือที่เรียกว่า "<u>วิปัสสนากรรมฐาน</u>" คือความพยายามสังเกตดูจิตและร่างกายของตัวท่านเอง เพื่อให้เข้าใจธรรมชาติที่แท้จริงของมัน

b. That's the practice of <u>mindfulness</u> – knowing what's occurring right now, this very *second*, in the body and mind.

นั่นคือวิธีฝึก<u>สต</u>ิ-รู้ว่าอะไรเกิดขึ้นที่กายและจิต ณ ขณะนี้ เดี๋ยวนี้เท่านั้น

5. Substitution

If literal translation does not work properly, substitute translation is recommended. It is sometimes called cultural substitution. It is used when Thai words for meditation practice are widely used, and their meanings are similar to those in English. For example:

a. When meditating, keep your awareness in the present moment at all times.

เมื่อปฏิบัติกรรมฐาน ให้รู้ตัวทั่วพร้อมอยู่กับ<u>ปัจจุบันขณะ</u>ตลอดเวลา

b. Keep looking at the position of the body in the present moment: one <u>moment after</u> <u>another</u>.

ให้หมั่นดูอิริยาบถในปัจจุบันขณะ คือ<u>ทุกขณะจิต</u>

c. She will demonstrate Basic <u>Walking Meditation</u>.

เธอจะสาธิตการ<u>เดินจงกลม</u>เบื้องต้น

d. When practicing any of the exercises we'll show you today, try to focus on the <u>meditation</u> <u>object</u> itself, instead of on the <u>mental note</u>.

้เมื่อปฏิบัติแบบฝึกใดแบบฝึกหนึ่งที่เราจะสาธิตให้ท่านดูวันนี้ ให้ท่านพยายามกำหนดรู้<u>อารมณ์กรรมฐาน</u>

แทน<u>การภาวนา</u>

e. A <u>meditation retreat</u> provides a special environment in which to <u>practice Vipassana</u> all day long.

<u>การปฏิบัติกรรมฐาน</u>ช่วยให้เกิดสภาพแวคล้อมพิเศษที่นำไปสู่<u>การปฏิบัติวิปัสสนา</u>ได้ตลอดทั้งวัน

f. You can apply the same step-by-step procedure to drinking. <u>Observe the intention</u>, noting, "<u>intending to drink</u>".

้ท่านสามารถประยุกต์ขั้นตอนการฝึกรับประทานอย่างมีสตินี้ไปใช้กับการดื่มน้ำได้ด้วย <u>ให้ดูที่ต้นจิต</u>

พร้อมกับภาวนาว่า "<u>อยากดื่มหนอ</u>"

g. We hope you'll practice some of these exercises every day, until you reach the end of suffering, <u>freedom, the ultimate happiness</u>.

หวังว่าทุกท่านจะปฏิบัติแบบฝึกบางส่วนจากแบบฝึกทั้งหมดได้ทุกๆ วัน จนกระทั่งเข้าถึงความสิ้นทุกข์

<u>วิมุตติ และ โลกุตรสุข</u>

6. Interpretation

Words of the SL (English) are clearly interpreted into the TL (Thai) by ignoring the original English words. They are translated by using Thai words whose meanings are familiar to Thai Buddhists. The interpretation is considered when the SL's culture (the way to practice meditation) is difficult to be understood by the receptor language speakers. Illustrations of meditation practice may help to correctly interpret the context. For example:

a. Third, we're acknowledging all the men and women who have attained wisdom.

ประการที่สาม ให้รำลึกถึง<u>สาวกและสาวิกาผู้บรรลุอรหันต์แล้ว</u>

b. Bow your head and say in your mind, "May I pay respect to the <u>Buddha</u>, his <u>teachings</u>, and <u>those who have attained wisdom</u>."

ก้มศีรษะลงและภาวนาในใจว่า "ข้าพเจ้าขอแสดงความเคารพต่อ<u>พระพุทธ พระธรรม</u> และ <u>พระสงฆ์ผู้</u> <u>บรรลุอรหันต์แล้ว</u>"

c. I'll say the mental notes: <u>Turning, raising, moving, touching</u>. When both hands are against the stomach, observe the sitting posture for one moment, noting "<u>sitting</u>" in your mind.

ข้าพเจ้าจะภาวนาว่า <u>พลิกหนอ ยกหนอ มาหนอ ถูกหนอ</u> เมื่อแนบแขนทั้งสองที่ท้องแล้ว ให้สังเกตดูท่านั่ง

้สักครู่หนึ่ง พร้อม<u>ภาวนา</u>ว่า "<u>นั่งหนอ</u>"

d. Placing, placing, placing, placing, placing, placing, placing, stopping. งวาย่างหนอ ซ้ายย่างหนอ งวาย่างหนอ ซ้ายย่างหนอ งวาย่างหนอ ซ้ายย่างหนอ

ขวาย่างหนอ ซ้ายย่างหนอ หยุดหนอ

e. Remember, only observe <u>one object</u> at a time. พึงระลึกไว้ว่า ในเวลาหนึ่งให้กำหนดรู้หนึ่งอารมณ์กรรมฐานเท่านั้น

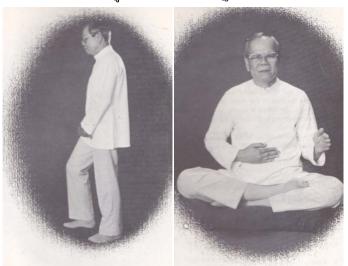


Figure 1: Illustration of walking meditation (Namto, 1989:63) Figure 2: Illustration of sitting meditation (Namto, 1989:71)

Conclusion

In conclusion, the English to Thai translation of meditation practice requires several translation strategies to attain an acceptable and comprehensible translated text in terms of content and form. Five translation techniques are utilized and applied to ensure that the translation can convey the accurate and complete meaning of the text. These transliteration techniques are: literality, modification, explication, substitution and interpretation.

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Metacognitive Strategies: What Do Graduate Students Encounter in Academic Writing?

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Abstract:

Influential theorists differ on their classifications of metacognitive strategies. Cohen (2010) stated metacognitive strategies as the methods learners used consciously to organize their language learning and divided them into three subsets: planning what learners will do, checking how it is going and *evaluating* how it went. This current study was based on the *checking* process by investigating the problems encountered by Thai graduate students in academic writing and their solutions. Six Thai graduate students were participants for this study. The data collected was from semi-structured interviews which were conducted individually. Moreover, to prevent misunderstanding and derive accurate information, the interviews were conducted in Thai with note-taking and two audio recordings to assure the accuracy of the data obtained. The findings of this study were that firstly, problems encountered by students were classified into internal and external factors. Mainly, the internal factors are about the students themselves and the external factors are about the time limited and number of assignments. Secondly, the two main means to finding solutions were the students themselves solving the problems and by asking their friends. Obviously, the students who obtained the high score knew the solutions derived from themselves whereas the students who obtained the lower score still did not know how to solve the problems derived from their own mind or habits.

1. Introduction:

Learners' individual differences such as learning styles, learning strategies, age, gender, and culture are important and influence the development of language learning. Among those variables, learning strategies are variables relating to learners' performance in completing their language tasks, academic writing in particular. To succeed in academic writing, the writers need to integrate facts, ideas, concepts, and theories from various sources (Campbell, 1994) and impart them to the readers.

Over the last decades, examining the students' learning strategies has become commonplace. For example, 14 Chinese volunteer students' uses of language learning strategies after they moved from mainland China to Britain were collected by the interview (Gao, 2006). However, the way to study general strategies reported becomes less and less interesting because of the similar patterns of the many studies which simply present different levels of students and their contexts. However, some researchers have more recently tried to study different dimensions for this area starting with cognitive strategies because it is easier to measure from students than others factors. Although it is nevertheless difficult to measure cognitive strategies from the students, the findings are also valuable in terms of learning and teaching. Recently, the following studies presented the metacognitive strategies reported by students. Sen (2009) probed the relationship between the use of metacognitive strategies and reading comprehension of 222 students in primary school using Metacognitive Strategies Awareness Scale (MSAS). At the same time, Wang, Spencer and Xing (2009) investigated metacognitive strategies reported by 45 English-speaking students at the University of Nottingham in learning Chinese as a Foreign Language (CFL). After that, in Turkey, 195 college students were participated the study and the Metacognitive Learning Strategies Scale was used to find the students' strategies for their educational Internet use. (Akturk & Sahin, 2010). A study involved 93 university students at Kermanshah Azad University used Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) to find whether the students' strategies affect their reading comprehension performance. Most of these studies used questionnaire to measure metacognitive strategies reported by the students. Furthermore, it is rare to see studies using other instruments such as interview to collect data relevant metacognitive strategies used by students. This study would be the first to investigate the problems encountered by Thai graduate students in academic writing and their solutions using semi-structured interviews as the only instrument to collect the data. It is hoped that the results of the study would be beneficial for those concerned. In addition, the results from the study would be useful in seeking suitable ways in language learning and language teaching.

Definition of terms

- 1. Metacognitive strategies refer to problems and solutions found in monitoring.
- 2. Graduate students refer to Thai graduate students for Master's Degree in English Language Teaching program.
- 3. Academic writing refers to an assignment in Language Learning Theories course.

Research Questions

1. What are the problems encountered by Thai graduate students in completing their academic writing and their solutions?

2. Literature Review:

Learning Strategies

Learning strategies were defined in several ways. Firstly, Stern (1983) stated learning strategies as general tendencies or characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner, leaving techniques as the term to refer to particular forms of observable learning behaviour. Also, Chamot (1987) defined learning strategies as techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students take to facilitate the learning, recall of both linguistic and content area information. Another well-known definition by Oxford (1990) was specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, and more transferable to new situations. Wenden (1991) focused differently on mental steps or operations that learners use to learn a new language and to regulate their efforts to do so.

Classification of learning strategies

Learning strategies were classified similarly based on several influential theorists. According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), learning strategies were divided into three parts: metacognitive, cognitive and social/affective strategy; whereas Oxford (1990) classified learning strategies into direct and indirect strategies. Although, Wenden (1991) classified learning strategies into two parts as Oxford's, her details are different, cognitive, and self-management strategy.

According to O'malley and Chamot (1990), although they stated metacognitive strategies is an executive skills relating to planning, monitoring, and evaluating the success of a learning activity, they divided the processes into four subsets based on receptive or productive language tasks (see Figure 1).

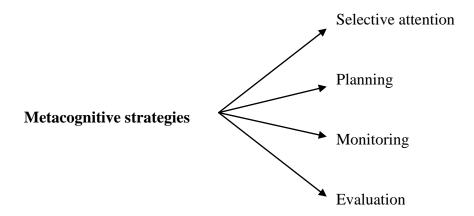


Figure 1. O'Malley and Chamot's metacognitive strategies (1990)

Wenden (1998), focusing on mental steps for learning strategies, indicated self-management strategies as the learners' acquires store of task knowledge leading into applying to a particular learning task. Moreover, the main areas concerning these strategies in terms of cognitive literature are planning, monitoring and evaluating (see Figure 2).

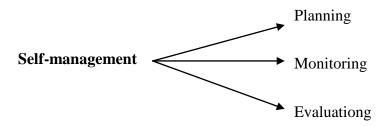


Figure 2. Wenden's metacognitive strategies (1991)

Recently, Cohen (2010) stated metacognitive strategies are the methods learners used consciously to organize their language learning (see Figure 3).

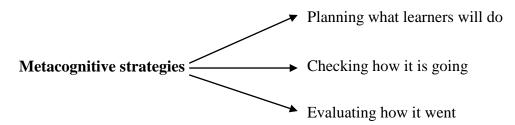


Figure 3. Cohen's metacognitive strategies (2010)

As mentioned above, problems and solutions related to metacognitive strategies would be used as the basis of this study.

3. Research Methodology

Participants

Six of 11 Thai King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi (KMUTT) weekday graduate students for Master's Degree in English Language Teaching (ELT) program who commenced studying in the first semester of 2010 academic year at School of Liberal Arts, KMUTT were participants for this study. Three students, namely the successful students, are from the top group and another three, namely the least successful students, from the bottom group were divided based on the scores obtained from their assignments.

Research instrument

Semi-structured interview was used in this study. It aimed to investigate problems encountered and solutions used during completing an assignment from LNG 521: Language Learning Theories.

Data collection

The data collected was from the semi-structured interview. The six interviews were conducted individually. Moreover, to prevent misunderstanding and obtain accurate information, the interview was conducted in Thai with note-taking and two audio recordings.

Data analysis

The six interviews were analyzed based on the content analysis focusing on problems and solutions of the students.

4. Results and Disscussion

Problems and solutions in completing an assignment

To make the information obtained more understandable, what the students reported was summarized into the following tables.

Student No.	Problems	Solutions
S1	1. Using suitable vocabularies	1. Check from dictionaries
	2. Mental problems	2. Talk to MA friends
	3. Time limited	3. Decrease completing the assignment carefully
S2	1. How to write to reach the important point	1. Reread
	2. Too much careful and anxious	2. Skip to do other parts
	3. Too much assignments	3. Consider the deadline, followed by
	-	the difficulty of the assignment, and the scores of the assignment
		4. Cannot tell
	4. Having a lack of motivation	

Table 1: Problems encountered by successful students and their solutions

S3	1. The time limited
	2. Being not skillful in paraphrasing

1. Try to manage the time effectively 2. Find the time to practice as much as she can

Student No.	Problems	Solutions
S4	1. The meaning of some vocabularies because of having no knowledge background for studying in this field.	1. Ask her friend immediately
	2. Being lazy	2. Cannot solve
	3. Having a lack of motivation in completing assignment about the theories	3. Change the assignment to show her creative ideas
	4. A lot of assignments	4. Manage the time effectively
	5. Her own habit (prefer completing the assignment when it is very near the deadline)	5. Cannot solve
S 5	1. Always write with unclear statements	1. Add examples
	2. Using suitable vocabularies	2. Use Thai-Eng dictionary, followed by Eng-Eng Cobuild dictionary on the Internet to check Grammar
	3. Time: the ideas always come when it is near the deadline	3. Cannot solve
	4. Prefer taking a lot of time to search the information before completing the assignment	4. Cannot solve
S6	1. Cannot link some topics to another topic	1. Go on writing
	2. Not understanding for some parts	2. Go on writing
	3. Time limited	3. Cannot solve because at that time he must join the graduation ceremony

In summary, the results showed firstly that problems encountered by students were classified into internal and external factors. Mainly, the internal factors are about the students themselves and the external factors are about the limited time and number of assignments. Secondly, the main means of finding solutions were the students themselves solving the problems and by asking their friends. Obviously, the students who obtained the high score knew the solutions derived from themselves whereas the students who obtained the lower score still did not know how to solve the problems derived from their own mind or habits.

5. Recommendations for Further Studies

Based on the findings of this study, some recommendations for further studies are made.

1. Only six participants were used for individual interview in the study. Thus, the number of participants should be increased for future studies to increase the external validity.

2. The study focused on problems and solutions used in completing the assignment about academic writing. Further studies could investigate strategies used in completing different kinds of assignment such as an assignment about designing material and an assignment about oral presentation.

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The Use of Communicative Activities to Develop English Speaking Ability of First Year Diploma Vocational Students

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Abstract

Communicative language teaching (CLT) focuses on communicative activities which aim to encourage learners to speak and listen to other learners in the classroom setting. The teacher provides opportunities for learners to speak while the learners will have a desire to communicate in real situations. The author therefore conducted a quasi-experimental study to investigate the effectiveness of communicative activities on the first year diploma students' English speaking ability. The study also examined students' perceptions and attitude toward the use of communicative activities in the classroom. The participants consisted of 32 first year diploma students from Intrachai Commercial College, selected by convenience sampling. The researcher carried out the experiment using communicative activities to encourage students to speak based on six language functions. The duration of the implementation was eight weeks excluding the pre-test and post-test. The questionnaire for students' perceptions and attitudes toward communicative activities were administered after the experiment.

The results revealed statistical difference between the students' scores of their English speaking ability before and after learning through communicative activities. The findings also showed that the learners had positive perceptions and attitude toward the use of communicative activities. Their satisfaction with the communicative activities were at the very high levels. The implications drawn from the study were the effectiveness of teaching communicative activities on students' speaking performance, the importance of developing students' speaking ability and the possibility of encouraging students to improve their speaking ability by using a variety of communicative activities in EFL classroom.

Keywords: communicative activities, speaking abilities

Background of the Study

In the context of globalization, English is the most wildly used language in the world and it is regarded as a global language that people around the world use for communicating, cooperating, and developing the world together. It is likely that the number of people who speak English will continually grow as English is used as a global means of communication for several purposes and in a variety of contexts such as in the world organization including the United Nation (UN), the International Monetary Fund (IMF), and the Asia-Europe Meeting (ASEM). According to Office of Non-Formal and Informal Education (ONIE) (2011), in 2015 Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Economic Community will be established. As this will result in an increase in labor mobility in this region, vocational students who will be the important labor force of the Asian countries including Thailand should be well prepared for this change.

Grounded in this researcher's two-year teaching experience at Intrachai Commercial College, students' problems in developing their speaking ability is derived from three sources: students, teachers and the curriculum. The students have little motivation to speak English and do not have a clear goal for speaking English. For teachers, due to the time constraints, they do not focus on

speaking because it takes time practicing. Also, the teachers mostly use the traditional approach of teaching English focusing on grammatical structures. Lastly, the problem is derived from the curriculum, itself. According to Office of Vocational Education Commission (2010), the high certificate vocational curriculum specifies that students are required to study English for only two to three periods per week. The time allocated for the English course is not adequate for practicing language.

Therefore, one way to help improve the students' English speaking ability is to teach them through CLT by using communicative activities. The goal of CLT is communicative competence which emphasizes the use of language for different purposes and functions; varying the use of language according to different settings and participants, producing and understanding different types of text, and maintaining communication even when there are limitations in one's language knowledge (Richards, 2006). According to Moss & Ross-Feldman (2003), communicative activities include any activities that encourage and require the learners to speak with and listen to other learners. Communicative activities serves two important language needs: preparing learners to use language in their real life situation, and supporting the atomization of language knowledge (Thornbury, 2008). By using communicative activities, students can also receive the whole-task practice, improve their motivation, have opportunities to learn natural language and create a social context which supports learning (Littlewood, 1998). The communicative activities that can engage students to focus on speaking including jig-saw activities, and discovering sequence activities.

Many researchers (Promshoit, 2010; Phuphanpet, 2004; Kethongkum, 2005; Domesrifa, 2008; Ponglangka, 2007; Klanrit, 2010 and Noon-Ura, 2008) claim that the communicative activities can increase students' English speaking ability at the secondary level, vocational certificate student level, and tertiary level. In addition, there are also several researchers (Noon-Ura, 2008, Wan Yu (2010), Troudi and Choy (2006) found that after learning through communicative activities, students had a positive attitude and perception toward the activities and language learning.

According to Gardner (1985) and Moon (2000), attitudes play a very important role in language learning since it influences students' success or failure in their learning. If the students' attitude toward language learning is favorable, it can predict that the students' experience in language learning will be satisfactory. Lefton (1970, as cited in Troudi & Choy, 2006) proposes that "attitudes are often formed as a result of an individual's unique perception of thing." (p. 3) Therefore, students' view of the language learning is also crucial. If students' perception toward language learning is positive, students are likely to learn English successfully.

As mentioned earlier, the use of communicative activities can develop students' speaking ability. However, there are very few studies investigating the use of communicative activities on diploma level vocational students. Therefore, it is worthwhile to examine whether the use of communicative activities can develop diploma level vocational students' speaking ability. This study also investigated students' attitude and perception toward the use of communicative activities in the classroom setting.

Objectives of the Study

The study aimed to:

1. Examine the effectiveness of communicative activities on the first year diploma students' English speaking ability.

- 2. Explore students' perceptions toward the use of communicative activities in the classroom.
- 3. Investigate students' attitudes toward communicative activities used in the classroom.

Research Questions

This present study addressed three research questions as follows:

- 1. Do the first year diploma students from Intrachai Commercial College develop their English speaking ability after learning through communicative activities?
- 2. What are students' perceptions toward the use of communicative activities in the classroom?
- 3. What are students' attitudes toward communicative activities used in the classroom?

Variables

The independent variable was the teaching technique using communicative activities to develop students' English speaking ability, and the dependent variables were the students' speaking ability, students' perception and attitude towards the use of communicative activities in the classroom.

Population and Sample

Population

The population of this study was the first year diploma vocational students of Intrachai Commercial College, Bangkok, who were required to study Developing Skills for English Communication 1 (3000-1201) course.

Sample

The participants were 32 students from Accounting 1 class, enrolled in Developing Skills for English Communication 1 (3000-1201) which is the compulsory course in the first year semester of academic year 2011. The participants were selected by convenience sampling procedure due to the fact that the researcher was assigned from the college to teach this course.

Research Instruments

The research instruments applied in this study consisted of lesson plans, English speaking test, rubric for evaluating speaking ability, learner's perception questionnaire, and learner's attitude questionnaire. The description, step, and procedure for constructing each of the instruments are discussed as in the following:

Lesson plans

There were six lesson plans involving six types of communicative activities: jigsaw, discovering sequence, discovering identical pairs, role play, mapped dialogue and information gap. The language functions for teaching were: 1) asking for and giving directions, 2) describing people, 3) ordering a meal, 4) making a phone call, 5) making an appointment, and 6) making a reservation for a hotel room.

English Speaking Test

The same English speaking test was used as a pretest and posttest for measuring student's speaking ability before and after learning through communicative activities. There were six tasks with different language functions and situations. In administering the pretest, students were assigned to communicate with their partner in order to complete each task. Each student had to complete three tasks from six tasks. The researcher and another English teacher who was orientated in the use of instruments for evaluating students' speaking ability conducted both the pretest and the posttest.

Rubric of Speaking Ability

Rubric of the speaking ability was adapted from Phuphanpet (2004), Sacanlon and Zemach (2009), and Domesrifa (2008). The components of rubric of speaking ability focused on fluency, pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and communication strategy.

Learner's Attitude Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to obtain the information on the first year diploma students' attitude toward communicative activities used in the classroom. The questionnaire consisted of 10 items of Likert-type five rating scales.

Learner's Perception Questionnaire

The questionnaire was designed to elicit the student's perception toward the use of communicative activities. The questionnaire consisted of 12 items of Likert-type five rating scales and eight open-ended items asking students' view on the improvement in speaking ability, and learning through communicative activities.

Findings

Table 1

The following section presents the findings from data analysis for Research Question 1: Do the first year diploma students from Intrachai Commercial College develop their English speaking ability after learning through communicative activities?

To investigate the effectiveness of the communicative activities on students' speaking ability, the mean scores of the pretest and posttest were compared using paired t-test. The result showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the pretest and posttest. Table1 illustrates the comparison between the overall mean pre-test and post-test scores.

English speaking ability	Ν	Mean	S.D.	t	P-value
Pre-test	32	10.59	3.291		
				-22.501	0.000*
Post-test	32	21.51	2.338		

Regarding Table 1, the results showed a significant difference between the pretest and posttest of the first year diploma students' speaking ability at the .05 level. The mean score of posttest (M= 21.51, S.D.=2.338) was higher than the mean score of pretest (M=10.59, S.D.=3.291).

The Increase in the Speaking Ability in English Language

To study the improvement in speaking ability after the experiment, 32 students had to take both pretest and posttest from the three functions from six functions. The first 16 students were assigned to take the first three language functions whereas the last 16 students were assigned to take the last three language functions tasks. The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the pretest and posttest in every function.

Table 2 showed the mean score of pretest and posttest of first three functions

Table 2

Language Functions	Ν	Pretest		Posttest			
		(Means)	S.D.	(Means)	S.D.	t	P-value
Asking for and giving							
directions	16	11.09	3.251	20.75	3.224	-17.898	0.000*
Describing people	16	11.13	3.951	19.69	2.977	-10.044	0.000*
Ordering a meal	16	12.72	3.229	22.00	2.387	-14.563	0.000*

The Mean Score of Pretest and Posttest of First Three Functions

*

As shown in Table 2, the mean scores of posttest were higher than the mean scores of pretest in all functions. The mean scores of posttest of ordering a meal function were the highest mean score (M=22.00) which was higher than the mean score of the pretest (M=12.72), followed by the mean score of posttest of asking for and giving directions function (M=20.75) which was higher than the mean score of pretest (M=11.09).

Table 3 illustrates the comparison of pretest and posttest of last three functions.

Table 3

The Comparison of Pretest and Posttest of Last Three Functions

Language Functions	Ν	Pretest		Posttest			
		(Means)	S.D.	(Means)	S.D.	t	P-value
Making a phone call	16	9.97	4.108	21.94	2.048	-13.811	0.000*
Making an							
appointment	16	7.34	3.048	21.53	2.819	-16.250	0.000*
Making a reservation							
for a hotel room	16	11.44	2.874	22.28	2.121	-14.657	0.000*

As shown in Table 3, the mean score of posttest was higher than the mean scores of pretest in all functions. The mean score of posttest of making a reservation for a hotel room function was the highest mean score (M=22.28) which was higher than the mean score of the pretest (M=11.44), followed by the mean score of posttest of making a phone call (M=21.94) which was higher than the mean score of pretest (M=9.97).

Findings for Research Question 2: What are students' perceptions toward the use of communicative activities in the classroom?

The overall mean score of students' perception toward the use of communicative activities in the classroom was very high with the mean score of 4.34. The results revealed that the learners had a positive perception toward the use of communicative activities in the classroom. The learners had the highest positive perception toward item 5 (M=4.56). They responded that the communicative activities encourage learners' classroom participation. Next, the learners had the second highest positive perception toward item 1 (M= 4.53). They believed that learning through communicative activities provided a relaxing atmosphere and enjoyment for learning English. However, the learners had the least positive perception toward item 4 (M= 4.06). The majority of the learners responded that they understood the procedure of doing the communicative activities clearly.

In addition, based on open-ended questions, it was found that students liked the communicative activities because of having fun (46.88%), followed by practicing speaking ability (31.25%), understanding the lesson easily, and gaining more knowledge (25.00%), and increasing learners' self-confidence (21.87%) respectively. They responded that the first six advantages of learning through communicative activities were applying the knowledge to use in daily life (18.75%), followed by increasing self-confidence, gaining more knowledge and understanding easily (15.62%), practicing speaking ability, and learning the new vocabulary (12.50%) respectively. Moreover, the first three problems that the learners faced while learning through communicative activities were having vocabulary limitation (40.62%), followed by having mispronunciation (25.00%), and being unable to translate the conversation (15.62%), respectively. Students supported using the activities in the class because the activities were interesting (31.25%); the activities helped them understand the language learned easily (21.87%); they were able to apply the knowledge in their daily life (18.75%); they improved their speaking ability, and the activities created an enjoyable and relaxing atmosphere (12.50%), respectively. Furthermore, 59.38% of the learners thought that the communicative activities improved their self-confidence and speaking ability. In addition, it was found that the favorite topic of the learners was ordering a meal (71.87%). All learners thought that they could apply the language learned in their daily life. Lastly, the results demonstrated that 31.25% of the learners suggested that the communicative activities should be consistently used in the classroom.

Research question 3: What are students' attitudes toward communicative activities used in the classroom?

The overall mean score of the learners' attitude toward the communicative activities used in the classroom was very high with the mean scores of 4.45. It was found that the learners had a positive attitude toward the communicative activities used in the classroom. The learners had the highest positive attitude toward item 9 (M= 4.68). The learners responded that the communicative activities motivate them to speak English. Next, the learners had the second highest positive attitude toward item 10 (M=4.56). The learners said that the communicative activities are interesting and they are appropriate for using in English class respectively. However, the learners had the least positive attitude toward item 4 (M=4.06). The majority responded that the procedure of using communicative activities is clear.

Discussion

The Effectiveness of Communicative Activities on Students' English Speaking Ability

First of all, the activities encouraged students to speak English. Every activity encouraged the students to speak English otherwise they could not complete the task. All activities also had the

clear purpose which motivated students to achieve the activities. This was consistent with Phuphanpet's study (2004). Phuphanpet indicated that the clear goal of communicative activities can help students to understand how to use the language to accomplish the task and motivate students to speak English. Secondly, there was the variety of activities which helped students enjoy learning. Students were excited to learn with the new activities. Every activity encouraged students to think, and some activities encourage them to move around, so students had to be enthusiastic all the time. This was consistent with the study of Promshoit (2010). Promshoit indicated that students enjoyed learning through the variety of communicative activities; therefore, they were willing to learn English which created the effective learning process.

In addition, communicative activities encouraged the students to learn language subconsciously. While doing the activities, the students focused on the task. They communicated in English by using the sentences that had just learnt focusing on the meaning, not the form which is similar to the communication in real life situations. By the time they finished their activities, their speaking ability had gradually increased. Gao (2008) stated that in communicative activities, the focus is on producing language that the situations require, not on the specific language structure which help the students to acquire the language subconsciously. Futhermore, the researcher tried to teach the subject ranging from an easy topic to a difficult one. Consequently, the students gradually learnt and improved their speaking ability. Kethongkum (2005) mentioned that teaching the students from an easy topic to a difficult one helps students to learn language effectively. The students could also transfer the knowledge from the previous topic to use in the next topic.

In addition, the communicative activities encouraged students' self-confidence. 59.38% of the students responded that their self-confidence was increased after learning through communicative activities because the communicate activities encouraged students to practice speaking English as much as possible. If some students made some mistakes, the researcher and their friends would help them to correct those mistakes. This created a friendly atmosphere. Moreover, the topics suited students' need and interest. According to Rogers (1969, as cited in Harmer 2007), it is necessary for the students to feel that they are learning something that relate to them in order to help them feel positive about their learning.

In conclusion, the effectiveness of the communicative activities resulted in improvement of students' English speaking ability, which will be discussed in the next section.

The Improvement in Speaking Ability after the Experiment

Students' English speaking ability was significantly different at the .05 level after learning through communicative activities. At the beginning of the experiment, the researcher told the students the objectives of the study. The students seemed to worry about their speaking performance. The students first were not familiar with learning through the communicative activities in the classroom which led the researcher to spend time explaining the procedure of doing the activities. Based on the researcher's observation, at the beginning, their language was not fluent and their pronunciation was not correct. Some of them lacked confidence to speak English. However, after spending time practicing the language, students were familiar with the communicative activities. Their self-confidence was increased. They enjoyed doing the activities which could be noticed from the smiles on their faces and their laughter. Furthermore, the researcher acted as the facilitator and monitor who established rapport. Interestingly, the students felt relaxed which established a positive atmosphere environment. Gower, Philips and Walters (2005) stated that rapport is the main factor for managing the classroom successfully. Students will produce the language more when learning in a relaxing atmosphere and rapport also builds a good relationship between the teacher and the students.

A few weeks later, they were willing to learn English and excited to learn with the new activities every week. The research did not spend a great deal of time explaining the procedure of the activities because students were accustomed to the process. Their language was more fluently and their pronunciation was developed. Primarily, the researcher asked the students to work in pairs or groups because the activities encouraged them to communicate with their partner or their group members in order to participate in the activities. Working in pairs or groups for doing the activities also increased the interaction among students. The students with more competency in speaking helped the ones with less competency, correcting mistakes such as pronunciation and grammatical structure. When the students felt confident and were not afraid of making mistakes, their speaking ability was gradually and naturally improved because they dared to practice and speak English. According to Gower, Phillips and Walters (2005), working in pairs is very useful for students. While doing the pair work or group work, students had plenty of opportunities for practicing language, establishing rapport, giving a chance for students who lack confidence to participate in the classroom. Furthermore, when students acted the role play following the role card, they acted as if they were in the real situation. Therefore, they not only developed their speaking ability, but also their gestures which helped them to increase their self-confidence.

To sum up, all the aforementioned factors were particularly vital for students' improvement in their speaking ability.

Students' Perceptions toward the Use of Communicative Activities

The results showed that students had a positive perception toward the use of the communicative activities in the classroom (M=4.34). It was revealed that the students' view of communicative activities were that learning through communicative activities helped them improve in many ways: their speaking ability, self-confidence, classroom participation, interaction with their classmates, and knowledge for applying to use in their real life.

Based on the questionnaire, students believed that the communicative activities encouraged classroom participation at the highest level. This was because all students had a chance to participate in classroom. The activities put every student on task which also created a relaxing atmosphere when there was a unity among the whole body of students. Also, the communicative activities were varied, enjoyable, and clear, and they suited students' needs and interests. A language learning environment that has a relaxing atmosphere, teacher and student interaction and relationship with the teacher, who acts as the facilitator preparing the instruments, monitoring students' performance, and establishing rapport in the classroom, has an effect on students' positive perception toward the use of communicative activities in the classroom. In order to understand the students' perception toward the use of communicative activities clearly, the next section will discuss the findings from the students' responses to the open-ended questionnaires.

Students' Perceptions of the Use of Communicative Activities through Open Ended Questions

All students reported that they liked to learn English by using communicative activities and agreed that the communicative activities should be used in the classroom. Students responded that they liked the communicative activities because the activities were enjoyable and interesting. All activities had clear objectives that motivated them to speak and they tried to complete the activities. The students not only had opportunities to practice language, but they also had fun doing the activities.

One student responded that before this she did not like to learn English, but after learning through communicative activities she enjoyed learning English. Domesrifa (2008) stated that communicative activities are fun and can create a good relationship between the teacher and students. Some students also said that the communicative activities helped them understand the lesson easily, and their language knowledge and vocabulary improved. They also reported that the communicative activities improved their self-confidence because the students had many chances to practice numerous language structures with various language functions while the researcher monitored their performance without interrupting their performance. In addition, they believed that the communicative activities encouraged teacher-student interaction, classroom participation and the unity, established a relaxed atmosphere, and promoted self-centered learning. Students also said they could apply the language learned in the classroom in their daily life.

In addition, the results showed that students' favorite topic was ordering a meal because they could apply the knowledge to use in daily life, the activities were fun and they learnt the new vocabulary through the attractive pictures. Students had to act following the roles of the waitress and the customer. The researcher also set the restaurant scene in the classroom which could motivate the students to act as the roles appropriately. The students enjoyed ordering the food from the menu after they had first learnt the vocabulary. From this, the students had opportunities to practice language in a situation that is similar to real life. Also, they had practiced the language in many situations such as in the hotel, on the phone, and about describing people. 59.38% responded that their speaking ability was developed after learning through communicative activities, their pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, gesture, thinking and other English skills were developed.

In conclusion, after learning through communicative activities, students believed that the use of communicative activities in the classroom could improve their English speaking ability.

Students' Positive Attitudes toward the Use of Communicative Activities

According to the students' attitude questionnaire, the results showed that the students had a positive attitude toward the use of communicative activities in the classroom at the very high level (M=4.45). According to Gardner (1985), positive attitude and greater motivation help to improve students' language efficiency. Attitudes play a very important role in language learning since it influences students' success or failure in their learning. From the data, it found that the students were satisfied with the communicative activities in all aspects. Most students agreed that the communicative activities were interesting, varied, and enjoyable which motivated them to learn English. The topics and content provided in the activities were appropriate for their language proficiency level and there were attractive pictures and clear procedures for doing the activities.

In addition, the largest number of students were satisfied that communicative activities motivated them to speak English. Students were willing to speaking English if they had a clear goal for communication and purpose for speaking. Learning through communicative activities helped students have a purpose for communication; thus, they had motivation for speaking English.

Overall, students' positive attitude toward the communicative activities in classroom could affect the development of English speaking ability of the students.

Implications of the Study

The results illustrate that learning through communicative activities improved students' speaking ability. However, the teacher should adjust to the students' proficiency level before designing the lesson plans. The attractive pictures should be effective material for presenting the new vocabulary. Moreover, it should be more useful for the students if the teachers allow the students to summarize what they had learnt in the class including the new vocabularies and the language structures that they have studied each time in order to check their understanding and help them to retrieve their knowledge.

Furthermore, the teacher should explain, demonstrate the procedure, and check students' understanding before letting the students do the communicative activities. Also, the teacher should ensure that the students spend time practicing speaking as much as possible. Asking the students to work in pairs and groups is an effective way to facilitate them practicing speaking English. It also creates interaction between the students and the unity of the whole class.

In order to create a good atmosphere, the teacher should support the students by giving them compliments and gentle feedback. The teacher should also use authentic material for being the model for students such as the video clip, advertisement, newspaper, and magazine. Richards (2006) stated that authentic materials are interesting and provide students a valid model of language.

Limitations of the Study

There was a limitation in selecting the participant; therefore, the participants of the study were selected by convenience sampling which decreases the generalizability of the findings. Also, the time used for this study was a limitation. Furthermore, the time given of only eight weeks is important. Other classroom teachers who conducted the research with different periods of time might yield different findings.

Recommendations for Further Studies

Recommendations for further studies are as follows:

- 1. Researchers should apply communicative activities in order to develop workers' speaking ability in workplaces as part of the preparation for joining the ASEAN Economic Community.
- 2. Researchers should compare the effectiveness of communicative activities in learning English speaking ability with other approaches such as task-based learning.

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Beliefs and Communication Strategies of Non-Thai ESL Students at an International University in Thailand

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Abstract

This research investigates beliefs about English language learning and communication strategies of 81 junior and senior non-Thai ESL university students from eight nationalities studying in an undergraduate degree program in Business English at an international university in Thailand. The study also attempts to report any relationships between the students' beliefs and their English communication strategies. In addition, the participants' perceptions of their learning achievement are explored in relation to their beliefs. The data were obtained using questionnaires, followed by interviews of 30 selective participants. It is found that all participants have specific beliefs about English language learning and various communication strategies were reported being used. Almost all regard themselves as sufficient users of English since according to them to study overseas as in Thailand would require a certain level of English proficiency. Nearly all report making more frequent and natural use of social affective and negotiation for meaning strategies for speaking and a fluency maintaining strategy for listening than other kinds of communication strategies based on the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) by Nakatani (2006). Specific contexts of language use particularly at school and in classrooms, which require keen comprehension in English, seem to be an important variable affecting their beliefs and strategy use. Logical relationships between participants' beliefs about English language learning and their communication strategies are shown. This suggests that their beliefs somewhat relate to their employment of strategies both directly and indirectly. The study also finds that the participants' perceived English learning success predisposes the rate of recurrence and preference of communication strategies as well as beliefs about learning English. Implications for teachers of English and effective language learning environments are made. Teachers play an important role in supporting the use of effective communication strategies to students and thereby assisting them in practicing their English. Moreover, an environment fostering and compelling communicative English interaction needs to be developed because as students are required to use English in such context, their beliefs about learning English, English communication strategies, and learning achievement appear to show positive, parallel connections.

Key words: Language Beliefs, Communication Strategies, Learning Achievement, ESL (English as a Second Language)

Introduction

In recent years, research interest in second or foreign language learning has shifted from teachercentered instruction to student-centered learning. Therefore, a number of studies have been undertaken from the learners' perspective, and these perspectives indeed have come to inform the field of language pedagogy. Among these perspectives are learners' beliefs about language learning, which are a result of factors that shape one's thinking and belief formation, including past experiences, culture, context, and numerous personal factors (Bernat & Gvozdenko, 2005). In short, beliefs are understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true and said to act as strong filters of reality (Arnold, 1999). Beliefs held by students can relate to many important factors in the context of second or foreign language learning such as, inter alia, the nature of the language being learned, its relative difficulty, the effectiveness of various learning strategies, the length of time needed to acquire a foreign language, the existence of language aptitude, and the effects of age and gender on second/foreign language acquisition. Recent literature suggests that these beliefs have the potential to influence the learners' attitudes to language and to learning, their motivation, and to shape their experiences and actions in the classroom (Bernat & Gvozdenko, ibid.) Therefore, these beliefs have the possibility to encumber or encourage the learners' final success in acquiring a new language and diminish the length of time required to learn a language.

The current study is also in response to calls from researchers (Rifkin, 2000; Benson & Lor, 1999; and Tanaka, 2000) with regards to studying beliefs in various contexts to establish their context specificity, among other factors likely to impact learner beliefs. In addition, investigating the relationship of beliefs to other factors such as language strategies will help shed light on the stability and malleability of language beliefs and thus bears consequences for possible instructional intervention methods in the classroom attempting to change those beliefs, which may hinder the learning process.

In relation to language beliefs, during the past two decades, much of second language acquisition (SLA) research has to some extent been directed towards the effectiveness of learner strategies for learning a language. It is further held that learners can improve communicative proficiency by developing an ability to use specific communication strategies that enable them to compensate for their target language deficiency (e.g., Bialystok, 1990; Faerch & Kasper, 1984; Nakatani, 2005). However, according to Clennel (1995), opinions diverge on what constitutes a communication strategy, and indeed researchers in this field have used numerous competing taxonomies for communication strategies. Two different types of definitions have evolved in particular. One type focuses on the relationship between interlocutors and negotiation of meaning, which is known as the interactional view (e.g., Williams, Inscoe, and Tasker, 1997; Rost and Ross, 1991). The other focuses on the variety of problem-solving activities available for individuals, which is regarded as the psychological view (e.g., Poulisse, 1990; Kitajima, 1997).

This study will therefore focus on investigating beliefs about English language learning held by the non-Thai ESL students studying in a particular EFL context where English is the principal communication tool for teaching and learning while their English communication strategies would then be explored. Moreover, to make the study more dimensional, attempts will be made to find out links between the students' beliefs and their English communication strategies. Last but not least, the study will seek after the students' perceptions of their learning achievement vis-à-vis their beliefs about English language learning. The study may be considered the first of its kind given the nature of the context and its participants, making it a very specific but worthwhile of analysis.

Rationale

According to the existing literature, there appear ample studies that investigate beliefs and English communication strategies of non-native English speakers who study English in an English speaking country, or even in an ESL/EFL country, which is their home country. However, there is little evidence of any investigation into beliefs and English communication strategies used of those non-

native English speakers concurrently regarded as non-locals (non-residents) studying English in a foreign country where they are based, such as Thailand.

Understanding the participants' beliefs and recognising their English communication strategies would benefit in the long term (Schommer, 1990; Sakui and Gaies, 1999). For this study, the pros are clear. First, school administrators or those concerned would realise what these students actually believe regarding learning English particularly while residing in Thailand so that proper measures or support can be provided. If it appears that their beliefs about English learning in such context have somewhat negative impacts on their learning English, then their causes and sources could be further investigated to find ways to help the students learn English more effectively.

Specifically, the study would sensitise teachers in the English as a foreign language and in second language environments to the types of beliefs learners may hold, and to the possible consequences of learners' beliefs for second or foreign language learning and instruction. Besides, upon knowing what communication strategies, both found to be effective – "good learner" behaviours – and ineffective – "low proficiency learner" behaviours these students report using, such strategies could be transmitted or informed to students falling into this similar category. Most literature suggests that beliefs held and strategies used by language learners can be applied to less achieving ones in helping them become better language learners (Rubin, 1975; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Though this may not always be true, as a minimum, it is convinced that certain beliefs and strategies of these research participants can be used as guidelines or hints to develop effective communication strategies for other non-native speakers of English in a similar context.

Research Questions

Given the rationale of the study, three specific research questions are to be investigated follows:

- 1. What are non-Thai ESL students' beliefs of English language learning while studying in an international university in Thailand?
- 2. What are the communication strategies used by these students and to what extent is there any relationship between their beliefs and their communication strategies?
- 3. What is the relationship between their beliefs in English language learning and their perceived learning achievement?

Literature Review

Success in language acquisition is influenced by many interrelated factors. Some factors are associated with the social context of the learning, cultural beliefs about language learning, the status of the target language and the process of language learning itself (Ramirez, 1995). Nunan and Lamb (1996) point out that the learners' beliefs towards the target language, the learning situation, and the roles that they are expected to play within that learning situation exert significant influences on the language learning process. Learner characteristics such as personality traits, learning style, learning strategies and beliefs have also been identified as significant aspects which play a role in determining learning outcomes.

Language learners possess a set of beliefs about the nature of language learning, which Hosenfeld (cited in Ellis, 1994, p. 477) defines as `mini theories' of second/ foreign language learning. This is supported by Wenden (1986) and Horwitz (1987) who argue that language learners indeed hold

some beliefs about language learning, even though they may not always be explicit or consciously thought about. Here a belief is defined as a statement that is held to be true, that affects language learning practices. Learners' belief systems cover a number of aspects, including beliefs about the nature of English, the speaker of English, the four language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing), teaching activities, language learning, appropriate classroom behaviour, their own ability and about the goals for language learning (Richards & Lockhart, 1996).

Influence of beliefs on language learning

Learners' beliefs have been found to have an impact on a range of issues. Wenden (ibid.) claims that learners' belief systems can influence their approach to learning in terms of the kind of strategies they use; what they attend to; and the criteria they use to evaluate the effectiveness of learning activities and of the social context that gives them the opportunity to use or practise the language, and where they concentrate their use of strategies.

Beliefs can influence learners' motivation to learn, their expectations about language learning, their perceptions about what is easy or difficult about a language, and the strategies they choose in learning (Richards & Lockhart, ibid.). Learners may have different goals for language learning. Some learners learn a language for the purpose of communicating with speakers of that language. The main goal for others may be to become proficient writers. Learners also show different perceptions of what is considered easy and difficult in language learning. Some may consider grammar as the most difficult task. With regards to learning strategies, learners are found to perform different strategies because they may have different expectations about language learning.

Growing evidence also suggests that learners' beliefs not only influence their approaches to language learning and acquisition but also affect the way they respond to teaching activities. Learners feel discontented and offer resistance if the teaching methods in which they are engaged differ from what they believed those teaching methods should be (Horwitz, ibid.). According to Horwitz, some students prefer to have more free conversation rather than pattern drills. Some other students insist on their teacher's correction. If language classes fail to meet these kinds of expectations, students may end up being frustrated. This situation can in some ways hinder learners' progress in language learning. 'When language classes fail to meet student expectations, students can lose confidence in the instructional approach and their ultimate achievement can be limited' (Horwitz, ibid, p.119).

According to Cotterall (1995) learners' beliefs are also important particularly in planning for autonomy. On the assumption that all behaviour is governed by beliefs and experience, Cotterall (ibid.) argues that autonomous language learning behaviour may also be supported by a particular set of beliefs or behaviours. Thus the beliefs held by learners may either contribute to or impede the development of learners' potential for autonomy. It is clear that the study of learners' beliefs is very important for pedagogy which helps learners to construct a good understanding of their language learning processes.

Also, misconceptions about language learning exist. Some students may have been exposed to erroneous beliefs about language learning. They may bring these misconceptions with them, when entering their language class. Horwitz (1988) reports that learners in the foreign language classroom indeed hold beliefs which are inconsistent with the principles underlying teaching materials and activities. Her findings from groups of ESL students of Spanish, French and German revealed that

beliefs about language learning are context-specific and learners from different cultures have different attitudes, approaches to and opinions about learning a new language. This in indeed in line with what Bacon and Finneman (1990) and Mori (1999) found in their studies on EFL learners. There is a need to eliminate these erroneous or conflicting beliefs about language learning because as Horwitz (1987) points out, 'erroneous beliefs about language learning lead to a less effective language learning strategy' (p. 126). If learners believe that errors in their second/ foreign language production will impede their language learning progress, the learners may then refuse to engage in communicative activities, thus hindering their communicative competence.

Beliefs about communication strategies

A number of writers have examined learners' belief systems in relation to communication strategies. Grotjahn (1991) contends that learners' beliefs about language learning influence their choice of particular linguistic information, their communication strategies and their second language use. Communication strategies have been defined as strategies language learners use to compensate for communication problems and to enhance the effectiveness of communication (Canale, 1983). The taxonomy of communication strategies varies across researchers, depending on how they define them.

Rather than exploring communication strategies in general, the present study lays focus on investigating and understanding oral communication strategies which could reveal strategic behaviors that learners use when facing communication problems. Following Nakatani's (2006) analysis of oral communication strategies, strategies for coping with speaking problems duding communication tasks and strategies for coping with listening problems during communication tasks were to be examined.

Research Methodology

This research was conducted within an interpretative framework, aiming to understand and make sense of the participants' views and positions. It is methodologically a case study employing questionnaires and semi-structured interviews.

The sampling strategy used in the study is a non-probability sample, aiming to explore perceptions of a particular group of non-Thai non-native English speaking students at an international university in Thailand, which would enable detailed exploration and understanding of the main objectives of the study. Thus, the sample does not represent the wider population, but rather itself.

Data Gathering Techniques

Two data collection tools were employed: the questionnaires and the interview. A combination of methods (mixed methods) is taken into account to collect both quantitative and qualitative data with several purposes: to provide more valid data, reduce errors or unreliable data, and obtain more insights into the issue under investigation.

Hsiao and Oxford (2002) argue that it is valid and reliable to use established strategy surveys. For belief investigation, the researcher adapted the questionnaire from Horwitz's (1988) Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI). In relation to examining communication strategies, the

researcher is in support of one reliable and valid strategy inventory for oral communication investigation developed by Nakatani (2006) which can help to identify communication strategies in listening and speaking. Also, the use of this inventory seems to fit the context of teaching and learning which focuses on developing learners' communicative competence. Therefore, the study adopts the OCSI as one of the research methods for learning strategy identification though slight construct modifications are made to best reflect the purpose of the research and the participants' strategy use. The present study takes into account that the questionnaires used need to have the psychometric properties of reliability and validity to obtain credible research finding (Oxford, 1996).

In addition, using an interview to elicit responses about personal perceptions of the participants' learning achievement and about relationships between beliefs and communication strategies and learning achievement would allow insightful findings on issues under investigation to emerge.

Participants

To gain considerably profound data, all 183 non-Thai non-native English speaking students majoring in Business English were the population requested to take part in this study). The reason why all target participants are included is that the researcher wishes to gain as insightful and genuine data as possible from this specific group of participants and there is much potential in doing so. All prospective participants are the current students studying for a four-year undergraduate degree program in an international university in Thailand.

81 participants actually took part in the study; the rest did not respond to the researcher's invitation and the questionnaires posted to their home address. The participants are of eight nationalities: Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Laotian, Burmese, Taiwanese, Vietnamese, and Filipino. The majority was Chinese (N=52). The participants, based on their GPA, have mixed learning performance. They are in third year and fourth year. Fifty-one are females and 30 are females.

After the questionnaires were administered, 30 participants with interesting instances from questionnaire results were purposively selected semi-structured interviews. The interview data were content examined then coding and groupings were formed.

Findings and Discussion

To answer the research questions, this section describes and discusses the results from the questionnaires and the interviews.

Research Question 1: "What are non-Thai ESL students' beliefs of English language learning while studying in an international university in Thailand?"

Based on the BALLI's five original groupings: Foreign Language Aptitude; Difficulty of Language Learning; Nature of Language Learning; Learning and Communication Strategies; and Motivation and Expectation, the factor analysis on the BALLI was conducted using the principal component analyses. The scree plot test resulted in four factors accounting for 38% of the total variance for the student participants as follows:

Belief Factor 1: Motivation for and nature of language learning: Most participants appear to focus on the importance of repetition and practice in English, speaking with an excellent pronunciation, the importance of English in future careers, the importance of having cultural knowledge of English-speaking countries and guessing unknown words.

Belief Factor 2: Self-efficacy and confidence in learning English: More than 85 percent of the participants believe that it is easier to speak English than to understand it and that it is important to have motivation to use English to know more people. More than half also indicated that the higher self-confidence and efficacy there is, the less uncertainty it shows when speaking English.

Belief Factor 3: Beliefs of formal English language learning: The majority of the participants placed high value on vocabulary learning, and memorization in language learning.

Belief Factor 4: Foreign Language Aptitude: It is shown that a number of the participants believe in special abilities in English language learning, the relative ease in learning a particular language, children's superiority in language learning abilities. and perceived differences between learning English and learning other subjects.

As for the reliability of the BALLI, a reliability test of the BALLI reveals moderate internal consistency, giving an alpha of .80 on the 81 students. This indicates the students' responses were moderately consistent to the items on the BALLI (Landau & Everitt, 2004).

From the factor analyses and the interview, the students under study reveal four dimensions of beliefs of English language learning. According to motivation and the nature or learning English, the students showed strong instrumental motivation for learning the language which is in accordance with what was reported in other studies on motivations of English as foreign language students (Diab, 2000; Kim-Yoon, 2000). Most also valued certain aspects of the nature of learning English such as reiteration and practice as well as speaking English with brilliant pronunciation. Almost all the students agreed that they became confident when using English at the university and had a positive sense of their self-efficacy in learning the language even though they partly believed that English was a difficult language to learn. Students studying English as a foreign language in other research studies on beliefs also had strong instrumental reasons for learning English rather than integrative reasons (Diab, ibid; Kim-Yoon, ibid; Kunt, 1998).

Regarding the students' views on formal learning, the majority of the students reported being well aware of the importance of learning vocabulary, memorization, and using translation when learning English even if they were rather neutral about grammar acquisition. In other EFL studies, most of the students, agreed on the importance of learning vocabulary and the ability to memorize words and utterances (Park, 1995; Truitt, 1995).

With reference to the language aptitude of English, from the questionnaire and interview, it was found that most believed that some people had special abilities in learning the language and that better language learning ability of children was true. The most universal belief held by current and past language learners is that children have a special aptitude for language learning. According to Siebert (2003) and Kim-Yoon (2000), just as most participants in this study, the participants in their studies support the existence of some special abilities for English language learning; however, in Kunt's (1998) study, the participants discarded the belief on the existence of special abilities in language learning and on gender difference.

Research Question 2: "What are the communication strategies used by these students and to what extent is there any relationship between their beliefs and their communication strategies?"

From the OCSI, strategies for coping with speaking problems during communication and strategies for coping with listening problems during communication were investigated. The speaking part consists of 32 variables and the listening part has 26 variables.

As for the reliability of the OCSI, a reliability test of the OCSI for both speaking and listening parts reveals highly acceptable internal consistency, giving an alpha of .86 and .84 respectively. Based on the principal factor analyses, the OCSI was analyzed using Kaiser's criterion followed by varimax rotation, resulting in eight factors for speaking strategies and seven factors for listening strategies.

It is assumed that these factors are particularly significant to the participants in this certain context. These factors, the mean for each factor, and the standard deviation appear in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1			
Factors for Speaking Strategies			
	MEAN	SD	
Factor 1: Social Affective	3.95	1.18	
Factor 2: Fluency Oriented	4.11	0.89	
Factor 3: Negotiation for Meaning while Speaking	3.82	0.87	
Factor 4: Accuracy-Oriented	2.64	0.96	
Factor 5: Message Reduction and Alteration	3.20	1.26	
Factor 6: Non-Verbal Strategies While Speaking	3.58	0.90	
Factor 7: Message Abandonment	2.67	1.02	
Factor 8: Attempt to think in English	3.26	1.28	

For the speaking part, the mean of the 32 items was 3.41, and the standard deviation was 0.85. It can be argued that with the highest mean score, Factor 2 appeared to be concerned with fluency of communication. Most participants would pay attention to the rhythm, pronunciation, intonation and clarity of their speech to improve the listener's understanding. They would also consider the context of speaking and take time not to send wrong messages to their interlocutors. Factors 1 and 3 were also worth considering as they came in 2nd and 3rd accordingly. Factor 1 is related to learners' affective factors in social contexts. In this regard, to communicate smoothly, most participants would try to monitor their own anxiety and enjoy the process of oral communication. They would be willing to encourage themselves to use English to avoid in communication and to risk making errors. This taxonomy is in line with O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) identification of social/affective strategies. Managing feelings during oral communication seems to be an important issue according to most participants in this study. The participants' attempts to negotiate with their interlocutors are connected with Factor 3. To maintain the interaction, they would try to conduct modified interaction. They would need to check listeners' understanding of their intentions and reactions. These are active strategies for negotiation of meaning and are important skills to improve foreign language ability (Nakahama, Tyler & Lier, 2001). With varied mean scores, the other factors also represent speaking strategies used by the participants.

Table	2
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Factors for Listening Strategies

	MEAN	SD	
Factor 1: Negotiation for Meaning While Listening	4.10	0.87	
Factor 2: Fluency-Maintaining	4.22	0.80	
Factor 3: Scanning	3.81	0.93	
Factor 4: Getting the Gist	4.01	0.86	
Factor 5: Nonverbal Strategies While Listening	3.70	1.09	
Factor 6: Less Active Listener	2.68	0.99	
Factor 7: Word-Oriented	3.75	1.13	

For the listening part, the mean score of the 26 items was 3.64, and the standard deviation was 0.91. Factor 2 received the highest mean score. Focusing on the fluency of conversational flow, this factor highlights asking questions, giving examples, and using circumlocution to continue smooth interaction. Such strategies enable EFL learners to keep interactions going to achieve mutual goals (Rost & Ross, 1991). Also, as reflected in Factor 1, the participants would use modified interaction to maintain their conversational goal with speakers. Pica (1996) stated that the use of these strategies could help provide opportunities to learn foreign language through interaction. As for Factor 4, getting the gist, this deals with paying attention to general information rather than to specific utterances. These strategies are found to be useful when trying to understanding what the speaker is saying by activating schemata of background information. With varied mean scores, the other factors also represent other listening strategies used.

From the interviews, it was found that specific contexts of language use at university and in classrooms as well as teachers are important variables affecting their beliefs and strategy use. Overall, relationships between participants' beliefs about English learning and their use of communication strategies were both directly and indirectly reported. For example, some participants' beliefs are found to be unrealistic. They viewed errors as harmful and believed that errors should be corrected immediately. In real classrooms, in fact, errors are permitted because they constitute part of the learning process particularly for communication purposes (Horwitz, 1988). Still, many disagree with the idea of guessing in the face of language difficulties.

Research Question 3: "What is the relationship between their beliefs in English language learning and their perceived learning achievement?

Based on the interviews, almost all regard themselves as adequate users of English. They also argued that perceived English learning success affects the rate of recurrence and preference of their communication strategies as well as beliefs. Nearly all believed that to be successful in learning English, communicative competence is the key whereas the language form is found to be secondary. A study by Wenden (1987) reports that learners who subscribe to language use highlight the importance of communicative use or function of language rather than the form. These learners regard communicating the meaning as more important than the grammar. They favour the use of communication strategies such as using explanation and activating a number of contextual clues to negotiate meaning. Meanwhile, learners who focus on learning about the language or language usage pay a great deal of attention to the forms of the language. These learners rely heavily on cognitive strategies such as using a dictionary, making notes and practising specific habits to improve their language learning.

Conclusion and Implication

Investigating what learners believe about language learning is 'a process of (self-) discovery which involves the learners themselves as much as the teacher' (Tudor, 1996, p. 52). A substantial amount of research has shown the potential of understanding learners' belief systems. One clear benefit of recognizing students' beliefs is that it provides teachers with better understanding of 'their students' expectation of, commitment to, success in, and satisfaction with their language classes' (Horwitz, 1988, p. 283). It is also likely that some language learners may have been exposed to common and, in some cases, erroneous beliefs about language learning. By undertaking this research, these issues have been explored further using the BALLI and indeed in this study all of the participants hold certain beliefs about learning English.

The use of social affective and negotiation for meaning strategies for speaking and a fluency maintaining strategy for listening are found to be the most used communication strategies based on the OCSI. This, however, has to take specific contexts of language use into consideration as they appear to have an impact on the participants' beliefs and specific strategies employed. Language teachers also play an important role in supporting the use of effective communication strategies and assisting students in practicing English. The findings also suggest that the genuine learning environment that fosters and compels communicative English interaction needs to be developed. This is because when learners are required to use English in such context, their beliefs about learning English, English communication strategies, and learning achievement render positive relationships. Last but not least, it is important to see whether the methods used in this study can be applied in different contexts so as to generate new and useful findings.

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An Analysis of Cultural Substitution in English to Thai Translation

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Abstract

Cultural substitution refers to the translation of some known or unknown concepts in the source language by using the substitution from the culture of the receptor language rather than by other available means of meaning equivalence. For examples, *a black sheep* is translated into literal Thai as *a cub outside a pen* rather than *a person with different and unacceptable characters*, and *a corner stone* is translated as *a supreme pole*, rather than *an indispensable and fundamental basis*. This study analyzes cultural substitution in English to Thai translation in order to document its types, linguistic patterns, and cultural significance; and to find and draw conclusions as to the translators' opinion of this technique. In the first part of the study, culturally substituted items were randomly collected from 1000 pages of different types of English to Thai translated works which were published during B.E. 2542 (1997) to B.E. 2552 (2007). These data were then classified and listed according to their generic types and presented in categorized tables with their linguistic and cultural comments as findings. In the second part, 12 translators whose works have been published during the past 10 years were asked to fill in questionnaires and interviewed on their opinions on cultural substitute translation technique. The conclusions of the opinions are provided, and the recommendations for the use of the findings and for further research are offered.

Introduction

English to Thai translation has had a long history in Thailand as a means of communication and technology transfer. In the field of communication, Thailand has been receiving and exchanging information on various areas of study, entertainment, and culture. Translation as a language skill has developed as a profession and an academic subject taught in schools and universities at both undergraduate and graduate levels. Since Thai is the only major native and official language of Thailand, knowledge, technology, and culture from English speaking people have found their ways into Thailand mainly through translation into Thai, especially prior to the last two decades, when more Thais have been exposed to and thus acquired better knowledge of English language and culture. At present, English to Thai translation is done in most areas of interest and has developed to be of high quality, with many competent translators who are equipped with a theoretical background of translation and excellent command of both English and Thai. Moreover, with globalization and widespread acculturation, many translators are doing their best to produce outstanding work according to the ethical standards of the business and academic world. Documenting and describing Thai language usage in the framework of descriptive linguistics through translated work, then, is one of the valid methods to compare English and Thai culture and the ways English and Thai people perceive the world. This study seeks to analyze the use of cultural substitution technique of English to Thai translation in order to record and document the different ways Thai and English people express their thinking and perspective of the world. The results of the analysis can also benefit the teaching and learning of translation by providing evidence and examples of translation, the types of the culture, and the varying opinions different translators have on the technique.

Objectives of the study

To analyze the cultural substitution in English to Thai translation in order to:

- 1. Identify the types of cultural substitution and their examples in order to document the language usage in the framework of Documentary and Descriptive Linguistics (Himmelmann and Bochum, 2007).
- 2. Analyze the technique of cultural substitution translation and describe its linguistic and cultural patterns (Denoun, 2000; Karamanian ,2002; Triveni, 2002).
- 3. Study the opinions of Thai translators on this cultural substitution technique compared to other standard translation techniques using the framework of Mildred M. Larson (1998).

Cultural meaning of words

Larson (1998) indicates that the most difficult problem in translation is the differences between cultures. People of different cultures may look at things from their own perspective. *Pig* may be *good* and *valuable* in Papua New Guinea, but may be *bad* and *nonfood* in the Jewish culture. When translating *pig* from a Papua New Guinea context into a Jewish context, the cultural meaning must be sent across either by making the culture explicit, or if appropriate and possible, by using a cultural substitute with similar form or function. In Thai, *a water buffalo* may be a good substitute for *a turkey* in English, indicating *hateful stupidity*. Moreover, different cultures usually have different focuses in life. Americans focus on working, money, sports, schooling, and marriage; while in Papua New Guinea, people concentrate on gardening, fishing, foods, and ceremonies. As a result, the amount of vocabulary which is available to discuss a particular topic can reflect the different focuses and culture and is a challenge for the translator to select the exact word from the many available choices to create a natural translation.

Cultural substitution in translation

Larson (1998) states that there will be some lexical items which neither a generic term nor a loan word with modification will be possible as a translation equivalence. In some incidents, the source language lexical items can only be best translated by using the thing, the image, or the event which is not exactly the same but does occur in the receptor language. For example, when the form is not in focus, coyotes may be substituted for wolf and bury may be substituted for place in the tomb because these substitution have the same function in both languages. Larson does caution against the use of anachronistic substitution such as a car for a chariot because of the time difference and the fact that the translator must be true to the facts of a narrative. Cultural substitutes would work better in a text written to create a certain effect rather than to indicate facts or concrete information. Moreover, according to Larson, cultural substitutes always result in some distortion of meaning and should not be used unless the other possible techniques have proven inappropriate. In other words, translators should try other ways to reach the meaning equivalence first before settling down on a culturally substituted item. However, considering all the difficult and complicated tasks of translating, Larson stresses that a cultural substitute does work well and can produce dynamic equivalence without which the source language might not be understood.

Methodology

This is a qualitative and descriptive analysis. There are two parts to this study; the language documentation, and the questionnaires and in-depth interviews.

Data collection

The data consists of randomly selected 1000 pages of English source language and their Thai translated version. It covers 10 areas of interest, with 100 pages from each area. The areas covered are:

- 1. Business
- 2. Idiom and proverb
- 3. Science and technology
- 4. Traveling and entertainment
- 5. News and information
- 6. Novels and literature
- 7. History
- 8. Arts and culture
- 9. Religion and belief
- 10. Academic textbooks

Data documenting

By comparing the English source language to the Thai translated receptor language, the documenting processes are:

- 1. The Thai version is compared to the English source language, carefully looking for culturally substituted items.
- 2. Each culturally substituted item is listed once with a cultural note from the context.
- 3. All the listed items are grouped according to their generic types and their forms and functions.
- 4. The classified types are shown in tables with the English and Thai versions side by side together with the cultural notes when required.
- 5. Discussion on each type of cultural substitute found is given concerning the techniques and the cultural points.

English	Thai	Note
underworld	world of God of Death	hell
mile	kilometer	measurement
rotted in hell	fried in copper pan	punished in hell
cornerstone	supreme pole	indispensable and fundamental basis
a turkey	a water buffalo	stupid
Helen of Troy	Queen Siida of Ramayana	beautiful and fought over by men
to use a sledge hammer to	to ride on elephant to capture	excessive use
crack a nut	a grass hopper	

Examples of cultural substitutes

Results of data analysis

Nine types of cultural substitution are found:

1. Religion, belief

English	Thai	Note
potion	holy water from a novice	not effective
holy day	Buddhist lent day	Buddhist culture
God	the Lord Buddha	
Vampires	ghost bats	
Thou shall not kill	the first Buddhist restriction	
Turned religious	turned toward the temple	

Finding: Most religious beliefs are substituted by Buddhist culture and folk beliefs of the Thais.

2. People

English	Thai	Note
Mary Poppins	a priestess	kind, innocent
Helen of Troy	Kaakii	infidelity
Casanova	Khun Phaen	famous lover
A Jurassic person	King Hao	old-fashioned
A beauty queen	Miss Apatsara	Thai Miss Universe
A hot rod	a ghost foot	reckless as a ghost
A sucker	a young chick	easily taken
A bimboo	a sexy Mae Khong calendar girl	unacceptable

Finding: Most substitutes for people or idioms referring to people are from well-known Thais either from history, literature, folk, or legends.

3. Objects

English	Thai	Note
An elevator	a lift	
Melted butter	coconut cream	
A fig leaf	tamlung leaf	similar shape
A beach ball	a bamboo container	big and round
Volk Beetle	Volk Turtle	
Lily	lotus flower	
A pudding bowl	a half coconut shell	
A U-bend	a goose neck	
A tornado	A monsoon	

Finding: Most substitutes are chosen because of their matching familiar form and/or function. Loan cultural substitutes are mostly borrowed British English words commonly used in Thai.

4. Time, measurement

English	Thai	Note
700 feet	210 meters	
A half dozen	five or six	
Dozens	many tens	
In 1998	in 2541	
At 16.00	at 4 o'clock	
247,000 acre	617,500 rai	
360 degrees	around all direction	
A dime	two baht	
5 miles	8 kilo	
An arm length	About two elbows	

Finding: Substitutes are to facilitate easy understanding of the commonly used time and measurement systems. Some substitutes are required according to the field of communication.

5. Places

English	Thai	Note
Utopia	Phra Siaraya Metrai	Thai perfect state
Tennessee	Roi-ed	up-country, remote
Slum	rat's holes	
Alabama	Nong Maa Woe	Hill Billy
A park	Lumpini Park	
T-junction	three-way intersection	
Red light district	Green lantern district	
heaven	chimplee	Thai heaven

Finding: Most place names are translated as loan words. Thai cultural substitutes are used as a metaphor to reflect the form and function of such places, and to create a similar image.

6. Foods

English	Thai	Note
Crepes	yellow bean sweet	
Fruits	banana, sugar cane	Local fruits
Lunch box	rice-pack box	Rice means a whole meal
Salt	fish source	
Peanut butter and jelly	rice with fish sauce	almost nothing to eat
Breakfast	morning rice	
Fast food	curry rice	
Pancakes	Chinese pie	salapao
Dumplings	Thai sweet	bua-loy
Cereal	rice cereal	khao-mao

Finding: Most substitutes can present only the function of such food being translated. A loan with modification of form and/or function would work better.

7. Concept and idiom

English	Thai	Note	
Married name	husband's last name	More emphasis on male	
Mr. and Mrs. Baker	Baker and wife	Male dominance	
The mamas-trains-and pick-	up-country music of lower	Market reflects socio-economic	
up trucks style of country	market	class	
music			
Grand ma and grand pa	Grand pa and grand ma	Males come first	
affairs of the state	royal affairs	Thailand is a kingdom, royal can	
		mean government	
final admonition	proverb to teach women	Women need to be taught	
Soap opera	filthy-water drama	A waste of time to watch	
A black eye	a bruised green eye	Different interpretation of colors	
Ladies and gentlemen	Gentlemen and ladies	Cultural crash	

Finding: Thailand is a kingdom and male dominated. The substitutes work to prevent cultural clashes when culture is not in focus.

8. Animal

English	Thai	Note
A tadpole not a shark	a cat not a tiger	
Worker bees	working ants	
A horse out of the barn	a cow out of the pen	
A heifer	a suckling baby buffalo	a crying loser

Finding: When animals are used in metaphor, substitutes are required to reach equivalence. Cultural substitutes for real animals are rare because of globalization and acculturation.

9. Proverb

English	Thai	Note
Talking to a brick wall	pour water on a stump	
The wisest man may fall	even four-legged animals can	
	miss	
To put one's foot in it	to wiggle your foot for a sliver	
To turn a blind eye	to put your ears to the paddy	
	fields and eyes to the farm	
Still water runs deep	sharp in the sheath	
Out of sight out of mind	three days away and a woman	
	turns towards others	
Too many cooks spoil the	Too many lawyers, too many	
broth	cases	

Finding: Cultural substitution works best on a proverb treated as a unit of meaning. Proverbs reflect culture, ways of thinking, and the many facets of life in a community. The substitutes provide image and flavor of the language.

Findings and Discussion

- 1. The grammatical forms of the source language are mostly kept in the receptor language, e.g., a noun is translated as a noun, adjective as adjective. This is also true in the phrase level, e.g., a noun phrase is mostly translated as a noun phrase.
- 2. Idioms and proverbs are treated as units of meaning and substituted by whole units of idioms and proverbs, e.g., the idiom *He became red in the face* is translated as *he turned bloodshot in the face*; and the proverb *One rotten apple spoils the whole barrel* is translated as *One rotten fish makes the whole catch stink*.
- 3. Cultural substitutes are chosen because of their matching form and/or function between the source and receptor language, e.g., *a turkey* in English and *a water buffalo* in Thai are both animal (form) and are both considered stupid (function).
- 4. A cultural substitute sends across the meaning and image comparable in the two cultures being translated. On the part of the translator, the source and the cultural substitute are compared as in the case of metaphor or simile. The translator looks for and selects a matching metaphor in the receptor culture. The readers easily understand the meaning and the emotional effect attached to the item because it is from their own familiar culture. For example, *Helen of Troy* is understood in English with all her famous history in a similar way as *Queen Siida* is known in Thai. *Queen Siida* is then a suitable cultural substitute for *Helen of Troy* when translating metaphor, expressing the meaning of a great beauty who is fought over by men.
- 5. Some types of cultural substitutes are more required than others. Substitution of time and measurement is sometimes a requirement in business translation while substitution of idioms and proverbs create more pleasure in the entertainment translation but are not required.

Results of In-depth Interview and Questionnaires

The sampling group consists of 12 translators who have had their work published during 1957-1967. The interviews were done in Thai and the interviewees were told about the technical terms used, e.g., one to one equivalent, implicit and explicit, form and function, generic and specific, loan and cultural substitute. The translators were asked to fill in questionnaires followed by in-depth interviews on their opinions of cultural substitution and other translation techniques.

Results of the questionnaires

- 1. All translators consider one to one equivalence the best technique. (12)
- 2. Most translators have used cultural substitution technique. (11)
- 3. Most translators consider cultural substitution their last choice. (8)
- 4. Most translators feel that cultural substitution is effective. (8)
- 5. Most translators consider loan translation the best alternative for cultural substitution.(10)
- 6. All translators believe that cultural substitution is the most difficult technique. (12)
- 7. Most translators feel that they should try their best to translate culture accurately. (11)
- 8. Most translators have encountered difficult cultural differences in their work. (10)
- 9. Most translators appreciate cultural substitutes when they read others' translation. (9)
- 10. Some translators have checked whether readers appreciate their culturally substituted translation. (5)
- 11. Most translators think that cultural substitution is best for translating proverbs and idiom.(10)

- 12. Most translators avoid cultural substitution when translating facts. (9)
- 13. Most translators believe that there will be less use of cultural substitutes because of the continuing acculturation. (8)
- 14. Most translators usually keep the grammatical forms of the source language when translating. (10)
- 15. Some translators believe that translating will be easier and more accurate because of acculturation. (5)

Recommendations

- 1. Documented data should be used in translation teaching and discussed in terms of meaning clarification and translation techniques.
- 2. Records of Thai usage and Thai language change in the fields of Thai Study and Sociolinguistics should include culturally substituted items in translation, reflecting English and Thai culture and world view.
- 3. Further research in translation should go beyond the language accuracy level to relate to other relevant social science fields involving communication, entertainment, and business.

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กรุงเทพฯ: สถาบันบัณฑิตพัฒนบริหารศาสตร์

An Analysis of English-Thai Translation Work by Undergraduate Thai Students

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Abstract

The study was undertaken to analyze the techniques used or the types of mistranslation and the major causes of mistranslation made by Thai students. The subjects were 19 undergraduate students at Thammasat University (TU) who were asked to take two English-Thai translation tests at the paragraph level. The researcher selected the student's most appropriate version in comparison with the inappropriate version, and analyzed their techniques one by one based on Larson's Meaning-Based theory. The evaluation focused on the correctness of the content and the naturalness of the language. The results showed the nine translation techniques or the types of mistranslation: (1) Deletion of Adjective Translation; (2) Translating Wrong Sense of the Word; (3) Real Concordance; (4) Translating Generic to Specific Word; (5) Mismatching of Semantic Sets; (6) Pseudo Concordance; (7) Translating the Connotation of Lexical Item; (8) Translating Concept; and (9) Inappropriate Translation of the Pronoun. Findings on the major causes of mistranslation are discussed so as to be beneficial for translators, students, language teachers, and researchers interested in this area.

Key words: Translation, Applied Linguistics, Translation Teaching

Introduction

Translation is commonly employed by Thai teachers at all levels of education. More translation courses have been added to the English curriculum of many universities to fulfill the increasing need for their students to practice translation. Graduates are often asked to take a translation test to determine their language proficiency when pursuing their studies at higher levels or applying for jobs. A translation test, if systematically prepared, can be a reliable means of evaluating the student's ability. However, for Thai students, translating from the source language (SL) to the target language (TL) is very difficult linguistically and culturally because "the translation is the highly complicated, multilayered analyses of semantic fields, syntactic structures, the sociology structures, and psychology of reader or listener response and cultural difference." (Robinson: 50) Thus, in the viewpoint of the researcher, the translation analysis is useful in increasing our understanding of the impediments that hinder the success of the teaching and learning of translation.

Purposes of the Study

The main purposes of the study were analyzed to find:

- 1. Translation techniques and examples of their translation work
- 2. Major causes of mistranslation influencing their work

Scope of the Study

The researcher in this study aimed to analyze the techniques used in the student's translation process and the data collected were analyzed at the word or phrase level. The study was analyzed primarily based on the theoretical framework of Larson 1998. The frequency was provided.

Methodology

Subjects

The subjects were nineteen undergraduate students at TU who were taking a translation course, "Introduction of Translation" (EG 351). All were in the third or fourth years and were a mix of English major and minor students; therefore, they had a reasonably competent level of English proficiency and had some translating experience in other classes.

Materials

The materials were two English-Thai translation tests at the paragraph level with 120-150 word lengths. The first one was taken from the introductory paragraph of an informative article titled "Professional Literature for Translators" selected from the *American Translators Association (ATA) Chronicle*. The second paragraph was chosen from the expressive article titled, "My Favorite Room," selected from *Headway*. The tests are included in the appendix.

Data Analysis

The student's versions with the highest level of equivalence were selected and analyzed in comparison with the inappropriate paragraphs. The frequency in both was provided. The data was categorized and discussed one-by-one based on Larson's Meaning-Based theory. The evaluation was not only based on correctness of content, but also naturalness of language.

Results

I. Translation techniques and examples

1. Deletion of Adjective Translation: the adjectives are omitted in translation.

Source Language	Translated Version (Literal Thai)	Frequency
more common	Appropriate Version	
	-	-
	Inappropriate Version	
	1.not attempted to translate	10
	2.full-time jobs they are responsible already	5
	3.the general full-time jobs (working full day)	3
	4.other jobs which are more appropriate than full-	1
	time jobs	

-a more common full-time job

2. Translating Wrong Sense of the Word: the process of discovering the various senses of words is rather complicated when no available dictionary gives an adequate description of senses of words. A literal translation of a word would cause an inappropriate collocation and wrong meaning. (Larson, 1998:111-114)

Source Language	Translated Version (Literal Thai)	Frequency
gravitate	Appropriate Version	
	1.move toward to	1
	Inappropriate Version	
	1.like to enter/go	7
	2.gather/influx	4
	3.not attempted	5
	4.walk around	2

- People gravitate with their drinks to the kitchen.

3. Real Concordance: words which are repeatedly used in the document to refer to the same sense or concept (Larson, 1998: 162, 163, 207).

Source Language	Translated Version (Literal Thai)	Frequency	
translation	Appropriate Version		
translation	1.translation tasktranslation task	3	
translation	translation task		
	Inappropriate Version		
	1. translation tasktranslationtranslation	11	
	2.translationtranslationdoing translation	2	
	3. doing this jobtranslation translation	1	
	4. translating bookstranslation task translation	1	
	5.translation tasktranslator translation	1	

- 4. Translating Generic to Specific Word: Generic word refers to a class of word whose meaning is more general which represents a whole class and includes the more specific words. (Larson, 1998:71-72)
 - <u>People</u> gravitate with their drinks to the kitchen.

Source Language	Translated Version (Literal Thai)	Frequency
people	Appropriate Version	
	1.guests	2
	2.person who joined the party	2
	Inappropriate Version	
	1. people	13
	2. we	1
	3. everyone	1

5. Mismatching of Semantic Sets: Mismatching of semantic sets refers to the lexical items between one language and another that may be related in various ways, but they may have no meaning components in common when people who are talking about a certain topic (Larson, 1998: 100)

Source Language	e Translated Version (Literal Thai) Free		
homecoming	Appropriate Version		
	1.coming back home again		
	2.the day of visiting family and spending time	1	
	together		
	Inappropriate Version		
	1.home welcoming	9	
	2.alumni party/celebration	4	

-special occasions such as homecomings

6. Pseudo Concordance: the word which is repeatedly used in the document but does not refer to the same sense and concept (Larson, 1998: 162-163).

Source Language	Translated Version (Literal Thai)	Frequency
lawmedicine	Appropriate Version	
lawmedicine	1.profession in the field of law and medical	8
	scienceknow about <u>law and medical science</u> 2.lawyers and doctorsknow <u>about law and</u> <u>medical science/curing patients</u>	5
	Inappropriate Version 1.profession in the field of law and medical scienceknow about law and <u>pills</u> or tropical	4
	science 2.Faculty of Law and Medical ScienceFaculty of Law and Medical Science	2

- 7. Translating the Connotation of Lexical Item: a word or phrase which cannot be translated literally but is associated with the other word which is used in a figurative way to refer to it. (Larson, 1998: 121-122)
 - the <u>fullest</u> and noisiest room in the house

Source Language	Translated Version (Literal Thai)	Frequency
fullest	Appropriate Version	
	1.the fullest, a lot of/full of people	9
	Inappropriate Version	
	1.not attempted to translate	5
	2.the most colorful	3
	3.the messiest	1
	4.full (cannot eat or drink anything else)	1

8. Translating Concept: there are no exact equivalents between the words of language and the words of another. There, however, will be words which have some of meaning components combined in them matching a word which has these components with some additional ones. (Larson, 1998: 61-62)

Source Language	Translated Version (Literal Thai)	Frequency
sideline	Appropriate Version	
	1.additional jobs or careers	8
	2.jobs pursuing in addition to one's main jobs Inappropriate Version	
	1.hobby	4
	2.extra work	2
	3.other jobs	2
	4. not attempted	1

- translation as a sideline

9. Inappropriate Translation of the Pronoun: indefinite pronouns are used in the different way in SL and RL. Also, there are extended usages of pronouns. The translated versions need to be adjusted. (Larson, 1998: 138-139)

Source Language	Translated Version (Literal Thai)	Frequency
our	Appropriate Version No need to translate.	13
	Inappropriate Version 1.our	6

Summary

Technique or the Type of Mistranslation	Appropriate (Percentage)	Inappropriate (Percentage)
1. Deletion of Adjective Translation	0%	100%
2. Translating Wrong Sense of the Word	5.26%	94.74%
3. Real Concordance	15.79%	84.21%
4. Translating Generic to Specific Word	21.05%	78.95%
5. Mismatching of Semantic Sets	31.58%	68.42%
6. Pseudo Concordance	42.11%	57.89%
7. Translating the Connotation of Lexical Item	43.37%	52.63%
8. Translating Concept	52.63%	47.37%
9. Inappropriate Translation of the Pronoun	68.42%	31.58%

Discussions

- 1. Based on the study, it was found that students mistranslated some words or phrases because they were not sure or misunderstood the wrong sense of the word as the semantic unit in the SL. For example, the phrase "a more <u>common</u> full-time job," was one of the most difficult and most students omitted translating this phrase, or translated the word "common" as "general" which is not appropriate to the context. Instead, it should be equivalent to "routine". Another example is the word "gravitate," which means "gradually move to…". The concept in this context reflects that people come to the party unconsciously and gradually move to the kitchen due to the atmosphere as a whole. Only one out of 19 students closely translated this word as "move to…". However, this translated version may not completely express the feeling or cover the whole meaning the writer attempted to evoke.
- 2. The students did not apply the principles of translation in their tasks. One of the major techniques is that translators have to consider the meaning of key words, notice how they are related in each paragraph, and translate them consistently. In the first test, the key words "translation" were used three times in the paragraph and these words have the same meaning. Therefore, it should be kept to follow the coherence and translated as "translation work" by using a generic word "work or job relating to the translation." In this case, only three of the students translated correctly by using the technique of "real concordance". However, most students inaccurately interpreted this word by translating it as "the state or process of translating," "a translation job," or "book translate something" or "to do translation".
- 3. In some cases, students could not use the normal form of the RL. For example, in the sentence "My favorite room is <u>our</u> kitchen." It would not be necessary to literally translate the pronoun "my" and "our" because it is unnatural in the RL, especially in this sentence. Thus, it is acceptable to omit translating "our".

Recommendations

- 1. The students should be assigned to translate several kinds of translation tasks to practice their skills of using a dictionary in particular fields and analyzing the register and genre to target readers, which may enhance their understanding when performing their own translation projects.
- 2. Pedagogically, textbooks and materials used in class should be presented as a self-teaching method by providing samples of appropriate and inappropriate versions with the analysis of techniques and causes of mistranslation.
- 3. It is suggested that further studies should analyze at the sentence level and which only investigate some particular techniques or mistranslation students frequently made, which could lead to an improvement in the quality of translation tasks.

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Appendix

Please translate the two paragraphs as clearly as possible.

Test I

Most people who translate, when asked, "What do you do for a living?" do not respond, "I am a translator." This is because a) most translators do **translation**³ as a **sideline**⁸while holding a more **common**¹ full-time job, such as teaching or working for a company or an organization, and b) most translators do not look upon **translation**³ as a recognized profession. This is true both in U.S. and throughout the world. The basic difference between **translation**³ and such professions as **law or medicine**⁶ is that anyone who happens to know more than one language may attempt to translate a document while no one who knows some **law or medicine**⁶ would attempt to handle a legal case or cure a patient without the proper professional credentials.

Test II

My favorite room is **our**⁹ kitchen. Perhaps the kitchen is the most important room in many houses, but it is particularly so in our house because it's not only where we cook and eat, but it's also the main meeting place for family and friends. I have so many happy memories of time spent there: special occasions such as **homecomings**⁵ or cooking Christmas dinner; troubled times, which lead to comforting cups of tea in the middle of the night; ordinary daily events such as making breakfast on dark, cold winter mornings for cross, sleepy children before sending them off to school, then sitting down to read the newspaper with a steaming hot mug of coffee. Whenever we have a party,**people**⁴ **gravitate**² with their drinks to the kitchen. It always ends up the **fullest**⁷ and noisiest room in the house.

Initial Stage of a Study of Facebook's Impact on an Election Campaign in Thailand

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Abstract

Social networking sites have been an alternative way to establish networks in a virtual community and to keep in touch with different people. As there has been more interest from people using social networking sites for political communication in Thailand, the current study aims to explore how the use of Facebook during the Bangkok Governor Election campaign in January 2013 will influence Thai users' political attitude, participation and knowledge. A series of in-depth semi-structured interviews with Thai Facebook users and Facebook wall-post analysis will be done in this research to find out about the effect that Facebook has on its users before, during and after the election campaign. As this is an ongoing research, the current paper will give a brief outline on the literature review and the research structure.

1. Introduction

Social Networking Sites and Thai Politics

Social networking sites have become part of the political communication process in Thailand. Websites such as Facebook and Twitter allow people to register and form their own networks. There has been an increase in communication between politicians and citizens. Such social networking sites allow people to have real-time two-way communication. Since the existence of social networking sites, citizens and politicians have a role in news production.

According to Carthew (2010), the number of Thai Facebook users has increased dramatically from 2.4 million to more than 5.3 million users since the 2006 coup, while there are about 910,000 members of Twitter in Thailand. It could be said that the rise of social networking sites users was not only because Thaksin Shinawatra (one of Thailand's former prime ministers) started the trend of using Twitter (Carthew, 2010), but it was due to the ongoing political crisis in Thailand and the limitations of traditional media news reports.

Research Objectives

This research attempts to explore how the use of Facebook during the Bangkok Governor Election campaign in January 2013 will influence Thai users' political attitude, participation and knowledge by carrying out a series of in-depth semi-structured interviews with Thai Facebook users and doing Facebook wall-post analysis. This research will investigate the effects that Facebook has on Thai users over three periods of time (before, during and after the election campaign). The Facebook wall-posts analysis will be done to track the development and changes of peoples' opinions over a period of time. As this research is still in progress, the current paper will introduce the literature review and the research structure.

2. Literature Review

The literature review approach will focus on effect theory, which will be the main paradigm for the analysis of the effect that Facebook will have on voters during the Bangkok Governor Election in January 2013. Effect theory assumes that media have a significant effect on human behaviour

(McQuail, 2005). Potter (2011, p.903) defines effect theory as 'the change in an outcome within a person or a social entity that is due to the mass media influence exposure to a mass media messages or series of messages'. This means that information from mass media could have effect on media audience and affect the way they view a particular topic.

Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955, p.xxii) define effect theory as a means of measuring the extent to which individuals are influenced by the media and social system. The theory focuses on the questions of 'What do the media do to people? What do people do with the media?' (Herzong, 1941, cited in Katz and Lazarsfeld, 1955, p.xvii). The person who stands between the media and less active media audience is known as 'opinion leader' (Katz and Lazarsfeld, 1955). For example, after watching news or reading newspapers, what do media opinion leaders use the news for during conservations with other people? It is also important to realize how media influence opinion leaders and how opinion leaders seek to manipulate other people's opinions.

Using media in election campaigns is an example of how information is organized to persuade voters about specific policies (McQuail, 2005). The 'contextualization of media effects' also looks at how people's views are influenced by their own attitude and knowledge (McQuail, 2005). This means that if two people of different political knowledge and attitude were to read the same news, it is very likely that the individual response will be different.

As the effect of voters using social networking sites could be derived from a few different aspects, the current paper will start off by outlining the literature on the effect that user-generated content and information pool have on voters. Then, this paper will mention about the effect that social networking site has on gatekeeping and the overall effect of voters using social networking sites during election campaign.

Effect of Users Accessing User-generated Content and Information Pool

The digitalization of visual communication enables society and technology to have a closer relationship with each other due to real-time communication. The user-generated content formed in virtual communities indicates the spread of power in news production, enabling consumers and readers to become more involved in the generation of content. Jonsson and Ornebring (2010) argue that interactivity and user-generated content in the mainstream online news media will enhance democratic development but will not shift the power over media regardless of the degree of participation or interaction. Cheshire and Antin (2008) refer such a way of gathering information as accessing the *information pool*, in which digital information goods are collected and transmitted in the computer network and can be accessed by individuals. Such ways of formulating the information pool allows individuals to contribute text and multi-media content.

Effect that Social Networking sites has on Gatekeeping

Gatekeeping is a process of 'culling and crafting countless bits of information into the limited number of messages that reach people each day' (Shoemaker and Vos, 2009, p.1). It is a lengthy and long-established way to determine which information is selected (Shoemaker and Vos, 2009, p.1), and what content will be used. Furthermore, news editors also decide which images should be used to portray the news visually. Communicating via social networking sites have been referred to as 'networked journalism' and it has shortened the gatekeeping process (Beckett and Mansell, 2008). The difference between new media and old media is decisions such as these are being

decentralized in new media. Decentralization in decision-making makes people concerned about the quality of information emanating from social networking sites.

Effect that Social Networking Sites have brought during Election Campaign

The last national election in Thailand on July 3rd 2011 highlighted a major change in the form of election campaign, which saw the massive use of social networking sites by politicians during the election campaign. Famous political party leaders such as Yingluck Shinawatra and Abhisit Vejjajiva updated their campaign policies, campaign agendas, photographs, videos and links throughout the day. In other words, Thai politicians were using social networking sites as 'broadcasting centres' (Pirongrong cited in Achakulwisut, 2011) and as propaganda tools. However, according to the *Bangkok Post* online newspaper, analysts have suggested that 'bombarding' people with messages is not enough for politicians to make full use of the potential of social networking sites (Purongrong, 2011). More active participation would enhance politicians' use of their social networking identity and would strengthen their social capital. Most of the comments from voters were not replied to by politicians or their public relations people raising questions about the efficacy of social networking.

3. Research Questions

The research undertaken will focus on how Facebook affects its users during the Bangkok Governor's election in January 2013. With such effects occurring on Facebook users, the current hypothesis attempts to further investigate into how these effects are transmitted to people via online and offline communication.

The current research argues that Facebook has impacted on its users politically. There may be concerns that such effect might be very little, but if using Facebook does not bring any effect to users, politicians would not have spent so much time and effort using it as an alternative political communication tool. There are also possibilities that Facebook might only increase peoples' political knowledge and affect people's political participation to a certain extent. On the other hand, it could be argued that there are possibilities that Facebook might not have large impact on Facebook users politically and that it might not change voter's preferences political party. The answer to this question remains unclear and therefore it brings the current research questions:

Research Question 1: Has interacting via Facebook affected users' preference for election candidates?

Research Question 2: How will such an effect be further transmitted to others?

Research Question 3: Does Facebook matter in Thai political communication, in particular communication between citizens and politicians?

Scope of Analysis

The current research will focus on the Bangkok Governor Election campaign in January 2013. It will examine participants' political attitude, participation and knowledge before, during and after the election campaign.

There have been a number of researches investigating voter's political knowledge and behaviour. Scheufele and Nisbet (2002) have researched political efficacy, political knowledge and forum participation among New York residents. Wang (2007) has examined the interrelationship of political use, political attitude and political participation of internet users in Taiwan. Anduiza et al. (2009) have debated the types and levels of political participation on the internet. While Baumgartner and Morris (2009) explored the relationship between social networking sites and political engagement of young adults. As the definition of *political attitude, political participation* and *political knowledge* varies from research to research, this research will accord the definitions of these terms to Baumgartner and Morris (2009), as follow:

Political Attitude: The extent to which citizens have a strong mindset to a particular political party e.g. strong Phue Thai, strong Democrat, or independent or neither; don't know; haven't given it much thought.

Political Participation: The extent to which citizens become involved in political communication via letter, newspaper, blogs, e-email or web petition. Participating in politics 'promote[s] the interest and needs of an actor as well as belonging to a system, identifying with the "general interest of the community" (Melucci, 1989, pp.173-74, cited in Fenton, 2008a). Therefore, political participation also includes voting during elections and participating in political protest.

Political Knowledge: The extent to which citizens know about the key politicians' position in the past or basic information about political issues. The current research looks at how citizens' perceptions on the doings of politicians lead them to transmit their understanding and knowledge to other people.

Scope of Data Collection Period

As the three different periods of time selected consist of different characteristics, it is fundamental to categorize the research analysis into these stages. With this in mind, the current research will examine the changes in political attitude, political participation and political knowledge over three periods of time (before, during and after the election campaign).

Scope of Methodology and Data Analysis

Previous research on politics and the internet that have employed closed-questions surveys include McLeod et al. (1999), Scheufele and Nisbet (2002), Wang (2007), W Zhang et al. (2009), Baumgartner and Morris (2009), Theocharis (2010), Smith (2010) and Li (2010). Research that used content analysis to study on news in old media, particularly newspapers include Nir and Roeh (1992), Yang (2003), Tworzecki and Semetko (2010), Jonsson and Ornebring (2010) and Edgerly et al. (2011). Stamou (2001) used critical discourse analysis to study on Greek newspaper on protest. While Marwick and Boyd (2010) employed wall-post analysis on Twitter for their research.

As researchers have paid less attention to other methodologies and only employed one methodology to their research, the current research attempts to employ semi-structured interviews and Facebook wall-post analysis. According to Read and Marsh (2002), combining two research methods will allow the research to address all aspects of the research questions and this will also increase the validity of the research as one method is checking on another.

The current research will first carry out semi-structured interviews, either face-to-face or online with Thai Facebook users based on the current research objectives. In the semi-structured interview, a set of questions are asked but the interviewer is allowed to raise and develop other questions relating to interviewees' answers. It is one of the most appropriate choices for this research because such method allows the researcher to question based on any unexpected answer that the interviewees give. This will allow sufficient detail of participants' experience (Blee and Taylor,

2002) in using Facebook for political communication, giving the interviewer and interviewees opportunity to discuss about their Facebook wall-post as well.

Textual analysis will be used to decode text from the interviews and the Facebook wall-post of participants. The use of Facebook wall-post analysis will support what participants think about how their political attitude, participation and knowledge have changed. This will enable us to determine the development of the participants' thoughts online over the three periods of time in the election campaign case.

The purpose of using textual analysis is to gather information on how information on Facebook or information that people post on Facebook tries to make sense of the election campaign (McKee, 2003). This enables the researcher to make an 'educated guess' on the most likely interpretation that the text contains (McKee, 2003, p.1). To provide a reasonable and confident judgment on the communicator, phrases or combination of words have to be analyzed to understand how the communicator tries to convey the message (McKee, 2003). Moreover, this research aims to give a critical analysis by looking at the materiality and attributes of text, which includes the visible and invisible content of the message (Kress and Leeuwen, 2006).

Scope of Research Sampling

Previous research in this area has used large sampling size (over a 200) to gather their data by doing survey. The current research will take a different approach and undertake an in-depth study on political attitude, participation and knowledge with 30-50 Thai Facebook users. The selection of the participants for the current research will have a significant impact on the results of the study. The research will look for database listing of the top active Thai Facebook users who participates in Thai politics online. Then, if it is possible to find their contact information, they will be contacted and asked whether they are interested in participating in the study. If such database is not found or cannot be accessed, convenient sampling will be used for the research, where politically active Facebook users' in election campaign will be selected. Selected participants are people who the researchers know or people who have been recommended. Such way of selection will enable participants to trust the research, which could lead to valid data collection.

The participants will have the following characteristics:

Thai Facebook user who:

- have joined at least one politicians Facebook group page
- contribute to political information online, post political comments online or do anything to play a part in Thai political participation
- have frequent access to Facebook
- can communicate in English and Thai
- is aged between 18-30
- is resident of Bangkok

Language Use in the Study

The researcher will carry out the current interview in English and when necessary, translation between Thai and English will be done as Thai language might appear in data collection during Facebook wall-post. Though the use of English language might weaken the validity of research findings compared to native language (Yang, 2003), having to translate the whole research into

English will lead to misinterpretation of text to some extent. Therefore, the research will minimize the translation work by selecting Thai people who can communicate in English as well. However, if the research lacks Thai Facebook users who can communicate fluently in English, then interviews will be conducted in Thai language with some participants.

4. Potential Contributions

Thai Politics

The researcher aims to contribute to the literature on the Bangkok Governor Election in January 2013. To control the variables of what have influenced people's perception on politics, it is better not to look back at the past events but instead to use them as a foundation. The articles written by McCargo (2008, 2009, 2010), Carthew (2010), Bunyavejchewin (2010), Ungpakorn (2009), Ockey (2003) and Woodier (2008) lack attention on the influence of social networking sites on its users politically. However, these researchers are experts in the field of Thai politics; the current research will make full use of these articles as part of the literature review. Thus, the current research will fill the gap by looking at election campaign issues concerning Bangkok Governor's election (January 2013).

Effects Theory

The current research will apply Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955) ideology of media effect by aiming to contribute in the area of how Facebook affects people's political attitude, participation and knowledge on the Bangkok Governor Election campaign. The research will also look at the effect that Facebook has brought to Facebook users and how these effects further affect other people during online discussion.

It is aware that social networking sites effects can only be measured to a certain extent. Even though effects or changes in people's political attitude, participation and knowledge will not be measured quantitatively, such effects will be measured in a wider scope of qualitative analysis and discussion.

According to Katz and Lazarsfeld (1955, p.12), 'small group of research turned out to be amenable to re-organization and re-interpretation' to this broader problem. As the current research aims to explore the effect that Facebook brings to Facebook users on election campaign, a small size of sampling will be used as the basis for guiding future approaches to this method of study, allowing the research to gain a deeper understanding of how Facebook affects people by conducting semi-structured interviews with the participants over three periods of time.

Currently, there is still a lack of research on the multidimensional relationship between Internet use and political participation (Bakker and De Vreese, 2011). For that reason, the current research wants to contribute the findings of the effects which Facebook has on its users around the 2013 local election.

Significance of Current Research

The significances of the current research are as follow:

Firstly, contemporary Thai politics is an important area of study as it is an understudied subject and the country is still developing a democratic system (Owen, 2009). By having the first female prime minister since July 3rd 2011, the contemporary political issues have brought local and international scholars and media to be more interested in moving the Thai democratic system forward. Therefore,

the study of contemporary Thai politics is currently important and this is why it has been chosen in this research.

Secondly, the trend of using social networking sites has both advantages and disadvantages to social networking users. The rapid, increased interest in Thai social networking sites, users and political issues have enabled the current research to see the significance of studying how social networking sites effect the democratic Thai political system. Thai social networking sites users who are addicted to Facebook might not realize the impact that social networking sites have on them and how such effect further affect people around them. While other people concerned that social networking sites lack privacy, allowing 'strangers' to access other users private data. Therefore, an in-depth study on social networking sites users over a period of time is necessary to gain deeper understanding of these issues.

Thirdly, with regards to semi-structured interview and textual analysis of Facebook users' wallpost, the methodological approach of the current research will lead to an analysis of the differences between Internet use and traditional media use, having impact on democratic citizenship (Scheufele and Nisbet, 2002) (compared to quantitative telephone survey interview with 468 resident in Scheufele's and Nisbet's research). As Wang (2007) suggested, future research should look into how the internet promotes democratic citizenship. Papacharissi (2002) suggested that more research should have closer observation of online political discussion to determine individual psyche and wellbeing of a democratic society. Consequently, the current research will investigate how the internet plays a role in developing the democratic system in Thailand.

Past researches have examined large samples and data for their analysis of media effects. However, there has been little attention paid to in-depth study of small samples, (Herzog, 1941, cited in Katz and Lazarsfeld, 1955, p.xvii). Therefore, the current research will use small size sampling to gather data, which will address problems in the broader sense.

Lastly, the current study allows the researcher to examine the language of participation in online communication and offline conversation, looking at how Facebook has influenced people. Data analysis of the current study will be a guideline for future research. Moreover, it will measure the effectiveness of conducting such research, by establishing how many people are willing to be involved in the study and how many people will withdraw from the study. As a result, the scope of the current research will be significant to Thai Facebook users, Thai politicians and scholars in this field of study.

5. Possible Challenges of Current Research

There are possible challenges to carry out the research which might prevent it from achieving its objectives. Firstly, participants might not fully notice how Facebook affect their political thoughts due to having other media or surrounding people influencing them. Moreover, social networking effects might be latent, meaning that there are effects that cannot be observed at a given point in time (Potter, 2011, p.906). Though the research objectives and research questions remain clear, the data collection process might widen the scope of analysis, which means that the research will have to adapt according to the results generated for the research. With the consideration of such challenge, the researcher will pay more attention in the findings of the pilot study in mid-2012 and allow sufficient amount of time for participants to reflect on the media effects.

Another challenge is participants will be allowed to withdraw from the research at any time. This means that during the study, there might be a lack of participants who are willing to fully participate before, during and after the period the election campaign. This could affect the reliability of the

research results, preventing it to further generalize how individuals on Facebook contribute to democracy. However, the researchers will try to find and select back up participants, in case anyone withdraws from the study at any time.

6. Conclusion

The current paper has shown the basis of social networking sites literature and effect theory. As this research is still ongoing, the basis of the literature will further be examined throughout the next two years to gather more relevant and higher quality literature based on effects theory and political communication. This includes the study done in other countries on the use of social networking sites in election campaigns. Also, the researcher will review the studies using a similar methodological approach. The research has taken into account challenges and problems of gathering and reviewing data. However, it will cope with any unexpected issues occurring in the future.

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Training in Communicative English Skills for the Tourism Industry

Suchanart Sitanurak *

Abstract

This is a participatory research study, which is aimed to create and develop 'A Communicative English Skills Text for the Tourism Industry in Chiang Mai, Thailand'. The specific purposes are as follows:

1) To create a 'Communicative English Skills' text suitable for the community involved.

2) To discover the achievement scores using a text for 'Communicative English Skills'.

3) To find the satisfaction level of the target participants involved in the practical course and their view of the text.

4) To find out the satisfaction level of students who registered, studied and undertook research and fieldwork in the English for Tourism 2 course.

The sample consists of 33 people involved in the tourism industry in Wat Kuman Mongkonchai community from Doisaket District, Sansai District and Sankampeng District, Chiang Mai. The people are from three different careers involved in the tourism industry, including Thai traditional masseurs, key ring producers and handicraft sellers. The researcher has chosen the specific sample. The data was collected by using: 1) a questionnaire on the needs of studying the 'Communicative English Skills' of the people involved in the tourism industry, 2) pre- and posttest on communicative English skills for people involved in the tourism industry, 3) a questionnaire on the level of satisfaction towards the training program in 'Communicative English Skills'.

The research results are as follows:

1. The researcher created and developed a text for 'Communicative English Skills' that is suitable for the community and people involved in the tourism industry in Chiang Mai.

2. The participants attending the training program have increased their Communicative English Skills for the tourism industry after learning through a text.

3. Participants have a high level of satisfaction in the course and the text for communicative English skills and believe that it could be useful for their careers.

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Introduction

In modern times, the tourism industry is extremely important for the economy, culture, environment and development of relationships between countries. Tourism is related to other various businesses such as transportation, restaurant, hotel entertainment and other convenient places to serve tourists and travelers. Tourism is essential to businesses and communities, and experts in the tourism area suggest that tourism is a huge industry that is important for those who work in political, social, cultural, economic and environmental areas in the 21st century (Edgell, 1990: 1-2).

Chiang Mai Province has a policy for the development of the Tourism Industry. It is one of the key mechanisms for the province's development (Chiang Mai Developing Plan, 2005). The Chiang Mai governor announced a policy to upgrade tourism facilities with a focus on the economy, society, environment, international relation, as well as development in education, languages, arts and culture throughout every community. In the tourism, English is used as the universal language. The four English skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing are essential for government agencies, state enterprises, businesses and other organization (Atchara Wongsothorn, 1981, cited in Supatra Aksaranugraha, 1989: 83).

Using English in the tourism industry in the past relied on translators or guides. People involved in tourism such as employers, employees, sellers, drivers, goods producers and people in the community lacked communicative English skills. Providing the opportunity for people in the industry to forgo the need of translators or guides, will empower them to make their own decisions. Moreover, they will be proud of their accomplishments with regards to learning new language communication skills. The tourism industry will also be upgraded and the flow on effect will be felt in the wider Chiang Mai economy. Experts, students and people in the community will be able to improve their education and cooperate in increasing their communicative English skills for the tourism industry which can aid the development of the communities, universities, province and the nation.

The purposes of the research

1. The general purpose:

To create and develop a text for 'Communicative English Skills' that is suitable for the community involved in Chiang Mai's tourism industry.

2. Specific purposes:

2.1 To create a text suitable for the target community.

2.2 To discover the achievement scores of the sample using a text.

2.3 To find the satisfaction level of the target participants towards the text.

2.4 To find out the satisfaction level of students who registered, studied and undertook research and fieldwork in the English for Tourism 2 course.

The expected benefits

1. To create and develop a suitable text.

2. To design appropriate contents for each lesson in the text for the tourism industry in Wat Kuman Mongkonchai, San Pu Lei Sub-district, Doisaket District, Chiang Mai.

3. To create a text for the tourism industry in Wat Kuman Mongkonchai, San Pu Lei Subdistrict, Doisaket District, Chiang Mai.

4. To evaluate of the effectiveness of the text.

5. Training people in the tourism industry at Wat Kuman Mongkonchai in the ability to communicate by using English without translators or guides. This process will increase their education, ability to earn money and it is hoped make them more economically sustainable. This will in turn improve their self-esteem, lift the general ability of non-native English speakers in Chiang Mai and increase the viability of the Chiang Mai tourism industry compared to other locations within Thailand.

Research Method

The process of the research was primarily aimed at creating a text for people involved in the tourism industry. The researcher integrated and analyzed the research data, the researcher cooperated with the students, teachers and the community. The researcher arranged the processes as follows:

1. Preparing questionnaires on the needs of studying 'Communicative English Skills' of the people involved in the tourism industry.

2. Surveying and eliciting data in relation to the needs of people involved in tourism such as employers, employees, sellers, drivers and other related careers and if there are any English skills needed to be improved.

3. Preparing the test of achievement in English skills of the people involved in the tourism industry before researching.

4. Organizing the students for a field trip traveling to the community together with the researcher and lecturers from English Department to create the text.

5. Analyzing and evaluating the contents inside the text to analyze if it meets the objectives.

6. While researching, the researcher arranged the main activities as follows:

1) Have members of each career do a pre-test before training.

2) Provide the 'Communicative English Skills' in tourism business training for the target sample of three different vocational groups in Wat Kuman Mongkonchai community by using the text.

3) Have the members of each career do a post-test after training.

4) Trainees apply the knowledge of English for real situations to evaluate how they can benefit from the program.

5) Have 33 trainees answer the questionnaires on the level of satisfaction toward the training program.

7. Have three English experts evaluate the text.

8. Explore the opinions of the 21 students who registered and took English for Tourism 2 course regarding the text via questionnaires.

9. Conclude with the research results, publish and produce VCD media.



Picture 1: Community Meeting, Seminar 1



Picture 2: Community Meeting, Seminar 2





Picture 3: Activities in 'Communicative English Skills for Tourism Business Training'



Picture 4: Community Meeting, Seminar 3

The ranges of the research

The research ranges were as follows:

1. Range of the area

The educational area at Wat Kuman Mongkonchai, San Pu Lei Sub-district, Doisaket District, Chiang Mai.

2. Range of populations and target samples

There are two groups of target samples in this research:

Group 1: 21 students from Chiang Mai Rajabhat University who registered and took the course of English for Tourism 2 in the academic year 2008. They were separated into three groups (seven people each).

Group 2: 33 people involved in the tourism industry in Wat Kuman Mongkonchai Community, San Pu Ley Sub-district, Doisaket District, Chiang Mai from three different careers as follows:

- Traditional Masseurs
- Handicraft Sellers
- Teak wood key ring producers
 - 3. Range of content

The scope of content in this research is creating and developing a text for the aforementioned participants.

Researching Devices

The devices used in this research are:

1. A questionnaire investigating the needs of students.

2. A text for the course.

3. Pre- and post-test achievement scores for the samples before and after training.

4. A questionnaire on the level of satisfaction of the samples toward 'Communicative English Skills' for the aforementioned participants.

5. A questionnaire on the level of satisfaction of students.

6. Provide a community meeting for the three groups.

Data Analyzing

Data was gathered from community meetings, interviews, questionnaires, and documents. This project was planned, arranged and concluded in the PDCA pattern, which is used throughout the research.

The analysis of the achievement score from the tests before and after training was completed using descriptive statistics, mean (X), standard deviation (S.D.) and comparing the average scores from pre- and post-test by t-test.

A level of satisfaction of the samples and students attending these activities is analyzed by using descriptive statistics, mean (X), standard deviation (S.D.) by determining the satisfaction criteria as follows:

score	4.50-5.00	level of opinion	Excellent
score	3.50-4.49	level of opinion	Good
score	2.50-3.49	level of opinion	Moderate
score	1.50-2.49	level of opinion	Poor
score	1.00-1.49	level of opinion	Very poor

Research result

According to data analysis, the results are as follows:

1. The participants found that the contents of the text were interesting; the text was written simply and explained the basic information.

2. The participants are able to use and improve their English skills.

3. The participants are satisfied with the knowledge they received and they are able to apply that knowledge in their careers.

4. The students of the English for Tourism 2 course are satisfied with what they learnt from the class, field trips and as research assistants. They also thought that being involved in creating and developing the text gives them experience and practice for their own research in the future. Moreover, they themselves report more confident when applying their English skills to assist people in the community.

Table 1: Mean and Standard Deviation of achievement score from the pre- and post-tests

		Pre-Test		Post-Test	
Торіс	(n = 33)		(n =33)		
	X	S.D.	x	S.D.	
Achievement scores from the training	10.94	2.89	14.00	2.29	

According to table 1, the mean (X) and standard deviation (S.D.) of the achievement score before the training are 10.94 and 2.89 respectively. Mean and standard deviation after the training are 14.00 and 2.29 respectively.

Table 2: Comparison of pre- and post-test achievement score

Comparison of achievement score	Mean of difference (\overline{D})	Standard Deviation of difference	t-test	р
After training – Before training	3.061	1.619	10.860	.000*

*p < .01

According to the table 2, the comparison of the pre- and post-test achievement are .01 (t = 10.860, P = .000 and $t_{32,.01} = 2.738$). The training enabled trainees to improve their English skills significantly.

Part 1: Analysis of the result in satisfaction towards the text

After the training, all 33 trainees are required to express their satisfaction toward the researcher's training and the results are as follows:

Table 3 Trainee satisfaction	n level towards use of the text
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Торіс	x	S.D.	Level of opinion
1. The lecturer is skillful and experienced	4.61	0.61	Excellent
2. The contents are interesting and needed	4.45	0.62	Good
3. The lecture is simple and encouraging	4.36	0.70	Good
4. The use of language is simple and understandable	4.21	0.89	Good
5. The handout was clear and understandable	4.39	0.66	Good
6. The time is appropriate.	4.27	0.84	Good
7. The trainees have an opportunity to discuss	4.42	0.66	Good
8. The trainees acquired recommendations, advice and accurate answers.	4.48	0.57	Good

Торіс	$\overline{\mathbf{x}}$	S.D.	Level of opinion
9. The knowledge acquired meets the trainees' demand	4.64	0.49	Excellent
10. The knowledge acquired is useful for their career.	4.67	0.48	Excellent
11. The trainees are able to apply the knowledge obtained for some certain areas of their work.	4.58	0.61	Excellent
12. The trainees are much more confident to work.	4.55	0.62	Excellent
Average Mean	4.47	0.60	Good

According to table 3, trainees expressed satisfaction in the training. The average mean is 4.47, the level of opinion is good. When each topic is considered, it was found that the trainees reported being satisfied with the training. The participants found the following points good:

- 1. The trainees acquired recommendations, advice and accurate answers.
- 2. The contents are interesting and needed.
- 3. The trainees have an opportunity to discuss.
- 4. The handout was clear and understandable.
- 5. The lecture is simple and encouraging.
- 6. The time is appropriate, and the use of language is simple and understandable.

he other five topics were found to be excellent by the participants:

- 1. The lecturer is skillful and experienced.
- 2. The knowledge acquired meets the trainees' demand.
- 3. The knowledge acquired is useful for the career.
- 4. The trainees are able to apply the knowledge obtained for some certain areas of work.
- 5. The trainees are much more confident to work.

Part 2: Analysis of results on satisfaction level of students cooperating in creating the text

The 21 students who registered and took part in the English for Tourism 2 course were invited to take part in the participatory research as research assistants and cooperated in creating the text. They were required to do questionnaires on the level of satisfaction and the result is shown as follows:

	Торіс	x	S.D.	The level of
	-	Λ	D.D.	opinion
1.	Surveying that provides experiences outside the classroom.	4.57	0.51	Excellent
2.	Surveying the Communicative English Skill data in the community to discover the requirements of the people involved in the tourism industry in their different careers.	4.52	0.60	Excellent
3.	Eliciting the data in a field trip is a useful activity.	4.52	0.51	Excellent
4.	Training people in the community in English is a process of applying knowledge received from the class and it is used for serving the community.	4.14	0.65	Good
5.	Creating a participatory instruction text for Communicative English Skills with input from the community, students and instructors is a creative activity.	4.43	0.75	Good
6.	Creating a participatory instruction text for Communicative English Skills encourages the people in the community and enables them to improve and apply their English skills towards their own careers.	4.48	0.60	Good
7.	The research allows the students to take part in research in real life situations.	4.43	0.68	Good
8.	The students cooperate in doing research.	4.48	0.60	Good
9.	Cooperating in doing research is useful for students.	4.57	0.60	Excellent
10.	This activity in the research should likely be contained in some courses.	4.00	0.63	Good
11.	After having finished the English for Tourism course, the students know the procedures for doing research.	4.33	0.80	Good
12.	The students are able to apply their experiences obtained from the activity for their job internships or professional life in the future.	4.38	0.80	Good
	Average Mean	4.40	0.59	Good

Table 4: Level of satisfaction of students cooperating to produce the text

Table 4 shows that the students are satisfied with cooperating in creating the text. The average mean is 4.40 and the level of opinion was good. The sample found that surveying and research provides experiences outside the classroom, and that cooperating research is useful for students, creating a text with input from the community, students and instructors is a creative activity and eliciting the data in a field trip is the useful activity. The students' level of satisfaction for these activities was excellent.



Picture 5 Students Cooperating in the Activity





Picture 5 Students' Cooperating in the Activity

Discussion

The results are discussed and analyzed as follows:

1. The text was designed and created with the intention of making a text that can be adjusted to be suitable and appropriate for the target community. According to Thorndike's Connectionism theory, most learning depends on selection and elicitation of the proper response. When the proper approach was found, it stimulated the law of effect, the law of exercise and the law of readiness. The idea is that a good exercise should be practiced with the learners who appreciate and are satisfied to study or become interested in and find out the usefulness of what they are learning. They will be able to develop their knowledge and will have a greater understanding of the exercise, which in turn can benefit the wider community.

2. The researcher found that while producing the text, it was difficult for local people to communicate with tourists, especially non-Thai speaking. They need translators to help them communicate with those tourists. The researcher has found that if one adapts, supports and develops the community under the Principal of Sustainable Tourism Development, which is compatible with His Majesty The King Bhumibol Adulyadej's 'Eight Principles of Sufficiency Economic Philosophy', one can bring about the most significant changes for similar communities. The King's Sufficient Economic Philosophy suggests modesty, reasonability, independence, resilience, balance and harmony in life, family, community and society, which will lead to long-term stability.

Accordingly, it was the intention to create and develop a text that was applicable to the community to enable them to use communicative English skills in their own careers. When they are able to communicate without translators, they are self-sufficient and able to apply useful knowledge to their profession. This will lead to long-term sustainable tourism development. Furthermore, the people in the community will be increasingly confident in communicating using English. They are happy with the positive impact that it can have on their businesses and family. Eventually, this also influences the growth of the economy and society of the country.

3. The Chiang Mai Rajabhat University students who registered and took part in the course English for Tourism 2 had an opportunity to go on a field trip, in which they expressed a high level of satisfaction. The management of undergraduate curriculum in English or other subjects should include research as one of the educational activities, so that the students will improve themselves. In this process, they know how to think, how to create and how to solve problems and it can lead them to improve their English skills significantly. Moreover, they have an opportunity to deal with real problems in real situations when they go on field trips. They cooperate with the community to try to solve those problems and they will be inspired by the knowledge that they have helped the community. They are able to adjust themselves to work in various environments and are able to take part in teamwork. They will also be able to apply the philosophy of Sufficiency Economy to their future professional lives.

4. Additionally, it was found that the people involved in the tourism industry (traditional masseurs, handicraft sellers and teak wooden key ring producers) are able to study and improve their own communicative English skills in a competent manner. The traditional masseur group has a high level of need for learning and improving their communicative English skills due to their direct and frequent communications with foreigners in English. It is essential that both government and private organizations support them with financial assistance for Communicative English Skills development, particularly traditional masseurs and spa attendants. The growth of their own business will be immense because they will have no need for translators or guides.

They can spend their lives following the Philosophy of Sufficient Economy. This will also help preserve Thai culture and Thai traditional knowledge. The tourists that Thai traditional masseurs serve will also be impressed because they can speak English communicatively and it will lead the tourists to inform or suggest the service to others. Eventually the economy of the communities that develop these skills will see economic benefits.

Recommendations

1. The communities in which the people are ready to develop should be chosen for future development initiatives, as these communities will be willing participants, thus most able to reap a greater benefit.

In the first instance when starting this program, the researcher had specifically chosen second year students studying in tourism industry major who had registered and taken the English for Tourism 2 course in the second semester of academic year 2007. The 40 students had been divided into five groups (eight people per group). They were assigned to choose the tourism businesses that they were interested in and the English skills they would like to employ in their chosen career or business. The careers and businesses chosen by students were a home-stay village at Ban Mea Kampong, Mae On; Sa paper product at Ban Tonpao; San Kam Phang; a ticket seller at Major Cineplex; Central Airport Plaza, Chiang Mai; Traditional Massage in the temple and handicraft sellers at Ban Thaway, Hong Dong. The research in this area failed because the people in the community or in the area that the students chose did not cooperate and some areas were far away, so the students did not have enough time to survey and do the research, which was then canceled.

During that same semester, the researcher had also chosen students in the Business English major (Weekend Program) who had registered and taken the course of English for Tourism 2 and assigned them to a similar research topic. All 25 students were divided into five groups and they were assigned to do research in their work environments: Public Relations, Rama 1 Hospital; Pottery product at Ban Muang Gung; Hang Dong; souvenir seller at Warorot Market; Public Relations at Chiang Mai Immigration and red mini-bus driver, Chiang Mai. Again, the students did not have enough time to do the survey and elicit the data. Some had to work on weekdays and weekends as well as studying in other classes. This led to failure and data gathering was not completed.

Due to these problems, the researcher changed the topic to 'Training in Communicative English Skills for the Tourism Industry'. The Wat Kuman Mongkonchai community, Sanpulei Sub-district, Doisaket District, Chiang Mai has specifically been chosen as the research area. Thirty-three people are volunteers from three different districts, San Sai, Doisaket and San Kam Phang cooperated and their community will directly benefits.

Researchers should survey the area to gather accurate information and should organize research in a efficient manner that generates community goodwill and cooperation.

2. When choosing the appropriate research assistant, the researcher should select those who have enough time to assist with the research. This researcher choose third year students in Business English majors in regular programs who registered and took the course English for Tourism 2 in the first semester of academic year 2008. There were some problems doing the research. Some of the research assistants were fulltime students and had too little time to survey and elicit data in the community and, as a result, the research was completed more slowly than expected.

3. A solution would be to provide scholarships in the budget from the involved organizations. Had this been available, the research would have been completed quicker and with a wider scope. The tourism industry in the province and country benefit from increased research and development.

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Technical and Academic Vocabulary from Food Technology Research Articles: Challenges for EAP / ESP Teachers

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Abstract

In this study the researchers aim to investigate the validity of the claim that academic vocabulary covers 10% and technical vocabulary 5% of running words in academic texts (Nation, 2001), and to identify the proportions of academic and technical vocabulary, both single-word units and multi-word units focusing on pre-modified noun phrases, from 150 research articles in food technology derived from six different journals. These research articles are combined as a corpus which comprises 500,000 words approximately. Yang's (1986) criteria were used to identify noun phrases, which were then classified into non-technical and technical noun phrases using the criteria adapted from Wasuntarasophit (2009). The Rating Scale (Chung & Nation, 2003-2004) was adapted to classify single-word units into groups according to the degree of technicality. RANGE was used to make lists. The Academic Word List (AWL) (Coxhead, 2000) was employed to identify both academic words and academic noun phrases. The results reveal that the proportion of academic vocabulary is only 3.80%, whereas that of technical vocabulary is 27.99%, which is much higher than the proportion that was claimed. In terms of language teaching, ESP teachers, as well as course syllabus designers, should underscore technical vocabulary, accordingly.

Key words: technical vocabulary, academic vocabulary, single-word units, multi-word units, food technology research articles

1. Introduction

Students from departments of food technology are normally expected to read texts in English in specific subjects. In particular, fourth-year students need to read research articles for two subjects: the seminar and the special problems. For this reason, EAP teachers play an important role in helping students to read specialized texts. Therefore, vocabulary is taken into account when materials are constructed. It is stated that vocabulary knowledge leads to reading comprehension (Coady, 1997; Mehrpour & Rahimi, 2010; Paribakht & Wesche, 1997; Parry, 1997). In other words, vocabulary is considered important for reading comprehension since it is impossible for learners to understand texts without vocabulary (Krashen, 1989). Hence, learners with a good amount of vocabulary can understand texts they read better than those with little vocabulary.

Vocabulary is classified into four types: viz., high frequency words (general words), academic words, technical words, and low frequency words (rare words) (Nation, 2001). General vocabulary refers to words which frequently occur in spoken and written texts (Nation, 2001). General words are from the General Service List (GSL) by West (1953). Academic vocabulary refers to words which occur in a specialized text (Barber, 1962), and which contain a specific meaning (Martin, 1976). Academic vocabulary is from Coxhead's AWL. Technical vocabulary is used in a

specialized text or a specific area or discipline, such as business, engineering, science and technology, etc. The meaning of technical words is very closely related to the specific text (Nation, 2001). Rare words refer to words which do not often occur in a text. It was found that learners need to know 95% of running words in a text (Laufer, 1989, Lui & Nation, 1985; Nation, 2001; Sutarsyah, Nation & Kennedy, 1994). Nation's (2001) estimate of vocabulary is similar in that learners need to know 80% of general words, 10% of academic words, 5% of technical words, and 5% of rare words.

A number of research studies on the proportion of academic and technical vocabulary have been conducted (e.g., Chung & Nation, 2004; Liu & Nesi, 1999; Chujo & Utiyama 2006; Martinez, Beck & Panza, 2009; Para, 2004; Pueyo & Val, 1996; Ward, 2007; Wasuntarasophit, 2009; Yang, 1986). Martinez, Beck and Panza (2009) identified academic words in agriculture research articles based on the AWL. The results showed that the proportion of academic vocabulary in agriculture corpus is 9.06%, which is similar to the estimate. Similarly, academic vocabulary from 126 journal articles in the field of civil engineering was identified by using the AWL (Para, 2004). The proportion of academic vocabulary covered 12.46% of running words in civil engineering texts. With regards to identification of technical vocabulary, Chung and Nation (2004) studied technical vocabulary in an anatomy text and an applied linguistics text, placing each vocabulary into the rating scale. They found that there was a high proportion of technical vocabulary; one in every three running words in the anatomy text (31.2%), and one in every five running words in applied linguistics text (20.6%). Also, Wasuntarasophit (2009) found that technical vocabulary, in fact, should not be abandoned, for 26.6% of running words are technical words. As a consequence, learners need to know technical vocabulary to avoid having difficulties. With a high proportion of technical words shown in the part of results of each research, it demonstrates that technical vocabulary frequently occurs in academic texts. Nevertheless, several studies have concentrated on only single words. Additionally, identifying vocabulary focusing on meanings has rarely been undertaken. Identifying vocabulary of which meaning is concerned may affect the change in proportions of vocabulary.

This study aims to identify not only the proportions of academic and technical words, but also those of academic and technical noun phrases in research articles of food technology. Two research questions are addressed as follows:

- □ 1. What are the proportions of academic and technical words in the research articles in food technology?
- □ 2. What are the proportions of academic and technical noun phrases in the food technology corpus?

2. Methods

2.1 Corpus

The corpus in this study contains 532,910 tokens or running words. It is claimed that the size of the corpus consisting of 10,000 words to 100,000 words is considered useful (Bowker & Pearson, 2002). Moreover, it is suggested that tokens analyzed ought to contain at least 20,000 running words. Based on suggestions of an expert from the Department of Food Technology, 150 research articles from *sciencedirect.com* deriving from six different journals: *Journal of Food Engineering, Food and Bioproduct Processing, Food Control, Food Microbiology, Food Research International,* and *Trends in Food Science and Technology* were randomly selected to identify both single words and noun phrases. All these research articles were published from 2008 to 2010.

2.2 Research tools

2.2.1 Criteria for identifying noun phrases

In this study, noun phrases and single words need to be separately identified to obtain the real proportions of vocabulary. Six criteria were established based on Yang's criteria (1986) to identify noun phrases (see Appendix A.).

2.2.2 Criteria for identifying non-technical and technical noun phrases

After the noun phrases in the corpus are identified, they need to be classified into non-technical and technical noun phrases. The criteria based on the rating scale are adapted from Wasuntarasophit (2009) (see Appendix B.). Categories 2 and 3 in the rating scale are adapted to separate non-technical from technical noun phrases.

2.2.3 The Academic Word List (AWL)

The AWL (Coxhead, 2000) is used to separate academic noun phrases from non-technical noun phrases. Also, all academic words in the corpus are checked against the AWL.

2.2.4 The Rating Scale

The rating scale based on Chung and Nation (2003-2004) is used to classify types of words. It is divided into four categories. The first refers to function or grammatical words (i.e., of, in, and etc.). General words and academic words are classified in the second category. The third refers to technical words for sciences and technology field. The fourth category refers to technical vocabulary used in the particular field namely food technology. Consequently, words appeared in categories 3 and 4 are technical words (see Appendix C.).

To validate the results, three inter-raters are needed in the stage of classification of technical words. Each inter-rater is asked to classify independently into four steps in the rating scale. Vocabulary randomly selected comes from the same texts, after they have been trained. Then the results from the inter-raters are compared with those of the researchers.

2.2.5 RANGE

Words in category two in the Rating Scale are checked against RANGE BNC created by Nation (2001), which consists of four base lists: 1) the first 1,000 words, 2) the second 1,000 words, 3) academic words, and 4) technical or rare words. Academic words are based on the AWL. Words not deriving from the AWL are classified as rare words.

2.2.6 Dictionary

A large number of unknown words which occur in the research articles need looking up. In this study, *"Food Science Dictionary"* is used, in which words used with a technical meaning appear.

2.3 Data Analysis

This study is divided into two steps: identification of noun phrases and identification of single words. In the first step, all noun phrases are identified by the criteria of Yang (1986). Then, they are classified as non-technical and technical noun phrases by the criteria of Wasuntarasophit (2009), which were adapted from Chung & Nation's Rating Scale. After that, the rest of single words are

classified into the rating scale according to the degree of technicality. Words in Category 2 in the rating scale are run against by the AWL, which is contained in RANGE.

In this study, single-word units and multi-word units or noun phrases are identified individually. For multi-word units, only pre-modified noun phrases which refer to groups of words with a head noun and modifiers in front of it are identified. Both single-word units and multi-word units are counted in the same way. For multi-word unit, *high atmospheres* is counted as two running words, but one token.

3. Results

The findings are grouped into two sections: the proportion of academic and technical noun phrases and the proportion of academic and technical single words.

3.1 High proportion of noun phrases in the corpus

The proportion of single words run by RANGE includes both function words and content words. Thus, excluding function words may cause the proportion of types of lexical units to change, and may contain a high proportion of content words. The proportion of noun phrases in the corpus is demonstrated in Table 1.

Types of lexical units	Lexical tokens	Lexical types	Running words
Single words	202,603	20,986	202,603
	(75.29%)	(36.90%)	(55.76%)
Noun phrases	66,504	35,875	160,752
	(24.71%)	(63.10%)	(44.24%)
Total	269,107	56,861	363,355
	(100%)	(100%)	(100%)

Table 1 Proportion of single words and noun phrases (not including function words)

Since general words based on the GSL include function words, this may cause the proportions of general words to be high. Thereby, function words need to be excluded to ascertain the real proportions of content words. When function words were excluded, there is a change of the proportions of single words compared with those of noun phrases. It is observed that there is a high proportion of noun phrases: 24.71% of tokens with up to 63% of types. The examples of noun phrases occurring in a text are shown in Appendix D.

3.2 High proportion of technical noun phrases in food technology corpus

Types of noun	Lexical	Lexical	Running
phrases	Tokens	Types	words
General	12,888	7,146	27,698
	(19.38%)	(19.92%)	(17.23%)
Academic	6,763	4,065	16,284
	(10.17%)	(11.33%)	(10.13%)
Technical	46,853	24,664	116,770
	(70.45%)	(68.75%)	(72.64%)
Total	66,504	35,875	160,752
	(100%)	(100%)	(100%)

Table 2 Proportion of academic and technical noun phrases in the corpus

As shown in Table 2, for the research articles in food technology, technical noun phrases making up 70.45% of tokens containing the higher proportion than general (19.38%) and academic (10.17%) noun phrases. Identified as types, technical noun phrases are up to 68%, whereas general noun phrases cover less than 20% of types. The number of academic noun phrases is only 10%. Among these kinds of noun phrases, it is clear that technical noun phrases are covered the most highly in the corpus from the total number of running words with 532,910 tokens. Also, the result shows that the proportion of academic noun phrases (10.17% of tokens) is lower than general noun phrases (19.38% of tokens). This indicates that the research articles in food technology mostly consist of technical noun phrases. The examples of technical noun phrases with high frequency are demonstrated in Appendix E.

From Appendix E, this shows the examples of technical noun phrases with a high frequency occurring in the corpus. It can be concluded that the proportion of technical noun phrases is very high. Accordingly, learners should know this type of noun phrases; otherwise, they will probably have a problem in terms of reading comprehension. To help learners to reach a goal for reading, teachers should be aware of teaching technical noun phrases.

3.3 High proportion of technical words in the corpus

After separating noun phrases from individual words, single words were identified into three groups which are general, academic, and technical words. Table 3 shows the proportions of single words in the corpus.

Types of single words	Tokens	Types	Running words
Function	169,555	818	169,555
	(45.56%)	(3.75%)	(45.56%)
General	125,678	3,722	125,678
	(33.77%)	(17.07%)	(33.77%)
Academic	7,704	959	7,704
	(2.07%)	(4.40%)	(2.07%)
Technical	56,717	10,148	56,717
	(15.24%)	(46.54%)	(15.24%)
Rare	12,504	6,157	12,504
	(3.36%)	(28.24%)	(3.36%)
Total	372,158	21,804	372,158
	(100%)	(100%)	(100%)

Table 3 Proportion of academic and technical words in the corpus

The total words in the corpus after excluding noun phrases are 372,158 running words. According to the result shown in Table 3, it appears that the number of function words in the corpus contains almost 50% of running words with 169,555 words. After individually identifying general content words, it shows the lower proportions of general words than function words. Surprisingly, the number of academic words is close to rare words: 2.07% and 3.36% respectively, whereas technical words are covered very highly: 15.24% of tokens with no less than 15% of tokens. It can be concluded that there is a high proportion of technical words in the corpus.

According to Table 3, function words were included in the corpus. Therefore, it was essential to separate general content words from function words to obtain the real proportions of general content words because function words do not contain meanings.

Types of single words	Tokens	Types	Running words
General	125,678	3,722	125,678
	(62.03%)	(17.74%)	(62.03%)
Academic	7,704	959	7,704
	(3.80%)	(4.57%)	(3.81%)
Technical	56,717	10,148	56,717
	(27.99%)	(48.36%)	(27.99%)
Rare	12,504	6,157	12,504
	(6.18%)	(29.33%)	(6.17%)
Total	202,603	20,986	202,603
	(100%)	(100%)	(100%)

Table 4 Proportion of single words in the corpus (not including function words)

After function words were excluded, the result shows the different proportions of content word in each single-word unit. General content words cover up to 62% of tokens, which consists of 125,678 running words compared with Table 3, in which general words cover around 30% of tokens. Technical words contain 27% of tokens, approximately. From Table 4, it shows that the proportions of technical words counted as types are very high. It indicates how many word learners should know how to read research articles in food technology. These evidence shows that if function words are excluded, there is a high proportion of content words.

In conclusion, the results show the proportions of lexical units: single-word units and multi-word units. The proportions of technical words and technical noun phrases appear higher than academic words and academic noun phrases in the food technology corpus.

4. Discussion

According to the estimate, to reach a goal of successful reading, learners need to know 95% of running words in a text; 80% of general words; 10% of academic words, and 5% of technical words (Nation and Waring, 1997; Coxhead, 2000; and Nation, 2001; Lui and Nation, 1985). The previous studies on the corpus have identified only single words (Chung & Nation, 2003; Webb, 2009; Para, 2002; Coxhead, 2000). This study identified types of general, academic, and technical lexical units in the field of food technology: single words and noun phrases. Yet single words and noun phrases were separately identified for the real proportions. The findings show a high proportion of noun phrases in the corpus; also, there are substantial proportions of technical lexical units. More strikingly, the number of single academic words and noun phrases are somewhat low when compared with the estimate. This contributes to implications for language teaching and learning for teachers, syllabus designers, and learners.

There is a high coverage of noun phrases in the food technology corpus. Accordingly, students need to know noun phrases, particularly in their structure. Peuyo and Val (1996) add that the structure of noun phrases needs to be a focus. Foreign language learners may have a problem with the structure of noun phrases. They may not know different types of words because some words are nominalized.

For example, *emit* is nominalized *emission* when this word is used as a part of noun phrases, in that case, it is called a head noun. Furthermore, Moon (1997) remarks that noun phrases can be problematic for learners because of their complexity. Consequently, learners need to study grammatical structure; otherwise, it is likely to be difficult to comprehend a text.

Of all types of noun phrases in the corpus, technical noun phrases account for 72.64% of running words with 70.45% tokens in the food technology corpus. Technical noun phrases are very high because of specialized or specific texts. To access the technical meaning of a noun phrase, single words need to occur together as a phrase. This means that technical noun phrases are more prone to bring about problems or difficulties for food technology students. Similarly, electrical engineering students probably had problems with understanding texts because of a high proportion of technical noun phrases, it is comparatively difficult for them to comprehend a text. Therefore, both meaning and occurrence of the high proportion of technical noun phrases should be taken into account for language teaching.

With regards to single words, it has been estimated that technical words contain 5% of running words in an academic text (Nation, 2001). He also suggests that teachers and learners can ignore technical words. Conversely, in this study, it was found that there is a substantial proportion of technical words making up 27.99% of running words and 48.36% of types in case that function words were not included. This study shows that their proportion of technical vocabulary may be underestimated as a result of a high coverage in the corpus. By reason of the nature of a specific or specialized text, technical words frequently occur (Wasuntarasophit, 2009). Therefore, they tend to bring about difficulties for learners. In particular, if there are various types of words in a text, they may have a problem (Chung & Nation, 2004). Interestingly, some words from GSL and AWL can be used as technical words in a specialized text. It is stated that these kinds of words are more difficult than indexical words for learners (Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984; Liu and Nesi, 1999). As a result, learners and teachers should pay attention to technical words if they need to comprehend specialized texts in their field of study.

Conversely, it is claimed that academic vocabulary cover 10% of running words in an academic text (Nation, 2001). In this study, academic words account for around 2% of running words. Previously, many research studies found that there are 10% of academic words (Martinez, Beck and Panza, 2009; Para, 2004; Poonpon, 2002). However, this study is not in accordance with other research studies. Similarly, Hyland and Tse (2007) point out that academic vocabulary based on Coxhead's AWL is not specified. Academic words may be used as technical words in some contexts. As noun phrases and single words in this study were separately identified, the real proportion of academic words is not similar to the estimate. In a specialized text, there are many words with a technical meaning; moreover, some words used in everyday life can contain a technical meaning. Hence, these words cause the proportion of academic words to be different from the estimate and other research studies. Accordingly, it is important that noun phrases be separated from single words when identified in the corpus.

This study on academic and technical words and noun phrases results in an insight and an awareness for teachers, course syllabus designers, and food technology students. There are implications for language teaching and learning from the corpus. Teachers will be better able to judge to what extent students need to know academic and technical vocabulary. In addition, when teachers teach academic texts to students, they need to be aware of the importance of technical vocabulary since its proportion is higher than academic vocabulary. More importantly, these technical words are from indexical words (words with technical meaning are used in the field of food technology only), and some general and academic words can be used as technical vocabulary

in the field of food technology. In summary, awareness of teaching vocabulary is considered vital for language teachers. For syllabus designers, this proportion of vocabulary enable them to improve and create a course syllabus more successfully in many aspects, such as syntax, lexis, etc. If the proportions of vocabulary are studied before creating a course syllabus, technical vocabulary will be considered as important as general vocabulary. Therefore, the study of the corpus leads to pedagogic development. Among students, it is stated that learners should concentrate on vocabulary with high frequency (Nation & Newton, 1997). As a result, it is critical that they should focus more on technical words than academic words whose proportion is lower.

To sum up, it is likely that the high proportions of technical words and technical noun phrases can be problematic when students read research articles. Because of this, teachers need to be aware of teaching technical vocabulary in a specialized text. More importantly, food technology students need to concentrate on technical words and technical noun phrases to comprehend a text more successfully.

5. Conclusion

The use of corpus to study the proportion of academic and technical vocabulary in food technology research articles shows a high coverage of technical words, as well as technical noun phrases. This study indicates that the proportion of technical vocabulary is higher than those in the estimate (Nation, 2001). Separating single words from noun phrases for identification causes the proportion of vocabulary to change. That is, there are a substantial number of noun phrases in the corpus. The findings in this study contribute to implications for language teaching and learning to teachers, course syllabus designers, and learning to comprehend how to most efficiently handle the process to achieve their goals. Further study should focus on the identification of vocabulary among textbooks with a larger size of the corpus in the same field or other fields. Moreover, since single words were classified by the rating scale, identification of vocabulary, even technical words can be done by using the program WordSmith.

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Appendix A. The criteria for identifying noun phrases adapted from Yang (1986)

- 1. Multi-word terms are mainly nominals;
- 2. Multi-word terms cannot go across punctuation marks;
- 3. Verbs may be terms by themselves but no part of a multiword term because of 1;
- 4. Adverbs may be part of multi-word term (e.g. 'VERY high frequency', 'POSITIVELY charged ions', but adverbs for text cohesion (e.g. 'subsequently', 'naturally', 'usually', etc.) should be excluded;
- 5. No multi-word terms can end up with an adjective or adverb;
- 6. S-endings should be removed for the purpose of frequency counting.

Appendix B. Criteria for identifying non-technical noun phrases and technical noun phrases

Category 1: Non-Technical Noun Phrases

Nominal groups as noun phrases which provide their meaning not related to the fields of food technology are classified as non-technical noun phrases.

Category 2: Technical Noun Phrases

Nominal groups as noun phrases which provide their meaning related to the fields of food technology are classified as technical noun phrases.

Appendix C. Rating Scale adapted from Chung and Nation (2003-2004)

Category 1

Words are used as function and grammatical words. These types of words refer to articles, prepositions, pronouns, coordinators, subordinators, conjunctive adverbs, auxiliaries, modals and question words. Examples are *the*, *of*, *in*, *its*, *and*, *when*, *if*, *moreover*, *do not*, *can*, *could*, *what*, *which etc*.

Category 2

Content words are used both inside and outside the field of food technology without specialized meaning regarding this field. These words are used in general field. They include nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Examples are *abandon, analysis* etc. **Category 3**

Content words that have a meaning that is closely related to the field of food technology. They can be used with the same meaning in other fields and are not technical terms in those fields. Still, those words may not be used as technical vocabulary in other fields. Examples are *critical, culture, calibration, volume, transformation, emulsify* etc.

Category 4

Content words which contain a specific meaning are associated with only the field of food technology. These words are known in the particular field. In other words, they are mostly used in the field of food technology such as *caramelization, shortening, rennet, incubation, denaturation, maillard* etc.

Appendix D. Example of paragraph extracted from a research article in food technology containing a number of noun phrases

For instance, frying potato chips at a high temperature is recommended to lower oil uptake but this condition enhances acrylamide formation. In addition, optimization modelling outputs are usually based on the maximisation of the retention of one nutrient. However the concentration reached is not pondered with the nutritional needs and do not integrate other nutritional characteristics of the product. Therefore, the use of an overall nutritional assessment provided by nutrient model profiles could be very interesting during food processing to criticize each operation or their succession in order to identify the conditions or technological route to achieve the nutritional tradeoff. This work is not easy firstly because the knowledge of the nutritional composition evolution during food processes supposes a sufficient characterisation of the heat and mass transfers and coupled reactions. Secondly, the optimization amplitude of food processes is limited by stability, technology, sensory and cost constraints which must be respected. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to evaluate the sensitivity of a nutrient profile model, to estimate the nutritional impact of some food preservation processes. This work is done by analysing the nutritional trajectory of two different products: apple and pork belly during a single or a combined isothermal preservation process

Technical noun phrases	Freq.
Nutritional point	37
Volatile compounds	27
Mass transfer	29
Brine solutions	27
Pasteurized foods	48
Nutritional benefits	17
Salt concentration brines	15
Chilling injury	22
Sensory evaluation	26
Cooling times	16

Appendix E. Examples of technical noun phrases with high frequency

Naming of Companies and Reflection of Chinese Cultural Elements

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Abstract

Naming a newly established business or company is an important task, especially to the Chinese. They believe that a name plays the most important role for the success of a person. This happens in the business field as well. This research is to investigate if any of the cultural elements is reflected through the naming of companies by the Chinese business entities in an island called Labuan. The corpus data is made up of 212 names of companies with Mandarin lexis with either Malay or English name translation io the island. Through the analysis on the sign boards of the companies as corpus data there are cultural elements reflected. But surprisingly only about 52 percent of the companies show the cultural element. The cultural elements reflected are good wishes, name of places, surnames and names, ethics and moral values, wishes of security, dragon and phoenix, five prosperous, wishes to success and dialect-related.

Introduction

One of the purposes for branding a product or service is to create a strong image through the marketing communication mix. The major criteria for selecting a brand name is it has to be memorable, easy to pronounce and even meaningful (Frances & Stephen, 2006). These criteria are applied when a Chinese businessperson is naming his/her company. Language is used for naming of the company. Sometimes bilingual or even multilingual sign boards are used to display the name of the company.

Culture is formed through evolution of human beings. It is the combination of spirit civilization and substance civilization. The formation of culture has a close relationship with language (Wàn et al., 1999). According to Kramsch, the some of the functions of language are to express, embody and symbolize culture reality (p.3, 1998). In the context of Malaysian society which is multi-racial and multi-cultural, the business world highlights the criteria of branding, namely to be memorable, easy to pronounce and meaningful. Do Chinese businessmen who normally focus more on profit reflect the Chinese culture through the process of naming their companies? If they do then how do they reflect their culture through the naming of their company? What is/are the cultural element(s) reflected?

Literature Review

The word "culture" came from the Latin word "*cultura*" which basically meant cultivation, planting, crop. Culture is transmitted by symbols especially lexis of the language. Therefore, the vocabulary of a language is an inventory of the cultural items reflecting the sense of world of the group of language users (Romaine, 2000). Language is man made symbols used to convey concepts, emotion and desire. It generates cultural function but not genetic life function (Sapir in Lin, 2003). Language is the key of cultural formation and development (Lin, 2003). Language plays

an important role in cultural transmission (Romaine, 2000). Language is the most important communication tool in the human community. It has close relationship with the thought. Therefore, it is also the tool of thought.

Language is influenced by culture but at the same time it reflects culture (Zhāng, 1999). This is because language is a part of culture. Language is not only influenced by culture, it is shaped by culture as well. Therefore it is able to reflect culture "the characters of Chinese language is the backbone of Chinese culture" (Palmer in Yóu, 2003). Even Swedish Mandarin language lexicologist, B. Karlgren stated that "when it is the day for Chinese to ignore the Chinese lexis, it will be the time when the Chinese throw away their cultural base."

Chinese characters are ideographic. In other words, the Chinese lexis are not only arbitrarily possessed sound system, they reflect the meaning and Chinese cultural elements. For the characters of "妒"(dù) and "嫉"(jì) both formed with the radical of "女"(nǔ) where literally the characters are both related to women. The phrase brings the meaning of "jealousy" which connotative meaning is bad. The lexis of "妒" is formed by "女" and "户"(hù) where "户" means house or family. Whereas "嫉" is formed by "女" + "疾"(jì) where "疾" means disease.

Basically, the concept of jealousy "piky" is formed to describe "a kind of disease in a family". During the olden days, men were allowed to have three wives and four concubines. Jealousy started in these families when the women had this special kind of "disease". This lexis reflect the "patriarchal" concept in the Chinese culture by forming the characters by adding the radical of " \pm " to reflect the concepts related to women with negative cultural element as well.

Research Method

This research has been carried out in the island of Labuan Federal Territory. The name of the companies on the sign-boards with Chinese lexis are translated to either English or Malay language and analysed. Under Malaysian local government policy, the sign-boards are displayed together with either English or Malay language. Sole Mandarin lexis sign-boards are not allowed. Labuan is an island on the north-western coast of Borneo island. It was declared the second Federal Territory in 1984. This island has a total population of around 90,000. There are about 25,000 Chinese. The main occupation of the Chinese population is businessmen, especially in the town area.

Corpus Data

The corpus data of this research is made up 212 names of companies. All the names displayed on sign-boards of the company with Chinese lexis around the town area of Labuan Federal Territory have been copied as corpus data.

Data Analysis

The analysis of data has been carried out in two aspects. First of all, monolingual analysis is carried out by analysing the Chinese lexis on the sign boards. Data is divided into groups: cultural reflecting and non-reflecting. The reflection and non-reflection of cultural element is presented in a quantitative way. Then the cultural reflecting group is sub-divided into smaller groups by further analysis based of the Chinese cultural elements they represent through the Chinese lexis used.

Research Findings

One hundred and ten out of 212 or 51.89% of the companies reflect Chinese cultural elements through the sign-boards. At the same time, this means that there are about 50% who do not show the Chinese cultural element. The names of the company which reflect Chinese culture are only about 2% more than companies which do not, which is a surprising result. Chinese civilization has about 6,000 years of history. The substance of the civilization is supported by the language, especially through the written form. There are only nine different cultural elements reflected through the naming of the companies by the Chinese businessmen. The cultural elements are good wishes with wishes of good returning, wishes of security, wishes to success and five prosperous elements, name of places, surnames and names, ethics and moral values, dragon and phoenix, and dialect related.

 Table 1 : Analysis of Cultural Elements Reflected Through Naming of Companies

Cultural Elements	Frequency	Percentage
Good Wishes	71	64.55%
Wishes of Good Returning	60	
Wishes of Security	5	
Wishes to Success	3	
Five Prosperous Elements	3	
Name of Places	14	12.73%
Surnames and Names	11	10.00%
Ethics and Moral Values	8	7.27%
Dragon and Phoenix	4	3.64%
Dialect Related	2	1.82%

Good Wishes

Among all the Chinese cultural elements shown through the names of the companies, this category has the highest percentage, which is 71 out of 110, or more than 60% of the companies named with the elements of good wishes. The reflection of good wishes cultural elements is sub-divided into categories of Wishes of Good Returning, Wishes of Security, Wishes of Success and Five Prosperous Elements.

Wishes of Good Returning

There are 10 item lexi which are used by the businessmen to reflect their desire of wishing good in returning. "丰" (fēng), "兴" (xīng), "利" (lì), "昌" (chāng), "发" (fā), "旺" (wàng), "盛" (shèng), "佳" (jiā), "顺" (shùn) and "胜" (shèng). Among the 10, "兴" has the highest frequency. It is followed by "丰", "发", "利", "顺", "盛", "佳", "旺" and "胜". "昌" has the lowest frequency. Among the 10, there are five which have frequencies which are more than five and there is one with a frequency of only once. All these lexical items are the cultural words. These words reflect the

businessmen's wishes to be smooth, abundant, luxurious, best or even victory through the business they run.

Wishes of Security

The Chinese in China have gone through a long period of war and different kinds of disasters. These hard times made the Chinese eager to seek a secure way of living (Lín, 2000). Even nowadays, such eagerness is shown among the Chinese community as one of their cultural identities. This element is shown in the naming of the company as well. There are five company names on the island reflecting this identity. The lexis used to express the eagerness for security are "安" (ān), "和" (hé) and "平" (ping). The lexis of "安" and "和" have higher frequency of usage compared to "平". As life nowadays is peaceful and harmonious, their eagerness is expressed through the naming of company which is low in percentage when compared to their wishes of good returning.

Five Prosperous Elements

The five prosperous elements are important to the Chinese society. The five prosperous elements are "福" (fú, prosperity), "禄" (lù, high position), "寿" (shòu, longerity), "喜" (xǐ, happiness) and "财" (cái, wealth). Among the five, only the "福" is used in the naming of the companies. There are only three companies named with this cultural element. This element has the second lowest percentage of reflection among all the Chinese cultural elements.

Wishes to Success

Apart from the five prosperous elements, wish to success has the same percentage of cultural reflection. Three of the companies reflecting this cultural element. The lexical items used to reflect this element are "成" (chéng) and "达" (dá).

Name of Places

The hometown is very important to Chinese society. Stressing the place where one originated is one of the cultural elements. The sub-divided smaller ethnic group of the Chinese people are settled in different provinces in China. When the ancestors of the Chinese migrated to Malaysia, they settled among the same smaller ethnic groups and they even set up different organizations according to their hometowns. There are 14 companies or about 13% of the companies which reflected this Chinese cultural element through the name. The name of a place with the highest frequency in this category is "纳闽" (Nàmín). This is the Chinese name of the place of Labuan. The Chinese businessmen have the habit of naming their company after the place they live. Besides, "新加坡" (Xīnjiāpō, Singapore), "亚洲" (Yàzhōu, Asia), "亚细安" (Yàxì'ān, Asian), "太平洋" (Tàipíngyáng, Pacific), "山打根" (Shānđāgēn, Sandakan) and "亚庇" (Yàbì, Kota Kinabalu) are the name of places which are also named for the companies. These names have very low frequency compared to "纳闽" on Labuan.

Surnames and Names

Surname is an important cultural element among Chinese society. The Chinese believe that those who have the same surname are from the same family five hundred years ago. The Chinese will feel closer when they come across someone who has the same surname as theirs even though they may come from places which are far apart. The Chinese are proud of their surnames because some were designated by the emperor. Moreover, surname is one of the identification elements of the family. This identity is shown among the Chinese businessmen through the naming of their companies after their surnames or even their names. Ten percent of the companies reflect this cultural element. Five out of 11 named their companies after their full names whereas the rest used different surnames. The surnames used are "" (huáng), "" (hóng), "" (shī), "" (liáng), "" (zhāng), "" (chén) and "" (wáng). These surnames appear only once. The frequency of using each surname is low.

Ethics and Moral values

Ethics and moral values are important elements in Chinese culture. Chinese families emphasize the transmission of ethical and moral values to the younger generation in past times because of the influence of Confucian teaching. In the business world, the reflection of this cultural element through the naming of companies is only about 8%. The lexis used to express the ethics and moral values are "信" (xìn), "义" (yì) and "忠" (zhōng). Among the three, "信" and "义" have the highest frequency of usage. Even though the ethics and moral values are not strongly reflected, we cannot generalize that the Chinese society does not emphasize these values.

Dragon and Phoenix

Dragon and Phoenix are two important animals to the Chinese, developed from totem worship. The Chinese believe that dragon symbolizes good and holy. It is used for male gender. They called the body of their emperors as "龙体" (lóngť, body of dragon) and the bed of emperors as "龙床" (lóngchuáng, bed of dragon). There is a significant increase in the number of new-born babies during the year of dragon as the Chinese believe that dragon year is a good year. At the same time, phoenix is the animal which symbolizes the female gender. When the mother gives birth to twin babies of a boy and a baby girl, "龙凤胎" (lóngfèngtāi) is called. The boy is known as "龙" whereas the girl is known as "凤". In this research, there are four companies named after the holy dragon and phoenix. Between the dragon and phoenix, there are more companies named dragon than phoenix. Only one company is named with both dragon and phoenix.

Dialects Related

There are seven major dialects used by the Chinese and Mandarin is the formal language used in schools in Malaysia. The other dialects are used on informal occasion. The dialects related has the lowest percentage of cultural reflection among all the elements mentioned. Only about two percent of companies reflected this cultural element. The companies that reflect this cultural element use the same dialect. The dialect used is Cantonese. Both companies run the same kind of business as well, that is, both are coffee shop. Though they are named in a Chinese dialect they are expressed in different ways. One is named after numbers while the other is expressed by using Chinese dialect

lexis. In the case of company using numbers, it will not be discussed further because it is not using Mandarin lexis. While the dialect lexis used is "揾到食" (wēndàoshí) with the literal meaning of "able to find food". They put up a sign board with a dialect lexis that is not easily understood by customers (because the customers are Mandarin-lexis literates). because the dialect lexis is used by that group of people who use that dialect only. This means not all the Chinese understand the dialect lexis.

Not Reflecting Cultural Element

The other half of the companies which do not reflect any of the Chinese cultural element fulfill the criteria of naming their companies which are memorable, easy to pronounce and meaningful. "甜 心" (tiánxīn) is the name of a shop which sells tidbits. Literal meaning of "甜心" is sweet-heart which is memorable, easy to pronounce and meaningful as well.

Conclusion

Cultural lexis of a language is the lexis which directly or indirectly reflect the culture of the community (Wàn et al, 1999). Some of the lexis bear specific cultural messages but some of the lexis bear cultural messages at a deeper level. The language users not only use the language to express their idea or convey the message, they express the cultural elements of the society through their language. In this research, the businessmen used language to name their companies but only 50 percent of the companies name their companies and reflect the cultural elements as well. Among the cultural elements reflected, the most frequently element is Good Wishes. This reflects the attitude of the businessmen towards good returns in their business. Even though certain cultural elements are emphasized in the family structure of the language user, it is not emphasized in the business field. This shows that in the field of business, names symbolize the companies but do not necessarily reflect the cultural elements of the language.

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How Students Work Together on Tasks outside the Classroom

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Abstract

This study aims to survey what problems and solutions students find doing group work outside classroom. The findings revealed a number of problems the students had during completing group work outside the classroom. It was also found that the students completed their group work outside the classroom without working as a team. It can be seen that the students lacked psychological and methodological preparation for working in this way. However, the students had positive attitudes towards group work outside class as they saw it in terms of learning with freedom from the teacher's control. Few of them had negative attitudes for learning without the teacher's control because they thought that doing so led some students to take advantage over others, and it encouraged laziness.

Definitions of group work

In the field of language learning, Watson Todd (1997: 43) states that, "The term 'group work' will be used to include all situations where the students are working together on some specified task without direct intervention from the teacher." According to Killen (1998: 62), group work is not having learners sit in groups in different areas of the room and work separately; instead, it should be understood that "Any time that two or more of your students are working together, other than when you are using whole-class instruction, you can be said to be using group work."

Significance of group work

Normally, teachers who use group work as a teaching methodology should realize that group work is not suitable for all lessons (Killen, 1998: 66). The reason why teachers choose group work, instead of individual, pair or whole class work, depends on purposes and outcomes which are shown as follows:

• Self-directed learning

Benson (2001: 34) states that, "Self-directed learning tends to refer simply to learning that is carried out under the learner's own direction, rather than under the direction of others." In a group, learners become more responsible learners to construct their knowledge, make their own decisions and monitor their progress in learning. It can be said that as a result of doing these, group work requires learners to become more self-directed.

• Co-operative learning

There are several ideas about co-operative learning. For example, Olsen and Kagan (1992: 8) who proposed the idea that "Co-operative learning is group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of other." Similarly, Crandall (1987: 228) emphasizes that co-operative learning requires social skills as all members have to help and learn from one another to complete the tasks. It can be said that co-operative learning is the

willingness to work, help and learn together by sharing the same goal for the joint outcome rather than simply placing the learners in groups and then they work separately. Thus, cooperative learning occurs effectively when group members work harmoniously to carry out the tasks as a team. On the other hand, lacking cooperation and taking responsibility by being self-directed can lead to failure in group work.

Group work outside the classroom

Besides group work which takes place in class, group work can be one kind of learning which can take place out of class and relate closely to the real world, which is important for improving language learning and communicative competence. It can be said that group work outside class can be an alternative way for learners to gain more knowledge and experience in using language for communicative purposes in reality.

Subjects

The subjects of this study were five undergraduate students enrolled in the course, Fundamental English III (LNG 103) at King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi (KMUTT). The criterion for selecting the subjects was their familiarity with the researcher, as the researcher believed that the subjects trusted her enough to feel free to accurately share information with her.

Instrument

For this study, a non-structured interview was used to gain insight into the students' activities. It aims to survey the problems and solutions of group work outside class. The interview was conducted in Thai to obtain information in depth as much as possible from the subjects.

Procedures

This study was conducted in 4 stages:

- Stage 1: Subjects of the study were chosen.
- Stage 2: The non-structured interview was used for collecting data. The interview was conducted individually after each subject finished the LNG 103 course. To prevent misunderstandings and gain in depth information, the interview was conducted in Thai. The interviews were tape-recorded.
- Stage 3: The data was transcribed from the tape-recorder.
- Stage 4: The data were analyzed and interpreted.

Data analysis

The data obtained were gained under the same kind of problems and solutions. See the overview of the instrument used in Table 1.

 Table 1: Overview of instrument used

Research Questions		Instrument	Data Analysis
1.	What are the problems of		
	students working in groups		-Grouping under the same theme
	outside class?	interview	
2.	How do students solve		
	these problems?		

Data presentation and interpretation

This section presents the results of the study gathered from the non-structured interview.

 Table 2: Process of group work outside classroom

Subjects	Process of working	Interpretations
S1	This group selected the group members and then brainstormed the ideas and shared the workload. He worked without planning such as talking about the date to start working. Until the deadline to submit his work was near, he had a meeting with the group, he hurriedly completed his task.	He had no plan for his work.
S2	After selecting the group members, he did not start working until the deadline was approaching. After that, the most intelligent person in the group (a stated by the subject in the interview) distributed work to each group member equally and they worked without planning, such as talking about a date to start or finish working and what to do for completing the work. Then, he had a meeting to discuss the work and completed the task hurriedly.	He had no plan for his work.
S3	The first step of the third subject's group was to select group members. When the time for submitting work was approaching, the amount of work was shared out to all members equally. Then, he worked without talking about the time to finish it. After that, he had the meeting to discuss the work and completed it.	He had no plan for his work.
84	The first step of the fourth subject's group was selecting the group members and brainstorming ideas for work. Then, everyone in group shared the workload based on ability and the preference of each person. After that, all group members planned to work together by talking about what to do and how long for completing the assigned work. After that, he had a meeting to discuss the work; however, the task was completed hurriedly.	His friends were not responsible for their work.

S5	For the fifth subject's group, the first step was selecting the	He could not receive
	group members and brainstorming ideas about work. Next,	satisfactory
	everyone shared the workload based on each person's ability	cooperation from his
	and preference. Then, he planned to work, such as what and	friends.
	how. When the deadline was approaching, he had a meeting to	
	discuss the work. After that, he did not follow the plan, so the	
	task was completed hurriedly.	

Table 2 has shown that three subjects (S1, S2, S3) completed work without planning. The other two subjects (S4, S5) had planned their work but had not followed their plan yet because their colleagues had not taken their own responsibilities and given them cooperation. It can be seen that from beginning to end, the subjects lacked skill in planning well for working in a group. Their work was also completed without good cooperation from their colleagues.

During the process of completing group work outside the classroom, there are five areas of group work problems which all subjects encountered as presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3:	The group work	problems and	interpretations
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Problems	Subjects	Interpretations	
1.The subjects lacked	S1,S2,S3,	The instructions were unclear, vague, and	
understanding of L2	S4,S5	complicated.	
instructions.			
2.Task (writing up a report)	S1,S2,S3,	The subjects may not have been adequately	
was difficult.	S4,S5	prepared for the language input, so writing the	
		report was too difficult.	
3.Some group members	S1,S2,S3,	, The subjects' colleagues were not responsible	
missed meetings.	S4,S5	when working in groups.	
4.Some group members did	S1,S2,S3,	The subjects' colleagues were not responsible	
not help.	S4,S5	when working in groups.	
5.The subjects completed	S1,S2,	The subjects worked without planning well.	
work in a hurry at the end of	S4,S5	And	
the course.		some colleagues were not responsible when	
		working	
		in groups.	

From Table 3, it can be seen that the instructions in English were not effective. The instructions were complicated and vague, so the subjects did not fully understand the teacher. Below are some extracts to support the findings for problem 1.

Discussion

• The limitation of language ability

Referring to the sample of the subjects' states as shown in the previous chapter about the instruction, there was one subject (S1) who stated that the solution used when he did not

understand the instruction was asking his friends what the teacher had said, two subjects (S2, S3) waited until the teachers used the Thai language (L1), and one subject (S4) who asked the teacher in Thai. Surprisingly, there was only one subject (S5) who understood nothing, even that the teacher was assigning a task due to the limitation of his English proficiency, so he had no solution. It can be said that language difficulty is one barrier for the subjects to start working.

- Inadequate language input preparation
- The difficult task

Besides the difficulty of language instruction, the difficulty of the task itself also became a problem. Their groups faced the same problem about written work (writing up the report). All subjects might not have been prepared and given the language input adequately in the lecture class. So, it is possible to say that inadequate language input preparation caused the learners to have a difficult task, that is why they needed help from their teachers, seniors, and / or friends.

• Inadequate psychological preparation

It was found that one problem rises from lacking psychological preparation. Some group members did not assist in working and some were missing meetings and no one blamed those people. They did not see how important the group work was. As they had chosen their close friends for working in the same group, they dared not blame one another. Since the subjects were not pleased to break down relationships among their colleagues, they tried to treat their relationship by employing inappropriate solutions, such as working with only a few people in the group (S1, S4) or working alone (S2, S3, S5) without blaming their friends. This implies that Asian politeness, especially in Thai culture, can affect the subjects' ability to work in group. The subjects are not psychologically prepared.

• Inadequate methodological preparation

- Co-operative working skill

Surprisingly, the findings found that when all the subjects had a meeting to collaborate on their work, some of their group members always missed the meetings. Some of them (the group members of S1, S4, S5) did not realize that the important part of working in a group was working cooperatively. However, the tasks were finished without any cooperative working, even though the group work requirement was to encourage group members to help and learn from one another. This implies that all subjects' groups lacked co-operative working skill to succeed in doing their group work.

- Planning skill

Referring to the findings, there were two groups of subjects: those (S1, S2, S3) who did not pay attention to planning, and so, their work was finished without planning; and those (S4, S5) who failed to plan. They completed their work at the last minute although they planned to work. This can imply that although the learners had more time and freedom to work outside class, without planning well it is difficult for them to accomplish their task.

- Time management skill

Without breaking up the friendship with the irresponsible people in the group, it directly affected the way to manage time when the subjects complete their work. Since the solution which the subjects (S1, S2, S4, S5) used to deal with the problem was to do the work of the other group members, all subjects could not manage their time which was limited for their work. Therefore, the amounts of work seemed to be increased automatically for the subjects who completed the work; and so it was time consuming for a few people to complete a great

deal of work with insufficient time. The process of work took far longer than they expected, so they worked till the last minute. This shows that they lacked skill in time management.

- Attitudes towards group work outside the classroom
- Positive attitudes

Although all the subjects faced many problems throughout the process of group work outside class, they preferred working outside the classroom. All subjects agreed that it was learning with greater freedom. Moreover, it was convenient for them to approach another resource, such as the Internet which could enhance their leaning. This reveals that promoting the opportunity for the learners to manage their own learning during group work outside class is the learners' preference. It enables the learners to have positive attitudes for learning independently.

- Negative attitudes

As mentioned previously, all subjects preferred working in a group outside the classroom; on the other hand, they disliked working with their colleagues who were irresponsible people. This implies that during group work, there are a few people in the group completing the whole work but the entire group receives the credit. Thus, subjects might have negative attitudes toward their colleagues regarding working outside the class.

Recommendations

To enhance learning from group work outside the classroom effectively, there are some suggestions for teachers to be aware of when asking their students to complete such tasks.

• Clearly giving instructions and explanations

Besides presenting the input/information adequately, giving clear instructions and explanations are also important. Ur (1996: 16) gives an opinion that in the field of language learning and teaching, instruction is one particular kind of explanation that is very important. According to the findings that the learners did not understand their teachers' L2 instruction, these might have come from two main causes: the teachers did not inform the students with clear instructions and explanations, and / or because the students' English proficiency was limited. It would be useful for teachers to be aware about giving instructions and explanations to their students. Here are some suggestions: firstly. supporting the learners to understand and see the clear picture of the instructions and explanations, the instructions and / or explanations should be written in brief on the board. However, the teachers have to make sure that their written instructions and explanations are clear enough for the learners to understand. Secondly, referring to the student's English proficiency, teachers need to be aware of the words they use. The words which will be put in the instructions and explanations should be selected carefully and be suitable for the learners' ability. Thirdly, in some situations, if the teachers realize that it is difficult to explain in the target language, use of the learners' mother tongue should be considered. In addition, the teachers may explain by illustrating explanations through examples or demonstrations (Ur, 1996: 17).

• Demonstration with examples

Insufficient input or language preparation is one barrier for the learners to succeed in accomplish work. According to the findings, most subjects (S1, S2, S4, S5) suggest that they need some examples of the completed task as a guide. The researcher considers the reason for the teachers not providing any chance for the learners to see any examples of the completed task may be because the teachers do not want the learners to copy those

examples. Moreover, it might not be meaningful for the learners to view a completed task before they start working. It seems to limit the learners' ideas in performing a new one. Thus, to enable learners to understand more on the final product in depth, here are some suggestions: a) giving a demonstration along with giving instructions and explanations in the area the learners have to perform; and b) presenting examples of the completed task to the learners. However, teacher and learners must have an agreement that learners would not copy the one shown to them.

• Checking the learners' understanding

According to the findings, learners did not understand the instructions and explanations. Accordingly, after giving instructions and explanations, it is necessary for teachers to check learners' understanding. To support this idea, Cameron (2001: 211) says that checking the learners' understanding of instructions and explanations are important for their learning. Ur (1996: 17) and Cameron (2001: 211) indicate that the way to check the learners' understanding of instructions and explanations is to ask them to explain back by using their own words. Thus, getting feedback this way is effective for the teachers to ensure that their instructions and explanations are correctly executed.

• The teachers' roles

<u>Training</u>

According to the findings, the researcher believes that most of the problems the learners had faced were caused by a lack of training for working in groups outside class. Besides avoiding misbehavior by the learners which increases group work problems, to influence the effectiveness of the learners' performances on group working is also important. So, initially, the learners need to be sufficiently trained and prepared in the skills needed. However, before training and / or preparing, teachers need to know what and how they are going to train their learners. The followings are some suggestions:

Psychological preparation

The subjects' criterion in selecting their group members was familiarity, so their friends were able to misbehave without anyone criticising them due to the Asian cultural trait of politeness and compromise. Compromising (or *kreng jai* in Thai) is a general aspect of Thai culture. According to the result of this study, there were students who did nothing, and the other group members allowed them to do so. It is a serious problem that needs to be addressed to improve group work. To prevent such misbehaviors, the learners should be prepared psychologically. Psychological preparation simply proceeds from training the learners to take responsibility for their own work and how to work as a team. O'Connell (2002: 4) believes that team or interpersonal relationship building is one purpose of facilitating group work. Therefore, it can be said that if the learners are aware of their own shared responsibilities required by their group, group work will be processed more effectively. They should be informed of the significance of group work in their groups.

Methodological preparation

Besides giving psychological preparation to learners for being responsible for their own work, the procedures or methods of working in groups outside class should also be given. Methodological preparation is presented below:

Co-operative working skill preparation

Referring to the findings of this study, group work assigned to be undertaken outside class fails in promoting co-operative learning and working. Thus, cooperation skills should be presented and supported, so that the learners can be successful in group work. The learners need to learn how to work collaboratively and cooperatively as a team, by asking them to think as a guide to help them realize what characteristics each person should have while working in group (i.e. to be a responsible person).

- Planning skill preparation

According to O'Connell (2002: 4) who addresses six purposes concerned about facilitating group work, one of the purposes is planning. Ellingson (2005: 1) also shares the idea that planning is crucial for accomplishment of group work. Thus, planning as a basic step of group work should not be overlooked when the learners are assigned to group work. The teachers especially should realize that advance planning is necessary for the students before assigning them work. The learners should be prepared and have practiced planning to achieve the goal of working effectively.

- Time management skill preparation

"Planning should always have time guidelines. In fact, planning is as fundamental to time management as organizing and prioritizing." (Ellinson, 2005:1) Thusly, it can be seen that planning directly affects time management. If planning is organized well enough, then managing time seems not to be so hard, because planning and time management should harmonise. Thus, the learners should be trained and practiced in planning and managing time for carrying out their work.

Being a consultant and a facilitator

Since working in groups outside class attempts to offer and promote greater self-directed learning, the roles of teachers should be only as consultants or facilitators to allow the learners to decide and perform everything they want with less domination by the teachers. During their process of working in groups outside class, learners will certainly face some problems as barriers to completing their work, and they may not effectively deal with these problems. In such cases, teachers need to monitor the groups to aid them to successfully carry out their assignments. Additionally, the purpose of being a consultant or facilitator is to focus talking on helping learners complete their group work, such as suggesting ways for dealing with problems they encountered or anything else that is able to help them complete their work.

Giving feedback

During and after the process of group work outside class, learners should know how they have performed and whether or not they succeeded in their group work. Chaudron (1988: 133, cited in Watson Todd, 1997: 90) suggests that teachers are able to aid learners in checking their performance and monitoring their progress by giving feedback. So, teachers need to give learners feedback on how well they have performed to raise their awareness to avoid problems and improve their performance in the future.

Maintaining positive attitudes

The findings reveal that the subjects preferred doing group work outside class rather than in class, although they faced many problems through the process of working. The researcher believes that teachers should maintain learners' positive attitudes towards group work outside class. Below are some recommendations for doing this.

a) Explain the purposes of doing group work outside class to the students

"It is very important for the students to understand *why* they are working in groups, ... If you don't explain why you are using this strategy some students may think that you are simply trying to make life easy for yourself by having the students do all the work." (Killen, 1998: 67) Thus, teachers should inform their learners about the purposes of working in a group i.e. working in groups enables learners to acquire both (language) content, and skills needed for co-operating with others in a group. Otherwise, learners may not realize how group work is important and what benefits they would gain for their learning. Also, teachers need to make sure that their students are informed of the benefits of working in groups outside class to keep them engaged actively in learning with future group work outside class.

b) Roles of teachers

In order to provide more opportunities for self-directed learning, the role of the teacher should be clearly specified and limited, so that they should not dominate their learners all the time. Their roles should be performed moderately and at suitable times during the process of group work outside class.

Conclusion

This research study attempted to find out the problems faced and solutions used by learners during the process of working in groups outside the classroom. The findings highlight the fact that learners misbehaved through the whole process. Interestingly, even though the learners encountered many problems, they preferred group work outside class as they had more freedom. It was able to promote self-directed and self-managed learning. Teachers are important and helpful for training their learners in the necessary skills such as planning, management and co-operative working skills and also for preparing adequate language input. Additionally, it is also crucial to maintain learners' attitudes towards doing group work outside class. For instance, explaining to learners the importance or purposes of working in groups outside class, the benefits they would gain, and how it relates to their learning in reality. These suggestions might enable them to be willing to do group work outside the classroom in future. Finally, the researcher hopes that this study will help teachers realize their own roles about what they should do, as well as to raise their awareness about possible problems that might arise, so that group work outside class will be effective for their learners' learning.

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A Study of the Ability of Senior English Major Students to Speak Critically on Current Events in Thailand.

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Abstract

The purposes of this study were to: (1) investigate through discourse analysis senior English major students' ability to critically converse about current events in terms of assertive and directive acts, (2) assess whether senior students feel that they have improved their ability to think critically through discussion of current events in the English major conversational courses, and (3) assess whether senior students feel that they can overcome power differences through discussion of current events in the English major conversational courses.

The sample for this research was 12 fourth year English major students from Khon Kaen University. A participant who was a native speaker was invited to join this study to help in the interview process. The research instruments were composed of a questionnaire, interview, video recording and a discourse analysis software program. There were 71 respondents for the questionnaire. The interviews were recorded and transcribed using a Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) called Transana.

The results from the interviews showed that English major senior students had adequate critical skills to be able to discuss current events in English and were able to frequently express opinions and statements in terms of assertive and directive acts. After taking the conversational courses in the senior year, the students felt that they had improved their ability to think critically. However, most of the students had a preference for the conversational courses to be initiated during the first or second year of university as this would be more beneficial for them to practice in class and also advantageous when looking for employment or in the workplace. Moreover, the students felt that through study they had more confidence when speaking critically with a native speaker, even though they felt that topics relating to current events were difficult for them to discuss.

1. Rationale and Background

English has been an important subject for Thai students for many years. It is used as a world communicative language and has become a more and more useful language in the everyday life of most people in the world. Presently, there are three main labels for English as the *universalizing language* of people around the world: world English, international English and global English (McArthur, 2002). These three aspects of English introduce all kinds of usage and user, both involving standard English and business English, and even referring to economic globalization. This global aspect of English means that it is essential for people to learn English when they find it necessary to communicate with people in other countries. According to the Thai Ministry of Education, the Fundamental Education Curriculum B.E. 2545 (2002) prescribed that four aspects of this curriculum take account of these global needs: communication, culture, connection and community (Ministry of Education, B.E. 2543 [2000]). Thus, studying English in wider contexts is essential for learners in the changing world.

To learn English to be able to communicate with other people in different societies, learners are expected to have sufficient knowledge about specific contexts. One significant theory involved in this study is "critical theory". According to Kellner (n.d.), during the 1960s, critical and theoretical approaches in disciplines of the humanities, for example, art history, literary studies, and cultural

studies, began to be broadly applied. Kellner further remarks that the term critical theory has also been evoked in the domains of film and media studies. This theory has brought an emphasis on the importance of English study and the global use of English in terms of communication. When studying English, it is not just to learn how to speak correctly; speaking with thoughtful details, or talking critically, is also crucial for students to practice so that students have contexts about their community and culture to communicate. Thus, current events issues can be topics for students to practice speaking critically in order to make connections and inform with other people.

Conversational English has a strong influence on people in Thai society because there are many foreigners in Thailand, and Thai businesses have expanded internationally. English conversation is essential to communicate with people in an organization (Pholsward, 2003 cited in Sombat, 2007). Because university leavers with English proficiency can rely on having a greater range of career opportunities and better working prospects, a recommended approach for Khon Kaen University students to achieve this is to be able to speak critically on popular culture issues (Draper, 2009). In other words, the skill of speaking English is not only speaking with correct grammar; students should also know how to speak appropriately and critically on complex topics so that it is easier to find a good job. In a Thai classroom, in a practical way, the teaching style and context should relate to learners' interests and satisfy learner's natural requirements. In the case of an English major, this is a very broad range of material, so current events discussion can be a useful tool to motivate students to enjoy studying in class. At Khon Kaen University, the study of critical thinking and speaking has been introduced to senior English major students in the conversational courses, 411331, 411430 and 411431 which allow the students to have a chance to learn about critical thinking and speaking skills through various topics.

Thus, motivation is important for second language learning. It is a main factor in defining accomplishment in learning another language in the classroom mode (Gardner, 2001). According to Dornyei and Csizer (1998), the term *motivation* can be used by teachers and students for different purposes when attempting to describe success or failure in second language learning. It is essential to have motivation for second language learning since inadequate motivation in each individual can lead to a lack of accomplishment in the long-term goals of studying. Thus, motivation is a tool to ensure student achievement. More details about the kinds of motivation will be discussed in the following sections.

In conclusion, the researcher attempted to investigate the ability of senior English major students to speak critically on current events while conducting an assessment of whether senior English major students have improved their critical thinking and speaking as regards current event issues. This research can be beneficial for both university teachers and students to improve student skills, especially speaking.

2. Purpose of the Study

2.1 To investigate through discourse analysis senior students' ability to critically converse about current events in terms of assertive and directive acts.

2.2 To assess whether senior students feel that they have improved their ability to think critically through discussion of current events in the English major conversational courses.

2.3 To assess whether senior students feel that they can overcome power differences through discussion of current events in the English major conversational courses.

3. Population and Sample

The population and sample can be described as follows:

3.1 The population of this study comprises 12 volunteers of fourth year English major students from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at Khon Kaen University. Up to three participants were sought for a pilot study and for rater training. The research was conducted after the students took the course 411431 about English Conversation and Discussion. The 12 students were divided into four groups of three people and classified into four levels of English speaking proficiency, i.e. advanced, high intermediate, intermediate, and lower intermediate. Their English skills were derived from their grade reports, which were requested from the student grade office at the Faculty. The students were invited to discuss current event issues.

3.2 The samples include questionnaires, interview, video recording and observation. In the last part of the questionnaire, there was a question asking the students to rate the current events topics from most to least difficult. The participants were randomly ordered, and each of the 12 selected students participated in a 10-minute interview with a native speaker according to the ranked topic. The current events or news story topics were ranked in order of difficulty and allocated based on these ratings to the 12 students. Each interview was video recorded. Before conducting the interview, the interviewer, a native speaker, was handed question guidelines for each topic. It was anticipated that the students would be able to provide some information and advice about the current events issues that they were given. The interview section focused on the ability of students to speak critically regarding the topic in terms of both assertive and directive speech acts and types of critical thinking as described earlier.

4. Selection of Topics

Currents events are the most interesting global movements or recent on-going stories. Topics about current events can be creative issues for students to learn in class. Haas and Laughlin (2000) remark that in every grade level, students can acquire genuine learning experiences through current events. Current events topics are therefore a good tool for teachers. Students can develop the functioning of cognitive, affective, critical thinking and research skills when they have a discussion of current events issues (Haas & Laughlin, 2000). To sum up, current events issues are events that capture people's imagination and can cause much discussion.

Current events in Thailand are stories that have been discussed most at the present time in Thailand. The news can be broadcast through television and published via newspapers. Well-known websites are, for example, the websites of the BBC, CNN, Bangkok Post, The Nation and the Guardian (UK). The following stories seem to be important stories that foreigners paid attention to regarding Thailand most over the past year.

- Red Shirts and Thaksin
- The Thai border dispute with Cambodia
- Drugs in Thailand
- The insurrection in the South of Thailand

5. Research Instruments

The study was conducted and data collected by using a questionnaire, interview and video recording for the purpose of discourse analysis. Meanwhile, class observation was an option and was done prior to the other processes. The questionnaire and the questions used for interview were examined by the advisor and co-advisor of this research. The pilot study, an interview of three students, was conducted prior to the actual investigation. This process was to confirm that senior English major students were aware of critical thinking and speaking skills.

6. Data Collection

The data was collected via the four research instruments, viz., the interview, questionnaire, video recording and observation. Video recording was done during the discussion and was transcribed using the *Transana* program. A rubric for assessing the ability to critically speak about current events was designed to collect data and was used by the native speaker to score the performance for each student.

For the questionnaire, information about critical speaking skills and current event issues were collected from students. There were 120 questionnaires given, but only 71 respondents. The reason why not all students returned the questionnaire could be because not every student was around at the time of the year, they found difficulty in returning the questionnaire since they needed to put it in the box at the teacher office's area, the topic might not interest them, or the questionnaire was not related to their study.

Students were divided into four groups of three people. Each group was given ten-minute interviews on different topics. Interview questions were derived from the topics described in the earlier section. The interviews were video recorded and transcribed.

7. Data Analysis

Data analysis was based on quantitative research systems. For a sociolinguistic study, only observation may not be sufficient for analyzing a process, which should involve some counting, together with explicit or implicit aspects, in order to answer the research questions clearly (Johnstone, 2000).

8. **Results**

The results from the rubric scores on interviews showed that senior English major students possessed adequate critical skills to be able to discuss current events in English and were able to frequently express opinions and statements in terms of both assertive acts, ideas to show what is happening in the world at the moment, and directive acts, suggestions for someone to do something. Meanwhile, the criteria being used as the classification levels in Bloom's Taxonomy, viz., remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating and creating, examined the ability of the students to critically talk about current events (Forehand, 2005). From the interview, four out of 12 students were able to answer and to give ideas about the current events topics in terms of both assertive and directive acts. The other eight students possessed lower skills. The average mean at 16.7% for total utterances indicates that the ability to speak critically about current event topics was reasonably low.

After taking the conversational courses in the senior year, questionnaire results indicate that 48 out of 71 students (67.6%) felt that they had improved their ability to think critically "a lot". This result

agrees with the findings of Norton (2008) that advanced-level students can improve their critical thinking skills through a discourse analysis teaching methodology and be able to discuss cultural issues. However, 23 out of 71 students (32.4%) would have preferred the conversational courses to have been started during the second year of university as it would have been more beneficial for them to practice in class and also advantageous when looking for employment or performing in the workplace in the future.

Moreover, the change in perception of the students from eight out of 71 (11.3%) to 34 out of 71 students (47.9%) as regards expressing a moderate degree of confidence before and after studying the conversational courses can be explained by the fact that, through study, they had more confidence when speaking critically with a native speaker, even though they realized that topics relating to current events were difficult for them to discuss. The courses also appeared to help the majority of students express their opinions and ideas through conversation and were also apparently beneficial to them in overcoming any power or social status differences, in this case, between a native teacher and Thai students.

However, the rubric scores from the interview and informal interview observation indicate that one of 12 students obviously had poor skills of thinking and speaking critically, and that student was struggling to answer the questions. The student was unable to deliver English words properly and naturally. Even though he/she seemed to understand the questions, his/her answer did not relate directly to the topic. Many instances of hesitation, long pauses and word repetition were used, as well as gestures. The interview setting could also be one of the reasons for the extreme anxiety. Both raters, the interviewer and the researcher, agree that this particular student appeared to be unable to communicate while demonstrating critical thinking and speaking skills.

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Success and Failure of EFL Postgraduate Students

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Abstract

In this study the researchers investigates two small groups of successful and failed postgraduate students learning English as a foreign language in the Thai university context to better understand their language learning psychology and to elaborate the complexities of their English learning experiences and effects. Within the range of this research, attitudes, learning strategies, and learning motivations are considered to correlate strongly with their achievement. From the interviews, the results of the study show that there are both similarities and differences between the successful students and the failed students in terms of how they conceptualize the process of English learning. Interestingly, a broader range of conceptions emerges from the views of the successful students; learning a language means learning its culture, developing and maintaining language sense, as well as using it in practice. To some extent, the findings of this study shed light on the fact that different factors of individual learners and a variety of contextual factors contribute to their different success and failure. Further research on learning strategies of self-regulated learners in mainstream educational psychology and how foreign language aptitude is implicated in learning achievement would be a significant contribution to the field.

Introduction and Contextual Background

With the aim of developing the English skills of Thai students and increase international competitiveness, the Ministry of Education (2009) of Thailand has been gradually implementing English as the medium of instruction. Each university places a great emphasis on the teaching and learning of English. English language learning has become an integral part of the education system not only to develop high-level English language skills for business communication but also to serve greater demands of business organizations. However, it is apparent that English language teaching in the postgraduate context of this study has not produced a number of successful language learners as expected according to the policy of the government.

Research Aims and Research Questions

The main purpose of this current study is to describe the attitudes of the successful students and the failed students learning English as a foreign language in the Thai postgraduate context, to investigate their different strategy use, and to reveal how they were motivated in undertaking their English language learning. Taking this as a starting point, the researcher therefore formed three specific research questions as follows:

- 1. What are the attitudes contributing to the success or failure of the Thai postgraduate students in their English language learning?
- 2. What are the strategies used by the successful students and the failed students in their English language learning?
- 3. How are the successful students and the failed students motivated in English language learning?

Literature Review

Basically, in the same classroom of foreign language learning, it has been observed that some students learn rapidly and effectively while others make very slow progress. There are common variations which have been used to elucidate differential success and failure of English language learners. Within the range of this research, attitudes, learning strategies, and learning motivations are, therefore, considered closely relevant to the achievement of the postgraduate students in the context of this study.

Attitude to learning English as a foreign language

Attitude is a mental state of individual learners' persistence towards their target language, their mother tongue, and their own culture. To some extent, it can influence individuals' English language learning achievement (Brown, 1980; Gardner and Lambert, 1972). For Baker (1988), attitude is regarded as cognitive and affective; it can be learnt, not inherited or genetically given. Moreover, Ellis (1994) postulates that attitude conceivably affects English language proficiency and success of individual learners. That is to say, successful learners with positive attitudes have their attitudes reinforced while failure of English language learning may reinforce learners' negative attitudes. For this reason, McCombs (1990) affirms that learners' success must be examined in relation to attitudes and beliefs. Such a rationale places language learners' attitudes at the centre of their language learning process because it assumes that attitudes to language learning form language-learning behavior.

Strategy use in relation to learning English as a foreign language

Green and Oxford (1996) consider learning strategies as particular actions or techniques that students use to improve their progress in developing their second/foreign language skills. Even if these classifications are varied, the most common point given by some scholars (e.g., Rubin, 1987; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Ellis, 1994) is that learning strategies have contributed greatly to the understanding of English language learners. With this regard, the premise of language learning strategies puts forward that part of the differential success rate among second or foreign language learning procedure. Ellis (1994) draws some conclusions from many studies conducting research on the relationship between language learning strategies and language learning proficiency and remarks that the learning strategies are by and large used more frequently and more qualitatively by the successful language learners than the failed ones. The most successful learners are, therefore, inclined to use learning strategies appropriate to their needs and goals.

Effects of motivation on learning English as a foreign language

Over and above the view that strategy preference may be subjective to how an individual learner conceptualizes the target language and language learning in general (Pennington, 1999), there is confirmation that motivation has a notable effect on language use and preferred language learning activities (Oxford and Nyikos, 1989). Numerous researchers (e.g., Ellis, 1994; Gardner, 1985; McDonough, 1986; Skehan, 1989) are liable to describe foreign language learning as a recurring process: strong motivation, positive attitudes, and effective learning effort may bring about increased language learning achievement and the feeling of development, which may consecutively enhance motivation and make possible further attempts. In line with Williams and Burden (1997), individual learners are motivated differently, understand the peripheral influences around them in personal ways, perform in accordance with their internal temperament, and draw on their personal

attributes. Furthermore, social and contextual influences that include the entire context, culture, and the social conditions also have an effect on motivation.

The reasons why learners learn English as a foreign language are particularly vital for their motivation as motivation is one of the most important components of learning and it may be used to give an explanation for differential success in foreign language learning (Gardner, 1985). In the same way, Harmer (2001) illuminates motivation as an internal drive which directs learners to achieve a task. In this regard, individual learners are sometimes motivated to do something for internal reasons such as concentration, pleasure, needs, curiosity, and so on. At other times, learners are engaged in an activity because of external reasons such as rewards, punishment, and social pressure. Thus, it is certain that external and internal factors also interrelate to each other and they need to be taken into account in all language learning steps.

Achievement of learners of English as a foreign language

Numerous studies (e.g. Gass and Selinker, 2001; Glesne and Peshkin, 1992; Larsen-Freeman, 2001; Parry, 1993; Vann and Abraham, 1990; Ushioda, 2001) have proved that there are strategies which help language learners to achieve their goals, and good language learners commonly use different strategies than inferior language learners. Nevertheless, the preference of strategies is not dependent on diverse levels of proficiency. Learners' beliefs and motivation about language learning, ages, personal backgrounds, and social contexts to a great extent can affect their learning achievement. Successful language learners, according to Oxford (1990), have the ability to bring together particular types of language learning strategies in effective ways in relation to their own learning needs. Thus, to make possible the learners' language learning and to promote learner autonomy, language learning strategy is an important issue for instructors to be concerned with. Additionally, many studies on the use of language learning strategies have shown great concern in identifying the relationships between learners' characteristics and their learning achievement; the relations between strategies use and success; the differences of gender, as well as cultural backgrounds affecting strategy use.

Research Methods

Two data collection methods: a questionnaire and an in-depth interview were employed to extend the breadth of inquiry. For the questionnaire, questions were asked about all the 50 participants' personal data and learning history of English including their grades obtained as well as their self-rating on English learning achievement. Twenty-one student participants (nine successful and 12 failed) giving responses to the questionnaire were selected for individual interviews as a follow-up to the questionnaire to elicit in-depth data.

Participants

In this study views were obtained from 50 selected Thai postgraduate students who were in the final year of study of master's degrees in non-English programmes at a public university in Thailand. According to the programme requirement, these students have to study at least two English courses. From the questionnaire responses, there were nine successful students (SS1 – SS9) with good grades in English courses and also rated themselves as successful, and another 12 failed students (FS1 – FS12) with low grades in English courses and rated themselves as failed English language learners. All the student respondents were also selected based on their willingness and availability for the semi-structured in-depth interview.

Findings

As the questionnaires only helped to select the successful and failed students, this section will explain and discuss a variety of views from the interviews in response to the three research questions.

Research Question 1

Most notably, all the successful students referred to vocabulary learning as very important in their English language learning. One of them said that: "Vocabulary is very useful for producing a variety of sentences. Having limited vocabulary would lessen confidence when interacting to other people in English." (SS3) Not only frequently referring to English language learning as a process of being skillful in linguistic knowledge, time after time the successful students gave emphasis to the necessity of gaining a realistic use of English. This highlighting was consistent with the diverse techniques they addressed for improving practical skills of English. For example, one said: "I usually read English not only online magazines but academic articles on the Internet. Also, I love listening to English songs while driving a car. I practice my English speaking very often with a native English speaking teacher at an English tutorial school." (SS4)

Some successful students regarded cultural issues as an important factor for being successful in language learning. A deep insight into idiom or slang would lead to a profound understanding of not only particular language knowledge but also its culture. One student gave a similar view on this: "When learning English, Thai students do not start with its culture. Rather, they begin with grammatical structures. As a result, what they say and write is grammatically correct but culturally improper or deficient in an authentic English essence." (SS8) In accordance with this, another student suggested that learning English should not be separated from its culture. Lacking a cultural background of English and/or Western culture could be a hindrance of appreciating English humor. Developing and maintaining language sense was, therefore, another revealing opinion constantly mentioned by many successful students in this study. They had a view that language sense indicated an ability to use the right language at the appropriate time without much contemplation. One student noted: "Successful language learners should be able to immerse themselves in the language through any authentic English listening and reading items. (SS2) Moreover, almost half of the successful students remarked that they believed in English language learning in actual settings as this would be an authentic tool to communicate with other people.

Almost all the failed students in this study were explicit about the vocabulary problems. They appeared to have a belief that English language learners should be mastered through vocabulary before any other learning activities occurred. The failed students were usually trapped in vocabulary learning and were not confident to move on, and some of them had a high regard for the high achieving students who could use English in the real situations. One failed student mentioned: "I noticed that there were some books in English about business and economics which is my area of specialty. If I were not poor in English vocabulary, I would be able to read them without any assistance of a talking-dictionary or even a common one." (FS1)

Regarding attitudes toward English courses taken for their postgraduate studies, two successful students ascribed their English learning achievement to the courses. They were apparently interested in whatever their English teacher taught, commenting that they needed to be encouraged and kept on the right track by their teachers. The course was valued because the teachers were expected to be a good facilitator for English language learning and their personal development. For example, one student explained: "*I've learned from my teacher how to learn English better and how to get along with others by having English as a medium of communication. This is also helpful for*

major area of study." (SS5) The majority of the successful students, nonetheless, felt that the courses taken for their postgraduate studies were too rigid or too traditional. These characteristics of the course were mentioned as a negative aspect, which was not consistent with such responses. One of them revealed: "*Most of the time the teacher just lectured; as a result, we rarely had a chance to develop communicative competence.*" (SS7)

Apparently, the failed students expected a more communication-oriented teaching style to maximize their classroom learning. They were likely to be producers of their own learning and be responsive to a variety of teaching styles and lessons. The quotation below is typical of this type of response: "In one extensive reading class, the teacher provided some discussion activity on an interesting topic. Also, she usually talked about some interesting incidents that enliven our interest. It was really good." (FS3) Additionally, all the failed students agreed that the teaching style was the cause of dullness in the English course. Most of them revealed that for the most part their English teachers were not friendly or encouraging. Another failed student remarked that English language learning at postgraduate level was different from English learning at bachelor level and secondary level. Some of the students revealed that their secondary school teachers and their university teachers explained every detail clearly and corrected almost every mistake they made. Also, there was a sense of helplessness among the failed students. One of the students remarked: "I have many problems with my English, but I don't know what I should start with. Then, I have lost confidence and interest completely in English language learning at postgraduate level." (FS1)

Research Question 2

The two groups of students—successful and failed—explicitly indicated a wide range of different uses of their English language learning and practicing strategies. Apparently, almost all of the failed students used a rote learning strategy when learning vocabulary; they memorized words by looking at the Thai meaning or repeating spelling of a particular word. Yet, they did not take any measures to enhance the vocabulary they learned. One revealed that she just tried to memorize as much vocabulary as she could, but she never tested herself whether she did remember all the words or took any other tests to strengthen her vocabulary knowledge.

Although both successful and failed students were trapped in an attempt to memorize, forgetting and feeling frustrated by what their teacher taught in class, most of the successful students revealed that they usually read with the specific purpose of reinforcing vocabulary and tried to put the words they had learned into practice. Most of the failed students indicated that they sometimes previewed lessons, but their comments indicated that they did not have sufficient planning of lesson previewing and did not pay much attention to this learning activity. One student revealed: "I don't understand the text without the help of a dictionary, ready translations and explanations of the text, and the answer keys of the exercises at the end of the text." (FS5) In this regard, the failed students apparently did not engage in cognitive strategies.

For the successful students, they had a more practical learning strategy when learning new words. These higher achieving students normally recited the list of new vocabulary appended to the reading passage. Subsequently, they read the passage several times to gain an overall comprehension and to place emphasis on the particular parts they considered useful for a further discussion in class. The exercises attached to the reading passage would be completed concurrently and the students usually thought of issues that would be worth discussing with the teacher and classmates. Really, most of the successful students could set specific goals for their English language learning such as language skill improvement. They apparently had a clear idea of which stages they should go through, which learning materials should be employed, and how the learning activities should be engaged in.

Additionally, the successful students generally self-evaluated their learning advancement by considering whether their learning activities in relation to a particular learning objective were progressing as planned. It was revealing that these high achieving students tended to locate responsibility inside themselves. For example, one of them reported: "When oral and aural practices are rare in the English class, I then avail myself of every opportunity to improve these skills." (SS1) It was also noteworthy that most of the successful students made use of self-encouragement to carry on when dealing with unfavorable learning situations, language challenges, and mistakes. Little progress could be a result of a lack of constant and strong endeavor on their own part.

Most failed students had no initiative regarding their English improvement and did not consider their own efforts. These students were deficient in the strategies which would result in they themselves instigating learning and practicing towards goals or creating opportunities. The interview data clearly revealed that only a few of the failed students even had specific short-term goals in English language learning. One of them disclosed that he had never taken any extra English courses until he nearly finished his master's degree; he just realized that he failed to use English in reality. Half of the failed students also reported that they could not understand what was the problem with their English language learning and some tended to locate the problem outside themselves. One student commented: "I don't know why I always forget new English words and become awkward when speaking English. Perhaps, an English speaking environment would help me learn and remember new vocabulary better." (FS5) Consequently, they inclined to adopt a lenient attitude towards learning problems. One of them complained: "I just stop reciting those words when finding that I still forget them all. It is such a frustrating and boring task!" (FS7) More than half of the failed students agreed that they gave priority to their other courses of their major studies and, as a result, did not have time for English at all and for the time being gradually lost interest.

Research Question 3

To some extent the students' responses to interview questions concerning the third research question would help explain the development of intrinsic motivational processes or internal drive of the students. One of the successful students asserted that she always thought positively toward English language learning and did not feel that it was a difficult task; she was previously ranked first in an English contest when being a secondary school student. In addition to this, one successful student remarked: "Being aware of my progress, I became more positive to my study and my future career advancement. For the most part, I became much more determined in English language learning." (SS6)

Another type of internal drive of the successful students was encouragement by teachers' support, admiration, and enthusiasm as it is included in enhanced confidence and self-efficacy. One student remarked that his former school English teacher usually encouraged him to read aloud and to do many role plays. Also, the teacher always spoke highly of him in class. In doing so, his confidence in English increased and he had strong determination to be the most outstanding student in the class. Conversely, a few of the failed students talked about their motivational experiences which were ordinary compared to the successful ones.

Learning and practicing for English proficiency tests was important for the students in the context of this study as it was a requirement for the completion of their degrees. For the successful student, they took a positive attitude towards the test because they considered it as an opportunity to assess and substantiate whether their English aptitude had reached a certain level in their postgraduate study. Thus, the proficiency test was not likely to be a frightening task for them. On the other hand, the majority of the failed students put forward that the English proficiency test was frightening. Passing the test, to a certain extent, would depend on their luck rather than ability. They expressed anxiety and worry towards the test. One of them noted: "*The test makes me very depressed. Unless I pass the test, I will not be able to get my degree.*" Another student emotionally remarked that if it had not been for the purpose of passing tests, he would not have studied English.

Discussion

The study shows both similarities and differences between the successful and failed students in terms of how they conceptualized the process of learning English as a foreign language. Despite the fact that, for both groups, language learning means accumulation of language knowledge and developing practical language skills, a broader range of conceptions emerged from the views of the successful students. Learning a language means learning its culture, developing and maintaining language sense, as well as using it in practice. Some successful students in this study hold a view that English language learning needed mixture of a process of understanding and developing language sense. In contrast, the failed students perceived that something basic in their English was missing, which corresponded with their relatively limited view of English language learning.

Apparent differences in attitudes towards the English language learning between the two groups implied that the whole socio-emotional and cognitive system of classroom interaction to some extent stimulated progressive development among the successful students but regressive efforts among those that failed. The latter group displayed an overall negative attitude; they were bored with the teaching styles and gave similar views that their teachers were not supportive or even receptive. The successful students believed that they could learn linguistic knowledge or skills from the class, but most of them considered the regular teaching activity to be rigid or traditional. Some successful students felt that their teacher's guidance was very valuable not only in their English language learning but also in their overall development as English learners.

Interestingly, groups in the study reported some similar cognitive learning or practicing activities such as vocabulary learning and lesson previewing. They also appeared to employ some similar learning and practicing strategies, such as learning new words by rote. These similarities are explicable provided that these students had the same cultural environment and received similar instructional input. However, the successful students reported some learning or practicing activities—having drills in English conversation—which the failed students did not refer to. In addition, the quality in the use of some common cognitive learning or practicing activities and the more sophisticated use of strategies by the successful students tended to be related to their former goals of learning English, which was characterized by their apparent emphasis on a practical command of English.

The data analysis disclosed remarkable divergences in terms of self-management in English language learning of the two groups. The data designated that the students doing well attributed their achievement to controllable factors such as effort and strategy use. By and large, they felt positive about their English language learning, and that the majority of them appeared to be able to determine their own learning objectives, to come across learning problems and their causes, and to take consequent assessments to surmount them. Moreover, they dynamically drew on the learning and practicing resources around them, knowing how to carry on their work towards a learning goal at their own pace.

The failed students, on the contrary, found it difficult to regulate the language learning environment at the university and experienced a discernible sense of helplessness; some expressed considerable disappointment about the English assignments. Although all the failed students considered strong determination and hard work crucial for success, these were the internal factors they were lacking. Also, the failed ones were more prone to emotional responses that interfered with learning than the successful students were. Furthermore, these low achievers situated the sources of language problems outside themselves, seeing inadequacies in the environment and in their teachers. As a result, they failed to see their proper roles of what Williams and Burden (1997) called "significant others".

For the most part, successful students were motivated both externally and internally. Although sources of internal drive such as interest, learning progress, enhanced self-confidence, and self-efficacy played an important role in influencing their tendency to approach and persist in learning activities on a continuing and self-directed basis, learning and practicing English for the English proficiency test was also an important part of their experience. By contrast, the failed students' language learning apparently was an extrinsically motivated affair and the students were mainly driven by compulsory examinations. Surprisingly, the compulsory English proficiency test also emerged as a factor undermining the failed students' interest and persistence in learning. They were likely to marginalize English learning except when the test was approaching, and most generally lacked a further interest in any other English assessments.

The current research illustrates that attitudes, strategy use, and motivation are liable to be situation and person specific and that they are perhaps a consequence of goal orientation, personal choice, engagement with different kinds of learning activities, and social interaction. The findings of this study indicate that different levels of success are formed by a complex and dynamic interplay of internal cognition and emotion, external incentives, and social context. The qualitative inquiry, therefore, highlights the importance of a sociocultural and interactionist perspective in understanding learners' differences and their impacts on learning outcomes. The results of this study indicate that an integrative view of learners' differences in their learning outcomes, strategy use, and learning motivation, which is in line with the current reform movements in education that are calling for teachers to attend to the needs of all students in achieving high academic standards, as well as to provide more integrative and personally relevant curricula and learning assessment, is required (McCombs, 1998).

Implications and Conclusion

This study of three common variables of learners' differences: attitudes, strategies, and motivation could also have implications for other Thai postgraduate students learning English as a foreign language. However, the differential function and the relative control of the variables as well as the nature of underlying learning outcomes tend to promote pragmatic research. Moreover, to some extent, the findings help to explain the fact that different factors of individual learners and a variety of contextual factors have an impact on their success and failure.

Strategy training in the area of foreign language learning should be expanded to include fostering positive cognition or beliefs about English language learning, exploring the role of the teacherlearner interaction in facilitating self-directed learning, and identifying pedagogical approaches in an attempt to nurture intrinsic motivation in students' learning process. By this, an integrative perspective would help teachers understand the process underlying successful and failed language learning as well as make well-versed choices for instructional approaches.

Self-regulation and motivation, according to Dörnyei and Skehan (2003), are bound together because they both concern the antecedents of increased learning achievement of individual learners. In this regard, research on learning strategies of self-regulated learners in mainstream educational

psychology will undoubtedly help teachers better understand how to facilitate their students to become successful in English language learning.

Regarding the methodological constraints, this research does not investigate other potentially important variables of learners' differences. Perhaps, language aptitude, and having diminished extensively, would be worth considering for further research in learning English as a foreign language as it is a form of developing proficiencies rather than specific competencies (Skehan, 2002). Therefore, foreign language aptitude needs to be completely constructed and investigated. Importantly, how foreign language aptitude may have implications for learning achievement at different levels and in different contexts would be a great contribution to the field.

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My Child's Language Development Inspires My Foreign Language Teaching

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Abstract

In the available literature on human language development child language developmental studies have been undertaken in a monolingualistic or bilingualistic context. The current study was aimed at observing the language acquisition development of an under-one-year-old child named Willy Arafi who was raised within a multilingual family (Javaneses – local dialect, High Javanese, Low Javanese, Indonesian, and English). The research method was longitudinal observational. The data, speech sounds and/or speech products, along with the baby's behavior, were collected through observation and informal interviews with the mother and baby's caretaker. The data were analyzed by examining the products development and, then, comparing the result with the existing theories of human language. The main findings among others were: (1) domination of certain languages used by people close to the baby gave great influence to his language acquisition; and (2) the baby's first languages were oriented simultaneously to two, Javanese and Indonesian, with "nenen", belonging to neither Javanese nor Indonesian, as the first meaningful word uttered. This word was spoken by the mother when asking if the baby was in need of a suck. Implications in relation with the teaching of foreign and second languages can be put forward based on the current research study findings.

Key words: acquisition, multilingual family, speech sounds/products

Human language development has long been a phenomenon worthy of investigation, and, though a great number of studies on it have been conducted, much about it still remains a mystery. Some big questions, among others, are: Is it true a newly-born baby is equipped with a special device for language acquisition? Is it true language acquisition takes place systematically, rather than randomly, even though the language input is far from adequate? (Kusmanto & Pulungan, 2003). For some reason people near to babies do not pay attention to natural processes happening in them,

For some reason people near to bables do not pay attention to natural processes happening in them, such as what word is first uttered by the baby, whether the first utterance is produced intentionally or randomly, and how clear its utterance is. So far, researches on language acquisition and language development have been done within monolingualistic and bilingualistic contexts. In multilingualism, people never ask which language most influences the baby's first produced utterances. Some theories have been proposed by experts and researchers to explain the human language development (http://www.ling.udel.edu):

1. Theory of Imitation

A child imitates what he has heard. But, in this example the child does not imitate his parent			
Child	: My teacher holded the baby rabbit and we patted them.		
Parent	: Did you say that your teacher held the baby rabbit?		
Child	: Yes.		
Parent	: What did you say she did?		
Child	: She holded the baby rabbit and we patted them.		
Parent	: Did you say she held them tightly?		
Child	: No, she holded them loosely.		

2. Theory of Reinforcement

A child learns a language through reinforcement from the environment. But in this example, reinforcement fails

Child : *Nobody don't like me*.

Mother: No, say "Nobody likes me."

Child : *Nobody don't like me*.

(Dialogue was repeated up to eight times) Mother: *Now, listen carefully, say "Nobody likes me"* Child : *Oh, nobody don't like me.*

3. Innate Hypothesis

A newborn human baby is ready for language acquisition. The language acquisition period is very short, starting with his first word around the age of one until most grammatical items are mastered at around year three.

4. Critical Period Hypothesis

Lennerberg (1967) argued that the human's language acquisition occur within a certain period of life, i.e. since birth till puberty (-/+ 12 years). After this period language syntactical and inflectional morphology systems do not take place any longer.

5. Theory of Analogy

Part of the human's language system is learned from what has been heard and this is made as a model in making other sentences.

Beside those five theories above, Nativist Theory, which was first proposed by Noam Chomsky, stating that a newborn human baby was equipped with Language Acquisition Device (LAD) and Universal Grammar, arguing that a baby, with its biological equipment was ready to internalize any language grammars used in its environment –h ence, there being no "by birth" language, has been accepted for a long time.

Stages of Language Acquisition

Language skills include listening, speaking, reading and writing. Listening and reading belong to receptive/perceptive skills, while speaking and writing are of productive skills. Listening skill develops before the others (http://www.ling.udel.edu). Only after approximately the seventh month of life are babies able to produce speech (e.g. ma...ma, da...da).

Some experts believe that human undergoes language acquisition from birth. Some others, however, claim that language acquisition takes place even before birth (http://home.cogeco.ca/~monicafitz). Based on an experimental study using Fetal Heart Rate Test, it was known that during pregnancy a baby is able to respond to sound patterns outside. Another experiment using Infant Sucking Test has confirmed this finding. The experimenter claimed that a two-day-old baby has been able to recognize its mother's voice.

Speech production itself takes place immediately after birth. However, the speech uttered, which is more like noise, is beyond consciousness. It includes cries, coughs, and babbles, each in accordance with the baby's physical conditions. At ages two and six months babies have started to respond to smiles and are able to distinguish tone of anger from that of kidding (http://www.revision-notes.co.uk). At this stage babies also coo. During the second half of the first year of life, they start to control their own voice by babbling. This is how they try and train their own speech sounds,

intonations, and rhythms of language. They repeat utterances heard and move tongue and lips in such a way that the produced sounds become different. They control their speech that sounds like shouts or whispers. Then, they babble towards stimuli, and finally make use of babbles for communicating needs. At this stage babies also start to recognize calls addressed to immediate people such as "Mom" or "Dad".

Some babies have been able to produce utterances before their first birthday, more specifically within the last quarter (Foss & Hakes, 1978: 234). When they are at age one, they produce one-word utterances (http://www.revision-notes.co.uk), that are easier to understand than babbles. Moreover, at this stage of life babies often accompany their utterances with point-outs, gazes, or movements to the direction of referents. The same words are used for multi-purposes – naming, requests, questions, emotional intentions, etc. For example, "Dada" (this might be used to say *Here comes Daddy*!; *This is for Daddy*; *That is where Daddy sits*; *This shoe is Daddy*'s.). Due to babies' speech organs development and mental condition, the so-called "holograph" is at times imperfectly produced. For instance, "boo" is intended for "book" or "wee" for "wheel". Interestingly, sometimes a certain utterance is produced to address a seemingly irrelevant referent. For example, "dee" is intended for "car". Therefore, people that are close to babies, in particular the mother, give most influence to the development of baby's language. In relation with this, a researcher of child language acquisition, Du Susan Plessis (http: //www.Audiblox2000.com), suggests parents, especially the mother, talk a great deal to their babies:

"The mother, who does not talk continually while feeding, bathing and dressing her baby, is laying the foundation for a late talker. The baby learns language in one way only, and that is by hearing language as the parents talk and talk to it. The more a parent can talk to a child, often repeating the same words, the same phrases, the same structures over and over, the sooner the child will learn language."

Between ages 1.5 and two, babies start to acquire two-word utterances. At this stage the utterances produced are still limited to content words, rather than functional ones, e.g. "allgone milk", "more wet", "byebye boat", "baby sleep", "Mommy sock". At about age two, utterances produced by a child becomes more complicated. From two-word utterances now a child's language comes into the so-called Telegraphic Stage. Example,

"What that?" "Cathy build house" "No sit there" "Daddy like book" It is possible at this stage words are reversed. For example, "chicken eat" -- "eat chicken".

Between ages three and four the babies' language production increases very rapidly, even though some of the acquired items disappear either permanently or temporally. Asking and answering dominate child's language activities with his environment at this period of life (Palupi, 2006).

The focus of the current research is on language production rather than language perception. The babies' language perception has been examined generally through experimental methods, which are reliable to control variables. Language production within the first year of life is seemingly more interesting to public. In addition, it becomes the foundation for later language development.

Based on the aforementioned theories, the current study has been aimed at answering the following questions: (1) how is the language production of an under-one-year old baby born and raised in a multilingual family? and (2) among the languages used by the baby's family members, which one contributes most influence to its language production?

Methodology

This study is longitudinal observational in nature, observing the development of a child's language production from birth to a certain age (Gleason & Ratner, 1998: 353-354). The baby under investigation was a male named Willy Arafi, born physically normal on 17 October 2006. In this study, the immediate environment (family) where the baby being observed was born and raised used three languages for communication. The languages were used at different intensity. The table below describes the use of the three languages.

Tabla	1
Table	T

Language	Speaker	Frequency
Indonesian	mother, father, brother	occasionally
	& sister,	
	1 st and 3 rd caretakers	most of the time
High Javanese	mother & father	occasionally
Low Javanese	brother & sister,	occasionally
	2 nd caretaker	almost all the time
English	Father	rarely, especially with
		children

The family had three children. Willy Arafi was the third. The father, who was also the observer, exclusively spoke English to the baby. To his wife, or the baby's mother, he spoke Indonesian and only a little Low Javanese. To the baby's elder brother and sister, he spoke Indonesian. The father used Indonesian and High Javanese for communication with each of the caretakers.

The first caretaker of the baby had taken care of him for the first four months. In daily communication she spoke Indonesian to all members of the family. The second caretaker had taken the position over for only a month. Low Javanese was her language of choice. And the third had been taking care of the baby for three months when the observation was ended. This young woman spoke Indonesian almost all the time. Code switching and code mixing had at times taken place within every speech event among adults and children in the immediate environment.

Data on baby's language development were mostly collected through observation and mother's and caretaker's reports. Observation and note-taking had started since the baby was born up to age eight months. The data collected were speech production, utterances, as well as behaviors. Non-verbal behaviors were noted to help interpret the utterances produced by the baby. Note-taking was based on progress instead of frequency. Every single daily progress was reduced into monthly inventory.

Findings and Discussion

1. Months I – III

Within this period the baby produced cries and coughs, depending on its physical condition. Of the two, cries were more frequently produced, i.e. when being wet or urinating, needing a suck, or feeling sleepy. Hence, the information was still relatively the same as that of the existing theory. The baby was lain down on a bed most of the time. Once in a while, the mother or caretaker approached him for body wash, cloth change or a suck. The adults and siblings made no communication except for few facial expressions (such as smiles) and verbal ones (esp. words of praise). The baby did not seem to show responses.

2. Months IV–V

Up to this far, the baby had started to coo, i.e. produced whisper-like noise. It was obvious that the noise was produced beyond the mental control of the baby. This could be seen from his blank stare when producing the noise.

3. Months VI –VII

It was about this period that language development was quite dramatic. The utterances produced belonged to babble. Babble, which contained mostly lengthened vowels (such as "aaaa", "eeee" pronounced ϵ /as found in the Indonesian word "*nenek*" or English word "pet") or diphthongs that fluctuated in intensity, indicating that the production was under the baby's control. The presence of control was also confirmed by the fact that babbling paused when there was noise or movement nearby. However, up to this period coos were still frequently heard.

4. Month VIII

Several consonant sounds had been clearly heard at this period, such as /d/, /b/, /w/, /h/, /k/, /n/. A few of them, even, had been produced with variety of distribution. The majority of utterances constitute combination of vowel and consonant sounds, monosyllables such as "*heh*" /hɛh/, two syllables such as "*hauh*", "*dada*", "*maem*" /maəm/, and three syllables such as "*ibuwe*", some of which were uttered clearly enough, some were with babbling style, and still some others were with cooing style. Some were uttered smoothly, while others were not fluently uttered. Utterances of combination are, for example, "a...da...da" and longer "yaya... yayai... iya...iya".

Even though they seemed random, as can be seen from manner of uttering (cooing and/or babbling), articulation, intensity, and non-verbal behaviors in times of production, either the smooth utterances or influent ones described above constituted foundation for later meaningful utterances. A good example for the case is as follows. On 1 June 2007, when Willy was just 7.5 months, he uttered "adek" [pause] and, then, "nenen" /nɛnɛn/ clearly enough. At that moment the baby was crying, being fed, and in the baby-walker. Based on the note, previously, on the same day, the baby uttered "nenen" (while crying over and stopped as soon as breast-fed) and, later, "ade...ade". So, the utterance "adek...nenen" at that moment might have meant "Mom, I (adek) am thirsty (nenen)" or the like. On the following days, in addition to new and the same old utterances, the baby still uttered "nenen" and its variation. At first, the utterance "nenen" was uttered while crawling towards the mother. Later, "nenen...nen" was produced while crying over. Since then, in spite of irregularity, the frequency of its use tended to rise.

Though at later moments the baby had been introduced to baby food, he apparently uttered for the same purpose – when feeling like thirsty. This was supported by the fact that he stopped crying over (even looked cheerful?) when seeing the milk bottle being handed to him or the mother preparing the breast for a suck. However, once, the utterance was produced not in exactly the same situation. The baby seemed to need someone to be near.

The utterance "*nenen*" itself does not belong to vocabulary of any languages used in the family. The "word" had been used by the mother when trying to ask the baby whether he needed to suck. Can the "words" uttered by the baby be categorized into his speech vocabulary? If the answer is yes, which language did the vocabulary belong to?

Though the utterances produced such as "*ibuwe*", "*ada*", "*dada*", "*emoh*" /əmoh/, "*buwah*", "*titah*", "*wawah*", "*mamah*", "*papah*" and "*ayah*" were all part of the languages used in the multilingual setting where the baby lived, it was hard to say that up to this point they had become the baby's vocabulary, as it was quite possible that they had been uttered randomly or just in response to his environment without understanding the meaning. For example, the utterance "*dedek*" once was spoken and continued by repeating after the mother. Those early utterances were partly Javanese words and partly Indonesian ones. This fact is easy to explain, i.e. dominant use of the two languages over English in the baby's life setting.

Conclusion

Some conclusions can be drawn from the current research data. The conclusions that are directly related to the research questions were as follows:

In general, results of the observation have still been consistent with what exists in the literature on child's language acquisition. Just as any other babies, Willy at first produced cries, coos, and coughs, depending upon his physical condition. Later, babble was also produced. Babble started with monosyllabic utterances constructed with vowel sounds, diphthongs or glides, and then a combination of consonant-vowel sounds. By the end of the observational period, the baby under investigation had produced word-level utterances. The first word to be used for communicating intension was /nɛnɛn/. In its context, this word referred to time for a suck of breast-feeding, or need for closer attention or care. Under one year, though the baby had produced word-level utterances, the dominant use of Javanese and Indonesian by people present in the baby's life showed its significant effect on his language acquisition.

Other important conclusions:

In language acquisition, it is quite possible that two or more first languages are simultaneously acquired. The following has not been confirmed in any other preceding researches. Human child's language development is a continuum instead of discrete. So far, this information has been vague. People may perceive that language acquisition advances discretely by age. In the literature on child's language acquisition, it is said that cooing occurs when a baby is at the age of x, babbling at the age of y, and the first word at the age of z. With this information it seems as if the progress took place fully one after another. In this current research it was found that when Willy was 7.5 months, when the first meaningful word was uttered, coos remained present (though in reduced frequency).

Suggestions

Based on the current research findings, the following can be put forward:

In language teaching, especially of foreign/second language, at early levels the learners with their weaknesses badly need guidance and help. Also, errors in language learning should be seen as something natural. This research has shown that domination of certain languages used by people close to the baby gave great influence to his language acquisition. It implies that in second/foreign language learning, use of the target language should be given emphasis. In Indonesia, most teachers of EFL use the source language in the classrooms. The writer, however, is not in favor of this common stand.

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The 'Hot' and 'Cool' Medium of English and its Message in a Thai EFL Context

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Abstract

In an Australian context, English is 'a cool medium' of communication and 'a cool message' because it has psychological and physical effects on users from non-native English speaking backgrounds. In this paper, the author applies Marshall McLuhan's 'the medium is the message' to primarily investigate the effect of use of English on Thai undergraduate students' security and dignity. Through interviews with 38 Thai undergraduate students whose major is in Business English, it is found that English is 'a cool medium' and 'a cool message' when interacting with foreigners. The reason was that these students tended to perceive their English ability to be poor and felt psychologically vulnerable in a manner that made them insecure and diminished their dignity. Once they perceived their interlocutors to be friendly and accommodating in the interactions, English turned into 'a hot medium' and 'a hot message' of communication because English under this circumstance had positive effects on their psychological being in that they became secure and dignified.

Keywords: 'the medium is the message', 'hot' media, 'cool' media, Thai EFL context

1. Introduction

In an EFL context, there is a consensus that acquiring English is not simple and usually is the result of a long process. The is due to learners not needing to communicate in English as part of their daily life. Thailand is one of the countries where English in general is only utilized for specific purposes, such as tourism, academia and business. Although English is a compulsory subject for all Thais to study from the primary to tertiary level and is a vehicle for professional and academic achievement, in many cases, Thais are not able to interact with foreigners meaningfully or effectively through the medium of English. The social context itself causes them to not only lack practice in the real world but also to be inadequately competent in English. English incompetence in turn can affect Thai learners of EFL psychologically due to the interconnection between cognition and affection (Andres, 2002-2003). In this paper, the author will explore these two aspects in a Thai EFL context.

Past studies show that in a Thai EFL context, self-confidence, anxiety, motivation and attitude are key affective variables investigated in the areas of language learning and teaching. For example, Chutima (2008) examined undergraduate students' self-confidence after the implementation of competency-based language teaching (CBLT) techniques. Manopa (2009) compared junior high

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school students' anxiety before and after learning through reciprocal teaching. Tejata (2009) compared tenth graders' motivation in learning and speaking English before and after learning through task-based learning activities in tourism. Wongfai (2010) investigated eleventh graders' attitudes towards English. None, however, is about feelings of security and dignity in use of English with foreigners in a Thai EFL context although they are important issues that need to be addressed in the current era of globalization.

The primary purpose of this study is therefore to discover how Thai learners' use of English for an academic purpose affects their feelings of security and dignity. The definitions of these two key words are taken from Tananuraksakul and Hall's (2011: 189) study into non-native English students' psychological wellbeing in Australian social and academic contexts. Security refers to self-confidence while dignity regards self-worth. Self-confidence is a source of security, which bolsters dignity. Both security and dignity have a synergistic relationship, in that lack of selfconfidence psychologically threatens learners' face, identity and dignity. To shed light on the investigation, the author applies one theory of communication, 'the medium is the message' (McLuhan, 1964, 1994) and uses it as a theoretical lens.

2. Theoretical Lens

More than 40 years ago, McLuhan (1964) coined the aphorism 'the medium is the message'. Tananuraksakul (2009a, 2010) argued that although past studies applied McLuhan's aphorism to different perspectives, none was applied regarding use of English by non-native English speakers in a context of international communication, intercultural communication or applied linguistics. As a professor of English literature, philosopher and communication theorist, McLuhan (1964) interpreted media as mediated forms, such as money, clothing, number, games and cars. These mediated forms not only influenced how people saw the world and transformed society but also relied upon society. With this view, he did not literally interpret the message as the content of the medium. Instead, he looked beyond it and the medium itself was indeed the message, consisting of the changes or the effects on humans and their relations with others in a community. Take letter or post an example. It is viewed as a means of communication, and its message may be something to look forward to receiving, where content is of little importance.

McLuhan (1964, 1994) also categorized media into hot and cool, which described the demanding levels of one's participation or involvement. On the one hand, hot media such as radio and film make few active demands on listeners and viewers, with little need to participate or become involved in filling in any missing information. Radio and film are seen to be low in involvement because they mediate in high definition, which provides essential meaning and is easy to understand. West and Turner (2004) consider hot media as entertainment or something the audience is looking for. On the other hand, cool media requires a high degree of involvement and has low definition. Telephone is viewed to be cool because it needs high sensory participation of viewers to actively interpret what is going on. Cartoon is also a cool medium, as it highly requires readers to interpret the meaning of the information. For example, on the phone, a listener needs good ability to hear and grasp the information and fill in to complete sensory data. Cartoons usually provide few words and illustrations that require the readers to think or complete missing data. These categories of media more clearly show how they underpin society, which is considered cool to McLuhan (1964).

In Tananuraksakul's (2009a: 8) study into the effects of use of English on non-native English students' emotional security inside and outside the classroom in Australia, she argued that the act of using English as the medium takes on more significance in the lives of international students than what is said as the message. English is highlighted to be a cool medium of communication and instruction because, according to McLuhan's definitions, it contains low definition and requires non-native English students to participate actively inside and outside the classroom. Although they pass the minimum requirement of an English proficiency test, they may not be able to comprehend what is going on around them, especially in a spoken environment if their pragmatic English ability is not yet developed to an adequately competent level. Taking part in class discussions and daily conversations with others from different backgrounds then become barriers. An experience of such barriers is the cool message itself because it affects their security. This lack of confidence and security may further affect their academic and social life with other international students from culturally diverse backgrounds. If they are able to develop their pragmatic English ability to a level where they can participate effectively in their academic and social lives, they are likely to gain security.

In the present context, which is similar to the study in Australia mentioned above, the medium of English is considered cool, containing low definition because it is not widely used in everyday life, and is only used for specific purposes. When learners need to communicate in English with foreigners from different backgrounds, they will need active involvement and interpretation. Without activeness, miscommunication or misinterpretation will take place and concurrently create language barriers. The message is the barrier, which has impacts on learners' security and dignity. If they perceive they cannot communicate in English with foreigners, they may feel a lack of security and/or dignity. But if they perceive they can speak the language well, the level of their security and dignity may increase.

3. Methods

Since the study involves EFL learners' experiences in communication with foreigners from culturally diverse backgrounds in the real world, a qualitative research approach by means of indepth interviews is appropriate to seek responses.

3.1 Participations

Thirty-eight participants are undergraduate students voluntarily recruited from my class entitled Cultures of the English-Speaking People. The researcher chose to recruit this particular group of students because they would be able to share their experiences in intercultural communication. As part of lesson plans, they were required to interview at least five foreigners from non-native and native English backgrounds and reported to the class. The total mark of this interview assignment is 20 per cent with these three marking criteria, theoretical application, creativity and contribution.

3.2 Interview Procedures

Before the interviews, the students were informed of the research project and main interest in how they felt during the interactions. They were also asked to participate voluntarily as they would not earn extra marks, only assist in the research. During the interviews, it was ensured that they understood the definitions of the two key words, security and dignity. Then they were asked questions regarding their experiences and feelings in Thai. After the interviews, the data was transcribed and students categorized into groups.

3.3 Interview Questions

Here are examples of interview questions: 1) could you share your experiences in interviewing with foreigners? 2) Whom did you interview? 3) Did you have any barriers when communicating with foreigners? 4) What were they? 5) How did you feel when facing such barriers? 6) Why did you feel that way?

4. Findings and Discussion

The research findings indicate that English is the 'cool' medium of communication in the present context because all 38 students experienced difficulty in interacting with foreigners from both native and non-native English backgrounds (America, Argentina, Australia, Belgium, Britain, China, Germany, Italy, Japan, Malaysia, Poland, Russia, Sweden, the Netherlands, the Philippines and Venezuela). The medium of English itself is the cool message of communication because 31 students were psychologically affected by encounters of language barriers in a manner that lowered their security and dignity. The other seven students' security and dignity remained the same although they experienced language barriers. They thought they were not affected because they had experiences with intercultural contacts for an academic purpose many times, which neutralized the levels of their security and dignity. The 31 students narrated their encounters of the cool medium of English and its cool message in the same directions: before interview (stage 1) and during interview (stage 2).

4.1 Stage 1: Before Interview

The medium of English and its message in the present context is confirmed to be cool because 31 students faced difficulty in initiating intercultural interactions. Although they have learned the language for over 10 years, this means they are yet unable to develop their communicative skills into an adequately competent level to make intercultural communication meaningful. Therefore, there is a need to develop their pragmatic English skills in this context (Kasper & Rose, 2002) and positive attitudes towards their low level of English (Tananuraksakul, 2009b). The obstacle in turn rendered 17 students insecure discussed in Group 1 (The cool medium of English and its cool message of insecurity). Fourteen lacked both security and dignity discussed in Group 2 (The cool medium of English and its cool message of diminished security and dignity).

Group 1: The 'cool' medium of English and its 'cool' message of insecurity

The cool medium of English lowered the level of 17 students' security due to their self-assessed perceptions of inadequate English ability, which in turn impinged on their security. Their dignity was not affected because they said they did not experience rejection when approaching foreigners. This aspect reflects fear of face loss, tied to their emotions of social self-worth (Ting-Toomey, 2005). Quotes from the students as to why they only felt insecure are:

"I was afraid I could not understand foreigners" (Students 8 and 9).

"I was afraid I could not make myself understood" (Students 10, 22 and 23).

"I was unsure about what to say and how to approach them without making a mistake" (Students 11 and 36).

"Foreigners might not accommodate me with interviews" (Student 32).

"I wondered if my inadequate language skills would frighten foreigners" (Student 38).

"I felt excited although I had a few intercultural experiences" (Student 30).

"I felt excited and did not have the courage to approach *farangs* (Caucasians)" (Students 28, 33 and 34).

"I felt excited and in fear of being insulted" (Student 15).

"I was not sure about how foreigners would perceive me" (Student 24).

"It was my first time interacting with foreigners in English" (Students 29 and 35).

Group 2: The 'cool' medium of English and its 'cool' message of diminished security and dignity

The cool medium of English simultaneously decreased the levels of 14 students' security and dignity for being rejected. For example, Students 15, 16, 25, 27 and 31 were rejected when approaching foreigners for interviews, and the experience of rejection affected their security and dignity. Their similar experiences caused them to lose face and they emphasized that they did not want to lose it again. This aspect is consistent with Tananuraksakul and Hall's (2011) findings that security and dignity have a synergetic relationship in that insecurity would threaten non-native speakers' face. Other student quotes, which reflect their negative perceptions of intercultural communication and impinged on their security and dignity, are as follows:

"Foreigners might refuse me" (Students 2 and 17).

"I had to deal with foreigners for interviews [in the real world]" (Students 3 and 31).

"I was worried if foreigners would collaborate...smiley like Thais" (Student 5).

"I had to approach foreigners and introduce myself to them for interviews" (Student 19).

"I did not think I would understand foreigners' English and assist me with interviews" (Student 20).

"I felt worried about two-way interactions with foreigners" (Student 26).

"foreigners might not understand my accent" (Student 36).

The analysis suggests that during stage one the students commonly experienced what Gardner and McIntyre (1993) considered as language anxiety. Although they appeared to be motivated instrumentally (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) due to the desire to earn 20 per cent of the academic marks, they had fear of performing in English for an academic purpose in the real world, where they must interact actively and courageously. The primary factor that caused them to feel anxious was the self-assessed perception of their English ability. The anxiety they constructed in mind before the interviews debilitated their performance indirectly, which manifested in their negative emotions (Oxford, 1999), such as worry, fear, uncertainty and discouragement.

Stage 2: During Interview

The language anxiety they encountered in the previous stage did not appear to lower their instrumental motivation since they successfully initiated intercultural interactions. However, the medium of English and its message remained cool because many still lacked security and dignity for similar reasons as discussed in Groups One and Two below.

Group 1: The 'cool' medium of English and its 'cool' message of insecurity

The cool medium of English diminished 11 students' security during intercultural contacts. They only felt insecure mainly because they appeared to possess positive attitudes towards their low level of English and did not experience face loss. The findings are consistent with non-native English students in Australia where they must have positive attitudes towards developing their English performance and interacting with people from different backgrounds (Tananuraksakul & Hall, 2011). Otherwise, they can feel psychologically vulnerable. Quotes are:

"My foreign interlocutors could not understand my accents" (Students 6 and 8). They remained dignified because "the foreigners could understand my English when I repeated the second time" (Student 6), while "I admitted my inadequate English ability" (Student 8)

"My interviews with foreigners were ineffective" (Students 18 and 16). They only felt insecure because they thought it was something normal and they admitted that their accents were poor, producing unintelligibility.

"I was unable to construct English words and afraid that this would irritate foreigners" (Students 7, 10, 19). She did not lack dignity because English was not her mother tongue, so she did not need to speak like a native English speaker.

"I was more accustomed to British accents...so it was OK...I understood the Brits, not Americans" (Student 28).

"I could not understand everything my interviewees said" (Student 29).

"I did not have enough communicative skills and foreigners did not assist me with the interviews" (Student 21). The language barriers of Students 29 and 21 did not affect their dignity, but it positively reinforced her attitude towards language development instead.

"My listening comprehension and speaking skills were not good" (Student 13). Her dignity was not impinged because she saw that "language was about skills and it took time to be skillful".

Group 2: The 'cool' medium of English and its 'cool' message of diminished security and dignity

The cool medium of English lowered 20 students' both security and dignity because they encountered unintelligibility (Smith & Nelson, 2006). Problems with listening and speaking skills especially when their interlocutors did not adjust their speech (Giles & Coupland, 1991; Jenkins, 2003) were the main causes. It appeared that many students lacked dignity because they were afraid to lose face when being asked to repeat and asking for repetition. For example, Student 2, 20 and 21 said they felt embarrassed when being asked to repeat what they said. Student 17, 26, 12, 25 and 36 did not have courage to ask their interlocutors to repeat what they said. Quotes reflecting loss of face tied to their emotions of social self-worth and the social self-worth of others (Ting-Toomey, 2005) are as follows:

"I was afraid that foreigners might question in their mind whether I was really a student" (Student 15). "I was worried about my pronunciation" (Student 9). "I did not know what to do next" (Student 15 and 18). "I failed to understand Australian and German interlocutors who spoke English with strange accents (Student 2, 3 and 27). Student 2 and 27 particularly said they lacked dignity because they majored in Business English.

"I could not speak English fluently and my foreign interlocutors spoke too fast to understand" (Student 5 and 26).

"I could only speak little English" (Student 25).

"I was unable to communicate with foreigners meaningfully" (Student 38).

"Some interviewees could not understand my questions" (Student 14).

Group 3: The 'hot' medium of English and its 'hot' message of increasing security and dignity

It appears that during this very stage the cool medium of English turned into 'hot'. The reason for this was that it specifically increased nine students' security after encountering foreign interlocutors who were friendly and tended to understand their nature of spoken English. It also appears that their language barriers did not impinge on their affect. In fact, they had good fun interacting with those friendly people, rendering them secure. This analysis suggests that English turned into 'a hot medium' and 'a hot message' of communication at this point. Quotes from these students are:

"Aussies and Germans were nice and friendly as they spared their time for interviews" (Student 1).

"I interviewed foreigners who were in a good mood and had good interpersonal skills" (Student 6).

"Foreigners used simple words, spoke clearly easy to understand and corrected my English" Student 9 and 28.

"My interlocutors tried to communicate with me" (Student 10).

"One of my interlocutors smiled a lot, laughed with fun and was willing to explain everything" (Student 10).

"I met an American who was nice, friendly and smiley" (Student 16).

"My foreign interlocutors were nice and friendly" (Student 38).

"My foreign interlocutors seemed to understand my nature of speaking English as they spoke it as clearly as they could and use simple words so that I could understand" (Student 12).

The hot medium of English also simultaneously increased 14 students' security and dignity due to positive encounters during their interactions with foreigners. It appears that they felt more secure and dignified because they perceived that the hot medium allowed them to make intercultural communication more meaningful (Ochs 1996 cited in Kramsch, 2002), making themselves proud of their English ability, regardless of their actual language performance. Quotes from these students are:

"I felt impressed with Aussie and German interlocutors because they spoke slowly as I requested them and they were really nice" (Student 2).

"My tense and excitement disappeared because I came across with interlocutors who spoke with clear accent and easy to understand...I also felt proud as I could actually communicate in English [although it was not fluent]" (Student 3 and 37).

"I experienced positive interactions with Chinese, German, Malaysian, American, and British who were friendly, articulate and helpful...I had so much fun although I did not think I spoke English correctly" (Student 18).

"I started to feel cheerful when interviewing some interlocutors who were friendly and smiley...they were willing to communicate with me...and I could speak English more smoothly" (Student 25, 27, 29 and 30).

"All of my interviewees were lovely and friendly creating good fun atmosphere" (Student 32).

"I had fun when interviewing foreigners who were friendly and attended to my questions with big smiles" (Student 5, 17, 26, 31 and 36).

"I particularly felt impressed with German and American interviewees" (Student 17).

"I was particular impressed with German teenagers" (Student 31). Both Student 17 and 31 felt more dignified because they did not feel inferior to their foreign interlocutors' English performance.

5. Conclusion

The cool medium of English and its cool message in the present context (where English is used and learned as an EFL, is similar to the context of use of English as an international language (EIL) in Australia (Tananuraksakul, 2009a). The cool medium of English required learners of EFL to be involved in intercultural contact courageously, or they might not be able to initiate a conversation for an academic purpose because of the emergence of language anxiety. It also required them to be involved in intercultural contact actively, or they might not be able to negotiate conversations meaningfully during interviews. When learners of EFL could not courageously and/or actively be involved in the intercultural communication, the cool message or language barriers would take place, which further affected their security and/or dignity. Inadequate English ability and language non-accommodation (McCann et al, 2003) were the barriers leading to unintelligibility.

However, this study suggested that more experiences in intercultural contact and positive attitudes towards one's own low level of English could positively balance the impact of the cool medium of English on its cool message of communication similarly to the seven students. Other relevant positive impacts could emerge as well if learners of EFL perceived their foreign interlocutors to be friendly through smiles and laughs and they were willing to interact. These positive characteristics appeared to turn English into a hot medium of communication, for they were seen to be entertaining tools or had competence in intercultural communication.

6. Implications

The study can imply that in the EFL context learners need to engage in intercultural communication as much as possible to become more familiar with it. They also need to develop positive attitudes towards their own English competence regardless of how good their actual English is. Teachers can play a vital role in promoting intercultural communication for an academic purpose so as to drive their instrumental motivation to go through the process of cognitive and affective negotiation. In addition, friendliness and willingness to interact are characteristics that promote more meaningful intercultural communication in the present context.

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Analysis of Classroom Discourse in a Tenth Grade Science Class: A Case Study of English Program Curriculum at Matthayom Watnairong School

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Abstract

This research investigates the nature of classroom discourse in a science classroom at Matthayom Watnairong, a school which provides an English Program (EP) Curriculum and has won several awards from the Ministry of Education of Thailand, under the framework of the Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) pattern (Mehan, 1978: 32-64) and the structure of classroom lesson (Mehan, 1979: 73-74). Moreover, the research aims to illustrate the teacher's strategies in classroom discourse as well as the students' attitudes towards the strategies employed.

This research entails two main mechanisms, observation and research instruments, to achieve the objectives. Sixty tenth grade students in a science curriculum were observed and interviewed through the perspectives of the framework. The research instruments include a questionnaire, a classroom observation check-sheet, video camera recordings and a semi-structured interview. Each instrument was used to collect students' attitudes, verbal and non-verbal reactions of the interlocutors, transcripts, and the teacher's strategies, respectively.

The findings suggest that the nature of classroom discourse explored in the Biology class was constructed through the pattern of Initiation-Response-Evaluation and the structure of classroom discourse. The IRE model derived from the class was in accordance with that of Mehan (1978) and Mehan (1979). However, there were some exchanges which were considered not to be a full cycle of the IRE pattern due to some cultural factors which can be reflected by the students' answers in the questionnaire. The strategy, which is compatible with the pre-formulating method of Cazden (1988), was employed when the teacher encountered difficulty in explaining by formulating questions to convey the insight of the lesson to students.

Key Words: Science classroom discourse

Introduction

Matthayom Watnairong School, a Secondary School, is one of the best-known English Program (EP) schools, which began providing EP courses after Yothinburana School, the first EP school of the country, and has succeeded in its aims of educational operations. Matthayom Watnairong School is well known as a progressive organization and has received several awards from the Ministry of Education (Thailand). To date, the school has been visited by many educational organizations including upcountry schools where the purpose of visiting was to observe the general operation of the school. This research is conducted to explore the nature of classroom discourse in EP science classes through a Discourse Analysis (DA) framework. The main curriculum of the EP provides science lessons by employing English (L2) and the means of communication in classrooms. This could cause communication difficulties for teachers and learners as a result of dialogic exchanges when learning science with English as the main medium. In addition, little research has focused on this topic, especially with EP students in Thailand. This study therefore aims to explore the nature of discourse in science classrooms at this school.

From empirical observation through the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) perspective of the researcher, this research aims to investigate the specific strategies, Initiation-Response-Evaluation patterns (IRE) and Scaffolding, employed by science teachers to communicate with learners in science classes. The two discourse patterns are related and are congruous to apply in this study. Classroom discourse involves inter-individual communication while the goal of education is intra-individual change and student learning (Cazden, 1988). Normally, when focusing on the classroom discourse, inter-individual communication is commonly known as a three-part sequence comprising teacher initiation, student responses, and teachers' evaluations (IRE). Such a discourse pattern is the most common aspect of classroom discourse at all grade levels (Cazden, 1988).

Objectives of the Research

This study aims to investigate the nature of classroom discourse in science classrooms at Matthayom Watnairong School under the framework of the Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) pattern (Mehan, 1978), the structure of classroom lessons (Mehan, 1979) in conjunction with Scaffolding introduced by J. Campione, in Pearson and Gallagher (1983) and to explore teacher's and students' attitudes towards strategies employed by the teacher.

Significance of the Study

The researcher anticipates that this study will benefit those who study the nature of classroom discourse in science classes, and the findings are expected to improve the understanding of science classroom discourse in other EP schools in Thailand. It exhibits how the teachers and students interact in the form of dialogic patterns with English as the primary medium by means of verbal utterances. The results may be useful to those who teach or study about classroom discourse in science classes in an EP curriculum. It may shed some light on the strategies employed to solve problems when science teachers in EP encounter failure situations in conducting instructional conversations.

Literature Review

There are six main parts which link this thesis to the previous studies and theories: 1. discourse analysis (Brown and Yule, 1983); 2. Classroom discourse (Cazden, 1988), 3. the IRE pattern in classroom discourse (Mehan, 1978); 4. the structure of classroom lessons (Mehan, 1979); 5. classroom discourse as scaffolding (Pearson and Gallagher, 1983); and 6. literature related to previous research.

One of the principal theories that plays an important role in this study is discourse analysis. According to Brown and Yule (1983), the analysis of discourse is the analysis of language use which is not restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which those forms are designed to serve. The nature of discourse analysis is to investigate the use of language. Scollon and Scollon (1995) identified the purpose of discourse study as a way to understand how the language we use is based on the social environments in which we use that language. In addition, the study of Brown and Yule (1983) claimed that a natural language utterance is likely to fulfill one main function at a time. That is to say, it deals with the expression of either *transactional* content or the expression of social relations and personal attitudes, called interactional content.

Classroom discourse is the oral interaction occurring between teachers and students and among students in classrooms (Edwards and Westgate, 1994). The conversation between the interlocutors is made to construct a common body of knowledge, an understanding of roles and relationships, and

the norms and expectations for involvement in classrooms. Cazden (1988) focuses on how the words spoken in classrooms affect the outcomes of education. The author claimed that the most common method used in the past to analyze classroom discourse, mostly teacher-led speech events, was in cognitive terms which categorize teacher questions on a cognitive scale. The conclusion of Cazden's research stated that the studies of classroom discourse by means of application effort on cognitive difficulty to individual questions may be useful for teachers, but it is imprecise for research. However, the author suggested considering discourse in longer sequences in which the sequences may enhance the potential cognitive value of classroom discourse as scaffolding and as re-conceptualization.

The IRE sequence is commonly employed in classroom discourse as a teacher-led lesson or recitation. This means the teacher is the person who controls the development of a topic, assesses the relevance of utterances, and manages turn-taking in class. Most analyses of classroom discourse are analyses of this speech event (Cazden, 1988). Moreover, the sequence typifies the discourse of Western schooling from the kindergarten to the university (Barnes, 1992; Cazden, 1988; Mehan, 1979; Nystrand, 1997). Cazden (1988: 29) stated that the three-part sequence of teacher initiation, student response, teacher evaluation (IRE) is the most common pattern of classroom discourse at all grade levels. With respect to Cazden (1988), the individual components of discourse in turn-taking in a dialogic pattern, known as the IRE sequence, have been defined: Initiation (I) is the question form employed to begin the investigating process which may determine whether or not the students can show their cognition through answers. Response (R) is the answer form to express corresponding verbal utterances which are related to the question of initiation. Evaluation (E) is the feedback form given by the teacher to show the interlocutor (the student) that his or her response is correct or not.

Cazden (1983) defined scaffolding as "a temporary framework for construction in progress". The concept was based on the works of cognitive psychologists Jerome Bruner and Vygotsky who regarded scaffolding as the helpful interactions between a teacher and a learner that enable the learner to do something beyond his or her independent efforts. Within the classroom, the teacher provides new information as a modeler of correct performance and as a selective reinforce of learners' endeavor (Resnick, 1985). Pearson and Gallagher (1983) suggest that scaffolding can be applied generally to education, and there seems no reason why teaching skills in other areas couldn't be considered in the same terms.

The term scaffolding emphasizes the proportion of responsibility for task completion where its components resemble the types of conversational sequence of Mehan (1979). However, the components' names are categorized differently depending upon the nature of social interaction: teacher only, teacher and student, and student only. This means if the conversation depends predominantly on the teacher as the teacher initiates a lesson with no question for students to respond (i.e. an opening phase only), the component is termed instruction modeling or demonstration. Where there is a part that requires conversational exchange with a full cycle of IRE, which is important to reinforce students' cognition, this process is called the gradual release of responsibility (joint responsibility). However, this systematic process of discourse as scaffolding will not be employed as a whole model to explore the understanding of the student, but some strategies, considered as an internal component in the part of Joint Responsibility, are chosen to achieve the second research objective.

Cazden (1988) suggested that the model of discourse as scaffolding requires the consideration of three main issues: the process of internalization, getting the answer versus getting the understanding, and the nature of knowledge being acquired. Nevertheless, while the three issues

will not be addressed to approach the research objective, the second issue, getting the answer versus getting the understanding, is commonly found from the in-class observations in EP science classes at Matthayom Watnairong School. With respect to French and MacLure (1980), the strategies are pedagogical routines which are the interactive mechanisms that allow teachers to control classroom interaction.

Chin (2006) analyzed how teachers use question in classroom discourse to scaffold student thinking to help students to construct scientific knowledge. In his research, he expressed that the IRE model was predominant in science classrooms. He concluded that questioning fosters productive student responses. Mortimer and Scott (2003)analyzed and expanded IRE or IRF (initiation/response/feedback) structure by identifying IRFRF which is a structure with elaborative feedback from the teacher that is followed by a response from a student. He concluded that this pattern is typical of discourse found to support a dialogic interaction. This pattern of discourse enables teachers to explore student ideas. Rowe (1986) analyzed the pattern of IRE in classroom discourse and the importance of wait time. The researcher found a positive trend of the way wait time was employed within a dialogue. This work concluded that the engagement of wait time in IRE enhances students' thoughtfulness. This was further supported by Tobin (1987) who concurred and added that wait time can increase the careful reasoned thinking of the students.

Hall and Walsh (2002) analyzed classroom discourse in terms of the patterns of interaction in L2 classrooms in which the authors emphasized one common pattern, IRE, stating that the IRE pattern typifies the discourse of western schooling, from kindergarten to university. However, the authors claimed that the IRE discourse pattern limits students' interaction and does not assist complex interactions and meaningful exchange. Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) also analyzed the nature of the IRE pattern of classroom discourse. After their observation and analysis, the authors expressed the view of the pattern that the teachers usually ask a question the students can answer and have the power to select and evaluate individual students.

P.R. Guruprasad (1988) concluded that the use of day-to-day language is effective in order to explain scientific terms, which are sometimes difficult to understand. This means she established a conversation in classroom to explain some scientific terms using easy vocabulary. She used a video clip showing a man being rushed to the ICU of a hospital after a severe road accident to achieve successful explanation of the phrase 'critical angle'. The result was that the video clip shows relationships between a hard-to-understand concept, the critical angle and the video clip. In this sense, her practice in bringing media in visual form to be presented to learners is considered as a part of discourse. Arthur Graesser and Natalie Person (2002) described the significance of science classroom discourse which has a conversational nature in classrooms similar to general classrooms, and at all grade levels, in English-speaking countries. This means a teacher asks a question, and then one or two students answer. The teacher possibly comments on the students' answers and sometimes summarizes what has been said. The teacher will begin to ask a new question to achieve greater cognitive depth. This cyclical pattern repeats itself throughout the class.

Methodology

Instrument

The questionnaire designed to use in this study was constructed to find relevant information that can answer the second objective which is to explore teachers and students' attitudes toward the strategies employed by teachers in science classroom discourse. Normally, questionnaires are designed to gather either qualitative or quantitative data. However, even though this study approach is based on a qualitative paradigm to interpret the nature of spoken discourse, there is an instrument part requiring data expressed in terms of percentage of in-class utterances naturally made by the participants. The data are used in conjunction with the second instrument, classroom observation, to identify different points of view about the conversational pattern in science classroom discourse. The questionnaire represents the data provided by the second party (student) who participated an inclass dialogic pattern during the classroom observation, as the third party (practitioner), provides details to give both verbal and non-verbal utterances.

Another instrument which the researcher used in the classroom is the classroom observation sheet. This sheet contains a table which provides gaps to fill in information related to verbal and non-verbal utterances. In fact, the practitioner adapted data recording structure of Mehan (1979) to tabulate information by means of IRE pattern and non-verbal utterances.

The third instrument considered crucial to this study is the video camera. Using this gadget to record specific discourse is prevalent in many discourse studies. This electronic device is planned to record motion pictures and sound which can help the researcher to analyze verbal and non-verbal utterances conveniently. The advantage of this electronic equipment is that the system can play the recorded situation forward and backward in order for the observer to watch details relevant to the study.

The last instrument of this research is the interview, which plays an important role in recording the attitudes of the teachers specifically about the strategies used to achieve the goal of teaching. The final process is aimed to provide information with a complete dimension of classroom discourse by recording the attitudes of only the teacher. This means that the interview reveals the teachers' feelings, thoughts, and methods when they are confronting difficulty in explaining a scientific lesson to students or are in unexpected failure situations.

Participants

The EP students observed in science classroom discourse are all Thais who have absorbed western culture from native English teachers. Sakui and Gaies (1999) stated that Asian students are usually considered as resilient constructs, self-perpetuating in nature. However, the observed group studied an EP for three years before this research was conducted. The students are, in the main, different from Thai program students in terms of self-confidence, individuality, and public expression. Individually, the EP student's behavior is somewhat similar to Western students as opposed to regular Asian students whose self-expression seems to be suppressed by oriental culture. Therefore, the nature of the EP students is likely to have an impact on science classroom discourse.

The research population, all EP students in Thailand, is estimated at 10,000 students, all of which are studying in an EP program. Nevertheless, the number of chosen EP students of Matthayom Watnairong is 60 with an age range between 15-16 years old. To exemplify this, the participants, both male and female, are from one level of two classes, Matthayom 4/1 and 4/2 (Grade 10), and the participants number 30 students for each class, so there are 60 students for two classes. All of the students are studying a science curriculum. The other participant is a non-native English teacher. The male teacher, 36 years of age, is from the Philippines and speaks English as a second language. He graduated in science-related fields in his country and is responsible for one science subject, Biology. The teacher has experience in teaching science through English for several years before teaching at Matthayom Watnairong School.

Data Analysis

This study depends mainly on a qualitative approach which employs the theory of Mehan (1978) which focuses on the pattern of IRE in the dialogic sequence of Mehan (1979) which emphasizes the structure of classroom lessons, and the study also evaluates discourse as scaffolding (Pearson and Gallagher, 1983) in conjunction with strategies for enhancing cognition when teacher confronts failure situations in science classroom discourse.

Within a common classroom, classroom discourse can be studied in many ways. Regarding discourse as scaffolding (Pearson and Gallagher, 1983), the authors divide the discourse by means of the proportion of responsibility for task completion into three stages: all-teacher, joint responsibility (exchanges between teacher and students), and all-student. However, this study focuses merely on a part of joint responsibility where many dialogic exchanges are observed. The study of discourse as scaffolding (Pearson and Gallagher, 1983) is compatible with Cazden (1988) who suggested the use of strategies to help students to understand better when the teacher encounters failure situations. The author explained that the model of discourse as scaffolding requires consideration in three main issues: the process of internalization, getting the answer versus getting the understanding, and the nature of knowledge being acquired. Nevertheless, all three issues will not be used to approach the objective, as the second issue, getting the answer versus getting the understanding, is regarded by Cazden (1988) as the issue that brings about understanding for students in the classroom discourse. The author stated and categorized that this issue, getting the answer versus getting the understanding, comprised of Pre-formulating and Reformulating methods. Therefore, these two strategies are regarded as approaches by which the teacher formulates questions that can easily convey the insight of the lesson to the students. Thus, the second feature of the framework, scaffolding, is more likely to be a suitable instrument to find the answer for the second objective.

The IRE pattern exploration can be grouped into two issues which are analyzed separately. In part of the IRE, this study analyzes the exchanges in a part of joint responsibility made by a teacher and students in which the unit of analysis of this study is predetermined to focus on a complete or incomplete cycle of IRE between a teacher and a student. This can reflect the nature of spoken discourse in a science classroom. In addition, when the video clips are transcribed and analyzed, the IRE pattern is compared with Mehan (1979) in which the author found that the structure of classroom lessons in Western schools share a common structure. The scheme found in the science classroom at Matthayom Watnairong is to adopt the structure of classroom lessons (Mehan, 1979) by means of five common hierarchical features: event, phase, type of sequence, organization of sequences, and participants. The information collected is allocated in a form of table produced by Mehan (1979), and the results are depicted qualitatively.

Reliability

The type of reliability in this study is *inter-rater reliability*. The reliability is employed to apply three types of interpretation of results using Mehan (1978), Mehan (1979), and Cazden (1988) which represent the IRE pattern, the structure of classroom lesson and the strategies, namely *Pre-formulating* and *Re-formulating*, respectively. Since the data analysis process deals with the application of theories relevant to verbal utterances in classroom discourse through English as a main medium, experts were required to verify the findings. Data were analyzed by the researcher, and two English native speakers were asked to check whether the interpretation of results match the theories employed.

Validity

This research is a conversational analysis which employs a triangulation method in the validation process aimed to establish the credibility of the result. To construct the scheme of this method, the triangulation comprises three panel members invited to examine the content of the conversation from different perspectives. However, the panel members work in educational field in which they have a strong background in using the English language for teaching.

Findings and Analysis

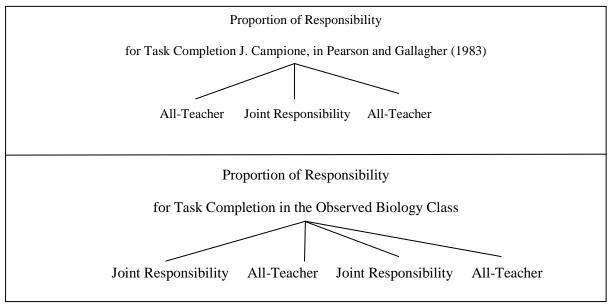
The nature of classroom discourse explored in science classroom, Biology, of Matthayomsuksa 4 (Grade 10) at Matthayom Watnairong was constructed through the pattern of IRE and was similar to the structure of classroom lessons by Mehan (1979). The IRE model derived from the class was predominant and concurred with that of Mehan (1978). This conversational pattern tended to drive the classroom dialogue to accomplish the teacher's objectives. The researcher recorded the conversation from the beginning of the lecture; however, it was not the first class of the chapter taught. The teacher began the lecture by reviewing the content learned from the previous class to build up the students' awareness, which was aimed to allow the students to activate their existing knowledge. There are 50 sequences excerpted specifically in the part of joint responsibility. In the conversational pattern, there are complete and incomplete cycles of IRE. When taking a deeper observation, there are 31 initiations that require responses from the students. However, the data in Table 1 indicates that only 19 responses (61.3%) were produced to answer the initiations.

Types of Pattern	Frequency (times)	Percentage (%)
Total Initiation	50	
Initiation Requiring Answer	31	
Response	19	61.3
Evaluation	19	100

 Table 1: Frequencies of IRE Pattern Derived from Transcription

The nature of classroom discourse found in the observed science classroom has an IRE pattern that does not differ from the model named scaffolding. The transcripts show that the teacher usually begins the classroom conversation with an opening that gives instruction, modeling or demonstration. The exchanges between the teacher and the student were rare unless the teacher initiated and emphasized the questions to encourage answers from the students. The difference found between the model and the empirical data was that the teacher started the lecture in a way that was not all-teacher responsibility. This means the teacher started with the exchanges by asking about the previous content taught before teaching new knowledge. The teacher reviewed the students prior to a period of All Teacher Responsibility. Therefore, the model of Proportion of Responsibility for Task Completion was not All Teacher – Joint Responsibility – All Student, but the pattern of the responsibility – All Student. However, this pattern did not occur in every class; only where the observed class was not the introduction of a new chapter. The comparison is exemplified in Diagram 1 below.

Diagram 1: Comparison between Basic Structure of Learning Environments as Scaffolding (Pearson and Gallagher, 1983) and Basic Structure of Learning Environments in the Observed Science Classroom.



The Students' Attitudes

The students' attitudes gained from the questionnaire tend to reflect factors which cause an incomplete cycle of the IRE pattern. The data shows the nature of responses of the students in the class where the students did not want to respond to the teacher initiation because they hesitated to ask as well as they did not really prepare to study in advance. Some students wanted to keep silent and asked friends later about the questions. However, about 30 per cent of the students stated that they would ask the teacher immediately if they do not understand the lecture, but there is no evidence of such responses in the transcription. More than 40 three per cent of the students indicated that exchanges in class bring about better understanding. In accordance with the transcription and the answers from the questionnaire, the results illustrate that even though some students know that exchanges can develop better understanding in a lecture, they still do not want to give a response to the teacher because they prefer to keep silent and ask friends later; they may ask the teacher after class; they are shy; or they are afraid that their friends are going to make fun of them.

The Teacher's Strategy

The teacher showed a direct expression on the question in the interview when he seemed to encounter difficulty in explaining, claiming that he had to employ a pre-formulating method to help the students to comprehend. The teacher sometimes raised topics that are close to the students' situations or environments, or he might give some examples to assist his explanation. This means the teacher was trying to formulate questions that can easily convey the insight of the lesson to the student. Therefore, the teacher's strategy is considered to be compatible with Cazden (1988) who theorized that pre-formulating is the process where the teachers preface the question they want the student to answer with one or more utterance which enables the student to become familiar with the relevant area of experience.

Conclusion of the Study

This study aimed to answer the research questions about the nature of spoken discourse in a science classroom at Matthayom Watnairong School through the IRE pattern of Mehan (1978); the structure of classroom lesson of Mehan (1979), the structure of scaffolding introduced by Pearson and Gallagher (1983), and the strategies the teacher employs through the perspective of Cazden (1988). The data were gathered by research instruments which are video camera recordings, a classroom observation check-sheet, a questionnaire, and semi-structure interviews, all of which were analyzed through the aforementioned frameworks. The nature of science classroom discourse was explored. The findings revealed that the spoken discourse observed in the science classrooms was conducted naturally through the pattern of the IRE model even though it shows that not all patterns of conversation illustrated a complete cycle of IRE. The reasons for the lack of response are no advanced preparation before class, having the expectation to ask friends later instead of asking the teacher, and personal shyness.

In addition, the findings about the nature of spoken discourse in science classrooms under the framework of classroom lessons resembled the theory of Mehan (1979). That is to say, the science classroom discourse showed identical components of phase, type of sequence, organization of sequences, and participants. As for the analysis of the discourse through the framework of scaffolding by Pearson and Gallagher (1983), the data revealed that the nature of science classroom discourse is different to the theory. The teacher commenced the conversation by providing students a chance to exchange ideas as the teacher wanted to check students' understanding and to review past knowledge before initiating the next lesson. As a consequence, the teacher recalled the past lecture by creating joint responsibility from the opening of the conversation, so this may influence the pattern of scaffolding which is a distinguishable feature from the conventional scaffolding model. Lastly, when the teacher's interview was analyzed regarding strategies employed in classroom discourse through Cazden (1988), the teacher has, so far, used *Pre-formulation* to help simplify his teaching language when he was encountering difficulty in explaining scientific terms and processes.

The findings may be useful for individuals who are interested in studying science classroom discourse in other EP schools in Thailand or in other science classes conducted in English language with L2 learners. Moreover, the EFL and ESL teachers may conduct a future plan to suit the practice in teaching a particular science class.

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Some differences in Requesting strategies in English-Vietnamese

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Abstract

This study provides a range of politeness strategies used in making requests in English and Vietnamese and investigates the relationship between politeness and requesting in light of cross cultural pragmatics. The strategic method used in the study is both qualitative and quantitative. All considerations, remarks, comments and assumptions given are based largely on the analysis of statistic data. In the study, strategic requesting employment can be found in specific situations in English and Vietnamese. With the reference to Brown and Levinson's work and Blum Kulka's analyses, two main types of requestive strategies with redressive actions are investigated, namely, positive and negative politeness strategies. Furthermore, it has been proved that addressing forms and lexico-modal markers can be the main factors that determine degrees of politeness in making requests. The study hopes to raise awareness in linguistic and cultural differences between two languages and cultures in requesting which increases the understanding of cross-cultural communication studies in the context of globalization.

Key words and terms: cross-cultural communication, face, redressive action, positive politeness, address forms, lexico-modal markers.

Introduction

Requesting, a highly imposing act may require a great deal of redressive efforts to bridge the gap between speaker and hearer even in an intracultural communication, and can be more problematic still in a cross-cultural communication. Tactful requestive strategies are different from culture to culture. One cannot use his/her own reference of cultural values, norms and etiquettes to impose on others. Consequently, this has created many problems in socio-cultural interaction and blocked the learners' appropriateness in communicative competence. This suggests a cross-cultural study of one of the most sensitive communicative acts in English and Vietnamese, that is requesting. It is hoped that the research will help avoid, or at least reduce, cultural conflicts in requesting in English and Vietnamese cross-cultural communication.

Aims of the study

The aim of the research is to study English-Vietnamese cross-cultural differences in requesting with the focus on:

- ✓ Politeness and requests
- ✓ Factors governing levels of politeness in making requests, namely address forms and lexico-modal markers used in making requests.

Methods of the study and discussion of the survey questionnaire

The strategic method used in the study is both qualitative and quantitative. All considerations, remarks, comments and assumptions given in this study are based largely on the analysis of statistic data.

A survey questionnaire was designed and delivered to both native speakers of English and Vietnamese to investigate the factors in making requests. This concentrates on specific situations, specific communicative partners and the utterances of requesting. 200 informants (*100 Vietnamese and 100 native speakers of English*) completed the questionnaire.

For contrastive analysis, the following aspects were taken into consideration:

- + Requesting strategies
- + Requesting devices
- + Structures and characteristics of requesting
- + Culture of requesting

In the questionnaire, specific utterances are considered very important. The survey was conducted with both Vietnamese and English native speakers to reveal how they would request in the following three situations:

Situation 1: asking the way to the city center Situation 2: requesting for commenting on the new house Situation 3: requesting to complete this survey questionnaire

With different communicative partners, informants would choose different politeness strategies, in this study, the total number of each politeness strategy used by two major groups (English and Vietnamese) were counted to discover how positive and negative politeness strategies are employed in each language.^{*}

Research questions

The assumption was made that requesting strategies are different in the two languages and there are factors affecting them. After the collection of the survey questionnaires and with resort to many publications, two prominent factors became apparent: address forms and lexico-modal markers, which are culturally and socially determinant to a language. Thus, two research questions were hypothesized:

- 1) What and how are request strategies employed by the Vietnamese and English people in the light of politeness?
- 2) What is the relationship between politeness and the use of address forms and lexico-modal markers in making requests?

Analytical framework

Generally, politeness can be understood as ways to make communicative partners feel at ease and comfortable and thus, it is used to establish social relationships in human society. Like cultural values, politeness can be changed in accordance with changes over time, social trends and social integration.

^{*} For further discussion, see Thanh D. T. M. *Some English – Vietnamese Cross cultural differences in requesting*, MA thesis, unpublished, Vietnam National University, Hanoi, University of Languages and International Studies, 2000.

The authors propose a popular way to access the concept of politeness. This involves the notion of **face**, which is the sense of a person's public self-image. This concept was established by Brown and Levinson (1978) following Erving Goffman's concept of **face**. Every speech act has potential imposition on somebody else's sense of face. In communicating, people may give a threat to another individual's self-image or **face want**, they tend to create a **face-threatening act** (FTA). Therefore, politeness is hereby to mitigate a face threat. This is described as a **face-saving act**.

Brown and Levinson (1987) suggested two possible ways of politeness to satisfy someone's face: **positive** and **negative politeness** to meet the positive and negative desires. According to Brown and Levinson, positive and negative face exist universally in human culture. If one looks back at ancient Chinese philosophy there was a similar perception. Man, seen as the microcosm of the universe, has two integral and inseparable sides which are illustrated in the sign of harmony. The sign of harmony includes two different sets of operating principles, namely Yang and Yin. "*Yang is defined as a tendency toward male dominance, high redundancy, low entropy, complex and rigid hierarchy, competition*" whereas "*Yin is defined by tendency towards greater egalitarianism and flexibility, more female participation, high entropy, low redundancy, and more emphasis on feeling, empathy and spontaneity*" (Jamieson, 1995). These two worlds co-evolve over time, even each is built into the other.

Nguyen Quang (1999) suggests that human beings have two "sides" social beings and conscious beings. Social beings are the needs to communicate, to be socially recognised as others, to show concern to others and vice versa. These are *positive* or *yang* desires. Conversely, conscious beings are the needs to have concepts and values of self and others, to be on their own, not troubled by others. These are *negative* or *yin* desires. Face wants to denote the human desires or *positive* and *negative desires*.

Speakers may mitigate the force of FTA by using a variety of politeness strategies. They may use **positive politeness** showing solidarity or concerns to others or letting others know they have a common goal. To maintain positive face, Brown and Levinson (1987) suggest the following main strategies: *Attend to hearer's (H) interests, needs, wants; Use solidarity in-group identity markers; Be optimistic; Include both speaker (S) and H in activity; Offer or promise; Exaggerate interest in H and his interests; Avoid Disagreement and Joke.*

Conversely, people may employ **negative politeness** which can be defined as the awareness of another's right not to be imposed on. Negative politeness emphasizes on individualism and people tend to show deference to the addressees. This strategy may contain expression of an *apology*, *hedge*, *pessimism*, *nominalization*, *passive*, or *statement of general rules*, etc. In Brown and Levinson's opinion, in Western cultures, negative politeness is preferable and becomes "the most conventionalized".

Therefore, Brown and Levinson think that negative politeness strategies are more polite than positive ones. Through the chart on minimizing FTA, they put negative politeness at a higher degree of politeness than positive politeness. Such is their belief that negative politeness shows the distance and deference and freedom of choice to the hearer. This theory may possibly work in English or Western cultures effectively. However, what politeness strategy is preferred by what culture suggests a problem. In many Oriental languages, particularly Vietnamese, negative politeness is not always put in a high place and using positive politeness, i.e. showing concern to the other(s) and narrowing the distance between the speaker and the hearer is considered popularly polite.

To sum up, politeness is how one uses language to express the distance (social, physical, psychological) and the relationship between speaker and hearer.

Requesting, as stated by Brown and Levinson (1987: 65), is seen as a face-threatening act, primarily threatens the addressee's (Hearer's-H's) negative face want. Also, the speaker (S) often redresses H's positive face as H can think of S's requesting as to claim the common ground between two communicators.

In this research, based on Brown and Levinson's framework, two strategies to satisfy face want and face desires were observed. They are positive and negative politeness strategies.

Research results and discussion

Positive politeness strategies found in the survey (following Brown and Levinson's work):

1) **Claim solidarity**: emphasize and enhance closeness between speaker and hearer. Solidarity strategies may be used with:

+ inclusive terms and address forms: "we", "let's", "why don't we...", "chúng mình", "chúng ta", "bọn mình" (we) etc.

"Sao chúng mình không cùng làm nốt việc này nhỉ?" (Why-we-not- together- do- finish- this- workappealer?)

"Why don't we get in and start the survey?"

+ lexico-modal markers (appealers) : "nhi", "nhé", "với", "chứ"... "right?", "O.K?", "don't you think...?", "...., isn't it?" etc.

"Làm hộ em cái này với!" (Do this for me, (appealer)) "Do me a favour, won't you?"

2) **Flatter** (or buttering somebody's face up/ sweetening):

+ A person may self-flatter or butter his/her face up. In this sense, he/she may use face-flattering act (FFA) strategies.

+ Also, a face-giving act (FGA) can be understood as to show deference to the other(s), to make or to give other(s) the feeling that they are respected.

"Người ta bảo rằng em xây nhà đẹp nhất khu. Tự tay em thiết kế và giám sát xây dựng đấy!" (an FFA)

(It is said that my house is the most beautiful in my neighbourhood. It was me who designed and supervised the construction.) \rightarrow requesting to comment a newly built house.

"Tớ biết cậu là một tay già dặn trong lĩnh vực này nên mới nhờ cậu làm hộ." (an FGA) (I know that you are an old hand in this field, that's why I ask you for help.)

or even the combination of both FFA and FGA:

"Tớ luôn là người cẩn thận nên khi làm việc này tớ nghĩ ngay đến cậu, giúp mình nhé." (I am always meticulous, so when I do this I immediately think of you, help me O.K?)

3) Show concern (to the addressee):

Speaker may express his/her concern (or interest/sympathy) to hearer before requesting: "Dạo này có nhiều thứ mới đấy. À, mày biết đi đường nào tới hiệu sách Tràng Tiền không nhỉ?" (You've got many new things recently. Oh, do you what way to Trang Tien's Bookshop (in the city centre)?)

"You've got new earrings. They seem to match your clothes. Oh, by the way, lend me some sugar."

4) Familialize relations: use kinship terms (*chú* (younger uncle), bác (elder uncle), anh (brother), *ch* (sister), *cô* (aunt)...; my son, mum, daddy etc.) to address the others to minimize the distance between speaker and hearer. This strategies appear much more popular in Vietnamese:

" U làm giúp con bản điều tra này U nhé."

(Mum, help me to fill in this questionnaire, please?) ("u" (meaning 'Mum') is used between a mother and her child in Vietnamese but in this case, the speaker uses "u" to address the listener though there is no blood relation between

them) "Close the door, my little son (boy)"

5) **Be tentative**: The speaker is tentative and reluctant to ask the listener to do something. Therefore, before requesting, he/she may take some verbal precautions.

"Không biết đi lối nào ra trung tâm thành phố gần nhất nhỉ?" (Don't know which is the nearest way to the city centre?)

"Làm nốt chỗ này đi, có được không ?" (Finish this, is it O.K?)

6) **Remain neutral:** In the opinion of the authors, there are many cases which are inclined to positive politeness but they do not belong to any of the above strategies. Additionally, in terms of degrees of politeness, they are neutral (i.e., they are neither too close nor too distant); and they are not really bald-on records, therefore, the researchers would like to propose this "neutral" strategy.

"What is your verdict/opinion of this house?"

In conclusion, these strategies aim to minimize the distance between S and H and to enhance the closeness between them.

The use of positive politeness strategies in two languages in the survey

Through the results of the survey, five types of positive politeness strategies used in three requesting situations, namely *Solidarity, Familialization, Flattering, Showing concern*, and *Tentativity* were observed. There is a case of 'neutral' strategy which makes up 40% of all politeness strategies in English and 16.46% in Vietnamese. All cases of 'refusing to requests' and counted the requesting utterances to see strategies used among these informants were omitted.

Vietnamese informants chose *Solidarity* and *Familialization* as their base strategies to request with a large proportion (54.05% in comparison with 43.84% in English). This seems to reinforce a reflection of Vietnamese culture: a tendency to consolidate the mutual relationship and enhance the closeness between speakers and hearers to smooth the request, which is assumed to be a sensitive matter in their daily life. In comparison with the English informants' choice, *Familialization* (14.96%) is far less than by the Vietnamese as this appears to intimate the communicators' relationship. There is little discrepancy in the choice of strategy *Flattering, Showing concern* and *Tentativity* between English and Vietnamese informants, thus, they are not the focus of consideration.

Negative politeness strategies used in the survey

Following Brown and Levinson (1987), in requesting, **negative politeness strategies** found in the survey can include:

1) **Hedging**: Hedges, according to Brown and Levinson, are devices used to minimize assumptions about the H's want and find what is relevant to the hearer. This can be illustrated with the following examples:

"Do me a favour and do this for me, will you?" "Thủ trưởng ạ, thủ trưởng thấy nhà em liệu có được không?"

(Boss, honorific, boss, see my house, is it acceptable?)

2) Indicating pessimism:

This strategy explicitly expresses doubt that the conditions for the appropriateness of S's speech act obtaining.

"I don't suppose you could fill this out for me." "Tớ không nghĩ là cậu có thể giúp tớ việc này." (I don't think you could help me this.)

3) **Minimizing the imposition**: trying to reduce as much imposition on someone else's negative face as possible when requesting by giving optionality.

Besides an array of modal verbs, for example "can", "could", "may" etc., a range of expressions that minimize rating of imposition is used in English: a tiny/bit, a little bit, a drop, a bit ... or in Vietnamese: "môt chút", "chút xíu", "môt teo" (a tiny bit)

"Could you close the window just a tiny bit?"

"Anh có thể làm ơn điền hộ em vào bản điều tra này chút xíu được không?" (Could you please fill out this questionnaire just a tiny bit?)

4) Indicating deference:

This strategy uses deferential factors to convey social hierarchy and rank. This seems to be close to what can be termed "*face modesty*", which usually happens among Vietnamese people. They tend to abase themselves first and raise the others before asking them to do something.

"Theo thiển ý (ngu ý) của tôi ..."

(In my humble (stupid) opinion ...)

"Excuse me, sir, could you tell me the way to the city centre, please?"

People may employ deferential markers such as *sir, madam*, etc. or T/V system (in European language). Vietnamese is abundant with varieties of deferential address forms such as: *ngài*, *quý ngài* (*sir*) ... or kinship terms above ego: bác (*uncle*), ông (*sir*), bà (*madam*) ... (to a stranger).

5) Apologizing:

The speaker can show his/her reluctance to impose on H's negative's face by apologizing for doing an FTA when requesting.

"Em biết anh đang rất bận lúc này, nhưng chắc anh có thể dành cho em vài phút để ..." (I-know-you-are- very-busy-now-but -sure-you-can-spend-me- a few minutes-to...)

"I normally wouldn't ask you this, but..." / "I hate to impose but..."

"Chẳng mấy khi em phiền bác như thế này nhưng" (Not- many times-I- trouble- you- likethis, but..."

6) Impersonalizing:

The speaker using this strategy may avoid using the pronouns "T" and "you" to show the distance between them.

"Fill this in!" "Diền hộ bản điều tra này nhé!" (Fill this survey in, appealer!) In brief, negative politeness involves the speaker's and hearer's independence. This is also known as the *"formal politeness strategy"* which creates the distance between the speaker and hearer.

Similar to positive politeness strategies, we choose 7 types of negative one appearing in the survey, they are *Hedge, Indicate pessimism, Minimising the imposition, Indicating deference, Apologising* and *Impersonalising*. All cases of 'refusing to requests' and counted the requesting utterances to see strategies used among these informants were omitted.

The statistic data show the percentage of employing different negative politeness strategies by two groups, it can be seen that *Minimising the imposition* and *Indicating deference* surpass all the strategies in English. It seems that these two strategies help raise the H's position and status and thus, indicating politeness. In Vietnamese, *Apologising* is used most to show deference to the H's face before asking for a favour. It can hardly be assumed that the universalization of principles of politeness is based on the study of European languages and its result can be transferred to other languages, particularly to such an Asian language as Vietnamese.

In the Vietnamese society, requests are sometimes perceived as a face-giving act, rather than a facethreatening one, as making a request to someone, in some cases, can be understood as enhancing H's status. Take for example the case of requesting someone to comment on the new house. The requestees are usually thought of as being reliable and artistically tasteful enough to be asked for comments.

Kasper (1997: 378) summarizes that views opposing the universal availability of the proposed politeness constructs are primarily based on Brown and Levinson's theory. The two complementary sides of face, i.e., positive vs. negative face, have been referred to by other linguists as "distance vs. involvement" (Tannen, 1986), "deference vs. solidarity" (Scollon and Scollon, 1983), "autonomy vs. connection" (Green, 1992b), "self-determination vs. acceptance" or "personal vs. interpersonal face" (Janney and Arndt, 1992), "distance vs. closeness" (Yule, 1996).

In this study of English and Vietnamese in terms of requesting, negative and positive politeness can be understood as "*detaching vs. attaching*" or "*privacy vs. concern*" respectively. *Detaching* marks the gap between S and H in terms of social, age, physical, relation, power as well as their attitude, feelings, emotion, etc. towards each other, indicating that there should be some deference between S and H.

Factors governing politeness strategy realizations in language

Lexico modal markers

One of the ways to realize politeness strategies is via lexico-modal markers.

Lexico-modal markers are considered to be the most useful means of language to express people's feelings and attitudes towards states or events. Quang, (1999: 219) assumes that lexico-modal markers are to reduce FTA or to enhance FSA/FGA, to intensify or soften, to assert and/or emphasize people's attitude.

Trosborg (1987: 97, 69) and Quang (1999: 219), following Blum Kulka, suggest several types of lexico-modal markers, which, in their opinion, can create different degrees of politeness. They are: Consultative devices, Understaters, Hedge, Downtoners, Intensifiers, Subjectivisers, Commitment upgraders, Cajolers, Appealers, Politeness markers, Grounders, Sweeteners, Disarmer, Cost minimizer.

It is the view of the authors of this paper that lexico-modal markers are one of the most important factors to determine what politeness strategy of an utterance is used. The question posed here is why lexico-modal markers are not broken into the groups that indicate positive or negative politeness. For example:

"Where is the city centre?" "Where is the city centre, please?" "Come on, tell me where the city centre is."	\rightarrow	a bald-on record request a negative politeness request a positive politeness request
or in Vietnamese:		
"Trung tâm thành phố ở đâu?"	\rightarrow	a bald-on request
(Centre-city- where?)		-
"Trung tâm thành phố ở đâu hả em (nhỉ)?"	\rightarrow	a positive politeness request
(Centre-city- where- appealer - you?)		
" (Dạ) Trung tâm thành phố ở đâu ạ?"	\rightarrow	a negative politeness request
((Honorific) Center-city-where-honorific?)		

As can be seen, a request can be changed from one politeness strategy to the other via the changes of lexico-modal markers. Other possible lexico-modal markers (terms) which can help realize politeness strategy usage in English and Vietnamese have arisen in the survey questionnaire.

1. Inclusive terms: involve S and H in the proposition like "*let's*", "*we*", "*chúng mình*", "*mình*", *etc*.

"Mình cùng nhauđiền phiếu điều tra nhé" (We – together – fill in- the survey questionnaire - appealer.)

These terms are often used to realize positive politeness strategy.

2. Intimative terms (Terms of endearment): used to sweeten the request the S claims that both S and H are close friends (some terms like "*darling*", "*honey*", "*sonny*", "*cún* (*yêu dia bà*)" (*my lovely puppy*), ...

These terms are often used to distinguish positive politeness strategy.

3. Abusive terms: used among equals, especially among males. People may use dialect/slang expressions (e.g. "chết tiệt", "khỉ thật", "quái thật", "damn", "shit" ...)
 E.g. "Damn! Fill it for me." (in requesting an informant's brother/sister to complete the questionnaire.)

These terms are used to realize positive politeness strategy.

4. Persuasive terms: like "*nhé*", "với", "đi", "will/won't you?"

E.g. "Anh điền cho em bản điều tra này nhé."

(You - fill – for – me – survey questionnaire – this - persuasive term.)

These terms are often used to realize either positive or negative politeness.

- 5. Appealing terms: "nhi", "hå", "được chứ?", "OK", "will you"...
 - E.g. "Nhà được chứ hả?"

(House - good - appealing term?)

These terms often appear in use of positive politeness.

6. Deferential terms (honorifics): "da", "a", "please"...

E.g. "Bác ơi, đường đến trung tâm thành phố ở đâu ạ?"

(Uncle – vocative term – way – to – centre – city – where – deferential term?)

Deferential terms are used to indicate deference to the H and create formality.

In addition, the choice of verbs and modal verbs can determine degrees of politeness: +*Mitigating FTA verbs*:

In English:	Could (would) you
In Vietnamese:	xin hãy, xin phép, hộ, nhờ, cố giúp, giúp cho, mong
	"Mong bác giúp cháu hoàn thành câu hỏi khảo sát này."
	(Hope you help me fill in this survey questionnaire)
+Increasing FTA ver	bs:
In English: using	imperative such as "Fill in this questionnaire".
In Vietnamese: u	sing such verbs as : "đề nghị, yêu cầu, bảo, ra lệnh"
	"Tôi đề nghị anh điền vào phiếu điều tra này."
	(I request you to fill in this survey questionnaire)
Lexico modal market	rs are considered to be polite request indicators, such as:
	Nhỉ, nhé, ừ, ạ, nhớ, cảm phiền, phiền
	please, just a little bit
Politeness indicators	such as "da, a, làm on, có thể" clearly indicate polite requests and to soften the
requests, whereas su	ch a marker in English as "please" is to "remove the possibility of ambiguity"

Generally, Vietnamese appears to use fewer modal verbs but more lexico-modal markers and appropriate AFs to indicate S's relationship to H when indicating politeness.

Address forms (AFs)

(Cottrill), i.e., not really shows politeness.

Another way to enhance politeness strategies is using address terms. Politeness can be obtained via the addressing system to intensify either the closeness and solidarity or the distance and power between S and H. AFs are often used to formalize the relationship between communicators, therefore to claim common background. AFs also create the distance or give deference between S and H.

With respect to functions of AFs, let's look at how AFs play their role in governing the usage of positive politeness and negative politeness in English and Vietnamese.

In English, a detailed classification we would like to introduce is basically the adaptation from Brown and Ford's and Nguyen Quang's work. They are: **Title alone** (T) (*Mr., Sir, Dr., ...*), **Title with last name** (TLN) (*Mr. Brown*), **Last name alone** (LN) (*Brown*), **First name** (FN) (*Mary*), **Multiple names** (MN) (*Robert Williams as Williams or Robert* or *Bob* or *Willie*), **The dyad of neutral** "I-You", **Address form avoidance** (AFA), **Kinship terms** (*Mummy, Daddy, Auntie...*)

In terms of politeness, T, TLN, LN are more likely to be grouped into negative politeness strategy linguistic realizations while FN, AFA, kinship terms tend to be more ascribed with the positive ones. MNs and the dyad of "I – You" may be inclined with either positive or negative politeness usage. It is worth noting that the dyad of neutral "I – You" does not reveal age, sex, social power, kinship relation, attitude, emotion, etc. And kinship terms in English does not always call for any sort of kinship relation.

Vietnamese possesses a complex addressing system. Besides using proper names, title and proper names – this is one of the noticeable features of Vietnamese address forms, the Vietnamese do not use family names to address each other – kinship terms usage is observed most popularly. Kinship terms such as " $c\hat{o}$ " (*aunt*), " $ch\hat{u}$ " (*uncle*), " $\hat{o}ng$ " (*grandpa*), " $b\hat{a}$ " (*grandma*) ... are not only employed for family members but also for social members. Even the dyad of neutral "I - You" in English can be interpreted with various kinship terms. Nguyen Tai Can (1975: p.134, 141) believes that kinship terms perform two functions: the main function is to address family members and the second extended one is to address other members in society.

To serve the purpose of this study, the authors take the following classification of AFs in Vietnamese by Nguyen Quang into consideration: **Titles** (*thây (male teacher), cô (female teacher), bác sĩ (doctor), giám đốc (director) ...*); **Titles and proper names** (equivalent to first name in English) (*thây Quang (teacher Quang), bác sĩ Hà (Doctor Ha)...*); **Proper names** (*Lan, Huy...*); **Multiple names** (a person can be called by various names either by *title, title and proper name (Bác sĩ Lan (Doctor Lan), Lan, Lan "chíp" (Lan "tiny" (a* nickname)...); **Address form avoidance**; **Addressing on the child's behalf** (a young mother can request her mother-in-law: "Bà lấy hộ cháu cái quạt" (Grandmother – takes – help – grandchild – the fan); **Kinship terms** (*cô (aunt), chú (younger uncle), bác (older uncle), ông (grandpa) ...*).

It is also noticeable that AFs can change S's intention of politeness strategy in the utterances, i.e., the utterances can be changed form formality or informality and vice versa or from negative politeness usage to positive politeness through the way communicators use AFs.

E.g., 1. "Thằng em làm hộ anh việc này, được chứ?" (Brother (abusive term) – do – help – brother – this task, OK?"
(Positive politeness usage and an informal request.)
2. 'Anh làm hộ em việc này được chứ ?' ((Older) Brother – do – help – me (younger brother) – this task, OK ?)
(AFs used as deferential terms. Negative politeness usage and a formal request.)

In Vietnamese, with respect to politeness, address forms can be classified as three levels:

+ *Polite or very polite address forms:* or "*Socially standardizing address forms* (Nguyen Thi Thanh Binh), using kinship terms above ego and the dyad of neutral "*I-you*"- horizontal relationship expressing deference and social distance.

+ *Intimate/ Solidarity AFs*: using intimate terms like "Tao - May", "Ong - Tôi", "Ba - Tôi" (equivalent to "I –You" ... among those who are socially equal and power equal or terms indicating social status such as "sốp, thủ trưởng (boss)..."

+ *Indeferential AFs*: using abusive terms such as "tang em, bà chi …" or AFA (address forms avoidance) such as "Này có biết đường đến trung tâm thành phố ở đâu không?"

It is observed that politeness in requesting in English can be more noticeably reflected through linguistic forms. If in Vietnamese, address forms and lexico-modal markers are important factors to determine the levels of politeness of the request(s), in English they play a minor role.

Conclusions

The outcome of this comparative study shows that Vietnamese and English language offer different devices to express positive or negative politeness strategies. And these politeness strategies are favoured differently in each culture. To make the process of communication smooth, one should know the cultural and linguistic features of each language. From this comparative study, insights

into Vietnamese and English linguistics for further intercultural communication study in the future are offered.

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Perceptions of Trainee Teachers on the Switch to and Use of L1 in their Studies

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Abstract

The aim of the researchers of this study is to investigate the perceptions of trainee teachers on switching to L1 and the use of L1 in their studies. The subjects of the study were 10 participants who were studying for their Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics for English Language Teaching (ELT) and Resource-Based Learning (RBL), which are international programmes of study at King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi (KMUTT). The subjects were advanced users of English. The study employed a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview.

The results of the study suggest that the first language (L1) can be used to facilitate learning for several purposes, for example, aiding with comprehension, providing sufficient and efficient preparation for lessons, and also for discussion among friends. Moreover, the use of L1 helps to save time and it is easier and quicker to complete the work. Thus, L1 should not be completely banned and its benefits should be recognised.

This study might be useful in raising the awareness of teachers, trainee teachers and students who are studying English as a second language about purposes of L1 that may deserve some space in the classroom.

General background

The study was conducted at School of Liberal Arts (SoLA), KMUTT. SoLA offers two international Master Degree (MA) programmes in Applied Linguistics, one for ELT and the other for RBL learning. In SoLA, there are both Thai lecturers and native English-speaking lecturers. MA participants are expected to use English as the major medium of communication. However, from the experience of the researcher as one of the current participants, the continued use of the mother tongue was prevalent. There are rarely any foreign participants in the programme, thus the mainly Thai students rarely use English to speak with each other, even though their proficiency was advanced.

Rationale of the study

The two programmes offered by SoLA are geared towards ELT in general, so the MA participants are trained to improve both their English proficiency and their knowledge of Applied Linguistics. In order to reach the objectives of the programmes, using English as the major medium in teaching and learning situations would be more beneficial for doing assignments or undertaking teaching practice courses. Therefore, both lecturers and participants are expected to use English as the main language in teaching and learning.

The MA participants' learning styles as the opponents of an auxiliary language policy often focus only on the fact that participants usually support the idea of using their mother tongue in the classroom (Critchley, 1999; Burden, 2000 & Mitchell, 1988). However, in these programmes, English is not utilised as much as it should be. Participants tend to employ L1 to support their second language (L2) learning because it is seen as easier and quicker to communicate. Moreover, from a theoretical point of view, Cook (2001) believes that the use of students' L1 in ESL/EFL classroom does not hinder learning and the use of L1 arises naturally in the classroom.

Purposes of the study

This study was conducted to investigate the trainee teachers' perceptions of the switch to L1 and the use of L1 in their studies and to see how the results of the trainee teachers' perceptions of their learning and the stages of their use of L1 would be used. The purpose of this study was to answer two research questions:

- 1. How does L1 use vary in different situations during class hours?
- 2. What are the aims of using L1 in the MA content classes?

Methodology

Subjects

The subjects of the study were 10 students (8 female and 2 male) who were studying for their MAs in ELT at SoLA, KMUTT as an international programme. The nature of the study required the students to have a high level of proficiency in English to interact in the classroom and to understand the contents of the subjects. The subjects used English as the medium of communication in learning. The participants were asked to fill out the questionnaire. Then they were interviewed in a focus group.

Research Instruments

This study uses a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview for data collection. Details of the two instruments are given.

Questionnaire

The first instrument was a questionnaire in English, divided into two parts. The first part was to discover the purposes of using the mother tongue and the auxiliary language. The second part involved situations in both languages in the content classes. The first part of the questionnaire, Purposes of L1, consisted of a rating scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The second part, L1 use in situations, used 1 (never) to 5 (always).

Semi-Structured Interview

The second instrument was a semi-structured interview focus group. It was conducted to obtain indepth information relevant to the research questions, also, as a supplementary instrument to uncover more details and interesting information that the questionnaire was unable to reveal. There were two groups, consisting of five and four participants. The interview was divided into two groups to reduce the possibility of any one subject dominating the others. Each focus group interview was allocated 20 minutes and was conducted in Thai.

Data Analysis

Data from questionnaire

The numeric data was input into an Excel file for easy handling. Then a mean of each question was calculated. The mean scores under each of the constructs set forth were analyzed.

Data from semi-structured interview

The interview was mainly used for mining more information regarding using the mother tongue in content classes. Such information included, for instance, explanation, clarification and examples. The results from the interview were analyzed and used in order to support the students' answers in the questionnaires about when and why participants switched to and used the mother tongue in their learning.

Result

Data from questionnaire

Generally, the subjects said they often used L1 during out-of-class discussions, during consultations about the lesson with the lecturers and also during supervision of the learning process. As can be seen, they sometimes used L1 for clarifying ideas, reviewing the lesson and summarizing the lesson/lecture. They also said they used L1 while obtaining feedback from the lectures as well as for planning the activities and describing concepts of work. Furthermore, they said L1 was also used to negotiate a whole class activity and for discussion tasks, such as small group or pair discussions and classroom discussions. They said that they used L1 when creating workshops. On the other hand, they hardly ever used L1 while taking notes during the lesson/lecture, preparing the lesson and peer/micro-teaching.

Semi-structured interview data

The findings reveal that the subjects, even though studying in an international programme, commonly used L1 as a strategy for their advanced-level learning. The use of L1 serves different purposes and is spread over several stages of learning depending on the circumstances such as the formality of the setting and the other party's first language.

It can be seen that many situations where L1 is used to promote their learning, for example, out-ofclass discussions, and during supervisions and consultations. Also, they use L1 to plan activities and lessons, review lessons, and clarify ideas to the lecturers and friends. In contrast, they suggested that there is litle room to use L1 in taking notes because it wastes time to translate to L2, and in the formal classroom process, such as while learning and interacting with the lecturer. Also, in regards to presentations, where the use of L1 is not allowed, they are obliged to use L2 only. Furthermore, the use of both L1 and L2 should be balanced in the support of learning as they reflect the thought process, first L1 followed by a switch to the target language. Therefore, the use of L1 and L2 is necessary to learn English as a second language and the learners should recognize that it should be used at the necessary and/or appropriate time.

Conclusion

Perceptions of L1 use

It is usually the case that the participants in an international programme such as this are expected to use L2 as a medium of communication. In fact, the first language is employed and viewed as an important tool for their learning. This is supported by Schweers' (1999) survey study in Spain that investigated attitudes toward using L1 in the L2 classroom. The results showed that the majority of students and teachers agreed that Spanish was essential and should be used in the classroom. This

researcher supports the concept that the use of L1 creates little difficulty if it is employed to support student learning, particularly as it is useful in dealing with problems, such as clarifying meanings of words or expressing frustrations concerning their lack of understanding.

There are many factors as to why L1 is used, because it saves time and facilitates finishing tasks more quickly, as Deller and Rinvolucri's study shows (2002) in the use of metaphors. The study found that the use of L1 is a lubricant to keep the wheels of a lesson moving smoothly, and it thus, saves time. This idea is supported by Harbord (1992) as he suggests that the most important reason for using L1 in the classroom is that it can save a great deal of time and confusion. Therefore, it can be seen that L1 is used to facilitate learning rather than to obstruct it, even though, as in this case, learners have a high level of English proficiency.

Learning English as a second language by using L1 can promote group norms in that learners can learn more about each other. Moreover, the factor of proximity plays an important role. To illustrate, when learners sit close to friends who have the same mother tongue, group norms can be established more easily (Dornyei, 2001). The use of L1 can help to promote more cooperation between friends. And this can indirectly link to the fact that group norms based on L1 can lead to cooperation, and consequently, better learning.

During learning preparation, L1 can help learners substantially with regards to group work, provide improved quality of work, and help students complete the work more quickly and easily. It is also thought that L1 use promotes cooperation among students. However, in terms of planning or organizing lessons, the criteria for learners' success and their organization of the learning process are not relevant to whether they are going to use L1 or L2. These ideas are supported by Deller and Rinvolucri (2002) who make the case for the appropriate use of the students' own language to improve learning.

L1 is found to reduce anxiety that may come from learning in a demanding environment, when dealing with cognitively difficult concepts, and complicated expressions. As in Dornyei (2001) view of ice-breaking activities, L1 use can possibly help learners feel more at ease with each other. In addition, Ellis (1985) supports the idea that L1 can be used as a starting point when learning a new language. Moreover, L1 is sometimes used to assist those who are not ready to use English or probably suitable for someone who has to learn new things. Also, it is used to deal with complex or difficult concepts, i.e., abstract terms. The idea that L1 is used appropriately when explaining abstract words or expressions that are difficult to explain to students in English is supported by Weschler (1997).

Language learners, even advanced ones, also resort to L1 sometimes for understanding instructions of a task, for giving friends advice and suggestions, and preparing presentations. Translation and knowledge transfer from L1 to L2 and vice versa are useful in order to facilitate learning. This idea that L1 bridges and supports learning is also supported by Swain and Johnson (1997).

English for foreign language learners is most effective when used as a medium of communication. Sometimes the degree of L1 use depends on the environment and the person one talks to. This study found that L1 was reported to be used mostly outside of the classroom in situations such as out-of-class discussions, supervision, consultations and when receiving help from lecturers and friends. In contradistinction to this finding, while in the classroom, students rarely used L1 for taking notes, preparing lessons, or peer/micro-teaching. Also, for any form of formal discussion in class, only L2 was employed.

In conclusion, in an international programme such as this, where learners are required to develop a high level of English proficiency, L1 is used to support and facilitate learning and to establish relationships among group members. The speed of communication can influence the use of L1 because when the MA participants would like to make their communication flow, L1 initially takes place, regardless of the speakers' abilities. Also, the use of L1 depends on the formality of the stages of a lesson. To illustrate, the more formal the circumstance is, the less L1 is used. On the other hand, the less formal circumstance, the more L1 is used. Therefore, the more formal the stage of the lesson, such as during lectures where class attention is on the lecturer, the less L1 will be involved. Conversely, during the stages when there was less contact between lecturer and learners, such as during group discussions, lesson review and outside class discussions, L1 plays a large role.

The findings show that the benefits of using L1 are an increase in learners' level of comfort and willingness to work, an improved level of communication, clearer understanding of defined terms, and the saving of time. During group discussions, learners noted that it is easier and quicker to complete tasks using L1, and the members of the group have the same understanding. And, while doing a task, the learners had more opportunity to learn about each other by using L1, therefore, it is more easy to deal with problems while doing tasks. In regards to reading, learners suggested that L1 is used for understanding context, and then L2 is used for communication.

Thus, the drawbacks of using L1 are that the learners will miss opportunities to practice using L2, therefore, more mistakes will occur. Moreover, learners noted that for presentations when students were required to speak in L2, the overuse of L1 resulted in impeded learning and increased anxiety.

Therefore, the use of L1 in the L2 classroom, by both teachers and students, can have an overall beneficial affect on the language learning process and may even be necessary for increased comprehension and acceptance of the new language by the language learners. This use of L1 is for clarifying purposes and should not be the primary mode of communication either by the students or teacher(s) in the L2 classroom. Once an appropriate balance is achieved, the use of L1 will enhance an L2 classroom.

Implications

This study was designed to discover the perceptions of L1 use in the classroom. The results of the study have shown that instead of viewing it as an obstacle, L1 can be useful for learners to facilitate their learning. It is the intention of the researchers of this study to inform teachers that L1 can be used in the classroom for many reasons. First, L1 is a tool of communication even in a L2 classroom. Second, even with advanced users of English, L1 is employed to support their learning, especially while doing group work. Thus, the lecturer should leave space for L1 to be used in class. Finally, the use of L1 and L2 can be a part of communication as long as it can make the communication flow and can solve communication problems. Therefore, both L1 and L2 can be useful for language learners to accomplish their learning.

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A Comparative Study on Encouraging in Vietnamese and American English

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Abstract

The objective of this study is to provide an insight into how Vietnamese and American native speakers (VNS and ANS) perform the speech act of encouraging and whether there are any similarities and differences. To achieve this objective, the study examines the ways VNS and ANS verbally encourage their communicative partners in six situations, which are assigned with different social factors. Encouraging expressions are realized by the means of a discourse completion task and then categorised into nine strategies. Comparisons of the ways VNS and ANS use these strategies to perform the act of encouraging are made. The findings suggest that Vietnamese and American English have the same set of strategies to perform this speech act. However, they are different in the preference for certain strategies over the others in a particular communicative situation. Similarities and differences between the two groups in their choice and frequency of use of strategies in the six investigated situations are found. Additionally, social factors including relative power and social distance are inclined to exercise considerable influence on both groups' verbal encouragement across all the situations.

1. Introduction

1.1 Rationale

In cross-cultural contacts between the Vietnamese and Americans there appears to be a need for participants to have certain understanding of not only the target language but also the target culture to behave in an appropriate way and successfully communicate. It has been demonstrated that, without a reasonable level of cultural competence, there exists a strong likelihood of cultural conflicts and communication breakdown. As a result, studies of similarities and differences between Vietnamese and American verbal communication are of great importance.

Cross-cultural studies of encouraging have not received much attention from Vietnamese researchers and linguists. This study, which aims to examine how the Vietnamese and Americans verbally encourage their communicative partners and whether there are any similarities and differences, is conducted in the hope of making positive contributions to success in Vietnamese–American cross-cultural communication and in communicative English language teaching.

1.2 Aims

The main aims of this study are:

- to investigate how Vietnamese native speakers (VNS) perform the act of encouraging as defined in relation to the social factors assigned in certain situations;
- to investigate how American native speakers (ANS) perform the act of encouraging as defined in relation to the social factors assigned in certain situations;
- to find out if there are any prominent similarities and differences between VNS' and ANS' use of encouraging strategies in relation to the social factors assigned in the situations studied.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1 Speech acts

Actions that are performed by the use of utterances to communicate are called speech acts (Yule, 1996: 47). Searle (1976: 10-16) classifies speech acts into five categories:

- Assertives/ Representatives = speech acts that commit a speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition
- **Directives** = speech acts that are to cause the hearer to take a particular action
- **Commissives** = speech acts that commit a speaker to some future action
- **Expressives** = speech acts that express the speaker's attitudes and emotions towards the proposition
- **Declarations** = speech acts that change the reality in accord with the proposition of the declaration

Speech act type	Direction of fit	S = speaker, X = situation
Declarations	Words change the world	S causes X
Representatives	Makes words fit the world	S believes X
Expressives	Make words fit the world	S feels X
Directives	Make the world fit words	S wants X
Commisives	Make the world fit words	S intends X

Yule (1996: 55) summarizes the five general types of speech acts with their key functions as below:

Table 2.1: The five general functions of speech acts (following Searle, 1979)

Furthermore, other researchers also introduce different ways to classify speech acts. In fact, each taxonomy has its own merits. In this study, the author follows the classification of Searle (1976) and the summary of the five types of speech acts with the five certain functions given by Yule (1996).

2.2 Encouraging as a speech act

According to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of English, **to encourage** is "to give somebody support, courage or hope" (Hornby, 2000). In the light of speech act theory, encouraging is a complex speech act, which can take up to four of five types of speech acts given by Searle (1976) and Yule (1996). It can be classified as a representative (e.g. *You've clearly got talent!*), an expressive (e.g. *Great work!*), a directive (e.g. *Don't be worried, honey!*) or a commissive (e.g. *I'll stand by you.*).

2.3 Politeness in cross-cultural pragmatics

2.3.1 Definiton and theories of politeness

According to Nguyen (2006: 44), "politeness is any communicative act that is intentionally and appropriately meant to make another person/other people feel better or less bad".

There are a number of politeness theories given by various researchers such as Lakoff (1983), Leech (1983), and Brown and Levinson (1987). Brown and Levinson's theory, to which *face* is central, is considered to be one of the most influential. Brown and Levinson (1987: 66) see face as "the sense of a person's public self-image". Face consists of two aspects: positive and negative face.

In Brown and Levinson's (1987: 62) opinion, "positive face is the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others", whereas "negative face is the want of every 'competent adult member' that his actions be unimpeded by others". Politeness strategies are developed to formulate messages to save the hearer's or speaker's face when FTAs (face-threatening acts) are inevitable. Instead of suggesting politeness rules or maxims, Brown and Levinson (1987: 69) posit "form hierarchies" for speakers to implement politeness strategies, ranging from the best case (type 5 - Don't do the FTA) to the worst (type 1 - Do the FTA and go on record as doing so baldly and without redressive action):

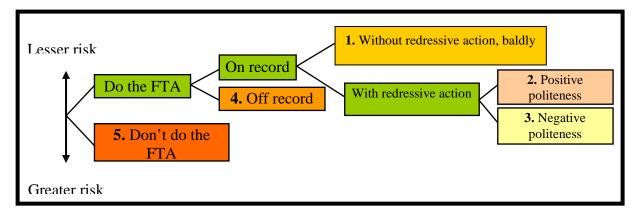


Figure 2.1. Possible strategies for doing FTAs (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 69)

Although the above schema is highly appreciated by many researchers, especially those in the West, there exists a limitation, which reduces its universality. Nguyen (2006) claims that the way Brown and Levinson (1987) number positive politeness and negative politeness indirectly shows that negative politeness strategies are considered to be "more polite" than positive ones. This may be due to the fact that negative politeness tends to be preferred in Occidental cultures. However, this way of ranking is not always true, especially in Oriental countries including Vietnam. In any culture, whether it is more appropriate to use negative or positive politeness depends on many factors. For example, it sounds too cool and strange for one person to say to his close friend: "It is my pleasure to invite you to my house to have dinner." (negative politeness). Instead, he should say something more informal like "Why don't you come and have dinner with us?" (positive politeness). What is more, asking personal questions is negatively interpreted as "inquisitive" or "poking one's nose into other people's business" in Occidental cultures, whereas it is popular in Oriental people's greeting routines and small talk, even during first meetings. For instance, two Vietnamese people who have just met for the first time on one coach can ask each other such questions as "How old are you?", "Are you married?", "How many children do you have?", "Where do you work?", "Is the salary high?", "How nice your watch is! How much did it cost?" to show their care for and interest in their communicative partner. Nguyen, therefore, introduces another version as follows:

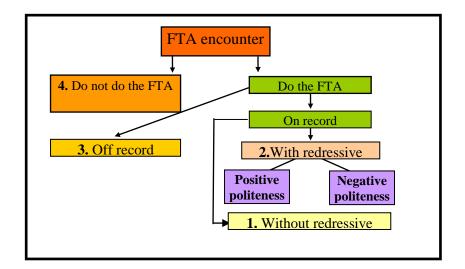


Figure 2.2. Possible strategies for doing FTAs (Nguyen, 2006: 47)

According to Nguyen (2006), positive politeness can be realised in 17 different strategies:

Strategy 1: Notice, attend to H (his interest, wants, needs, goods)

Strategy 2: Exaggerate interest, approval, sympathy with H

Strategy 3: Intensify interest to H

Strategy 4: Use in-group identity markers

Strategy 5: Seek agreement

Strategy 6: Avoid disagreement

Strategy 7: Presuppose/Raise/Assert common ground

Strategy 8: Joke

Strategy 9: Assert or presuppose S's knowledge of or concern for H's wants

Strategy 10: Offer/Promise

Strategy 11: Be optimistic

Strategy 12: Include both S and H in the activity

Strategy 13: Give (or ask for) reasons

Strategy 14: Assume or assert reciprocity

Strategy 15: Give gifts to H

Strategy 16: Comfort and encourage

Strategy 17: Ask personal questions

As for negative politeness, there are eleven strategies:

Strategy 1: Be conventionally indirect

Strategy 2: Question/Hedge

Strategy 3: Be pessimistic

Strategy 4: Minimize the imposition

Strategy 5: Give deference

Strategy 6: Apologize

Strategy 7: Impersonalize S and H

Strategy 8: State the FTA as a general rule

Strategy 9: Nominalize

Strategy 10: Redress other wants of H's

Strategy 11: Avoid asking personal questions

With regard to positive politeness, encouraging is a speech act which is intended to show that the speaker cares about the hearer. Nevertheless, in utterances of encouraging, negative politeness strategies are also employed. For example, in the utterance "Sir, you are one of the best performers in this company.", negative politeness strategy 5 - showing deference - is used. Hence, for the sake of convenience in analysing encouraging utterances, this study is not intended to investigate whether the speech act of encouraging is more positive or negative politeness oriented. Instead, the author categorises collected utterrances into different encouraging strategies to reflect the specificity of the data.

2.3.2 Social variables affecting politeness

When we interact with other people, there are a number of factors influencing the realization of speech acts. Brown and Levinson (1987: 74) propose three independent variables which have a systematic impact on the choice of appropriate politeness strategies in performing an FTA in a given context:

- The relative 'power' (P) of S and H (an asymmetric relation)
- The 'social distance' (D) of S and H (a symmetric relation)
- The absolute ranking (R) of imposition in the particular culture These three variables are interpreted by Brown and Levinson (1987: 76-78) as follows:

The relative power (P) is "the degree to which H can impose his own plans and his own selfevaluation (face) at the expense of S's plans and self-evaluation". Generally, there are two sources of P: material control and metaphysical control.

The social distance (D) is "a symmetric social dimension of similarity/difference within which S and H stand for the purposes of this act". In many situations, D is based on an evaluation of the frequency of interaction and the types of material and non-material goods (including face) between S and H.

The absolute ranking (R) of imposition, which is culturally and situationally defined, is measured based on the degree of interference with an agent's wants of self-determination (his negative-face wants) or of approval (his positive-face wants).

In brief, the three sociological factors P, D and R are, beyond doubt, "crucial in determining the level of politeness" (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 15) which a S will use to a H.

3. Methodology and Data

3.1 Data collection instruments

The data collection instrument is a written questionnaire – the Discourse Completion Task (DCT), which was designed to elicit encouraging utterances from the VNS and ANS.

The DCT consists of six situations based on the author's experience, films, novels, and interviews with some VNS and ANS. These situations are common in reality and encouragement in these cases is considered to be of great value to Hs.

In the six selected situations, various constellations of P, D, and R are reflected. As R is kept at a constantly high level (S finds it really necessary to offer their encouragement to H), there are six constellations corresponding with the six situations, which can be seen in Appendix A.

1. +P, –D: situation 1	3. = P, -D: situation 3	5. –P, –D: situation 4
2. +P, =D: situation 2	4. =P, =D: situation 6	6. $-P$, $=D$: situation 5

Note: +P: S has a higher rank, title or social status than H

- =P: S and H are of equal rank, title or social status
- -P: S has a lower rank, title or social status than H
- =D: S and H are acquaintances. They are relatively familiar with each other. They do not know much about each other. They may be colleagues, school friends, etc.
- -D: S and H are intimates. They are really close to each other. They may be family members, lovers, close friends, etc.
- (+D (S and H are strangers) is not used in this study as strangers are less likely to encourage each other.)

3.2 Informants

The questionnaires were delivered to two groups of informants either directly or via email. The first group consisted of 30 Vietnamese native speakers, who are studying, working and/or living in Hanoi, Nam Dinh and Thai Nguyen, the three provinces/cities in northern Vietnam. The second group was comprised of 30 Americans, some of whom are living in the U.S. while some are working in Vietnam. The informants' ages ranged from 21 to 60. They came from all walks of life with different marital status, residential areas, levels of education, and acquisition of foreign languages. The number of males and females were unequal; however, the difference was kept at an as-low-as-possible level.

3.3 Data collection procedure

The DCT was distributed to the two groups of informants: the Vietnamese version to 30 Vietnamese native speakers and the English version to 30 American native speakers. The informants were asked to write down exactly what they would say directly in each situation to encourage their communicative partners. Sixty completed questionnaires were then collected and analysed. Encouraging strategies were realized. The results of the statistical analysis will be reported in the next part.

4. Data Analysis and Results

4.1 Realisation of encouraging strategies

Encouraging is a complicated speech act. To perform the act of encouraging, the speaker, in fact, may utilise the same strategy more than once and employ a set of strategies rather than a single one for a situation. For instance, one American encourages their colleague, who has just been discovered to have cancer stage 1: "That is really hard time for you. I'm very sorry. I know this is really overwhelming (*showing understanding and sympathy*). But you have to look into your treatment options (*giving advice*). Don't be too miserable (*alleviating H's hard feelings*). How can I help you (*offering help*)? "

Following is the author's own classification of nine encouraging strategies. The examples are taken from the DCT. Vietnamese examples are followed by their English translation.

Strategy 1: Alleviating H's hard feelings

This strategy is employed due to the fact that one's spirits play a pivotal role in their performance and success. Once they can rid themselves of worry, weariness, and hesitation, their spirits are lifted, their motivation is strengthened, they feel optimistic, confident, energetic, and ready to go ahead.

Vietnamese	English
+ Cố lên em, không có gì đâu! (Try more,	+ Don't worry, it is just a test.
it's nothing!)	+ Try to clear out mind and not worry.
+ Anh yêu ốc gắng lên nhé! (Honey, try	
more!)	

Strategy 2: Offering help or reward

In this strategy, S want to demonstrate their cooperation with H, their understanding of H's situation, their willingness to share difficulties, and their genuine appreciation for H's work.

Vietnamese	English
+ Để em đi pha cho anh một cốc cà phê cho	+ Listen, I'll be praying for you.
tỉnh ngủ nhé. (Let me give you a cup of	+ I'll provide some time off in
coffee to get out of sleep.)	compensation.
+ Mình sẵn sàng thưởng cho các bạn một kì	+ Is there anything I can do to help? Would
nghỉ 5 ngày ở Nha Trang khi chúng ta	you like some coffee?
xong vệc. (I'm willing to give you a	
five-day vacation in Nha Trang when	
we've finished work.)	

Strategy 3: Giving advice

S give their opinions about what H should think, do, or behave in their situation for a bright outlook.

Vietnamese	English
+ Hãy tin tưởng vào bản thân mình và làm	+ Make sure you prepare thoroughly.
tốt nhé. (Believe in yourself and do fine.)	+ You need to go talk to a doctor.
+ Đừng có như thế, phải dũng cảm mà	+ Hey buddy, study hard as you can and
chiến đấu với bệnh tật chứ. (Don't be	then do your best.
like that, you must be brave to struggle	
with the disease.)	

Strategy 4: Predicting bright prospect

By painting a rosy picture of the future, S tends to give H more inner strength, hope, and belief. S may express their confidence in H's good qualities and abilities. This strategy also makes H feel what they will achieve is really worth their all-out efforts.

English
+ I'm sure you will do well on the test.
+ Chances are very likely that you'll be
back to normal very soon.

Strategy 5: Complimenting H

By speaking highly of H, S mean to make H ooze with confidence, which is essential to their success. Although H may know they are being extolled to the skies, they feel so happy with S's affection and care for them.

Vietnamese	English
 + vì n là người mẹ tốt nhất trên đời này. ('cause you're the best mom in the world.) + Anh yêu, anh là ngừ chồng thật tuyệt vời. (Honey, you're a wonderful 	 + You are really the best for this job and the company. + If I may, I want you to know that you have been a great leader to our department.
husband.)	

Strategy 6: Showing understanding and sympathy

S wants to show that they can penetrate H's present situation and feelings. Thanks to this strategy, H may feel that they have a close companion whom they can put all their trust in.

Vietnamese	English
+ Em biết anh rất mệt mỏi để có một vị trí	+ I know this coming exam is very
cao hơn trong ãx hội. (I know you're	important, and you are doing the right
worn out to gain a higher position in	thing to work hard.
society.)	+ I know that you're very worried now. I
+ Chi à, em biết chị đang rất lo lắng. Em	myself experienced this feeling last year
hiểu cảm giác đó lắm chứ. (Sister, I	when
know you're very worried now. I really	
understand that feeling.)	

Strategy 7: Reminding H's responsibility

This strategy helps to recall H's commitments on their family, relatives or organization. Realizing how important they are, H can find out justification for living, striving, and progressing.

Vietnamese	English
+ Mày mà chết ai nuôi con cho mày? (You	+ If you have contributions you want to
die, who raise your kids?)	make to society, you must do everything
+ Sếp thăng chức là giúp ích cho cả công ty	in your power to get well and secure the
chứ có phải chỉ cho sếp đâu. Sếp lên cho	amount of time you need.
người ta đỡ tranh giành nhau nữa. (Your	+ You guys need to do this right or the
promotion is to benefit the whole	company will fall.
company, not only yourself.)	

Strategy 8: Suggesting things to do

By mooting an idea, S want to show their concern about H and intend to help H to reach the right solution or at least to relieve stress. The plan proposed may involve both H and S. In this strategy, S can also express their wish for something to be done.

Vietnamese	English
+ Bạn mình là một bác sĩ rất giỏi từng đi du	+ I know several people who had the same
học Mỹ về, chúng mình cùng đến đó	thing (cancer); you can meet them if you
nhé! (My friend is a good doctor, who	want to.
have studied in America. Let's go there.)	+ For now, let's work as a team and really
+ Chúng ta hãy cùngố gắng hết mình.	support each other in doing the best we
(Let's try our best.)	can.

Strategy 9: Stating facts

S may talk about general rules in life or reality, which seem to give H more courage, determination, and confidence.

Vietnamese	English
+ Bình tĩnh là chiến thắng một nửa. (Being	+ The best way to reduce anxiety is to be
calm is half of victory.)	well-prepared.
+ Vàng thật không sợ lửa. (Real gold isn't	+ Worrying takes mental energy you need
afraid of flame.)	to do well in the exam.

Based on the above classification of encouraging strategies, comparisons of the overall use of strategies, and the use of strategies by the two social variables P and D between VNS and ANS are evaluated and interpreted with the help of Exel functions.

4.2 Overall use of strategies

Stuatogy	VNS (r	n=30)	Stuatogy	ANS (n=30)		
Strategy	Frequency Percent		Strategy	Frequency	Percent	
(1) Alleviating H's hard feelings	93	22%	(3) Giving advice	102	22%	
(3) Giving advice	89	21%	(4) Predicting bright prospect	102	22%	
(4) Predicting bright prospect	74	17.5%	(9) Stating facts	77	17%	
(9) Stating facts	52	12%	(2) Offering help or reward	55	12%	
(2) Offering help or reward	42	10%	(5) Complimenting H	35	7.5%	
(5) Complimenting H	28	7%	(1) Alleviating H's hard feelings	32	7%	
(8) Suggesting things to do	19	4.5%	(8) Suggesting things to do	21	4.5%	
(7) Reminding H's responsibility	16	4%	(7) Reminding H's responsibility	18	4%	
(6) Showing understanding and sympathy	10	2%	(6) Showing understanding and sympathy	17	4%	

Table 4.1. Frequency of preferred strategies for VNS and ANS

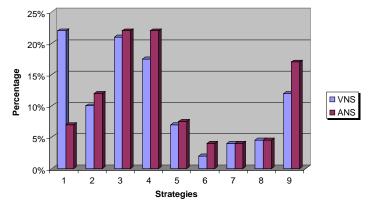


Figure 4.1. Frequency of overall strategies for VNS and ANS

<u>Note</u>: (1) Alleviating H's hard feelings, (2) Offering help or reward, (3) Giving advice, (4) Predicting bright prospect, (5) Complimenting H, (6) Showing understanding and sympathy, (7) Reminding H's responsibility, (8) Suggesting things to do, (9) Stating facts

Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1 show the distribution of the nine encouraging strategies employed by VNS and ANS across the six investigated situations. Interestingly enough, strategies 6, 7, and 8 were the least, second least, and third least frequently used strategies respectively in both groups VNS and ANS. What is more, strategies 3, 4, 9, 2, and 5 were utilised with decreasing frequency in both groups of informants. Nevertheless, there was a large gap between the frequency of strategy 1 in VNS group and that in its counterpart. While strategy 1, followed by strategy 3, was the most common strategy utilised by VNS, ANS do not often use the strategy of alleviating H's hard feelings when giving verbal encouragement. Strategy 3 and strategy 4 were the most popular among ANS instead. Besides, VNS were inclined to use strategies 1 and 3 with approximately equivalent frequency, whereas ANS employed strategies 3 and 4 evenly across all the six situations.

4.3 Use of strategies by social variables

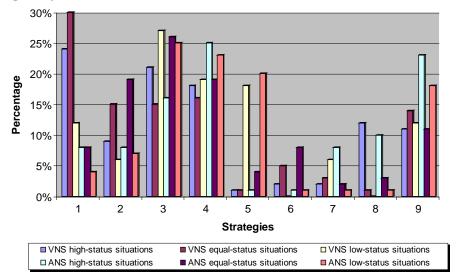


Figure 4.2. Frequency of strategies by power for VNS and ANS

<u>Note</u>: (1) Alleviating H's hard feelings, (2) Offering help or reward, (3) Giving advice, (4) Predicting bright prospect, (5) Complimenting H, (6) Showing understanding and sympathy, (7) Reminding H's responsibility, (8) Suggesting things to do, (9) Stating facts

One notable similarity between the two groups is that strategy 5 was mainly employed by people of lower social status for those of higher social status rather than by people of equal/higher social status for their communicative partners, whereas strategy 8 appeared with a much higher frequency in high-status situations than in equal-status and low-status ones. Following are some typical examples:

Strategy 5 (Complimenting H):

TV-contest situation: (a child to their mother)

- + Con trông mẹ vẫn trẻ và quyến rũ mà! (You look still young and attractive!)
- + You are wonderful!

Competition-for-promotion situation: (an employee to their head of department)

- + Trưởng phòng là niềm tự hào của tất cả chúng em. (You are our pride.)
- + You're the best boss I've ever had.

Strategy 8 (Suggesting things to do):

Important-package-deal situation: (a manager to their department's staff)

- + Ta hãy đồng tâm, làm việc nghiêm túc. (Let's be unanimous and work seriously.)
- + We will work together to accomplish the task at hand.

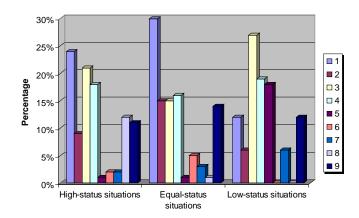


Figure 4.3. Frequency of strategies by power for VNS

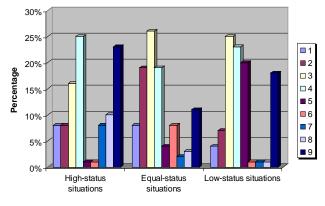


Figure 4.4. Frequency of strategies by power for ANS

<u>Note</u>: (1) Alleviating H's hard feelings, (2) Offering help or reward, (3) Giving advice, (4) Predicting bright prospect, (5) Complimenting H, (6) Showing understanding and sympathy, (7) Reminding H's responsibility, (8) Suggesting things to do, (9) Stating facts

It is also apparent from Figure 4.3 and Figure 4.4 that for VNS strategy 1 and strategy 3 were most frequently used in the high-status situations; strategy 1 was also most often employed in the equalstatus situations; and strategy 3 was the most popular in the low-status situations. On the other hand, ANS most favoured strategy 4 and strategy 9 in the high-status situations; strategy 3 in the equalstatus situations; and strategies 3 and 4 in the remaining situations.

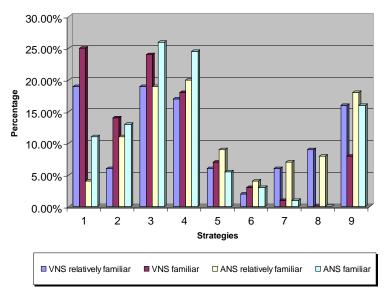


Figure 4.5. Frequency of strategies by social distance for VNS and ANS

<u>Note</u>: (1) Alleviating H's hard feelings, (2) Offering help or reward, (3) Giving advice, (4) Predicting bright prospect, (5) Complimenting H, (6) Showing understanding and sympathy, (7) Reminding H's responsibility, (8) Suggesting things to do, (9) Stating facts

As shown in Table C6a, and Table C6b (Appendix B), overall both VNS and ANS utilized more strategies when encouraging acquaintances than when encouraging intimates. Figure 4.5 indicates that both VNS and ANS used strategies 7, 8 and 9 more frequently for relatively familiar communicative partners than for familiar ones, whereas strategies 1, 2, 3, and 4 are employed more often in familiar situations than in relatively familiar ones for both VNS and ANS. There were differences in the use of the two remaining strategies. While ANS more favoured strategy 5 and strategy 6 in encouraging relatively familiar people, VNS employed these strategies more often for familiar ones.

In sum, social variables, including social status and social distance, have a profound effect on the choice of encouraging strategies for both VNS and ANS.

5. Conclusion

The objective of this study was to provide an insight into how VNS and ANS perform the speech act of encouraging. More specifically, the study aims at answering the questions of how VNS and ANS perform the act of encouraging and how they are similar to and different from each other in their use of encouraging strategies in relation to the social factors assigned in the situations studied.

The data were collected from two groups of informants (30 VNS and 30 ANS) via the DCT, which helped to elicit the informants' encouraging expressions in the six situations. The collected expressions were then categorized into nine encouraging strategies. Data analysis was done with the help of Exel software.

The findings of the study suggest that in general, all the nine strategies are utilised by both groups. VNS and ANS are similar in that on average they both employ at least two strategies and may utilize the same strategy more than once for a situation. The frequency of use of each strategy varies across situations with different constellations of P and D. Two other important similarities between VNS and ANS are that for both groups showing understanding and sympathy is among the least common strategies while giving advice is among the most frequently used ones. Additionally, relative power and social distance produce considerable effects on both groups' verbal encouragement across all the situations. Interestingly enough, both VNS and ANS tend to use Complimenting H more often for their superiors than for those of equal or lower power whereas Suggesting things to do is used mostly by higher-power speakers. Besides, both groups seem to give advice to their intimates more freely than to their acquaitances. This may be due to the fact that they are afraid of being thought to be patronizing and imposing their opinions on their their communicative partners of not very close relationship. What is more, the findings support the common belief that ANS give compliments more frequently than VNS in particular and Eastern people in general. Also, ANS tend to be more future-oriented with higher frequency of use of Predicting bright prospect than VNS.

The findings of the study may serve as guidance for teaching English as a foreign language to Vietnamese native speakers. It is necessary for language teachers and learners to be fully aware that encouraging is a common but complex speech act which is realized by different strategies and performed differently by VNS and ANS. In order to help their learners to perform a speech act appropriately and effectively, teachers of English should teach language forms and functions contextually in specific situations.

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APPENDICES APPENDIX A: DISCOURSE COMPLETION TASK (DCT) SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

(For American informants)

This survey is designed for my research entitled "A Comparative Study on Encouraging in Vietnamese and American English". Your assistance in completing the following items is highly appreciated. You can be assured that this questionnaire is for research purpose only, and that you will not be identified in any discussion of the data. Thank you very much for your help.

Please read the situations and write down EXACTLY what you would say DIRECTLY in a normal conversation.

1. Your son is going to take an important exam. He is very worried. You encourage him. *You say:*

..... 2. You are the manager. Your department has signed a big package deal with an important partner. However, in order to complete it, the whole department will have to work with all their might in the coming month. You encourage your department's staff. You sav: 3. Your husband/wife is very busy these days because besides working at the office during office hours, he/she takes an evening course and is in a hurry to prepare for the coming exam. Despite being so tired, he/she still has to stay up late to study. You encourage him/her. You say: 4. Your mother is asked to take part in a TV contest for the retired. She hesitates to do it as she lacks self-confidence and is afraid it is time-consuming. You encourage her. You sav: 5. Your head of department is among some leaders of the company who are considered to be granted promotion. You believe in his ability but realize that he seems to be discouraged and weary due to his rivals' unfair competition. You encourage him. You say: 6. Your colleague has just been discovered to have cancer stage 1. He/she is severely depressed. You know that his/her disease can still be cured. You encourage him/her. You say:

APPENDIX B: FREQUENCY ANALYSIS FOR VNS AND ANS

	High (+P)	Equal (=P)	Low (-P)	Total
VNS (n=30)	32% (135)	34% (144)	34% (144)	100% (423)
ANS (n=30)	34% (155)	36% (167)	30% (137)	100% (459)

Table C1. Frequency of number of strategies by power (P) for VNS and ANS

 Table C2. Frequency of number of strategies by social distance (D) for VNS and ANS

	Equal (=D)	Low (-D)	Total
VNS (n=30)	52% (221)	48% (202)	100% (423)
ANS (n=30)	53% (243)	47% (216)	100% (459)

Table C3. Frequency of number of strategies in situations for VNS and ANS

	Important exam	Important package deal	Busy spouse	TV contest	Competition for promotion	Cancer stage 1	Total
VNS	16%	16%	14%	17%	17%	20%	100%
(n=30)	(67)	(68)	(61)	(74)	(70)	(83)	(423)
ANS	15%	18%	17%	15%	15%	20%	100%
(n=30)	(71)	(84)	(77)	(68)	(69)	(90)	(459)

Table C4. Frequency of overall use of strategies for VNS and ANS

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Total
VNS (n=30)	22% (93)	10% (42)	21% (89)	17.5 % (74)	7% (28)	2% (10)	4% (16)	4.5% (19)	12% (52)	100% (423)
ANS	7%	12%	22%	22%	7.5%	4%	4%	4.5%	17%	100%
(n=30)	(32)	(55)	(102)	(102)	(35)	(17)	(18)	(21)	(77)	(459)

Note: (1) Alleviating H's hard feelings, (2) Offering help or reward, (3) Giving advice, (4) Predicting bright prospect, (5) Complimenting H, (6) Showing understanding and sympathy, (7) Reminding H's responsibility, (8) Suggesting things to do, (9) Stating facts

Table C5a. Frequency of use of strategies by power (P) for VNS

VNS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Total
(n=3										
0)										
+ P	24%	9%	21%	18%	1%	2%	2%	12%	11%	100%
	(32)	(12)	(28)	(24)	(1)	(3)	(3)	(17)	(15)	(135)
=P	30%	15%	15%	16%	1%	5%	3%	1%	14%	100%
	(43)	(21)	(22)	(23)	(1)	(7)	(5)	(2)	(20)	(144)
-P	12%	6%	27%	19%	18%	0%	6%	0%	12%	100%
	(18)	(9)	(39)	(27)	(26)	(0)	(8)	(0)	(17)	(144)

<u>Note</u>: (1) Alleviating H's hard feelings, (2) Offering help or reward, (3) Giving advice, (4) Predicting bright prospect, (5) Complimenting H, (6) Showing understanding and sympathy, (7) Reminding H's responsibility, (8) Suggesting things to do, (9) Stating facts

ANS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Total
(n=3										
0)										
+ P	8%	8%	16%	25%	1%	1%	8%	10%	23%	100%
	(13)	(13)	(25)	(39)	(1)	(1)	(13)	(15)	(35)	(155)
=P	8%	19%	26%	19%	4%	8%	2%	3%	11%	100%
	(13)	(32)	(43)	(32)	(6)	(14)	(4)	(5)	(18)	(167)
-P	4%	7%	25%	23%	20%	1%	1%	1%	18%	100%
	(6)	(10)	(34)	(31)	(28)	(2)	(1)	(1)	(24)	(137)

Table C5b. Frequency of use of strategies by power (P) for ANS

<u>Note</u>: (1) Alleviating H's hard feelings, (2) Offering help or reward, (3) Giving advice, (4) Predicting bright prospect, (5) Complimenting H, (6) Showing understanding and sympathy, (7) Reminding H's responsibility, (8) Suggesting things to do, (9) Stating facts

Table C6a. Frequency of use of strategies by social distance (D) for VNS

VNS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Total
(n=3										
0)										
=D	19%	6%	19%	17%	6%	2%	6%	9%	16%	100%
	(42)	(14)	(41)	(38)	(14)	(4)	(13)	(19)	(36)	(221)
-D	25%	14%	24%	18%	7%	3%	1%	0%	8%	100%
	(51)	(28)	(48)	(36)	(14)	(6)	(3)	(0)	(16)	(202)

<u>Note</u>: (1) Alleviating H's hard feelings, (2) Offering help or reward, (3) Giving advice, (4) Predicting bright prospect, (5) Complimenting H, (6) Showing understanding and sympathy, (7) Reminding H's responsibility, (8) Suggesting things to do, (9) Stating facts

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ANS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Total
(n=3										
0)										
=D	4%	11%	19%	20%	9%	4%	7%	8%	18%	100%
	(9)	(27)	(46)	(49)	(23)	(10)	(16)	(20)	(43)	(243)
-D				24.5						
	11%	13%	26%	%	5.5%	3%	1%	0%	16%	100%
	(23)	(28)	(56)	(53)	(12)	(7)	(2)	(1)	(34)	(216)

Table C6b. Frequency of use of strategies by social distance (D) for ANS

<u>Note</u>: (1) Alleviating H's hard feelings, (2) Offering help or reward, (3) Giving advice, (4) Predicting bright prospect, (5) Complimenting H, (6) Showing understanding and sympathy, (7) Reminding H's responsibility, (8) Suggesting things to do, (9) Stating facts

A Study of Thai Translators in Japanese Public Service Translation

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Introduction

The field of public service translation (PST) in Japan is currently being called upon to increase its quantity of research in Translation Studies, a circumstance largely due to the increase of migration to the country. The number of foreign residents is also increasing in Japan, and the role played by PST has been increasing in significance. However, the concept of PST has hardly been investigated until recent years in Japanese society.

The 'Internalization' of Japan began approximately two decades ago in the late 1980s, when the local governments announced their policies for the so-called 'international exchange'. A few of the main tasks of these policies included raising the number of foreign students in Japan, founding 'local international exchange associations' and creating sister affiliations with cities and towns overseas. These policies, however, failed to look upon foreign residents living in Japan as citizens of recognize their communities. This is why it can be said that at that time there was no recognition of the need to provide these foreign residents with multilingual living information.

In the past 20 years the number of foreign residents who, for various reasons, have decided to live permanently in Japan has grown. Just as the Japanese citizens, theses foreigners, too, naturally need to fulfill the same obligations and have the same rights. The growing number of foreign residents in Japan has resulted in an increased demand for PST. However, PST does not equally cover the whole country or meet different kinds of demands from the foreign residents who lack the ability to communicate in Japanese (Tegtmeyer 2000). Thus, the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications decided upon the 'The Promotion Plan for Multicultural Society' since 2006.

The new policy acknowledged the need to provide the foreign residents with multilingual information in order to facilitate their full and equal access to public service. Language support has been conducted by translators in PST as a public service, but little attention has hitherto been paid to their existence.

The study follows previous research into PST focusing on minor languages, mainly the studies by Cronin (1995) and by Branchadell and Margaret (2002). Research focusing on the translator's role in PST has been conducted by Toledano (2010) or by Angelelli (2004) and following other contributions such as Corsellis (2008) and Valero-Garcés (2010).

1. Purpose

PST in Japan cannot be called a systematized process, rather, it is conducted by translators volunteering for NGOs or local non-profit organizations (Ozolins, 2010). Some of these translators are motivated by the altruistic need to help others. The translation process includes more agents than only translator: the translators cooperate with coordinators representing the user party and translation checkers, so the translator is not left alone to the completion of the translation process.

In some cases, translators are believed to have direct personal relations with the recipients without the user as an agent in between. Although such relations would be considered contract violations in the commercially oriented translation setting, in case of PST, they may play a crucial role in the translation process. However, research on personal relations between translators and both recipients and users is still scarce and so they are far from being well understood.

The aims of this paper are to examine, on the basis of qualitative interviews with Thai-Japanese translators: (1) the translators' awareness of PST and their own role through language support provided to the foreign residents; and (2) to illustrate the relationship between the translators and both the users and the service recipients. This paper specifies case studies of PST support of the Thai community, who translate information related to public services into Thai.

The number of registered Thai residents in Japan has been increasing since the 1980s and reached 40,000 persons in 2010 (see Ministry of Justice, http://www.moj.go.jp/) (see figure 1). However, if compared to the general number of registered foreigners in 2010 (2,134,151), they constitute merely 1.9% of this number and so, may be called a minority within the foreign community of Japan. Due to these facts, translation into Thai has a rather low priority in the multilingualization process of public information (Yamamoto, 2011). This shows, however, that in order for Thai residents with insufficient Japanese proficiency to have access to public information, the linguistic support is crucial and the translators specializing in such 'minor' languages as Thai play a significant role.

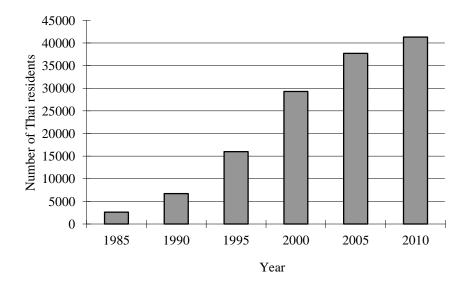


Figure 1 Trend of the total number of Thai residents registered

2. Methodology

The data were collected as follows: semi-structured interviews were conducted with respondents, who had been recruited using the snowball sampling strategy. The respondents of the interviews fulfill the following criteria: they have been involved in translation as a public service between the late 1980s and the present and are at least 20 years of age. This method is used in cases in which the population is difficult to determine and random sampling of the respondents cannot be applied in accordance with Flick (2009). However, the study is limited to cases in which persons introducing the respondents have actually met them in person and a rapport between them has been established.

The interviews, which took approximately one hour, were conducted on the basis of a questionnaire previously sent to the participants, taking ethical matters into consideration. The interviews were recorded with an IC-recorder after explaining to the respondents the purpose of the interview and informing them that the confidentiality of privileged information would be kept, and receiving their consent. The data were collected from the end of September until the end of November 2011.

The interviews were constructed of nine themes and 22 topics. In this paper, however, only respondents who deal with translation into Thai and the following three out of the total of 22 topics will be discussed:

Question no. 1: How did you first get involved with translation as a public service?Question no. 2: What do you think the clients feel about your role?Question no. 3: Have you noticed any change in your personal relations due to your involvement in translation as a public service?

To analyze the data, the method of qualitative contents analysis has been applied in accordance with Altheide (1996). First, the contents of the recorded interviews were transcribed and a basic data text was drawn up. Out of individual cases and content of what the respondents had stated during the interviews, elements crucial to the purpose of the study were extracted and code units were implemented to the contextual units. Afterwards, data regarding the respondents' motivation for involvement in the translation work and the views on their own role, as well as their relations with the users and recipients, were analyzed in accordance with the topics of the study.

3. Findings

In this chapter, the results of the semi-structured interviews will be presented and examined. The data gained through the interviews have been analyzed by applying units to contents of the information transcribed verbatim from the recording device. The respondents' comments were spoken in Japanese and they have been translated into English.

3.1 Attributes of the respondents

There were 19 respondents in the study, both male (3) and female (16), aged between 20 and 50. First, the respondents filled in a questionnaire and then the attributes of their translation work were examined. Based on the country of origin, the Japanese were a majority: six persons, the next most numerous were Thai (4), then Chinese (3) and Koreans (2). There was also one respondent from each of the following countries: Indonesia, the Philippines, Brazil and Peru. The language combined most with Japanese in translation was Thai (5 persons), then Chinese (4), Filipino (3), English (2), Korean (2) and Spanish (2). There was one translator working with Japanese and one of the following languages: Indonesian, Portuguese and Russian.

In this paper, as has already been mentioned above, the focus was put on the five translators out of the total number of 19, who work between Japanese and Thai. Table 1 presents the main fields and types of translation with which each translator works, such as: documents presented to the official authorities in the administrative setting, textbooks in the educational setting and everyday life information in the international exchange setting.

	First Language	Main working setting in PST
Translator 1	Thai	Administration setting
Translator 2	Thai	Educational setting
Translator 3	Thai	Administration & International Exchange setting
Translator 4	Thai	International Exchange setting
Translator 5	Japanese	Legal & Educational setting

Table 1 Profile of PST translators

3.2 Translators' motivation and visibility

How do the translators actually feel about their involvement in the translation work? One of the interviewed translators realizes that their work does indeed have an impact on the society and feels the responsibility as well as the meaningfulness of their work. The following is a comment on the translator's role made by this respondent, who engaged in translating vital information at the time of the 2011 earthquake and tsunami:

Even though it's only volunteer work, I feel strong responsibility for what I do. After all, in times of emergency, many people depend on and act based on the information that I provide through my translation.

Through their work, this translator feels a strong bond with society and can deepen their contribution to society by what they do. Thanks to the media, much of the information translated into multiple languages is now available also to people who up until now did not feel the need for such information, which provides them with opportunities to gain not only information regarding everyday life but also their rights and obligations. Therefore, it has become more apparent that information translated into multiple languages is a necessary and irreplaceable part of public services. However, there still is no way for members of the society to know who has translated any particular piece of information.

The next translator strongly believes that there is a need for visibility in the translation process. The following is a comment by this translator, who is usually involved in translation in the educational setting:

Translators need to be responsible for the effects of their work, even if they do it as volunteers. It doesn't have to be the name of the particular translator, the name of the group or the organization that the translator belongs to can also be used. I think it would be good both for the translators' responsibility as well as their motivation.

This translator believes that by indicating the name of the translator or the organization they are

involved with, the translators will feel more responsibility and motivation towards their work. Even though many translators work for free as volunteers, they still want to feel personal satisfaction and pride for what they do. Visibility could be useful in helping to build up their careers as well. Thus, by indicating the name of the translator or the organization, the existence of the translators becomes clearer both to the members of the society and the translators themselves, and allows both parties to feel a strong bond connecting them.

Such visibility of the translators in the society can also promote their ethical behavior. In the cases of minor languages, such as Thai, due to limited human resources involved in the translation process, very often there is no one to play the role of the translation checker except the translators themselves. The potential recipients of information translated into Thai are expected to be few, so it is difficult to grasp the recipients' profile or to predict their response to the translated text. Also, the ethics of the translator may come into question. Of course one needs to consider the issue of privacy of the translator if their name were to be made public for every piece of information they translate, however, some form of visibility is worth promoting and considering as a means of improving regulations and ethical awareness of the translators working in Japan, where translation as a public service is yet to be systematized.

3.3 Characteristics of relationships between translators and recipients

In this paragraph, characteristics of relationships between translators working in the public service field and recipients will be examined.

In Japan, translation as a public service is mostly provided by locally established cultural exchange associations at a local level because of the political background of 'internalization'. There are also some organizations that together with these associations provide free multilingual services. For instance, The Council of Local Authorities for International Relations (CLAIR) has published a "Multilingual Information Manual for Publishing 1", which describes an editorial policy and contains notes on translation, in order to support the promotion of the multilingualization of information for local governments.

Should an individual client need linguistic support, translators receive a request from an intermediary agent and the source client is expected to cover the translation fee. However, as can be observed in the following comment by a translator, many of the translators have relationships with the recipients also in their private lives:

I'm friends with some of the recipients on Facebook. We sometimes even meet to eat outside of work – that's when they ask for me to translate something. I can't say I'm close friends with any of them, though. Generally, it's not advisable exchange phone numbers with the recipients.

One of the characteristics of relationships between the translators and the recipients is the fact that they are very often based on social networking services such as Facebook or Google+. For example, if a translator is a registered Facebook user, they can easily receive online friend requests from recipients, who know their name. Such forms of establishing a relationship is much easier than having to ask for the translator's cell phone number face-to-face.

Why do the recipients feel the need to establish personal relationships with translators even in their private lives? Such relationships are not merely pursuing friendships with translators; very often the recipient's purpose is to have someone in Japanese society whom they can rely on when in need of linguistic support. This situation may also be influenced by the fact that for minor languages, such as Thai, the priority for mulitilingualization of public information is rather low, and many local authorities simply do not provide such information in these languages. The next comment by one of the translators, who mainly works in the administrative setting, shows that Japanese and Thai recipients have different expectations towards the translators:

When I'm asked to translate something by a Japanese, it's usually only business. Request from Thais, on the other hand, tend to be followed by requests of helping or advising them on other matters. Talking on the phone with Thai people tends to take much longer, too.

If one has nobody in Japan who would understand Thai, whom should one rely on in order to get the necessary information? It is believed, then, that maintaining a relationship even in one's private life with translators, who can be relied upon for a piece of advice in case of an emergency, gives recipients peace of mind. Therefore, it is clear that for Thai recipients the translators are expected to play a role of both a source of information and counselors.

3.4 Characteristics of relationships between translators and users

In this part, the researcher would like to examine the characteristics of the translator-user relationships. All five respondents of the interviews have experience of translating in the commercial setting. It seems that they realize differences between commercial and PST translation with regards to the translator-user relations. What these differences are, exactly, can be surmised from the following comment:

Users feel grateful for the work of the volunteer translators and so, the relationship between them is even better than if it was a regular business relationship. Thanks to this, I was able to build a relationship with users based on trust and understanding.

It is clear that the users' respect and gratitude towards the translators is a result of their mutual understanding and trust. Some translators may believe that the translation fees they receive are a

form of confirmation of their skills. However, they still make a clear distinction between commercial and public service translation. Users, on their part, feel it is important to build and maintain good relations with their translators, too. The next comment on partnership makes it clear that the translators are of great value to users, especially for minor languages such as Thai, in case of which, human resources are very limited:

I feel that users and we, translators, treat one another as equal partners. And since it's hard to find someone to translate between Japanese and Thai, we're able to build friendly relationships.

It may be indicated that one of the reasons for good translator-user relations and treating one another as equal partners is that finding a Japanese-Thai translator is not an easy task. The ill-balanced situation of the translation market can be well observed in the examples of languages such as English or Chinese, for which the demands are significant. The market demands for Thai, on the other hand, are rather small and so Thai can be called 'a niche language'. This situation, however, is not limited to Japan only. Even in Thailand institutions training Thai-Japanese interpreters and translators are practically non-existent. One of the common challenges for Thai and other minor languages is to deal with the insufficient human resources in relation to translators in a reality, where no translation training for these languages is being conducted.

Such insufficient human resources for minor languages are particularly burdensome in emergency situations, when a heavy workload needs to be borne by a limited number of translators. The next translator indicates that the users should be more aware of the workload that the translators need to bare in emergency situations:

I was requested by two different agencies to translate the same information regarding an emergency situation. Since it was an emergency situation, a lot of work had to be completed on that day, so as a translator I would really appreciate it, if users realized a little bit more how much work and effort the translation process requires.

In emergency situations, the workload for particular translator becomes significantly heavier and this translator feels that the users should request translation bearing this in mind. It is also possible that the user felt distress when forced to rely on this particular translator. However, this situation may have resulted in worsening of the trust-based translator-user relations. The users' dependency on translators is significant, and so, when the demand for minor languages increases, it is much easier for them to rely on a particular translator, which leads to a considerably heavier workload of the translator.

4. Conclusion

Throughout this paper, the researcher has examined the views of translators in the setting of PST as well as their relationships with both recipients and users. One of the characteristics of this study is that it focused on translators of minor languages of rather low priority in the process mulitlingualization of public information and which are therefore rarely translation targets. Valero-Garcés (2010) points out that since training institutions and programs for translators of minor languages are very scarce, and using translation tools for these languages is usually impossible, the translators are often left to themselves. This study attempted to focus on the characteristic role of minor language translators through a prism of their unique relationships with users and recipients.

The collected data are a result of semi-structured interviews conducted with five Thai language translators, four out of whom where Thai native speakers and one was a Japanese native speaker. During the interviews the translators were asked about: (1) views on the current situation regarding the translation work, (2) their relationship with recipients and, (3) the users' views on the role of translators.

As for their views on the current situation, the results of the data analysis show that through their work, the translators are able to feel meaningfulness and a bond connecting them with society. Even though translators can treat their work as a means of feeling as a part of the society, some of them stated that the translators' role should be directed into a more professional course. In order to take more responsibility for their work, some translators felt it advisable to indicate the name of the translator or the organization they belong to.

In case of minor languages, human resources are limited and the current situation shows that there are not enough funds to be spent on translation as a public service. Therefore, particular translators are expected to show a strongly ethical demeanor. Indicating the translator's name is even more necessary in countries such as Japan, where providing translation as a public service is not a systematized process. However, it is not yet clear what consequences for the translators could be brought by such visibility and this issue needs further researching.

The next step of the interviews was to establish the characteristics of the translator-recipient relationships. It was clarified that there is a personal relationship between translators of the Thai language and the Thai community in Japan even in their private lives. One of the reasons for this is the rapid growth of online social networking services, which give the recipients a direct and easy way to reach the translators. Since there are few potential recipients of information translated into a minor language, such translated information is rarely a target for multiligualization process. The recipients often seek deep relationships with translators, whom they treat as someone in Japan they can rely on. On the other hand, since these translators do not have as much work as those of the

major languages, they could treat recipients as potential clients. Therefore, these relationships seem to be maintained since they can be beneficial to the both parties.

In the last part of the analysis of the interviews results, the author would like to discuss the role of the translator as viewed by the users. Users feel gratitude and respect toward the translators, which results in both parties being able to establish a relationship based on mutual understanding and trust. However, it is apparent that in emergency situations, the workload borne by particular translators becomes considerably heavier due to limited human resources for minor languages, since providing the necessary information needs certain stability. In situations when translators and users are connected by a relationship based on trust instead of money, the translators realize that they are the only ones who can get the work done, which results in them feel pressure when engaging in translation under such circumstances. It can be supposed that the best solution to relieve translators of this pressure would be to deal with the problem of insufficient human resources. However, since in Japan it is the local authorities bearing the responsibility of implementing the internationalization policies, taking overall control over translation as a public service by the state is a considerably difficult task.

PST in Japan has been conducted by local communities, or to put it differently, by units of local authorities. One should not limit translators who provide this service only to foreigners living in these local communities. At the same time, registration of these translators must not be limited to those of them who live in a particular community. Public service translation and community interpreting have been mainly discussed as interpreting in the medical or legal setting. However, there is no legitimate reason to limit the area of work of particular translators and just as the interpreters, the translators, too, do not have to be recruited by their local communities.

In order to supplement the insufficient human resources for minor languages, it is necessary for both – translators and users – to free themselves from the boundaries of a particular area. The recipients, too, will probably redefine the meaning of 'community' and expand it also to virtual communities such as Facebook. The researcher believes that the day when translators will be able to form more harmonious relationships with users and recipients, instead of those often characterized by distress and dependence is not far in the future.

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An Interdisciplinary and Evolutionally Discourse Analysis: Genre in TEFL and Astrophysics

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Abstract

Do authors in different fields use different language? To what extent? Is there any change in the language applied over the passage of time? The present study seeks to investigate and compare the evolutions in the two fields of TEFL and astrophysics. As a corpus-based study, it consists of 120 research article abstracts, dated from 1980 to 2010. The study integrates syntactic and pragmatic analysis with rhetorical move analysis. Abstracts are analyzed rhetorically, using IMRC model and/or Swales' (1990) CARS model; then the move and abstract length is estimated. To probe the syntactic and pragmatic aspects, the amount of pronoun application, aspects of tense, voice and conjunction usage are taken into consideration. Additionally, Wordsmith tools has been applied for more detailed analysis. Results indicate that both fields increase in conformance to the IMRC model while this increase is more persistent in TEFL. Abstract length decreases, which in line with Ayers (2008). Authors in both fields, particularly in astrophysics, feel freer to apply first person pronouns to indicate their authorial presence. Concerning tense, more present tense is being applied in abstracts with the IMRC model while past tense domineers abstracts with the CARS model. Conjunction application, in the two fields, slightly decreases with some fluctuations, more noticeably in astrophysics. On the whole, the evolutionary patterns are similar in nearly all cases in the two disciplines, though differing in intensities.

1. Introduction

One of the most important determining factors in defining genre is the speech community, as can be ascertained from the numerous definitions rendered for genre. For instance, Richards, Platt, and Platt (1992) defined genre as a particular class of speech events, considered by the speech community as being of the same type. According to Mauranen (1993: 4) "genre is a social activity of a typical recognizable kind in a community, which is realized in language. They can be distinguished by reference to social rather than linguistic parameters". Generic constraints on academic papers regulate the activities of its members. The most prominent and workable definition of genre is put forward by Swales (1990: 58):

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains the choice of content and style.

It can also be implied that prior knowledge has an effective role in the recognition and application of appropriate genre. According to Swales (1990: 84), our prior knowledge consists of two main

components that are content and formal schemata, both of which can contribute to recognition of genres and so guide the production of exemplars. Schema theorists have so far been most concerned with the cognitive aspects of text processing and tended to isolate texts from their environment. Schemata alone reflect a microcosmic cognitive world dangerously adrift from communicative purpose and discoursal context.

Considering the distinction of genres, caused by the difference in the speech community and cognitive structure, genre analysis is invaluable, as according to Bhatia (1993) the most important applications of genre analysis are for consciousness rising in the field of second or foreign language acquisition and for grammatizing process of the developing learner. Lewin, Fine and Young (2001) mention genre analysis to be centered primarily in four areas of research, which are: systemic linguistics, genre studies, writing and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Consequently, researches done on genre analysis can further contribute to the development of these areas. For instance, in the domain of writing, genre analysis in the present study can demonstrate the discipline discrepancy and how writings may evolve to answer the social needs. Meanwhile, the foremost area of application from the results of such studies on genre analysis is ESP. As such, interdisciplinary differences need to be taken into account when teaching students entering an academic discourse community.

Lewin et al. (2001) believe that communicative events are accomplished by interlocking acts, realized linguistically. As a result, in ESP it is not sufficient to teach students to encode and decode individual units of meanings in sentences. Genre awareness also facilitates students' recognition of how texts accomplish personal and social purposes. This knowledge, as a kind of meta-awareness, as Ramanathan and Kaplan (2000) put it, is particularly important, given the increasing number of non-native speakers, learning to read and often write scientific works in English.

Researchers have done genre analysis on different disciplines using move analysis. Fiangol (1997), Kanoksilapathan (2005), Halleck and Connor (2006), and Ding (2007) analyzed writings from different disciplines including literature, language and linguistics, history, psychology, sociology, biochemistry, TESOL and medicine respectively. Also, Babaii and Ansari (2005) investigated the effect of disciplinary variation on transitivity in the case of academic book reviews.

Kanoksilapathan (2005) has found 15 distinct moves for the whole research article in biochemistry; Connor and Mauranen (1999), and Halleck and Connor (2006) worked on proposals in TESOL, each finding 10 recurrent moves that reflect the generic affinity of grant proposals to the academic research articles and promotional genres. Ruiying and Allison (2004) analyzed the research article in applied linguistics from a functional perspective.

Many other investigations performed by Maher (1986), Hewings and Henderson (1987), Dubios (1988) and Malclom (1987) have also performed researches on scientific texts in, medicine, Law, economics and biomedicine.

Some investigators have compared two or more disciplines to show the distinction of academic writing in them. Swales (1990) has worked on the method section of the different research articles. For example, the method section in TESOL has careful, step-by-step description, massively supported by anaphoric references and lexical repetition which leads to the kind of explicitness that is associated with the standard academic description. In contrast, method sections in the physical and life sciences are enigmatic, swift, presumptive of background knowledge, not designed for easy replication, and with little statement of rationale or discussion of the choices made.

Samraj (2008) has analyzed thesis introductions in biology, philosophy and linguistics and has found some differences with regard to authorial presence and intertextual links to previous research by analyzing citation patterns and the use of first person pronoun. Additionally, Samraj and Monk (2008) searched through the statement of purpose in linguistics, business administration and electrical engineering and concluded that although statements from the three disciplines may contain the same rhetorical moves, they differ in the constituent steps used to realize some of the moves. Busa (in press) investigated abstracts in economics and psychology. Samraj (2005) investigated the relationship between the abstracts of what he believed to be two related genres from different disciplines, namely, conservation biology and wildlife behavior, then, she extended this study to the relationship between abstracts and introductions in the two fields.

Even sub-disciplines of one discipline may have different genres. Ozturk (2007) found difference in genres in introductions between two disciplines of applied linguistics, namely, Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Writing Research and showed that they seemed to employ different and almost unrelated move structures. These differences can be explained in terms of the concept of "established" and "emerging" field. He believes that Second Language Acquisition is more "established" than Second Language Writing Research.

Not only have various disciplines undergone studies of genre, but also different parts of the research article, amongst which abstracts are chosen in the present study due to their significance. According to Swales (1990) abstracts have become a tool of mastering and managing the ever increasing information flow in the scientific community. They have the main function of serving as a time saving device by informing the readers about the exact content of the article, indicating in this way whether the full text merits further attention. Additionally, abstracts constitute a genre in its own right while the other parts of research article, for example, the introduction, is a part-genre. Graetz (1985) reported some characteristics for abstracts from a corpus of 78 abstracts from various fields as:

The abstract is characterized by the use of past tense, third person, passive, and the nonuse of negatives. It avoids subordinate clauses, uses phrases instead of clauses, words instead of phrases. It avoids abbreviation, jargon, symbols and other language shortcuts which might lead to confusion. It is written in tightly worded sentences, which avoid repetition, meaningless expressions, superlatives adjectives, illustrations, preliminaries, descriptive details, examples, footnotes. In short it eliminates the redundancy which the skilled reader counts on finding in written language and which usually facilitates comprehension.

(Graetz, 1985: 125)

Many of these would appear to be supportable. According to Swales (1990), the claim about the absence of negatives is particularly of interest, and informal surveys indeed suggest that the restricted length of the abstract rarely permits the luxury of including statements of what has not been done either by the author or by other researchers. On the other hand, there are many abstracts that do not fit the picture. For instance, abbreviations may be common, complete sentences may not be used, active verbs, sometimes subjectless, may be a preferred style. The most egregious of her claims is the abstracts being characterized by the use of past tense. The tense widely used and detected in abstracts is seen to be the present tense as abstracts tend to occur in commentary rather than in narrative of what was done. They opt for the present tense because it animates the writing and gives the sense that the research reported is *alive*.

Keeping in consideration the impact of genre studies on ESP and also the significance of abstracts, the present research intends to give a view of the distinction in genres caused by disciplinary difference. Hence abstracts of TEFL as the representative of humanities and astrophysics as the representative of basic sciences were chosen.

2. Method

The present study consists of 120 research article abstracts, selected randomly from four journals, two of which were TEFL journals and two of which were astrophysics journals. Years made categories of 1980, 1990, 2000 and 2010 from each of which 15 abstracts were chosen. To give a comprehensive view of genres under investigation, a multi-level analysis procedure was applied. The study integrated lexical, pragmatic analysis with rhetorical move analysis. Also Wordsmith Tools (version 5) was used, which is an integrated suite of programs for looking at how words behave in texts.

Move analysis was applied for analyzing abstracts rhetorically. The purpose of move analysis is to identify the semantic/ functional units of texts. The analysis was mainly based on the Introduction-Method- Result- Conclusion (IMRC) model (see Figure 1); however it is counter-intuitive that writers always conform to a universal "ideal" of move structuring. Additionally, traces of other models are found by other researchers; for instance, Lores' (2004) study of abstracts from linguistics journals reveals that even if the majority of abstracts display the IMRC structure, mirroring the macro-organization of the research article, about one third of the sample display the Swales' Create-A-Research-Space (CARS). Consequently, Swales' CARS model (see Figure 2) was used as a basis too.

Move 1 Introduction Step 1A claiming centrality Step 1B topic generalizations and reviewing of previous research Step 1C indicating a gap Step 1D outlining purpose Step 1E announcing present research Move 2 Methods Move 3 Results Move 4 Conclusion Step 4A commenting on results Step 4A i interpreting results Step 4A ii comparing results with literature/ previous findings Step 4A iii accounting for the results Step 4A iv evaluating results Step 4B commenting on the study Step 4B i indicating significance/ advantage Step 4B ii deduction from the research Figure 1 IMRC model Move 1 establishing a territory Step1 claiming centrality And/ or Step 2 making topic generalization(s) And/ or Step 3 reviewing items of previous research

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Move 2 establishing a niche
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Step1A counter claiming

Step1B indicating a gap or Step1C question-raising or Step1D continuing a tradition Move 3 occupying a niche Step1A outlining purposes Or Step1B announcing present research Step2 announcing principal findings Step3 indicating research structure

Figure 2 CARS model

To increase the reliability of the analysis, texts were approached recurrently, for three times; additionally, reference to the full article was valuable in identifying moves.

Abstract and move length was found out using the word count function of Microsoft Office Word. For analyzing texts linguistically and pragmatically, pronoun application, aspects of voice, tense and conjunction application was taken into consideration. To investigate the use of the personal pronouns a list of the subjective, objective, reflexive and possessive of first and second person pronouns was prepared in .txt format and the keyword function of wordsmith tool was run. Their frequency was found for each abstract. The location of the pronouns in the abstract, in terms of the move position, is deemed to be significant as it can indicate in which move the author feels more librated to use the pronouns, and for what purposes the pronouns might be applied. Consequently, their locality in the abstract was probed manually. In order to find the dominant voice in the two fields of astrophysics and TEFL, abstracts were analyzed manually, and to further illuminate the above-mentioned point of difference, abstracts conforming to each model were probed separately. Tense application was inspected, separately for each field and each move, based on four dominant tenses: present, past, present perfect and future reference. And finally, for investigating the conjunction application, four lists of different sorts of conjunctions (additive, adversative, causal and temporal) were prepared based on the conjunction list of Halliday and Hasan (1976). The concord function was then applied by each of these four files separately, on each discipline. Care was taken as in some cases the word in the list could have several functions. For example "for" not always acts as a causal conjunction. Therefore, after attaining the result from the concord function, each instance was inspected in context.

3. Results and discussions

3.1 Rhetorical analysis

In TEFL 87.5% of abstracts were analyzed by IMRC model, 12.5% by CARS model and no abstract conformed to both structures. In astrophysics, however, the amount of abstracts with IMRC (62.5%) model was less than TEFL and consequently the amount of those with the CARS (37.5%) was more. 8.33% of abstracts conformed to both models; hence the number of abstracts with the macrostructure of the research article exceeds that of those with the macrostructure of the introduction. This is in line with Lores (2004) who found that less than one third of abstracts in linguistics conform to the CARS model. According to Lores (2004), it can be concluded that, on the whole, abstracts are more informative rather than indicative and the amount of informative abstracts in astrophysics is more than in TEFL. Having a closer look at the content of abstracts further confirms this, for abstracts with the CARS model have been mostly non-experimental. As is stated by Tarone Dwyer, Gillette, and Icke (1998), astrophysics papers typify a previously unidentified type of research article, the *logical argument scientific paper* in which the rhetorical

structure is different from that of the "standard scientific" experimental paper. Therefore, the extent of their adherence to the CARS is more than TEFL's.

Only 54.17% and 22.5% of the total articles in TEFL and astrophysics (respectively) had the IMRC structure exactly; others had cyclic patterns or lacked some moves. Ayers (2008), who investigated the evolution of headings and abstracts from the scientific journal *Nature*, found that up until 1996 only 18% of abstracts had the IMRC structure exactly and later on they started to become more standardized in structure.

3.2 Length

Not much difference exists in the length of abstracts of the two fields. The average length of TEFL abstracts by word count was 150.8 while it was 145.66 words for astrophysics. What is worthy of mentioning is that much fluctuations exist in astrophysics abstracts' length as they could vary from 39 to 269 words. However, TEFL abstracts have more consistency in length.

Different moves in astrophysics have roughly the same length, as roughly the same weight is attributed to each of them; however in TEFL the results move is the longest and the method is the shortest move, even in many cases in TEFL, M was a dependent move, occurring within I. All the moves in TEFL are longer than in astrophysics, except the method move. This can be attributed to the nature of the two disciplines, as in astrophysics the methods are unique in each research and require more explanation than in TEFL, contrary to Swales' (1990) conclusion on biochemistry research articles.

3.3 Pragmatics analyses

3.3.1 Pronoun application

No use of second person marker is detected. Second person pronouns could be used to show reference to the reader. Fiangol (1997) and Shadkam (1999) did not trace any second person marker, neither in the abstract nor in the whole article. Hence, these forms of address have been removed. This can be indicated as the expiration of this aspect of epistolary convention of research articles, as remarked by Ard (1983). Authors in astrophysics feel much freer to apply pronouns. 83.33% of abstracts in astrophysics have pronouns and they amount to 59 pronouns while only 25% of TEFL abstracts have pronouns and just seven pronouns are used. Ard (1983) attributed this to the central role of the observer in scientific text; that is the author, as the experimenter or the observer of the phenomena, is more physically present in the abstracts in scientific texts, whereas in humanities, the author stands aside and observes the results. Additionally, according to Samraj (2008), the first person pronoun is used to present the arguments of the author, among other discourse functions, thereby, establishing a strong authorial presence. These results can also be interpreted in light of Yakhontova's (2006) study on applied mathematics. He found no instance of I occurring and the sole pronoun being used was we, surprisingly, in the single-authored articles. Yakhontova (2006: 161) ascribes this to a specific type of we, nominated as the "academic we". Hence, the abundance of this pronoun might not imply direct address to the authors in the present research, either. The present study, by demonstrating pronoun application in the two fields, and their relative abundance in astrophysics, points at the disciplinary variation as the main source of disparity, as is deemed to be the reason by Yakhontova himself.

In astrophysics abstracts with IMRC model, all the moves have pronouns with move I wielding pronouns more than the others. Tarone, Dwyer, Gillette and Icke (1981), analyzing the astrophysics abstracts came to conclusion that applying pronouns in astrophysics in the method section is for making the reader feel able to do the research by himself/herself, and it is not being exclusive to

that specific author. They found first person pronouns anywhere in the article, but less frequently in the I and C moves.

3.3.2 Voice

The number of passives in abstracts with the IMRC model in TEFL exceeds those of astrophysics though inverse is the case for abstracts with the CARS model. The larger amount of passives in TEFL is due to the exigency the authors feel for not applying pronouns which leads to the higher application of passive voice. The main reason for the fewer number of passives in TEFL in abstracts with the CARS model, regarding the available data, is the move B's having no passive in TEFL. What intensifies this is the fewer amount of abstracts with the CARS model in TEFL compared to astrophysics. Active voice is dominant in both fields but when the number of abstracts is much less, no place for the occurrence of passive is provided.

In abstracts with the IMRC model in TEFL the move with the highest application of passives, is the method move, while the same move has the least amount of passives being applied in astrophysics. The reason can again be attributed to the tendency of astrophysics authors to use pronouns and refer to themselves while explaining what has been done.

Both fields have the passives applied the most in move C in abstracts with the CARS model. Passive application is highly dependent on the nature of the move and the steps in that move. Move C has announcing the present research and indicating the research article structure as its main and most recurrent steps, in which passives might be applied more freely.

On the whole, in line with Fiangol (1997), the number of passive is significantly less than the active verbs, with 49% in the highest case and 13% in the lowest, in humanities. In the present study, passives in TEFL (23.09%) are more than in astrophysics (19.89%) as is a direct consequence of TEFL authors' resignation to use pronouns, though Tarone et al. (1998) found that passive verbs occur as frequently as active verbs in astrophysics.

3.3.3 Tense

The most prominent tenses applied for abstracts were present and past tenses with casual appearance of other tenses such as present perfect and future. The diversity of tenses in astrophysics is more than in TEFL.

In abstracts with the IMRC structure, the dominant tense in astrophysics is present while in TEFL past tense is more regularly used. Hence, TEFL abstracts conform more to the rules of abstracts presented by Graetz (1985) and applying the Swales' (1990) assumptions on the tense applications, astrophysics abstracts are more alive due to their usage of present tense, and they are also more in the commentary form while the past tense in TEFL abstracts makes the reader feel them to be more narrative. A pressure to retreat to the past tense is observed in TEFL especially in the method move, in which the authors describe what they *used* to implement the research. Also Ayers (2008) while analyzing the scientific abstracts, found the past tense to be dominant in the method move.

In abstracts with the CARS model, the dominant tense is the present in both fields. As the macrostructure of abstracts with the CARS model is like the introduction, the researchers tended to introduce their research with a live sense, rather than to give an account on what has been done.

3.3.4 Conjunctions

No stark difference can be seen either in the amount of conjunctions being applied or in the order of their frequency. The most frequent conjunctions were additives in both fields, amongst which *and*

is the most recurrent, then, are adversatives, after them are causals and temporals, having the same amount of occurrence. Feng (2006) found *and* to be one of the most prevalent words in the whole article, not just among conjunctions.

4. Conclusion

As the results of this study indicate, there are differences between the two fields of astrophysics and TEFL, with regard to the rhetorical moves, pronoun application, passive usage and dominant tenses. Such results can provide course designers with a manageable and meaningful framework within which to construct courses that can offer the learner tools with which to engage in any of the structurable aspects of professional life. The result of this study can also help second and foreign language learners not only to read more effectively and get more out of the text but also provides them with a framework to write like the native speaker of that language and helps them in writing (Baram-Tsabari and Yarden, 2005; Beck, 2004; Cheng, 2006, 2007 and 2008; Hyland, 2002; Ramanathan and Kaplan, 2000; Swales, 1985, 1990; Zhu, 2004). One needs to be familiar with the conventions of the genre before being able to exploit them for special effects. The results of genre analysis are particularly helpful for the reader accessibility, usability, simplification and facilitation. However, as Swales (1990) states, the result of the genre analysis are clarificatory, not classificatory, hence their values lie in their descriptive use, and not prescriptive application. Additionally, Fairclough (2003) mentions that we need to look for staging in analyzing texts and interactions, but not expect to always find that they are recognized in terms of a clear generic structure and link analysis in these terms to the question of ritualization.

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Biliteracy and Refugees in Thailand: The Case of Imbalanced Thai-English Biliteracy Learning Resulted in Continuum of Formal Schooling Interruption

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Abstract

This paper considers practices of biliteracy in the context of humanitarian-based English language programs for refugee children and adolescents in Thailand. Conducted over a period of eight months, this inquiry into refugees in Thailand presents the findings of an empirical study investigating biliteracy learning by urban refugees. This study took a multidisciplinary perspective of biliteracy by examining socio-economic inequalities among urban refugee children and adolescents which resulted in interruption to their formal schooling and had a relationship to the languages taught in their humanitarian based language learning programs.

A central finding of this research is the need for biliteracy development of these young refugee learners by giving attention to teaching Thai language, which will help formal schooling interrupted refugee children and adolescents to resume their study in local Thai schools, accompanied by teaching globally-oriented English language. By the same token, while the promise of English language teaching and learning might empower young urban refugee students, English language teaching cannot be at the expense of Thai language teaching because the latter is urgently required for these young urban refugees to continue their formal schooling and decrease inequalities. Thus, a model of Thai-English biliteracy teaching suited to these refugee students in Thailand is much needed and its development is highly recommended.

Introduction

By drawing on perspectives from the fields of biliteracy as pertaining to teaching and learning of two languages—Thai and English—to refugee students, this current study seeks to shed light on the imbalances of biliteracy learning experienced by young refugees in Thailand and how the imbalanced biliteracy development negatively affects them in regards to the discontinuation of their formal schooling.

In discussing the relationship between foreign or second language teaching and societal inequalities resulted from the interruption of formal schooling, the foreign or second languages needed to be taught to marginalized minority groups such as young urban refugee students are frequently overlooked. A real example is as follows: Teaching English language is commonly seen as a crucial resource for English as a foreign or second language learners to access power, prestige, status, and socio-economic mobility. However, data obtained from urban refugee language learners in Thailand show otherwise, challenging traditional notions of teaching a powerful language such as English to decrease social inequalities. On condition that these young refugee language learners continue to study in English language programs provided by refugee shelters, they are in a disadvantaged position to not acquire needed Thai language competencies from their heterogeneous and linguistically diverse refugee peers and refugee English teachers, and are therefore unable to enroll in local Thai schools. Receiving English language education among these young urban

refugees is at the expense of learning the immediately needed Thai language to terminate the interruption to their formal schooling.

One of the causes of inequality is lack of access to schooling. As evidenced by data in this study, factors acknowledged for their impact on socio-economic inequality include formal schooling interruption among urban refugee children and adolescents. Often socio-economic inequalities between mainstream groups and minority refugee communities can partially be caused by continuation of formal schooling with the former and continuation of formal schooling interruption with the latter. Ideally, formal schooling interrupted refugee children and adolescents should be entitled with Thai language courses as preparation to enroll in local Thai schools. Humanitarian based language programs designed for urban refugee children and adolescents organized by nongovernment groups, nonetheless, fail to offer regular Thai language courses in preparing young refugee students with Thai language proficiencies needed to continue their formal schooling in When English language teaching and Thai language teaching are two competing Thailand. orientations in language teaching markets, English language teaching often foregrounds Thai language teaching in humanitarian based language learning programs. This is the result of administrative decisions as well as urban refugee language learners' choices. Prioritizing English language teaching accompanied by discouraging Thai language teaching increases socio-economic inequalities for urban refugee children and adolescents in comparison to their Thai counterparts. To close this gap, this study suggests that beliefs and/or ideologies that promote English language teaching only should be contested. Moreover, Thai as a second language course is recommended for formal schooling interrupted urban refugee students to enable their resumption of formal schooling in Thailand, ultimately lessening their socio-economic inequalities in comparison to their Thai counterparts. Therefore, the goals of humanitarian based educational programs should be to create conditions for learning and development of Thai-English biliteracy that are both additive for these refugee students under study.

Background

Refugees and Asylum Seekers Resettle in Urban Areas of Thailand

In the world we are living today, approximately eleven million people are displaced at a domestic level or transnational level (UNHCR, 2006). More often than not, wars and civil wars generate enormous death tolls, disrupt accumulation of physical capital and properties, and erode civil freedoms. Transnational migration occurs when these horrors displace a population from their home country to resettle in a new country. Because civil conflicts, political unrest, and religious persecution by and large continues for many years, these forced migrations have been frequent and on the rise in several regions of the world. Those seeking asylum hope for refugee status being granted and individuals "owing to a well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his/her nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear is unwilling, to avail himself of the protection of that country" are categorized as refugees by the United Nations (Huguet & Punpuing, 2005).

Many countries have acknowledged an ethical responsibility to admit refugees and render humanitarian assistance to these extremely vulnerable persons. The Kingdom of Thailand is one of the largest shelters in the world for displaced people, refugees and asylum seekers. Millions of displaced people flee their homelands to escape war, long-term economic privation, political or religious persecution, and violence by the military settle in Thailand (Huguet & Punpuing, 2005). Some asylum seekers from different countries come to Thailand and take up residence in urban areas because of Thailand's comparatively easy to meet visa requirements in comparison to other countries (Jesuit Refugee Service, n.d.). Most asylum seekers come from Afghanistan, Congo, Mainland China, Myanmar, Nepal, North Korea, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and Vietnam. Sociolinguistically transnational refugee resettlement should be seen as a life-long process in biliteracy development. Language teaching and learning among urban refugees is essentially a moral imperative to help asylum seekers resettle in Thailand.

Issues of Language Teaching in Humanitarian based Language Learning Programs in Thailand

Despite Thailand's status as a prominent receiving country for refugees and asylum seekers in worldwide migration and resettlement, there is an increasingly significant gap between humanitarian based language learning programs in Thailand and the actual language needs among refugees, particularly with regard to the need to learn and develop biliteracy between Thai and English. Data in this study show that these language learning programs at urban refugee shelters are at risk of contributing to the creation of ever larger social inequality for urban refugee children and adolescents in comparison to their Thai counterparts, because of languages they are not given the opportunity to learn. On the one hand, formal schooling interrupted refugee children and adolescents do not receive regular Thai language assistance, but they are entitled to enroll in local Thai schools nearby their domicile. As a result, they continue their formal schooling interruption and are thus not ready to enroll in local Thai schools. On the other hand, the extreme focus on English language teaching in a number of urban refugee language learning programs disregards the immediate need for young refugee students to learn Thai language. Compounding the problem, English language teaching focused programs designed for young urban refugee students fail to provide a comprehensive curriculum with balanced developments in different subject matters suited to refugee children and adolescents in primary and secondary levels. In any case, teaching English language alone cannot possibly compensate for refugee children and adolescents' needs in learning other subjects, i.e., mathematics, science and social studies.

The Call to Teach Thai Language Regularly for Urban Refugee Children and Adolescents in Thailand

Despite the fact that learning English language has become a critical resource for gaining power, prestige, status, and socio-economic mobility in this age of globalization, the need to teach a local language to urban refugees in countries where they resettle cannot be ignored. Only when refugees become functionally communicative in Thai language do they begin to enjoy the rewards of living in the Kingdom of Thailand. Data from this present inquiry reveal that learning Thai language can surely assist urban refugees satisfy their fundamental needs and empower their self-esteem. Mastery of Thai language can help individual and communal refugees to integrate into the Thai society while waiting for a third country to adopt them. There is emerging evidence from data in this current study to show that the attainment of any medium of wider communication, a nature language acquisition to its native speakers, turns out to be a challenging task for transnational refugees if they do not receive any language education to learn common media of communication in their resettled countries. The lack of mastery over a common language is widely perceived as a frustrating limitation faced by cross-national refugees trying to adapt to a new environment. Learning a second language as medium of wider communication in a host country adds life difficulties to these urban refugees. Ideally, language teaching programs provided for unwilling migrants should cater to meet their different language, communication, bilingual, multilingual, These language and communication needs might vary biliteracy and multiliteracy needs. significantly from those other immigrants who are willing to move to Thailand. Despite occasional Thai language training courses being provided, rarely do humanitarian based language learning programs in Thailand consider urban refugee children's needs to learn Thai language in a regular Thai language program for 1-2 years before they are competent to enroll in nearby Thai schools.

Exploring research perspectives that frame the issue of language teaching for formal schooling interrupted refugee children and adolescents in Thailand, the literature evidently show a positive effect on transnational refugees who receive second language education before they are placed in mainstream classrooms in a host country. Australia (Settlement English, n.d.), Canada (Adelman, 1990) and USA (Ellis, 2010), for example, prepare refugee children and adolescents with needed English as second language courses in enabling them to continue their formal schooling in their resettled English speaking countries. Nevertheless, data from this inquiry show that Thailand has produced little evidence of improvement in these humanitarian based language learning programs to help urban refugee children and adolescents learn Thai language regularly.

Literature Review

Biliteracy

Biliteracy in the context of this study is interchangeable with learning and development of bi/multilingual and bi/multiliteracy, relating to bilingualism and literacy. Biliteracy is defined in this paper as a compound and multifaceted configuration. Knowledge, reading strategies, and literacy skills can be transferred from one language and literacy to another. The final result of this mutually reinforced literacy development between L1 and L2 is frequently termed biliteracy. To be biliterate is more than just being bilingual. Biliteracy can be seen as a combination and a conjunction between bilingualism and literacy (Hornberger, 1989, pp. 272-273; Hornberger, 2003, p. 4). Instead of contrasting L1 and L2 literacy, biliteracy should be seen as a continuum and viewed as a dynamic wholeness (Hornberger, 2003, pp. xiii-xiv). Returning to Hornberger's view, biliteracy can be defined as literacy instances, whereby communications are delivered by biliterate actors and actresses in two or more language varieties and in or around written literacy (Hornberger, 1990, p. 213 cited in Hornberger, 2003, xiii). Hornberger's continua model of biliteracy can help clarify biliteracy context, media, content and development. Her model is especially useful in considering bi/multilingual and bi/multi-literacy activities performed by immigrants such as the refugees under study in Thailand. Therefore, Hornberger's continuum of biliteracy becomes the theoretical lens that illuminates the data and facilitates filling literature gaps. Biliteracy in the context of this study can be inter-exchangeable with learning and development of bi/multilingual and bi/multiliteracy.

	ger s continua or ornteracy	(1909; 2008)
Conventionally less dominant, influential, and prevailing		Conventionally more dominant, influential, and prevailing
1. Context of biliteracy: Where biliteracy	cy is employed, taught and le	earned?
Micro	a. 	Macro
Oral	b.	Literate
Bilingual and multilingual	^c .	Monolingual
2. Media (Communicative Repertoires) learned; Forms biliteracy takes; In which		
Simultaneous exposure	a	Successive exposure
Dissimilar structures	b	Similar structures
Divergent scripts	C.◀	Convergent scripts
3. Content of biliteracy: Types of mean and during certain points of biliterate d Minority Vernacular Contextualized	•	• •
4 Development of hilitereout How is h	ilitary amployed and last	and What is the offect and ording
4. Development of biliteracy: How is t result of the biliteracy instructon?	interacy employed and learn	ned; what is the effect and ending
Reception	a.	Production and performance
Oral	b.	Written
L1	C.◀ →	L2

Table 1. Hornberger's continua of biliteracy (1989, 2003)

Methodology

To develop an understanding regarding factors that lead to the emergence of imbalanced biliteracy learning, that is, English language teaching at the cost of Thai language teaching for formal schooling interrupted refugee children and adolescents in urban areas of Thailand, this study pursues the research question: what factors shape and influence biliteracy development through foreign or second language learning among formal schooling interrupted urban refugee children and adolescents in Thailand and how can the needs of Thai-English biliteracy through language teaching practices be met?

Urban Refugee Sites and Young Refugee Language Learners in Thailand

Two main types of refugees and asylum seekers currently resettle in Thailand—urban refugees and camp-based refugees. The scope of this inquiry has been limited to investigating urban refugee children and adolescents particularly in regard to their language learning experiences in humanitarian based language learning programs and the relationship to social inequalities created by extension of their formal schooling interruption resulting from what languages are taught in these programs.

Multiple urban refugee research sites across Thailand are characterized as having English programs focused on young children that seem to exist comfortably with adult refugee English teachers and some American volunteers who teach English language courses. This study undertook to research 80 young refugee students' language needs and the correlation between these needs and what languages are taught in their humanitarian based language learning programs and their resumption of formal schooling. Informants were aged from 6-7 years old to 18-19 years old. The methodology utilized in the research of these young refugee language learners in urban shelters included qualitative approach and comprised of interviews, a questionnaire, and observation notes. Adult urban refugees volunteer to teach young students in their language learning centers. Their language learning classrooms are where linguistically and culturally diverse urban refugee children and adolescents are taught in English language isolated from the daily activities of neighboring Thai speaking residents. These English language education programs for urban refugee children and adolescents are also conducted in instructional settings where young refugee students learn to competent to please refugee English teachers. These urban refugee children and adolescents' learning takes place in classroom language domains that are in particular socio-cultural and linguistic groups.

Data Collection and Analysis

Through interviews, observations and questionnaires, this paper investigates what languages are needed to be taught to urban refugee children and adolescents to end their formal schooling interruption in Thailand. The researcher carefully triangulates data collected from individual interviews, group interviews, follow-up interviews, participant observations, non-participant observations, and responses from questionnaires.

Results and Discussion

The findings of this study suggest that it is incorrect to consider English only as the right way to help these disadvantaged refugee children and adolescents in Thailand. First, data indicate a strong desire to learn English among young refugee students. Not surprisingly, data reveal that almost all urban refugee children and adolescents (98%, N=80) see a need to learn English language over Thai The powerful role of English language is influencing and shaping the remaining language. possibilities for languages other than English to teach in urban refugee settings in Thailand. Data point out that some urban refugee children and adolescents (60%, N=80) do not see a need to learn Thai language, because they do not want to enroll in a local Thai school but wait for a third country to adopt them. However, this paper argues that lack of Thai language speaking proficiencies among these refugee children and adolescents might put them in a disadvantageous position and prolong their length of formal schooling interruption. Data report (estimated) 3-4 years in average of formal schooling interruption for English language learning focused participants. By marked contrast, urban refugee children and adolescents (30%, N=80) who intend to enroll in local Thai schools see a need to learn Thai language. Data report (estimated) 1.5-2 years in average of formal schooling interruption for Thai language learning focused refugee children and adolescents. However, there are unfortunately no regular Thai language teaching programs provided for these urban refugee children and adolescents who need to enroll in local Thai schools and terminate their formal schooling interruption, because Thai language learning programs are only provided periodically or occasionally as non-formal language education.

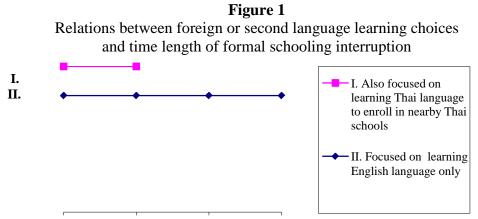
Note that different language learning programs at urban refugee shelters across Thailand differ in the size of their student body and teaching staff, and available language teaching and learning resources. Thus, data gathered in this present inquiry cannot be generalized and/or applicable to

every language learning program in urban refugee shelters across Thailand. Data presented below in Table 2 and Figure 1 are merely estimated numbers extrapolated from the limited data.

sponses of informants when asked what affects their Thai-English biliteracy l					
actors	# of responses from 80	% of responses from 8			
	informants	informants			
eeing a need to learn English nguage	78	>90%			
eterogeneous and linguistically verse refugees see a need to use nglish language as a common edium of communication	60	75%			
ai friends and Thai neighbors e close to refugee's residence	20	25%			
edia: Newspapers, magazines, V, and radio					

Table 2

Note: informants can choose more than one factor.



3rd year 4th year

1st year 2nd year I. Young urban refugee language learners see a need to learn Thai language and intend to enroll in Thai schools nearby their residence:

1.5-2 years (estimated) of formal schooling interruption

II. Young urban refugee language learners stay in English language learning programs and do not see a need to learn Thai language:

3-4 years (estimated) of formal schooling interruption

Secondly, data show a need to use English language as a common medium of communication among heterogeneous and linguistically diverse refugees from Myanmar, Pakistan, Sri Lankan, Congo, and other countries. The data indicate that heterogeneous and linguistically diverse urban refugees converse to each other in English language as a common medium of communication and as a medium of instruction in language learning programs. This contrast is dramatically lost in rural refugee camps, especially those who live with homogenous peers from Myanmar. In contrast to rural refugees who maintain their native languages within their homogeneous camps, urban refugees stated that heterogeneous and linguistically diverse peers have effects on their ever increasing use of English language as a common medium of communication when they cannot understand each others' native languages. Data indicates that learning English language or Thai language could be highly specific to refugee's language learning programs accessible to them. However, this study cannot go beyond its data to infer the expected outcomes when Thai language learning programs are regular, available, and free to urban refugee children and adolescents.

Thirdly, the analysis shows that an immediate language contact with a predominant Thai language domain in Thailand has little effect or almost no effect on shaping everyday practices of English language among urban refugee communities. The Royal Thai Government did not sign the 1951 Refugee Convention and therefore does not have laws and permanent systems to decide whether a person is a refugee (see legal services in Bangkok Refugee Center, online). Moreover, the 1979 Immigration Act states that illegal immigrants, i.e., those without a passport, a valid visa to stay, and a work permit to get employed in Thailand, are subject to arrest, detention and deportation. Thus, urban refugees are struggling and in desperate need, seeking out a life in a hostile environment as they are not recognized as refugees by the Royal Thai Government. As illegal aliens, they confront abuse, exploitation, hostility, language difficulties, prejudice, threats, and ambiguous legal status, and hence are subject to arrest, detention, deportation and human warehousing. Limited or no speaking proficiency in Thai language is dependent on the frequency of language contacts with linguistically diverse refugee peers as well as speakers of the predominant Thai language outside the refugee shelters. Within a predominantly Thai language environment, informants assert that their less frequent language contacts with Thai language speakers outside their refugee shelters may have, nonetheless, negative impacts on their Thai language learning. Note that Thai administrators and Thai social workers communicate with urban refugees in English language. The subjects reported that, for security reasons, the majority of urban refugees have limited language contacts with outside Thai native speakers. Although the Thai government allows non-government religious organizations in collaboration with United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) to provide shelters for illegal immigrants such as refugees and asylum seekers, the Thai police can arrest them. Because some urban refugees rely on non-profit organizations and humanitarian assistance for their food supply, they might not see a need to learn Thai language and make a living in Thailand. However, other urban refugees who need to make a living in Thailand have a significantly higher frequency of language contacts with Thai language speakers. Relatively isolated language socialization within diverse linguistic refugee communities greatly hinders urban refugee children and adolescents from acquiring needed Thai language proficiencies to continue their formal schooling in local Thai schools. However, to assume that young urban refugee children can be placed into mainstream Thai speaking schools without preparation of their Thai language competencies and proficiencies is beyond the scope of this current inquiry.

The data from this study strongly suggests that the predominantly Thai language domain plays a minimal role and has little effect on the dominant English language learning occurring among urban refugee children and adolescents in Thailand. In other words, most informants assert that they do not see an immediate need to acquire Thai language despite its demands, but data indicates that they see a desperate need to learn English oral and written discourse.

Concluding Comments and Suggestions

The qualitative results from this paper add to our current understandings of young urban refugee's language learning issues and the relationship to formal schooling interruption in Thailand. Based on the results of this research it is urged that Thai as a second language program should be established by UNHCR in meeting the needs of formal schooling interrupted urban refugee children and adolescents to continue their formal schooling in Thailand. English language only curriculum

and English language focused programs accessible to refugee children and adolescents could be problematic, because English language courses alone cannot cover the full range of urban refugee children and adolescents learning needs in other subject areas and skills. Simply because these urban refugee children (> 90%, N=80) express a strong desire to only learn English language does not mean that they do not need to develop other knowledge and skills from a variety of subject contents. These urban refugee children and adolescents are too young to make their own decisions on whether they should be only entitled to learn English language alone or they should be entitled also to learn subjects, especially Thai language, other than English language in helping them end formal schooling interruption. These educational language policy decisions should be given to UNHCR and grass-root religious groups who organize urban refugee services to make.

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Genre Analysis of Written Confessions in China's Tertiary Education:

An Investigation of Moves and Cross-cultural Variation

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Abstract: Genre analysis has developed into an established academic research approach as a constellation of genres have been identified especially in the realms of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). The present study investigates written confessions in China's tertiary education, which is little known to the academic world as a genre. It aims to identify the move pattern and the text-internal properties of the genre in this specific cultural context. The analysis is based on a corpus of 30 cases of written confessions by students at university level in China. A hybrid of quantitative and qualitative approaches is utilized to analyze the data. The research follows the convention of genre analysis proposed by Swales (1990), which is a bottomup format and is mainly text-based and data-driven (Shaw, 2005, p. 258, quoted in Gillaerts & Gotti, 2005), in order to examine both macro and micro levels of the corpus. The research findings show that written confessions have identifiable rhetorical moves and typical lexico-grammatical features. Moreover, this research also sheds light on genres as cross-cultural variations so as to enrich the scope of genre studies.

Key words: genre analysis, written confessions, China's tertiary education, crosscultural variation

1. Introduction

Genre analysis has been developed into a relatively mature approach in the field of applied linguistics. So far, analysts have highlighted genres in the realms of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Specifically, genres of the English language have long been the main research focus. Nevertheless, cross-cultural genres such as written confessions have, to a large degree, been overlooked. This study attempts to analyze written confessions, which is known little to the academic world, and to sensitize analysts to marginalized genres and cross-culture variations in the hope of pushing the boundary of genre studies.

2. Definition of Written Confessions

As the genre of written confessions is little known to academia, it is worthwhile to propose a working definition of it. To start with, the study of written confessions has not been considered an academic genre, notwithstanding that it appears in China's educational settings. In this study, written confession refers to a formal written document that students submit to their teachers and school authorities when committing misconducts or violating school norms of conduct. The submittal of it is a way of seeking forgiveness and lessening the penalty from the school authorities.

3. A Historical Background

The genre of written confession is a by-product of the Chinese culture, which is inherited from tradition. The variety of genres, as Miller (1984) claims, "depends on the complexity and diversity of society". The Chinese context to a great extent cultivates the genre.

It is well known that China is a country with a long history. Historically, written

confessions can be traced back to as early as 89 BCE in the Han Dynasty (汉朝hàn

cháo), when the first edict of self-blame was publicly issued by Emperor Wu (武帝

wǔ dì). This official document is named罪己诏 (zuì jǐ zhào) in Chinese, which

literally means edict of self-blame and is an official document. It can be regarded as the precursor of written confessions. Yuan Li's (2011, p. 22) description about the emperors of Ming Dynasty states:

[Edict of self-blame] also represented a promise to placate the subjects and adjust policies. Self-examination and self-blame served as part of an internal introspective mechanism, which imposed demands and guarantees upon the emperor's performance of sovereign virtue and responsibility and limitations upon the emperors' actions.

Further, the advent of written confessions is closely associated with the Chinese education throughout history. China is a country whose families value education highly. When discussing education in China, it is inevitable to mention Confucius, who is the most influential educator in Chinese history. He created an era of public education for the citizenry, which can be thought of as a revolution at that time, when education was the privilege only of the offspring of the nobility and the wealthy. The thoughts of Confucius were collected in his immortal masterpiece, **The Analects of Confucius**, which literally means **Discussion over Words**. Presently, his teachings are still influential, with Confucian proverbs such as **when one**

makes a mistake, do not be afraid to correct it (过则勿惮改guò zé wù

dàn gǎi) ; I examine myself on three counts every day (吾日三省吾身 wú rì ān xǐng wú shēn, still being commonplace today. The ideas of

Confucius developed into a system of philosophy, then the feudal government made use of Confucianism as the predominant ideology for

ruling the country, with Dong Zhongshu (董仲舒dǒngzhòngshū, 179-104

BCE), a Confucian scholar in the Han Dynasty, promoting Confucian theory to serve the central feudal government. From then on under the rubric of Confucianism, many norms of conduct have formed to restrain and direct the citizens' daily behaviors. The most well-known norms are firstly: The three bonds and five constant relationships, also translated as three cardinal guides and five constant virtues or three bonds and five constant virtues or three bonds and five constances (三纲五常sān gāng wǔ cháng). The three bonds are ruler

guides subject, father guides son, and husband guides wife. The five virtues are benevolence, righteousness, ceremony, wisdom and fidelity.

Second, another norm is named as 三从四德 (sān cóng sì dé). It can be

literally translated as three obedience and four virtues: the three obedience are interpreted as obedience to her father before marriage. to her husband when married, and to her sons in widowhood. The four virtues are morality, proper speech, modest manner and diligent work. These are the social norms for women; and, unquestionably, they show a certain social discrimination against women in ancient China. As aforementioned, education in ancient China was available solely for the upper-class minority. Oftentimes, a teacher was employed to teach in a residence rather than in a public place. When a student committed any misconduct in class, it was common for the teacher to offer corporal punishments and for students have to self-reflect until they realized that what he or she had done was wrong. The teacher was thought of as an authority and had responsibility to administer punishment. Oftentimes, they used a palmer to beat the palms of students, which was believed to cause only temporary pain without producing any physical injury. It also served as a means to discipline students, with the punishment being administered in front of the rest of the class. In so doing, students were punished publicly as a warning to the others. In contrast, in modern times, corporal or physical punishment is prohibited. The crafting of written confessions could possibly be a substitution. It is believed that the submission of a written confession could enable students to introspect and reflect on the violations they have committed. Hence, it is regarded as a guarantee for students to improve themselves and adjust their attitude towards academic studies. In this respect, cultural heritage could be the best reason to explain the advent of this written genre.

In China's modern education, norms of conduct at the national level are established by Ministry of Education, which provide fundamental guidance for individual educational institutions to establish their own norms of conduct. It is noted that a class convention voluntarily set by all classes is commonplace in any educational institutions.

4. Literature Review

So far, little research has been done in regard to written confessions. Currently, the existing literature contains only studies concerning edicts of self-blame, which could be seen as the precursor of the written confession; nevertheless, the emphasis of these investigations is from the perspective of history. Li (2011) has explored the reasons and historical background of the issuance of the written text.

The research conducted by Jung (2005) investigated business letters in a Korean context. He examined the rhetorical structure of the Korean business letters and found that in the specific cultural context and language tradition are the major influences on the constructs of business genre by employing Swales' (1990) genre theory and CARS model as a prototype and mapping out a specific frame in line with the cultural context. However, it is lamentable that the research does not explain why and how the historical and cultural elements impact Korean written genres. Moreover, Camiciotti (2005) carried out research on business letters from the second half of nineteenth century to the present. This study highlighted how business letters changed diachronically in the historical context. A different discourse pattern was showcased by the comparison between the genre and subgenre. Further, Charkorn (2006) found that Thai business letters of requests differ considerably in language use than their counterparts in a Western context. Subsequently, also from cross-cultural perspectives, Charkorn investigated how Thai sales promotions and invitations differ from Western genres by using contrastive rhetoric (Chakorn, 2002). According to the researcher, genre writing in a Thai context is largely culture bounded, which indicated that language and culture are complementary to each other (Saville-Troike, 1982 quoted in Chakorn, 2005). In this sense, context and culture count in depicting genre conventions in different languages; thus these studies provide heuristic visions for the current research. All this is in alignment with the current study that written confessions as a genre has been shaped by the cultural context.

5. Data Collection

The corpus of the present study consists of 30 cases which were collected from three universities of Guizhou Province of southwest China which is demographically diverse in ethnic minority groups. It comprises more than 37% of the whole population of the province (Liu, 2010). The three universities, where the data of the present study has been collected, are in the capital city of Guiyang. In the current study, data was collected without compromising the privacy of the students. All information that tended to violate confidentiality was removed.

Further, the targeted population mainly ranges from first year students to juniors, because the would-be graduates, namely the fourth year students, have internships of half a year to eight months outside the campus before graduation. Therefore, it is rare to find cases from this group. All written confessions were obtained from class advisors and other faculty members of the universities. All the targeted subjects are in four-year programs in the three comprehensive universities, whose majors range from the fields of humanities to natural sciences.

6. Theoretical Framework

The present study employed CARS model as the main theoretical framework, which was developed by Swales (1990) in genre analysis. The research as a whole follows the model proposed by Bhatia (1993), i.e., the model of sales promotion letters. Possible rhetorical moves and steps were mapped out. A micro-analysis was then conducted to show the linguistic realizations (Bhatia, 1993) of the texts. These two prototypes are fundamental for the current research.

7. Macro-structure and Function Units of Written Confessions

Principally, the present study aims to interpret written confessions elaborated by students at the university level in China, whose explicit communicative purpose is to confess the violations committed against norms of conduct issued by educational institutions. The final goal of the craft of a written confession is two-fold: to achieve forgiveness from teachers or school authorities, and to search for mitigation or exemption from punishment by teachers or school authorities. The identification of each move of the written documents is based on Swales' (1990) definition of the notion genre whose utmost goal of any stretch of language is to achieve certain communicative purposes.

First and foremost, the division of structural units, which discriminates from pure textual structure, involves rhetorical and functional sense based on local communicative purposes of a stretch of text (Camiciotti, 2005). Theses structural units could be denominated as rhetorical moves, each of which serves specific local communicative purpose. Also the identification of rhetorical moves is a generic sketch for describing globally the written texts.

After having examined the 30 cases selected from the corpus, specifically, each structural unit of the written text type, a eight-move frame (as shown below) was tailored to interpret the written text type.

Model of Rhetorical Moves in Written Confession			
1.	Greeting /without greeting		
2.	Stating the violation committed		
з.	Acknowledging the misconduct		
4.	Narrating briefly the misconduct		
5.	Expressing attitude or feeling towards the misconduct		
6.	Asking for forgiveness		
7.	Promising of self-correction in future actions		
8.	Closing salutation/without salutation		

Figure 1 Model of Rhetorical Moves in Written Confessions

It is noted that the opening salutation move (addressing) and signature move were not included in the above move structure, which is in accordance with Bhatia's (1993) Sales Promotion Letter Model. The justification is that addressing and a signature with students' full name is a normative move in letter writing and common official document writing in Chinese educational institutions. In regard to this, written confessions are related to the two genres, namely, letter writing and application.

Table 1 Frequency of Moves in Written Confessions

	Move	Move	Move	Move	Move	Move	Move	Move
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Text1								
Text2	\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark
Text3					\checkmark		\checkmark	
Text4								
Text5								\checkmark
Text6		\checkmark			\checkmark			
Text7	\checkmark						\checkmark	\checkmark
Text8		\checkmark						
Text9	\checkmark				\checkmark			\checkmark
Text10	\checkmark				\checkmark			\checkmark
Text11								
Text12	\checkmark	\checkmark			\checkmark			\checkmark
Text13		\checkmark			\checkmark			
Text14		\checkmark			\checkmark			
Text15		\checkmark			\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark
Text16								

Text17								
Text18		\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
Text19		\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark	
Text20			\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark	
Text21	\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
Text22		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark	
Text23	\checkmark		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark
Text24	\checkmark							
Text25		\checkmark		\checkmark		\checkmark		
Text26		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark		
Text27		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark	
Text28			\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	
Text29		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark	
Text30		\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark	\checkmark		\checkmark	
Total	14	19	20	29	25	17	29	14

Table 1 indicated that students were more likely to employ moves 4 and 7 in the written texts. That is, 29 out of 30, which occupied 96.7% of the total, tended to use these two moves. Also it is interesting to find that students were inclined to avoid using the closing salutation when the greeting move appeared at the beginning of the written documents. Only in two cases (15 and 18), did the writers use a closing salutation without greeting at the opening of the written documents.

The following case is illustrative of the corpus of the current research, showcasing the details of each move and its specific local communicative purpose of written confessions.

Unit	Text	Moves
1	尊敬的×老师	Opening salutations
	Zunjing de laoshi Respected Teacher [surname of the teacher]	
2	您好	Greetings
	Nin hao	
	How are you [H]	

2	我想是我认真检讨我自己的时候了。	Acknowledging	the
	Wo xiang shi wo renzhen jiantao wo ziji de shihou	misconduct committed	
	de		
	I think I care confess my time I think it's time for me to confess.		
3		Narrating the story	
5	│我自进校以来就开始喜欢网络游戏,慢慢的就 │	Trainating the story	
	开始沉迷其中。		
	Wo zi jinxiao yilai jiu kaishi xihuan wangluo		
	youxi, manman de jiu kaishi chenmi qizhong I since enter school begin like web game, gradually		
	begin addict in		
	I began to be fond of computer games when I		
	entered college, and gradually became addicted		
	to them.		
	开始的时候还能应付学习,后来根本就无法跟		
	上老师的教学进度,这让我整个人很崩溃,就		
	越发沉迷于游戏。		
	Kaishi de shihou haineng yingfu xuexi, houlai		
	genben wufa genshang laoshi jiaoxue jindu, zhe		
	rang wo zhenggeren hen bengkui, jiu yuefa chenmi		
	yu youxi. Begin de when handle study, then cannot keep up		
	with teacher teaching, this make me collapse, more		
	addict game		
	At the beginning I can barely handle the lessons,		
	then more and more I could hardly keep up with the class, which made me sad and more		
	addicted to the games.		
	由于我这种种在学校的表现还惊动了我的父		
	│母,他们对我的表现非常失望,我曾经是他们		
	│ │ 心目中的好孩子,有抱负,有志向, 但是如今		
	│ │我却一无是处,这个学期每门功课都挂科。		
	Youyu wo zhezhongzhong zai xuexiao de biaoxian		
	hai jingdong de wo de fumu, tamen dui wo de		
	biaoxian feichang shiwang, wo cengjing shit amen		
	xinmuzhong de haohaizi, you baofu, youzhixiang,		
	danshi rujin wo qu yiwushichu, zhege xueqi meimen gongke dou guake.		
	Because in school deed wake my parents, they very		
	disappointed, I once their good boy, have ambition,		
	but right now I nobody, this semester every course		
	fail.		
	Finally my parents knew what I have done in the college, and they were very disappointed		
	with me. I used to be a good boy with ambitions,		

	but right now I am a nobody. I have failed all courses this semester.	
4	我真是无颜见我的父母,我的家人了。 他们含	Presenting the emotion of being remorseful
	辛茹苦送我上大学,但是我却以这样的方式来	
	回报他们,我感到非常的懊悔。	
	Wo zhenshi wuyan jian wo de fumu, wo de jiaren de. Tamen hanxinruku song wo shang daxue, danshi wo que yi zheyang de fangshi lai huibao tamen, wo gandao feichang de aohui. I really no face see my parents, my family. They [idiom] hardship send me university, but I use way reward them, I feel very regretful	
	I really can't bear to face my parents and my	
	family again. They sent me to the university enduring hardships. But I reward them in this way. I feel deep remorse.	
5	×老师,在学校这两年来, 您对我一直非常的	Expressing appreciation of the teacher
	关心,经常鼓励我,希望我能摆脱网络游戏,	
	认真学习,但是我没有接受您的建议,现在我	
	终于意识到自己的危险处境了,如果我不把注	
	意力转到学习上来我很有可能将被学校除名,	
	无法完成学业。	
	[surname] laoshi, zai xuexiao zheliangnian lai, nin dui wo yizhi feichang de guanxin, jingchang guli wo, xiwang won eng baituo wangluo youxi, renzhen xuexi, danshi wo meiyou jieshou nin de jianyi, xianzai wo zhongyu yishidao ziji de weixian chujing de, ruguo wo buba zhuyili zhuandao xuexi shang lai wo henyou keneng jiang bei xuexiao chuming, wufa wancheng xueye. [surname] teacher, in school two tear, you [H] for me very care, often encourage me, hope me get rid of web game, study hard, but I no accept your [H] suggestion, now I finally realize my dangerous situation, if I no attention academic study I very possible drop, cannot accomplish study. You [H] cared about me a lot since I got into college, and encouraged me to get rid of computer games, and concentrate on my studies. But I did not follow your [H] advice. Now I realize how critical my situation is. If I do not pay more attention to my studies, I might be dropped from the school and could not finish my study.	
6		Requesting for forgiveness

	[surname] laoshi, qing nin zai gei wo yici nuli de	
	jihui	
	5	
	[surname] teacher, please you [H] again give me	
	another chance	
	Please give me another chance.	
7	我一定改变自己,刻苦学习,完成学业,不负	Promising self-correction in
		future actions
	您和家人的期望。	
	wo yiding gaibian ziji, keku xuexi, wancheng	
	xueye, bufu nin he jiaren de qiwang	
	I will change self, work hard, accomplish study,	
	not let down you [H] and my family.	
	I will change myself and work hard and	
	complete my studies. I will not let you and my	
	family down.	
8		Clasing colutations
ð	此致 cizhi	Closing salutations
	敬礼jingli/ salute/ respectfully yours	
9	Signature of confessor (manually)	Signature

8. Text-internal Features of the Written Documents

Based on the analysis, some text-internal features were identified. Specifically, some linguistic representations were found to be utilized frequently. Also, certain groups of lexicos were of high frequency usage in the written texts.

8.1 Use of Honorifics

In the first place, the use of honorifics is one of the main characteristics throughout the written text type. To be exact, the salutation phase is one of the major presentations of this feature. The greetings at the beginning of the written documents are usually written,

您好nín ǎǎo / how are you [honorific]? which, conventionally, could show the

relationship between the writer and the reader, that is, the addressee has titles or social rank or is older than the addresser, which is a form of politeness behavior in the Chinese context. The other feature lies in the place where the addresser salutes to the addressee between the coda and the signature at the end of the written text. The addresser may give

best wishes to the receiver and it is optional. Thus, 此致敬礼 (cǐ zhì jìng lǐ), which can

be literally translated as sincerely yours or respectfully yours in English, is a normative step in epistle writing and is partially employed in written confessions.

8.2 Rhetorical Move Strategies Employed

In actuality, written confessions have comparatively stable rhetorical moves. By having examined the 10 cases, two rhetorical move strategies were found as follows:

Written confession	Epistolary convention
Heading	No heading
Opening salutation	Opening salutation
Greeting	Greeting
Body	Body
Closing salutation	Closing salutation
Signature	Signature

Table 2 Rhetorical Move Strategy 1 Used by Students

Table 2 shows that there are similarities between written confessions and the epistolary style in Chinese writing convention. The results showed that 14 students out of 30 used this rhetorical structure of epistolary style, demonstrating that normative as well as strategic politeness (Kenneth, 2005 quoted in Bargiela-Chiappini, 2007) were utilized by students in crafting written confessions with the communicative purpose of winning sympathy from teachers or school authorities. This might indicate that students tend to stress the relationship with the receiver using a sincere and respectful tone.

However, the rest of cases did not utilize the same strategy, which was possibly influenced by the format of common official documents in the educational institutions. To a great extent, the epistolary style was discarded. Students were inclined to use the formal style of writing official documents, i.e., applications. The style of writing applications is as follows:

Written confession	Applications
Heading	Heading
Opening salutation	Opening salutation
Body	Body
Closing	Closing
Signature	Signature

 Table 3 Rhetorical Move Strategy 2 Used by Students

Table 3 may suggest that students who employed the style of writing an application tended to display formality when crafting the confession. This strategy might possibly show the serious attitude of students towards what they had committed to win over the receiver. Fourteen confessors, 47% of the total, employed this strategy without greeting and closing salutations, which, to some extent, is in line with the writing of official applications in the institutions. Additionally, two writers employed both rhetorical strategies in the written communication.

The loanability of other genre colony (Bhatia, 2005) entails students to realize their specific communicative purposes. The elicitation of genre serves as not only textual artifacts but also an instrument (Bhatia, 2005, p. 34). That is to say, written confessions belong to either formal epistolary genre or official genre writing owing to its special communicative purposes.

Regarding the analysis, it may be inferred that writers may choose genres from different genre colonies as to realize their communicative purposes. In this respect, written confessions are a compound genre made up of two distinctive genres, which is in accordance with the assertion in the existing literature of genre analysis that writers tend to loan genre styles from the same colony to form a new genre to serve their specific purposes of communication in business settings. The advent of advertorials is a mixed genre (Bhatia, 2005) from the same colony, which functions partially to give information and partially to advertise.

8.3 The Utilization of Notional Lexicos

Further, by having explored the written texts, some specific linguistic properties were found pervasive. Firstly, notional lexicos were utilized by students with a high frequency, as shown in the following table:

Lexical	Frequency
Remorseful (后悔, hòuhuǐ)	16
Ashamed (惭愧, cánkuì)	12
Apologetic (抱歉, bào qiàn)	8
Promise (保证, bǎo zhèng)	20
Sincerity (诚恳, chéng kěn)	25
Forgive (原谅, yuán liàng)	20

Table 4 Frequency of Notional Lexicos in the Written Texts

Table 4 shows notional words (including verbs, nouns and adjectives) used in the corpus, indicating the characteristics, which may indicate the basic tone of this specific written text type.

Moreover, there was a considerable quantity of adverbs of degree in the data, which also belong to the notional category.

 Table 5 Adverb of Degree Used in the Written Texts

Category Adverb of Degree	1 st category	2 nd category	3 rd category
极/ jí /extremely	7		
极度 / jí dù/ extremely	1		
很/ hěn /very;		19	
太/ tài / very ;		1	
非常/ fēi cháng/very		14	

Tuo (2008) opines that Chinese adverbs of degree can be classified into three types (Lü, 2000 quoted in Tuo, 2008). The first category is adverbs that express utmost mood; for example, extremely (极, jí), and extremely (极其, jí qí); the second group is moderate in expressing writer's mood, and examples are very (太/ tài), very (很, hěn), very (非常, fēi

cháng), and very (格外, gé wài); the third class of adverb of degree are those that depict

the weakest mood of the writer. It is emphasized that the first and the second categories are identified after having investigated the data. The third category, which is the weakest in terms of expressing the emotion of writers, was not found in the current data.

8.4 Formulaic Language Employed

Basically, the examination of the rhetorical moves or functional units of the written text type was not sufficient to complete a deeper description and explanation of it, according to modern genre theory. Fundamentally, both structural and textual characteristics are indispensible in describing a text type thoroughly. The highly formulaic linguistic representations were invariably used by the students in the corpus:

我错了/wo cuo le / I wrong [ASP]/ I have admitted my misconduct;

我保证改变自己

wǒ bǎo zhèng gǎi biàn zì jǐ I promise to self-correct;

我对自己所做的一切感到后悔莫及

wǒ duì zì jǐ suǒ zuò de yī qiè gǎn dào hòu huǐ mò jí I feel remorseful about what I have violated;

此致敬礼/ cǐ zhì jìng lǐ/ yours respectfully.

In addition to this, in the opening salutation, students unanimously addressed the receivers as "respected teacher + surname", which could also be regarded as formulaic language, which is mainly culture-bound.

9. Research Findings and Conclusion

Genre analysis is an approach of investigating both macro and micro levels of stretches of language, which has been an established research convention. The approach seeks to achieve a deeper description and explanation (Bhatia, 1993) of certain written texts in a way which is believed to be a more integrated analysis of language in use. The demonstration of move structure of written confessions is without doubt a text external description. In response to the analysis in the present study, it has been decoded that a rhetorical move structure recurred in written confessions. Students actually followed the structure while crafting this written text type. Based on the research findings, a eight-move rhetorical structure was elicited to describe the text external features of the written documents. The formation of written confessions are shaped by the communicative purposes with the knowledge students possess. On the basis of the rhetorical structure, students tended to confess what they had committed. It is interesting to note that students employed two distinctive rhetorical strategies to convey their meaning in the written communication: some of them have employed letter writing style with greeting and closing salutation, whereas others have used official document writing genre. By and large, receivers' expectations play a pivotal part in the craft of written confessions.

Owing to the communicative purposes the text tends to accomplish, written confessions are used as a mediating tool for students seeking forgiveness or exemption from punishment by teachers as well as school authorities. Some of them have chosen to be indirect by borrowing from the genre colony of letters (Bhatia, 1993), whereas others have made attempts to borrow from official document writing convention, which students consider as more formal and serious and, thus, more proper towards the issue involved in the written interaction.

A textual analysis is also critical in order to fulfill the generic description of written confessions. Results drawn from the present study showcase that there are highly typical lexico-grammatical features within the written text type. The results have manifested some discourse features in the written texts. Specifically, regarding the lexico-grammatical features, the texts display lexicos and sentence patterns that are highly frequent. Written confessions are, to a large part, linguistic representations strictly restrained by the cultural tradition that envelopes students.

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Language Planning as a Source of Linguistic Evidence: The Case of Hebrew Revival

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Abstract

The Hebrew revival is a marked case of successful status planning, which transformed a traditional cultural language into a full-fledged modern vernacular. Yet, reconstructing its evolution is challenging because of the paucity of documentation. This study tackles the challenge in two dimensions. In terms of method, it introduces a database and a method of reading it that narrows the knowledge gap on early Modern spoken Hebrew. In terms of contents, it summarily presents the results of applying the method. The hypothesis is that prescriptive literature from the formative phases of the revival may provide conclusive evidence about the oral medium, as it unintentionally documented the linguistic habits it sought to eliminate. The analytical framework of this study is qualitative, based on a linguistic evaluation of the evidence elicited from prescriptive literature combined with its synchronic and diachronic comparison with other language registers. This meticulous method of analysis enabled the researcher to reconstruct early Hebrew speech and to understand the historical structures that shaped it in its formative phases. The contribution of the research to the study of language planning is twofold: (1) the introduction of prescriptive literature as a research tool for linguists; (2) an assessment of the possible effects and limitations of language planning.

Keywords: language planning, prescriptive literature, revival of Hebrew

Language Planning as a Source of Linguistic Evidence: The Case of Hebrew Revival

The main goal of this paper is to present the potential of prescriptive literature as a research tool for linguists where other sources of information are not available. It is based on a long-term empirical study of the so called 'revival of Hebrew', which used prescriptive literature as an essential database to narrow the knowledge gap on the nature of early Modern spoken Hebrew (Reshef, forthcoming1). The research hypothesis was that prescriptive literature from the formative phases of the revival may provide conclusive evidence about the oral medium, as it unintentionally documented the linguistic habits it sought to eliminate. The confirmation of the hypothesis proved crucial to the ability to reconstruct basic structural features of spoken Hebrew in its formative phase.

Historical background

The revival of Hebrew is a well known case of successful status planning: it is the only recorded case in which a language with no native speakers turned into a modern national language (Blau, 1981, pp. 2, 23; Kutscher, 1982, p. 294). Historically, Hebrew was a spoken language in the ancient period, but was replaced by other languages and lost its oral dimension as early as the end of the 2nd century. Yet, it continued to be used throughout history as the liturgical and cultural language of Jews (Kutscher, 1982; Saenz-Badillos, 1993). With the rise of the Jewish National

Movement in the 1880s efforts were made to revive Hebrew and transform it into a spoken language. Initially this initiative had little success, and at the onset of the 20th century the number of speakers was still counted (Harshav, 1993). Yet, by the First World War some 40% of the Jewish population in Palestine declared Hebrew to be its spoken language, with a higher share among the younger generation (Bachi, 1956, p. 185-187). This new reality was recognized by the British Mandate authorities, who declared Hebrew as the third official language of the territory, alongside English and Arabic. With the establishment of the State of Israel in 1948 Hebrew turned into a state language, used as the main language of both state organs and the local society, alongside a variety of minority languages (Morag, 1993). Thus, between the early 1880s and the late 1940s a drastic transformation has affected the usage domains of Hebrew, its diffusion and its linguistic structure.

Exploring this unique transformation is a fascinating field of research. Yet, very few details are available about it since the linguistic study of contemporary Hebrew originates in the 1950s, namely when the formative phases in the emergence of the linguistic system were already completed. Linguists' claims that contemporary Hebrew is essentially different from previous linguistic states were initially rejected by the linguistic establishment, who considered current usage as a distorted type of Hebrew resulting from its insufficient mastery due to the recent formation of the speech community. The new linguistic reality was recognized in academic circles only after an extended period of heated debates (Reshef, forthcoming2).

Nowadays, reconstructing the character of Hebrew prior to the 1950s is challenging because of the paucity of documentation, primarily as far as the spoken language is concerned. No recordings of spontaneous speech were made prior to the 1950s, systematic linguistic analyses of the language were not conducted, and speakers' accounts about their former speech habits are subjective (Reshef, forthcoming1). The period's written language is ruled out as a source of information on the nature of speech not only due to the inherent differences between written and oral usage, but also since it was subject to stylistic norms which dissociated it from the oral medium. Unlike contemporary literature, that often credibly mimics the spoken language in the dialogue, pre-1950s literary texts are marked by elevated language use that does not reflect the mere existence of spoken Hebrew, let alone its characteristics (Shaked, 1987). In light of the paucity of data, the significance of any source of information that may contribute to the reconstruction of speech in its early phases becomes evident.

The research corpus and its limitations

This researcher identified prescriptive literature as the main available source. As the need for guidance in matters of language use was strongly felt in the newly created speech community, publications aimed at correcting current usage abounded, unintentionally leaving extensive documentation of the very linguistic habits they endeavored to eliminate. Yet, employing this literature for this end has to take into account its characteristics and limitations. Its employment as a source of information may not produce a full reconstruction of the linguistic system, but only a partial reconstruction that reminds in many respects the outcome of archeological research. While inevitably inconclusive and marred by many gaps, a cautious analysis of the fragments of information and their significance may provide insights on the structure and overall character of early spoken Hebrew despite the built-in gaps in the reconstruction.

The research corpus consists of three types of documents. An extremely limited number of prescriptive publications reflect an attempt to present a comprehensive description of spoken usage or some of its aspects. These include a journal article from 1929 which covers various linguistic domains (Avinery, 1929), a short booklet from 1930 dedicated to pronunciation (Jabotinsky, 1930),

two late 1940s publications that sum up material from previous publications (Morag, 1947/2004; Avinery, 1947) and a handful of shorter publications. This group of sources provides a rather full coverage of pronunciation, but includes only partial information about the other linguistic domains.

The great bulk of prescriptive literature consists of publications that do not aim at a systematic survey of errors found in speech, but present quite randomly select phenomena. A significant group includes lists of the 'say-don't say' type, offering in two columns a laconic listing of common mistakes alongside the recommended usages to replace them, without explanations of any kind. Such lists are the earliest available source, the first two dating from 1908 and 1911 (Reshef, forthcoming1). Several dozen such lists were published throughout the years.

Another significant group includes language columns published in the Hebrew press. Throughout the formative phases in the emergence of Modern Hebrew, but primarily from the 1930s on, most journals dedicated space for a language column. In most cases these columns were written by a single person – typically a self-appointed language planner (e.g. Avinery, 1964). In other cases they were based on correspondence from a variety of writers – from professional grammarians to members of the general public (e.g. Barak and Gadish, 2009). Dedicated to a discussion of a variety of linguistic topics, such columns often included references to spoken usage.

Both types of sources have advantages as well as disadvantages, and in many respects they supplement each other. The 'say-don't say lists' refer specifically to the spoken language, and due to their conciseness they include a large amount of data for their length. Yet, this data is not always easy to interpret as no explanation or context is provided. A telling example is the entry 'small bike', which appears in the following manner in one of the early lists:

Don't say		Say	
`ofan -ayim	ktan -ot	`ofan -ayim	ktan- im
bike (dual)	small (f.pl)	bike (dual)	small (m.pl.)

Based solely on this information, it is impossible to gather that the correction is not limited to one isolated lexical item, but refers to other items belonging to the class of duals that shifted in spoken Hebrew from masculine to feminine, e.g. *mixnas-ayim* 'trousers', *garb-ayim* 'socks', *miškaf-ayim* 'glasses'.

Another drawback of the 'say-don't say' lists is that rather than being independent from each other, many of them reflect a repetition of the inventory of forms found in earlier versions.

As to the language columns, their advantages lie in their scope as well as in the explanations and contexts provided. Due to these features they may supplement the laconic evidence of the 'say-don't say' lists. Yet, the use of these columns as a source of information requires extensive filtering, as the explanations of the authors are not necessarily grounded in a solid scientific basis, and the data itself includes a large amount of superfluous information for the purpose of linguistic reconstruction. Remarks on the spoken language are mixed with discussions of other linguistic topics, phenomena that permanently shaped the structure of spoken Hebrew are discussed alongside short-lived phenomena that naturally disappeared from common usage, and common features shared by many speakers are discussed alongside random usages owing to insufficient mastery of Hebrew such as typos in store signs, evident errors in public speeches and journal articles, child language phenomena etc. (Reshef, 2004/5). The inclusion of such features in prescriptive literature may be attributed to a variety of factors, such as the period's intolerant attitude towards any kind of deviation from normative standards, the need to be alert to mistakes of any kind lest they penetrate

common usage or the need to publish a new language column on a regular basis. Yet, for the purpose of linguistic reconstruction of the spoken language much of the information included in the language columns is evidently superfluous.

At the other extreme, the evidence provided by all types of sources is in many respects lacking, as the range of actual phenomena found in speech is covered only partially. As a rule, prescriptive authors tend to be conservative. They are not always alert to recent developments in speech, but tend to be preoccupied with certain phenomena and discuss them over and over again. Consequently, there is often a delay between the formation of linguistic change and its discussion in prescriptive literature. (Milroy and Milroy, 1999) Likewise, prescriptive literature tends to focus on specific details, whereas a linguistic reconstruction is interested in the general rules implied by them.

Applying quantitative methods of analysis to the data extracted from prescriptive literature is therefore impractical, and would result in a reflection of the random preoccupations of the narrow group of prescriptive authors. If the aim of the research is to unveil the actual forces that shaped the spoken language, qualitative methods have to be applied. Two significant limitations are imposed on the evaluation of the linguistic reality reflected in the evidence. First, in light of the fragmentary nature of the evidence, the entire revival period has to be treated as a single unit. Tracing the chronology of the formation of features is impractical, as the date in which a feature is documented does not exclude its earlier formation. Likewise, as the sociolinguistic context of features is usually unknown, no distinction may be made between native and non-native usage. Yet, a careful qualitative evaluation of the evidence indicated its effectiveness as a research tool in the reconstruction of early Hebrew speech.

Discussion

The evidence extracted from prescriptive literature pointed at a linguistic system that resembles in many respects contemporary usage, both in its general outline and in specific details (Reshef, forthcoming1). The resemblance applies to all linguistic domains – phonology, morphology, syntax and discourse structure – and highlights the great measure of continuity in the development of spoken Hebrew. In light of the doubts raised in the 1950s regarding linguists' claims that Modern Hebrew constitutes a new linguistic state (Reshef, forthcoming2), tracing its origins at an earlier period constitutes a significant contribution to our understanding of the linguistic mechanisms that enabled the process of revival. Contrary to the commonly accepted view, the data clearly indicates that the gap between spoken and written usage did not develop in the revived language over time, but emerged as soon as an oral dimension was created. Subsequent years involved processes of consolidation, standardization and relatively minor changes, but witnessed no fundamental change in the basic structure of spoken Hebrew.

Such far reaching conclusions could be reached despite the fragmentary nature of the evidence owing to a qualitative analysis that combined to different perspectives on each item recorder in prescriptive source: (a) a comparison of each item with several synchronic and diachronic corpora, and (b) the application of linguistic tools that enabled to evaluate its status in the linguistic system.

Synchronically, the fragments of information extracted from prescriptive sources were compared to other linguistic registers, primarily the period's literature. Certain phenomena discussed by normativists are shared by written and spoken usage, but others are peculiar to speech.

A conspicuous example is the difference between bound object pronouns and bound possessive pronouns. Historically, Hebrew possesses both options for each category, e.g.:

	Bound	Unbou	ind
Possessive pronoun	sus-i	sus	šel- i
	horse-mine	horse	[possessive indicator]-mine
Object pronoun	ra'a- ni	ra `a	`ot- i
	saw-me	saw	[direct object indicator]-me

Yet, in contemporary language bound object pronouns almost totally disappeared from both written and spoken usage, whereas bound possessive pronouns have become rare only in speech, but remained the default option in writing (Reshef, 2004, pp. 167-169). This development is attested to in prescriptive literature in the formative phase of the revival (Reshef, forthcoming 1).

In addition to Hebrew corpora, the analysis should consider the possible influence of foreign languages, which has deeply affected the speech habits of the first generation of Hebrew speakers (Blanc, 1954, pp. 385-386; Rosen, 1956, pp. 74-82). Certain foreign features integrated into spoken Hebrew and became part of its structure, while others were not adopted by the next generation of speakers, for whom Hebrew was a native tongue. Their initial diffusion is well attested in prescriptive sources, but left no trace in contemporary language. Thus, for instance, in the realm of prepositions, the impact of Yiddish – the spoken vernacular of European Jews – resulted in a deviation from the classical norms in certain contexts, such as in the case of the common collocation 'bread with butter', in which the preposition *'im* replaced in modern usage the classical *be*-:

Normative form	Early spoken Hebrew	Current speech
lexem be- xem `a	lexem `im xem `a	lexem `im xem `a
bread [prep.] butter	bread [prep.] butter	bread [prep.] butter

Yet, in other cases classical usage was reinstated over time despite an initial Yiddish influence, as for instance in the case of 'wait for':

Normative form	Early spoken Hebrew	Current speech
xake li	xake ' alay	xake li
wait for-me	wait for-me	wait for-me

Diachronically, in the absence of historical continuity in the development of Hebrew (Rosen, 1956, p. 134; Blanc, 1968), each item recorded in prescriptive literature has to be compared to classical Hebrew and to current spoken usage. Many features considered as innovations of contemporary speech are recorded in prescriptive sources at an early stage of the revival, indicating that linguistic processes such as analogy, paradigm leveling, backformation, neutralization of gender distinctions, change of word order etc. operated in the language as soon as an oral dimension emerged (Reshef, forthcoming1). For instance, cases of analogy in the declination of verbs are attested already in the earliest lists of corrections, published in 1908 and 1911, e.g.:

	Normative form	Spoken form	
Regular declination	l o med	l o med	'studies'
Irregular declination	y a shen	y o shen	'sleeps'

Another telling example is speakers' tendency to treat fixed phrases as a single unit, and consequently place the definite article in initial position, whereas its grammatical place is prior to the last element in the construction, e.g.:

Normative form	Spoken form
beged ha -yam	ha -beged yam
suit [of] the-sea (=the bathing suit)	the-suit [of] sea (=the bathing suit)

The fronting of the definite article to initial position is well attested in prescriptive literature from the revival period. Most items shared by contemporary usage and normativists' comments from the early layers of spoken Hebrew reflect such familiar linguistic processes.

Another significant corpus that has to be taken into consideration is the reading traditions of Hebrew used in liturgical contexts prior to the revival. Though the reading traditions of the classical texts preserved the oral dimension of Hebrew throughout the centuries, there is no direct continuity between them and contemporary speech (Morag, 1999). Features peculiar to specific reading traditions were often rejected by native speech even though they initially took root among the older generation of speakers. Thus, for instance, confusion between certain pairs of homographs stemming from the reading traditions disappeared despite its initial diffusion, and left no trace in contemporary speech. A conspicuous example is the initial confusion between 'ofen 'manner' and 'ofan 'wheel'. These words are written in an identical manner in Hebrew ('fn), as Hebrew script does not systematically indicates the vowels, and were both pronounced in the reading tradition of Ashkenazi Jews as 'ofan (Cohen, forthcoming). Prescriptive sources testify to the penetration of this confusion into the early layer of spoken Hebrew, yet it was not adopted by native speakers of the language and disappeared over time. The shift to the acquisition of the language through the oral medium rather than through its written form enabled the linguistic education of native speakers to eradicate such cases of spelling pronunciation. By contrast, the linguistic education could not compete with productive linguistic forces that triggered deviation from the classical models in the mouths of speakers, and such cases were much more likely to take root in the language despite normativists' objection.

Conclusion

The methodical analysis of each item recorded in prescriptive literature resulted in the possibility to retrieve a plethora of details of linguistic phenomena that marked Early Modern spoken Hebrew and to sketch its basic outline (Reshef, forthcoming1). The linguistic evidence indicates that alongside certain differences between the period's language and contemporary speech, there is an unexpected measure of affinity between them. Many of the features that separate contemporary Hebrew from earlier linguistic stages in all linguistic domains were apparent already in the first decades of the 20th century, indicating that the basic structure of the language was shaped at a relatively early stage.

Tracing the origins of modern spoken phenomena back to the revival period enabled the researcher to identify, based on solid linguistic evidence, some of the central linguistic forces that shaped the emergent linguistic system. A conspicuous finding is that phenomena reflecting the outcome of operative linguistic processes (e.g. analogy) were mostly preserved over time, regardless of normativists' efforts to eradicate them. By contrast, substrate phenomena reflecting either speakers' former languages or their reading traditions of liturgical Hebrew were more liable to be replaced over time by their grammatical alternatives. Though the main aim of the current

research was to validate the value of prescriptive literature as a research tool, the perspective provided by an examination of the exceptional case of Modern Hebrew may indicate which directions of activity may best contribute to the effectiveness of language planning and which are liable to have a smaller impact on speakers' linguistic habits.

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