Proceedings of the 5th International Foreign Language Learning and Teaching Conference (FLLT 2018)

Part of the 5th International FLLT Conference on REVITALIZING AND ENRICHING ELT RESEARCH AND PRACTICES: LOOKING TO THE FUTURE

December 7-8, 2018
Duangtawan Hotel, Chiang Mai, Thailand

Organized by
Language Institute, Thammasat University
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The 5th International FLLT Conference on Revitalizing and Enriching ELT Research and Practices: Looking to the Future. (7-8 December 2018, Duangtawan Hotel, Chiang Mai, Thailand)

Published by Language Institute, Thammasat University
Editor: Rangsiya Chaengchenkit

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Cataloging-in-Publication

International Foreign Language Learning and Teaching Conference (5th: 2018: Chiang Mai, Thailand)

1. FLLT 2018--Proceedings
I. Rangsiya Chaengchenkit, editor.


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Content

Fostering a Natural Atmosphere in Order to Improve Tertiary-Level Students’ Oral Communication Skill in a Business Meeting Project
Lia Agustina

Indian Women’s Resistance against Oppression as Represented in the Postcolonial Novels Ladies Coupé by Anita Nair and Miss New India by Bharati Mukherjee
Nuengruethai Boonsong

Endorsement, Disendorsement and Responsibility: A Corpus-based SFL Approach to Intertextual Positioning Analysis of Bangkok Post Online News on Medical Tourism
Jonathan Rante Carreon, Chiara Ayn Lamarca, Derey N. Panes

Corpus-based Teaching: Addressing the Scarcity of Commercial Textbooks in English for Lawyer Subjects
Jonathan Rante Carreon, Nick Soimuthorndhai, Silawuth Chaengjaroen, Sudarat Chanpermpoonpaul

Analysis of the Comments’ Replies on the Online Travel Agency Website Expedia
Tipapan Chaiwong, Maythiya Khruawan, Phitsinee Khaourai

Critical Discourse Analysis of How Foreigners Define “Thainess” through Online Comments about Dating Thai Women
Thipphayawan Chakthepwong

Relationships between Syntactic Pauses in Read-Aloud Performance and English Reading Ability of Thai EFL Learners
Soisithorn Isarankura

Page
1
9
18
27
37
47
57
Balancing Vocabulary Pedagogical Games and Students’ Achievement in Nigeria

Wisdom Inibehe Jude, Josephine Odey

Professional Digital Competence and Professional Development among Higher Education Teachers: An Explorative Survey

Lucas Kohnke

Charm as an Interactive Power in Classrooms

Kuanhathai Kuadnok

Developing Genre Awareness for Business Email Correspondence

Passamon Lertchalermtipakoon, Supaporn Kawinvasin, Suppachart Pochote, Veeratip Chinorak

An Investigation into Thai Engineering Students’ Perceptions of Classroom Video Projects and their Self-Efficacy

Pornpun Oranpattanachai

Utilizing Electronic Devices in English-Speaking Vietnamese University Classrooms

Quang Phan

A Journey of English Development for Professional Communication: A Narrative Study of a Professional Engineer

Patpimol Phiphatchirakul, Saowaluck Tepsuriwong

‘This study examined …’ Self-mentions in Research Article Abstracts

Punjaporn Pojanapunya

Hegemony and Its Impacts on Identities and Diasporic Experiences in Amitav Ghosh’s The Glass Palace

Intharasuwan Punjanakkakorn

Exploring Manipulation Strategies Used by Truth-Tellers and Deceivers in Thai Online Chat

Montarat Rungruangthum

Perceived Pedagogical Knowledge of Non-Thai Teachers Teaching English at Thai Schools

Maneewan Sangprawet, Pamararat Wiriyakarun
Effects of Creative Writing Instruction Using Drama Techniques on English Creative Writing Ability: A Case Study of Rajamangala University of Technology Krungthep

Wipada Sutthiroj

Teachers! R U Ready for Gen Z?

Rinda Warawudhi

A Case Study on Linguistic Landscapes in Guilin, China

Kai Yao
Fostering a Natural Atmosphere in Order to Improve Tertiary-Level Students’ Oral Communication Skill in a Business Meeting Project

Lia Agustina
State Polytechnic of Malang
Indonesia
lia_alfan2d@yahoo.com

Abstract
Engaging a fun class creates a positive atmosphere in the classroom. Some experts mentioned that when a nice and natural atmosphere are implemented in the classroom, students will be motivated to learn English, which means, it is a kind of a tool to motivate students’ learning. Oral Communication skill is essential for thinking and learning. By having it, students would be able to express information, opinions, and understand concepts, able to discuss experience and knowledge. The researcher used the Action Research Method. The purpose was used to see the improvement of the students’ ability to speak up with 32 students as the subject. The study resulted that most students showed an improvement in all four language skills but speaking skill had the greatest improvement.

Key words: natural atmosphere, a business meeting project, oral communication

1. Introduction
It’s time for teachers to consider more on fostering natural atmosphere to be implemented in the classroom. Some experts stated that when a nice and a natural atmosphere are implemented in the classroom, students would be motivated to learn English. It is a kind of a tool to motivate students to learn English. Natural atmosphere helps students to decrease their fear to speak up, it improves students motivation, it increases students’ level of self-confidence, and it would tend to influence on the students’ fluency and behavior since the interaction among students to students occurs the atmosphere naturally like what are seen outside the classroom.

1.1 Background of the study
The students' capability to learn English may vary in the classroom, it is caused by the background knowledge and the environment which are not the same. It would be wise if teachers are being more open to the ones who ask questions or have difficulty in learning English, and help them to solve their problems. Supporting the situation above, setting the classroom atmosphere naturally highly effected not only on students’ motivation but also on students’ behavior and students’ fluency. Undoubtedly, oral communication skill could be improved by fostering a natural classroom atmosphere.

1.2 Problem of the Study
The problem of this study was “How could fostering a natural atmosphere in implementing a business meeting project improved students’ oral communication skill?

1.3 Objective of the Study
The objective of the study was to see the effective feedback obtained from fostering a natural atmosphere implemented in a business meeting project that motivated students to improve their oral communication skill.

1.4 Assumptions
This study was conducted under the following assumptions. First, it was assumed that the practice of conducting a natural atmosphere in implementing a business meeting project would improve students’ oral communication skill was a crucial tool as the process of improving students' learning and achievement. Second, the implementation of conducting a natural atmosphere in implementing a business meeting project could motivate and improve students’ oral communication skill.

2. Review of Related Literature
Sometimes motivating EFL students to speak up is not easy. Even though the opportunity is given, but some students choose to remain silent whereas in fact students only have a little exposure to the target language to practice their language outside the classroom. One of the considerations to help students to be brave to speak up English is by proposing a natural atmosphere in the classroom.

The definition of natural atmosphere is bringing the real life situation into the classroom setting in with:
- 1). by realising that the role as an English teacher is not only asking students to participate but also motivating students to speak up. The teacher should help students to decrease their fear and provide a nice learning that encourage them to feel more comfortable. Speaking is an important skill needed in a real life. Therefore, motivating students willingness to love speaking, reducing fear and increasing the confidence to speak out should be used as the goal to deal with the problem.
- 2). by informing students that making mistakes is an essential tool to learn English. Every body makes mistakes, we cannot avoid mistakes, having the chances to make mistakes meaning we are having the opportunity to learn the language.
- 3). by introducing a technology. Technology is a part of our learning and practice language; the teaching and learning materials in the internet help a lot in the teaching learning process. Social media can also be used as one of the considerations to communicate a language, even sometimes it allows more time to do the consultation with the teacher rather than a face to face conversations, it is time to practice the fluency, it is a part of a communication.
- 4). by asking students to use chances to practice a lot either with their friends or with their own and think it is a training session to practice English to go to the score goal.
- 5). by asking students to think how they communicate without thinking too much on the proper grammar and ask them to put on their mind to embrace the mistakes.
- 6). by creating the atmosphere of learning as naturally happen outside the classroom
- 7) by using authentic materials – the real language content – students’ accounting knowledge implemented by integrating the language skills
- 8) by putting the position of the teachers as a counselor, a manager, an assessor and a participant.

2.1 Teaching and Learning Materials
Teaching business English would be better when using materials relate to an authenticity. “Authentic material is any kind of material taken from the real world and not specifically created for the purpose of language teaching” (Ellis, 2000). Business books, news papers,
catalogues, internet sources, magazines, TV, radio are some of the authentic materials circulated in the society that could be used as a reference for teachers to select them which are based on students’ level of ability and students’ need.

**Authentic materials**
According to Morrow (1977), the definition of authentic materials are involve language naturally occurring as communication in native-speaker contexts of use. Rogers and Medley (1988, p.467) consider them as “appropriate” and “quality” in terms of goals, objectives, learner needs and interest and “natural” referring to real life and meaningful communication while Jordan (1986, p.113) refers to authentic texts as texts that are not written for language teaching purposes and most of teachers would agree that authentic texts are useful to support language learning process to adapt the native language.

Authentic materials containing of real language that always be updated, it relates more on students’ need that helps students to increase their motivation. But Martinez (2002), stated that authentic texts often contain difficult language, unneeded vocabulary items and complex language structures, which cause a burden for the teacher in lower-level classes. They are some level of language difficulty circulated in the society but teachers would wise enough to select authentic materials taking into account for their students' level of ability. In introducing authentic materials for teaching business English, teachers may have many ways to perform; one of them is implemented in collaborative learning.

**Collaborative Learning in the EFL Classroom**
Collaborative learning is a group work that usually having a small number of students in it working together to finish a certain assignment. Slavin (1995) concluded that the reason collaborative learning succeed as an educational methodology is its use of convergent tasks: Group goals which are based on the individual responsibility of all group members leads to increased learning achievement, regardless of subject or proficiency level of students involved. Jacobs, Power, and Loh, (2002) stated that there are eight basic principles of collaborative learning in the classroom, those are: 1). Cooperation as a value, 2). Heterogeneous grouping, 3). Positive interdependence, 4). Individual accountability, 5). Simultaneous interaction, 6). Equal participation, 7). Collaborative skills, 8) Group autonomy. Ushioda (2003) stated that collaborative learning increases learner motivation and promotes harmonious group dynamics, lowering classroom anxiety and facilitating interaction in the classroom as well as an individual sense of self-competence and self-worth.

In performing a business meeting project a teacher may introduce integrated skills since the skills lead to optimal English as a foreign language to be used as a means of communication and interactions.

**Integrated Skills**
The English Foreign Language (EFL) teaching and learning process has four primary skills, those are; speaking, writing, reading and listening that interact naturally as a communication. O’Malley and Valdez Pierce (1996) stated that Integrating the language skills promotes the learning of real content, not only just the dissection of language forms.

**Classroom Management Performing in a Business Meeting Project**
The strategy implemented was in the form of lecturing, discussing and performing the Business Meeting Project.
Class size and structure:
- Business Meeting projects
- A project takes 8 meetings x 90 minutes
- 4 meetings would be used for the students’ preparation
- 2 meetings for performing a business meeting
- Large classes = 32 students
- The class is divided into a group of 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Meetings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>▪ Searching for the materials – project 1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Consultation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>▪ Comprehending, summarizing and synthesize</td>
<td>2-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Consultation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>▪ Creating power point, dialogue</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>▪ Consultation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Doing practice</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Performing the Business Meeting</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Performing the Business Meeting</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Consultation done also in outside the classroom</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Setting
- Setting the chairs and the tables originally as an authentic-meeting room
- Students wearing the authentic costumes
3. The Purpose and the Use of the Research

3.1 The importance of doing the Research
The main object of learning English as a foreign language (EFL) is students should be able to communicate effectively by using the language, which may help the students to develop certain skills and abilities that would be demanded by their target goals. Doing oral presentations play significant roles in engaging the students cognitively and communicatively in the process of foreign language learning.

4. Research Methodology
This section comprises the description of research design; the subjects, the location, the instruments, the implementation of the methodology of action research.

4.1 The Subjects
The subject was thirty-two students coming from the third semester of the Accountancy Department-State Polytechnic of Malang 2016/2017. The students have four hours (4 x 45 minutes) per week to study English.

4.2 The location
The location of doing the research was at the English Laboratory at Accounting Department-State Polytechnic of Malang

4.3 The Instruments
To monitor the study, some instruments were prepared. The first instrument was pre-test. It was used to inspect, to observe, to record and to judge the ability of the students. The second instrument was project planning form or students’ activities’ sheets. It was used to record the students-activities during the process of doing the project. The third instrument was weekly goal sheet; it was used to record the data weekly for the teacher. It contained written descriptions of what the observer heard, saw, experienced and considerations when collecting the data during the teaching and learning process in the classroom. The fourth instruments were observation check list 1 and check list 2, which were used to record the data for the students’ improvement. The last instrument was questionnaire, which was used to see the students’ opinion about the model implemented.

a. Research Method
According to Lewin (Kemmis & Taggart, 1992, p.8) action research is a spiral or cycle of steps of a research which composing of recognition, planning, action and reflection. Recognition is to check whether the action is feasible to be implemented or not. General plan is to plan, to design, to prepare instruments and procedures. Observation is to observe the process of the action. While reflection is to evaluate the result of the implementation by comparing the actual result and the target.
5. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION
The study of fostering a natural atmosphere by performing business meeting presentations was proposed to improve the students’ communicative competence. The obtained results from the students’ questionnaire and teachers’ interview revealed that fostering the natural atmosphere in implementing business meeting projects were the ideal way through which EFL students could improve their communicative competence.

A teacher’s role involves more than just standing in front of a classroom and teaching. Several roles can be assumed for teachers. Benseddik (2005, p.23) describes them as “…assessor, organizer, prompter, participant and as a source”. While Richards et al (1986) stressed more the roles of needs’ analyst, counselor, and group manager. A successful teacher brings real and natural atmosphere in order to make the students enjoy the sessions. In this vein, Dobson (1992, p.69) advocated that “Realia is not only good for stimulating conversation skills; it tends to make the session especially inexorable”. It should be, the teachers have to motivate the students to communicate their oral English and speak spontaneously by involving them in communicative tasks.

Below were the situation facing during the implementation of the study;

The project needed 16 sessions to be implemented with two sessions used for giving the pre-test and post test, 14 sessions for assigning the business meeting project (7 meetings – 1st project, the rest of the 7 meetings for 2nd project).

The pre-test picturing the students ‘capability. The students’ reading skill and oral report were in the level of unsatisfactory. The students’ problems was on comprehending texts and had the fear to deliver spoken language. The limited vocabulary and less of self confidence were the source of the students’ problem.

The model implemented - Fostering the natural atmosphere in implementing business meeting projects in the classroom would give beneficial to the students to invest more knowledge on the content, to improve communicative competence with the different components that contains; all language systems areas (vocabulary, grammar, discourse and phonology) and skills (speaking, reading, writing and listening) and even effected on built the students’ confidence that demanded the students to reach the target goal.
During the implementation of the model, the students found difficulties on comprehending the authentic materials but the teacher-researcher forcing the students to use them by selecting the simplest authentic materials that related to the content proposed. Authentic materials were considered important and needed since they were introduce the content and helped to improve students’ reading skills as well as.

The students’ lack confidence was also faced as the problem but since the teacher-researcher implemented a model of natural atmosphere in the classroom in which the teacher was functioning as a facilitator, counselor, and group manager then students’ enthusiasm was succeed to be improved.

The students’ responsibility was improved due to the students involvement in their process learning of doing the project.

The strategy applied changed the transition from spoon feeding strategy into independence strategy that made the first Project was done successfully, the key success came from the stimulus of the teacher-researcher on giving the reinforcement toward the students’ work.

In the second project, the students’ motivation, responsible and self confidence were improved significantly. The students work harder and seriously comparing to the previous project that effected on the result of the students performance on doing the presentation. The students did the presentation quite well, and unsuspectly their products produced come to the above target of the teacher-researcher’s mind, they were creative and innovative.

Below was the students’ proficiency:

![Graph showing proficiency improvement](image)

6. Conclusion
In summary, it could be concluded that fostering a natural atmosphere to improve students’ oral communication skill was an effective learning strategy, it promoted students’ active learning, motivation, responsible and self confidence. Students fluency and behavior were also improved.
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Indian Women’s Resistance against Oppression as Represented in the Postcolonial Novels Ladies Coupé by Anita Nair and Miss New India by Bharati Mukherjee

Nuengruethai Boonsong
English Department, Humanities Faculty, Chiang Mai University, Chiang Mai 50200 Thailand
npisces19@gmail.com

Abstract
Drawing on postcolonial feminist theory and concepts related to women’s travel writing, this paper examines Indian women’s resistance against various experiences of oppression as represented in the postcolonial novels Ladies Coupé by Anita Nair and Miss New India by Bharati Mukherjee. The paper posits that the seven female characters in the novels employ a number of viable strategies that eventually enable them to achieve liberation, autonomy, and agency. Taking into account the vital significance of socioeconomic and cultural specificities, this paper also discusses how male dominance, conservatism, and, in certain cases, capitalism and some aspects of modernity, are damaging to female agency, while technologies of motion, a new mode of socialization, and journey may play a role in empowering women. Of note is that some of these female characters do not totally reject traditional institutions or conventional gender relations and are able to manipulate some aspects of them in a way that benefits their lives. Furthermore, forces of modernity can also be utilized by women in their resistance against oppression. The two works, therefore offer valuable insights into resistant strategies employed by contemporary women against oppressive forces.

Keywords: Oppression, Postcolonial Feminism, Resistance, Technologies of Motion

1. Introduction
According to Kirsten Holst Petersen and Anna Rutherford (as cited in Tyagi, 2014, 45), double colonization is defined as a situation in which women simultaneously confront two types of oppression, namely indigenous patriarchal practices and western colonization. In India during British rule, for example, women not only suffered from colonial oppression but also from traditional gender-biased customs and laws (Liddle and Joshi, 1985, p. 524). Modern manifestations of double colonization also exist in postcolonial contexts. As observed by Spivak (as cited in Md Zin, Muhamad, & Rani, 2016, p. 426) in In Other Worlds (1988), in male-dominated discourses, postcolonial men re-colonize their women’s bodies and minds to maintain conservative cultural values. Once colonized, women tend to remain passive and powerless under male oppression. Significantly, as noted by Tickell (2007, 37), neocolonial aspects of globalization or modernity play a more crucial role than the older form of colonization in subjugating and imprisoning women in post-independence and contemporary contexts. Nonetheless, the forces of modernity can also be utilized by women in their resistance against oppression. As argued by Mohanty (2012, pp. 700, 704-705), constructive resistant strategies need to take into consideration sociocultural, economic, and historical specificities, and it is crucial to reject a monolithic representation of oppressed women. Focusing on two postcolonial novels, this paper examines literary representations of various experiences of oppression suffered by Indian women and their resistant strategies. The paper posits that the
seven female characters in the novels make use of a number of viable strategies that ultimately enable them to achieve liberation, autonomy, and agency.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Background Information about the Two Novels Examined

*Ladies Coupé* and *Miss New India* share the central theme that revolves around women’s resistance against oppression during the second half of the twentieth century. Anita Nair, who is the author of *Ladies Coupé* (2001), is an Indian bestselling author of fiction and poetry (Velavan, 2016, p. 99). *Ladies Coupé* is recognized as one of the five best Indian novels in 2002, and it was translated into over twenty-five languages (Samaikya, 2016, p. 2). The novel deals with the issues of subordination, subjugation, and oppression inflicted on women within both the domestic and public spheres by the men in their families and various institutions. Also foregrounded in the novel is the different strategies employed by women to handle oppressive situations within the domestic and public locales. *Miss New India* (2012), the other novel examined, was authored by Bharati Mukherjee, an award-winning Indian-born American author whose literary works include numerous novels, short stories, and non-fictions (Crane, 2011, para. 1). *Miss New India*, one of her most renowned novels, focuses on the female protagonist who is initially subordinated to and oppressed by various forces that include her parents, male strangers, and capitalism. However, she ultimately overcomes those oppressive forces through self-reliance and valuable experiences and insights gained through her journey and increased professional proficiency.

2.2 Synopsis of the Novels

2.2.1 *Ladies Coupé*

*Ladies Coupé* depicts the trajectories of six focalizers: Akhila, Janaki, Sheela, Margaret Shanthi, Prabha Devi, and Marikolanthu. They are Indian women from various family backgrounds but they all have experienced oppression and subordination, albeit in different forms. The women coincidentally meet and have a chance to share their life stories during a train journey. A ladies compartment (or ladies coupé) on the train becomes the central setting of the novel, where Akhila, the female lead character, initiates socialization with the other five women and encourages them to relate to her the stories of their lives. Listening to them, Akhila gradually gains critical consciousness and insights that strengthen and enable her to eventually free herself from the forces that have subjugated and imprisoned her.

2.2.2 *Miss New India*

*Miss New India* revolves around the life of 19-year-old Anjali Bose and her quest for greater freedom and autonomy. Told in third person narration, the novel initially reveals Anjali’s frustration and confusion as she embarks on a search for liberation that involves identity reconstruction. She is portrayed as a young woman growing up in a conservative family ruled by her dominant and controlling father. Nonetheless, western influence and her friendship with an American teacher trigger her rebellion against the restrictions and expectations imposed on her by her conservative parents. The teacher later encourages her to pursue career opportunities in affluent and modernized Bangalore. Unfortunately, the arranged marriage plan organized by her parents results in sexual violence; Anjali is raped by the man her parents want her to marry, and this becomes a turning point of her life. In misery and shock, Anjali escapes by taking a bus journey that takes her far away from her hometown for the first time. During the journey, she witnesses incidents in which Indian women are sexually abused and exploited by their male
counterparts. Some of the male passengers also attempt to molest her. Arriving in Bangalore, Anjali is initially overwhelmed by the capitalist culture and the exuberance of young Indians who imitate the American accent and consume foreign-brand goods. Yet, she welcomes new experiences and new company, and she later forms a relationship with a charming Indian businessman. As the novel progresses, however, Anjali reaches a new level of critical consciousness and makes an important decision to pursue a path that leads to her genuine independence and agency.

2.3 India and British Colonization
According to Buckley (2015, paras. 1-3), India before British colonization was male-dominated and women were largely relegated to marginalized positions. Most women were constrained by domesticity and their involvement in public affairs was minimal. They also lacked educational and occupational opportunities. In addition, traditional practices and customs such as child marriage and “sati,” (the Hindu tradition of burning widows alive) played a crucial role in inflicting suffering, violence, and death on girls and women. Regarding British colonization of India, Edwardes (1961, pp. 205-206) observes that official British colonization of the country lasted for about eighty-nine years, from 1858 to 1947, and during the colonization period, female oppression continued. Career opportunities for women were also severely limited and women were expected to perform domestic roles of being wives and mothers, whose primary role was to care for children at home (Coppin, 2010, p. 43). In sum, gender inequality remained unchanged during the years of British rule (Liddle and Joshi, 1985, p. 524). Since India gained political independence, the issue about women’s rights and well-being has received greater attention; yet, Indian women nowadays still suffer from acts of violence, such as sexual molestation in workplaces and on streets (Sen, 2000, pp. 1-2). Additionally, Van Klaveren, Tijdens, Hughie-Williams, and Martin (2010, pp. 46-55) note that approximately fifty percent of Indian women are employed in laboring positions, such as textile and leather manufacturing.

3. Methodology
The key theoretical concepts employed in this qualitative research are summarized as follows.

3.1 Postcolonial Feminism
Lane (2013, p. 487) contends that postcolonialism is often employed in literary studies as a counter discourse against the Eurocentrism of the literary cannon. During the colonial era, Eurocentrism was evident in colonial discourses utilized by colonizers who represented themselves as superior to the colonized. Eurocentrism also plays a crucial role in marginalizing formerly colonized countries and their citizens. Regarding feminism, Lane (2013, p. 635) traces its origin to Mary Wollstonecraft’s 1792 manifesto, A Vindication of the Rights of Woman, in which feminism is seen as a counter discourse that aims at alleviating female suffering and challenging negative stereotypes imposed on women, particularly the ones that characterize them as inactive, inferior, innocent, or emotional. As a counter discourse that combines postcolonialism with feminism, postcolonial feminism offers a critique of feminist theorists in western societies, especially their tendency to misrepresent and universalize experiences of women in formerly colonized societies.

3.2 Women’s Resistant Strategies

3.2.1 Sociocultural Specificities
The central argument of Indian feminist scholar Chandra Talpade Mohanty (2012, pp. 697, 700, 704-705) is that constructive resistant strategies against various forms of oppression
suffered by women in developing countries need to take into account the specificities of those
women’s sociocultural, economic, and political contexts as well as their personal interests and
problems. She also asserts that effective resistance can be initiated when women gain critical
consciousness or awareness that enables them to recognize existing hegemonies that oppress
or exploit them. In her article, “Under Western Eyes: Feminist Scholarship and Colonial
Discourses,” Mohanty offers a powerful critique of western feminists’ representation of women
in third world countries that largely homogenizes and categorizes them as those who are
oppressed, powerless, or victimized. In Mohanty’s view, a monolithic representation of women
in developing countries is not constructive to women’s resistance, since such a representation
affirms a colonialist discourse that seeks to impose categories on the other or the periphery
without paying attention to their local specificities. Moreover, she claims that western feminist
scholars tend to misrepresent postcolonial women and reiterate a binary opposition model
between first and third world dissimilarities.

3.2.2 Technologies of Motion
Technologies of motion, such as trains, buses, automobiles, and airplanes are modern forms of
transportation accessible to the public. In Moving Lives: Twentieth-Century Women’s Travel
Writing, Smith (2001, pp. XII-XIII) posits that technologies of motion can be utilized as
women’s resistance tool, for they may serve as a space where women achieve constructive
change or shift in their perspectives during a journey. In other words, female travelers’ pursuit
of autonomy and liberation can be enhanced through spatial and social relations within modern
modes of transportation. In Smith’s view, train travel provides women with agency and makes
it possible for them to become less sessile, less deserted, less dependent, and more self-reliant.
This is because a locomotive increases female mobility and enables them to enter public arenas.
An economical train journey, for instance, can take women from their home villages to major
cities for occupational opportunities (pp. 127-128). Likewise, in the article “On the Road:
(Auto)Mobility and Gendered Detours,” Kurtz (as cited in Smith, 2001, pp. 194-195) notes
that, in the American culture, Greyhound bus may function as an explorative site for female
travelers and travelling in it for a while may lead to a greater recognition of one’s potential and
more nuanced understanding of gender, racial, and also social hierarchies on the bus. As this
mode of travelling is chosen by women who do not mind hardship and exhaustion during their
journey, they can be seen as intentionally avoiding other more convenient modes of
transportation traditionally designed to accommodate female passengers. In this paper, the
focus is on literary depiction of train and bus as the two modes of transportation utilized by
women who see freedom, agency, and independence as the most crucial goals in their lives.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 Ladies Coupé
All the six female characters in Ladies Coupé have experienced subordination and oppression,
and they have utilized different forms of resistant strategies. To illustrate, 45-year-old Akhila,
the female protagonist, is forced by circumstances to be the breadwinner of her family after the
death of her father. Despite her professional skill and ability to earn income to support the
whole family, she does not feel rewarded or proud. On the contrary, she feels that she is
enslaved by a full-time job with rigid work hours. Being part of the modern workforce is thus
a form of oppression for her. Besides, conservative patriarchal values pose obstacles to her love
relationship with a younger man. Landlocked Bangalore, where she lives and works, becomes
a metaphor for her enslavement, subjugation to conservative norms, and lack of freedom. One
day, Akhila makes a decision to board a train that takes her away from Bangalore, and, as the
novel progresses, we see how Akhila increasingly gains valuable insights and knowledge about life through her socialization and sharing of real life narratives with other women during a train journey. The narratives capture the women’s resistant strategies against oppression and their eventual triumphs. After listening to all of them, Akhila is able to come up with her unique means of resistance. Leaving her domesticated, family-oriented, and fragile self behind, she emerges as an autonomous woman who embraces her identity as a sexual being and is courageous enough to seek sexual fulfilment and romantic relationship on her terms. Metaphorically, a scenic seaside city where she leaves the train at the end of her journey helps reinforce Akhila’s liberation and self-renewal. Interestingly, technologies of motion, in this case a train, play a crucial role in assisting her in her quest for freedom and autonomy.

Successful resistance is also portrayed through the life story of Janaki, an elderly lady who shares the ladies compartment with Akhila. Janaki has been married since she was quite young and the marriage was arranged by her parents. She went along with it, for she could not imagine life as a single woman without a family of her own. Despite the fact that her husband is a loving and caring man, Janaki initially found her married life suffocating and, for years, she struggled to perform expected wifely and motherly duties. At one point in her life, she even felt that there was no room for her real identity and selfhood to emerge. As she gets older, the aging process also causes her trouble and she has to rely on sleeping pills and other unnecessary medicines prescribed by her westernized doctor. It can be seen that Janaki has been entrapped and suffocated by the marriage institution, and her reliance on excessive amount of medicines suggests the way her health is subjugated to the hegemony of the commercialized medical industry. After years of being married, Janaki realizes that marriage as an institution dictated by patriarchy cannot provide her with happiness and fulfilment, but she discovers that her husband’s love and companionship are what matters the most. She concludes her story by expressing her desire to be with her husband and share the rest of their lives together; yet, she rejects the dominant view that sees marriage as pivotal to women’s happiness and selfhood. She also regains control over her health and well-being by deciding to travel second class on her own without showing concern about any potential physical hardship or difficulty during the journey. In sum, Janaki’s resistance against the dominant patriarchal view about marriage is accomplished without her having to break the bond between herself and her husband. Her decision to travel alone in a second-class compartment also suggests her growing confidence in her health that may potentially lead to the rejection of the commercialized medical industry’s intrusive and overwhelming authority.

The story of 14-year-old Sheela, another passenger in the ladies compartment, also captures triumphant resistance. Sheela is portrayed as an intelligent, perceptive, and compassionate teenager who dearly loves and admires her strong-willed and vivacious grandmother. Growing up in a family dominated by a conservative and controlling father who often criticizes and tries to discipline her, Sheela finds the atmosphere at home tense and oppressive. Initially, Sheela’s rebellion against her father is not openly expressed, as she does not want to appear disrespectful to him. However, shortly after the death of her grandmother, she defies him by helping to fulfill what she believes to be her late grandmother’s last wish rather than going along with her father’s preference for a tradition-bound and conservative funeral. Knowing that her grandmother cherished beauty and elegance, she applies makeup for the late old lady without fear of her father’s wrath. Sheela’s courage in defying her father for the sake of her beloved grandmother indicates a strong bond between herself and her grandmother, and this female bonding can be seen as a powerful resistant tool against male authority and conservative customs.
The life of another passenger, Margaret Shanthi, is also exemplar of women’s resistance against oppression and their victory. In the beginning, Margaret is doubly oppressed by her domineering and egoistic husband and the gender-biased academic institution. The husband exercised control over virtually all aspects of her life; he made her change her hairstyle, eating habit, and first name. He even forced her to abort her baby. Furthermore, Margaret’s educational and professional progress is hindered by the gender-biased academic culture even though she is as capable as her husband. Nevertheless, her intellectual strength, perseverance, and determination, enable her to eventually transform her husband into a milder person who is not so difficult to live with. She is also able to maintain a teaching job that earns her regular income and financial independence.

A story told by Prabha Devi, another woman in the ladies compartment, also reflects women’s ability to cope with their own inner fear and conventional gender roles that limit female agency and potential. Prabha Devi was influenced by the belief that a woman’s place is within the domestic sphere and that marriage is most essential to women. After getting married, she was financially dependent on her wealthy husband, as she had no professional skill. Although she strived to fulfill the roles of perfect mother and wife as advocated by patriarchy, deep down she aspired for a different identity and selfhood that would help enhance her self-esteem. After a New York trip with her husband, she tried to transform herself to fit in with the image of what she perceived to be that of a modern westernized woman. To accomplish such a mission, she imitated what she believed to be the way American women dress and act, believing that by doing so she would appear more charming and attractive. Unfortunately, her new identity was misunderstood by one of her male acquaintances who assumed that she was flirting with him. This led him to make sexual advances towards her, something that shocked and traumatized her. She blamed herself for leading him on, though unintentionally, and since then she became withdrawn and hardly socialized with anyone. As time passes, however, Prabha Devi realizes that she should not punish herself for that man’s action and start to discover and value the innermost desire and strength within herself. Despite her fear of water, she begins to learn how to swim and eventually becomes very good at swimming. Her ability to swim dramatically increases her confidence and self-esteem, and she gains respect from her husband, who previously regarded her as boring and lifeless. Prabha Devi’s personal victory echoes the view that women’s innermost desire and agency should be privileged over stereotypical motherly and wifely roles idolized in patriarchal culture.

The other passenger in the ladies compartment is 31-year-old Marikolanthu who belongs to a different social and economic background from other women in the same compartment. Whereas the five women are from middle and upper class backgrounds, Mari is a working-class woman whose experience and suffering echo that of the subaltern classes. According to Spivak (1994, pp. 78, 82-83) in “Can the Subaltern Speak?,” subaltern members include illiterate peasantry or working classes. She also notes that the subaltern is voiceless and deprived of history, and women who are members of the subaltern class are situated deeply in shadow. The traumatizing experiences and agonies of Mari exemplify the life of a female subaltern who has been victimized and made voiceless by male oppression. After her father’s death, poverty and lack of education forced young Mari to work as a babysitter for an upper-class family, the Chettiar. She was later raped by a male member of the Chettiar family, Murugesan, and that sexual violence resulted in an unwanted pregnancy. In addition to male oppression, Mari was used and sexually exploited by her upper-class lesbian employer who manipulated her to do what she wanted and discarded her afterwards. Stigmatized as a mother
who refuses to look after her child, she is also denied an opportunity to be trained as a nurse. Nonetheless, despite all the tragedies she has experienced, Mari is not defeated; she eventually learns to forgive those who have inflicted violence and abuse on her and is empowered by the new-found love she has for her child. She wants to look after and protect her young son, and this determination transforms her victimhood into the life-giving energy that resists against and defeats the destructive forces of patriarchy and class exploitation.

4.2 Miss New India

Similar to the six female characters in Ladies Coupé, Anjali Bose, the female protagonist of Miss New India has resisted and battled against oppressive patriarchy and emerged as a stronger and more autonomous being. In the beginning, the conservatism of her parents figured as the oppressive force that suffocates and limits her agency. Worse, she is subjected to sexual violence as a result of her parents’ desire to marry her off to a man they hardly know anything about. Like Akhila in Ladies Coupé, technologies of motion assist Anjali in her quest for freedom and emancipation. To escape the oppressive atmosphere of her family and the limitations of the small town of her birthplace, she gets on a bus that takes her to Bangalore, a more affluent and modernized city. During the bus journey, she witnesses male sexual exploitation of impoverished working-class women. Nevertheless, the bus eventually takes her to her desired destination and there she finds a job that earns her steady income for the first time. However, capitalist Bangalore has its own forms of inequality, exploitation, and entrapment. Besides, Anjali’s relationship with a wealthy businessman makes her increasingly dependent on him and all the expensive things he purchases for her. As the novel progresses, Anjali makes an important decision to reclaim her independence by breaking up with him in order to pursue a path that leads to her genuine agency. She eventually becomes a successful career woman, the “Miss New India” of the title, who represents India’s younger generations with the power to determine India’s future in their hands.

5. Conclusion

The portrayals of the female characters in Ladies Coupé and Miss New India correspond with the argument of Mohanty that women’s resistance against oppression can take several forms depending on their sociocultural, economic, and political contexts as well as their personal interests and trouble. It is also noticeable that effective resistance is initiated when women acquire critical consciousness about existing hegemonies that oppress or exploit them. Of note is that, instead of entirely rejecting traditional institutions or conventional gender relations, some of the female characters examined are able to manipulate some aspects of those institutions and relations in a way that improves their lives and relationships with those close to them. Essentially, investigation of Ladies Coupé reveals that technologies of motion, particularly trains, are represented as women’s resistance tool, since they make it possible for them to become less sessile, less deserted, less dependent, and more self-reliant. Moreover, they provide women with a space where they achieve shift in their perspectives. In the case of Miss New India, a bus journey offers the female protagonist a means to escape from the conservatism of oppression of her birthplace. Sadly, however, the bus is not a safe space for her and she also witnesses the sexual exploitation of women by their male counterparts during her journey. The two novels, therefore offer valuable insights into various experiences of oppression and resistant strategies employed by contemporary women against oppressive forces.
References


Endorsement, Disendorsement and Responsibility: A Corpus-based SFL Approach to Intertextual Positioning Analysis of Bangkok Post Online News on Medical Tourism

Jonathan Rante Carreon1, Chiara Ayn Lamarca2, and Derey N. Panes3
Huachiew Chalermprakiet University
Thailand
1carreonjrc@gmail.com, 2chiaraayn@gmail.com, 3justinedane02@yahoo.com

Abstract
This paper investigates on an online news website’s presentation of the medical tourism phenomenon, where news articles on medical tourism published on Bangkok Post online from 2010 to 2018 are examined for keywords (e.g. Scott & Tribble, 2006) by comparing words in the node corpus with absolute frequencies of at least 50 against their frequencies in the British National Corpus (BNC) using the statistical measure of log-likelihood (LL). Keywords with LL values of at least 200 are iteratively categorized into themes to identify which sorts of information are statistically significant in the news reports. Then informed by Appraisal Theory’s concept of intertextual positioning (White, 2015), the concordance of each keyword is analyzed for news writers’ endorsement, disendorsement, and authorial responsibility. The findings may shed some light on the discursive presentation of medical tourism in Thailand by online news writers, which may have some impact on international readers’ (potential patients) choice of a host country for their medical tourism needs.

Keywords: Corpus-based analysis, Intertextual positioning, Keywords, Medical tourism, Online news

1. Introduction
The turn of the century has witnessed an influx of medical tourists in Thailand and other Asian countries. Carrera & Bridges (2006) argued that long waiting lists in home countries, high costs of elective treatments and fewer barriers to travel germinated the idea of availing healthcare in another country and is gaining greater appeal to many. Connell (2006) and De Arellano (2007) posited that new technology and skills in destination countries alongside reduced transport costs and Internet marketing have all played a role in the bourgeoning of the medical tourism enterprise. Fisher and Sood (2014) found that lower hospitalization costs in destination countries and prior international travel emerged as important factors. In terms of information dissemination, Yeoh, Othman and Ahmad (2013) suggested that word-of-mouth and viral marketing are potent marketing tools. Hanefeld et al. (2015) focused on the role of networks, and defined linkages between individual providers, patients and facilitators to explain why and where patients travel. Turner (2010) argued that patients can be guided to make informed choices by providing information on accredited international health-care facilities.

The advent of the cyberspace makes the dissemination of medical tourism information even more convenient. Carreon and Watson Todd (2013) reported that private hospitals lure potential patients to seek medical treatment in their medical institutions through hospitals’ websites. Information from hospital websites, however, are too focused on the bright side of medical tourism and on creating ‘needs’ to entice readers to believe and eventually seek medical
treatment (see also Carreon et al., 2013). Alternatively, potential patients may gather information from third parties, who are arguably impartial presenters of facts regarding medical tourism in certain destination countries. These third parties include international hospital accreditation centers, non-government organizations handling international tourists, online news websites and others. Since the focus of this research is medical tourism in Thailand, online news was chosen as the data source. This research paper examines online news reports on medical tourism to identify what kind of information is being disseminated. Specifically, the paper seeks to answer two research questions: (1) What keywords characterize the medical tourism news reported on Bangkok Post online? and (2) How Bangkok Post online news reporters intertextually positioned key information on medical tourism they reported?

2. Literature Review

The phenomenon of medical tourism has attracted the conduct of a plethora of research studies, although an exhaustive list cannot be provided due to space constraints. A number of studies focused on motivation to travel (e.g. Connell, 2011; Glinos et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2010). There were also investigations on reproductive or fertility travel particularly on equity and ethical issues relating to fertility tourism (e.g. Ferraretti et al., 2010; Jones & Keith, 2006). Moreover, researchers also investigated risks associated with medical tourism (e.g. Chan et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2011) and the impact of medical tourism in destination countries such as the creation of a two-tier system (Johnston et al., 2010; Vijaya, 2010), the emergence of conflict between prioritizing medical care and profit-making among private hospitals (Carreon & Watson Todd, 2013) and prioritizing the provision of medical-related information for international patients over locals in communication channels such as hospital websites (Carreon et al., 2013).

A number of research studies investigated the media (e.g. newspapers and other web-based sources) as data sources. King et al. (2014) conducted a content analysis of 719 North American newspaper articles about assisted reproductive technology (ART) from 2005 to 2011 and found that risks and ethical issues were the concerns of the newspaper articles. With medical tourism as background, Glenn et al. (2012) examined from a critical perspective the news media (re)presentations of bariatric surgery and found “dominant discourses about bariatric surgery and the surgical population, providing an understanding of media (re)presentations as possible contributors to bias, stigmatization, and discrimination” (p.631). Using content analysis, De Casanova and Sutton (2013) compared 28 and 30 news media reports from the US and Argentina from 2001 to 2010 and found that US media sources emphasize the risks of cosmetic surgery tourism in Argentina, while the portrayal of medical excellence was a common sight in Argentinian media sources. Examining 16 public media discourses on reproductive tourism from Israel and Germany using metaphor, Bassan and Michaelsen (2013) found that the term reproductive tourism was used to “criticize the economic aspects of the phenomenon or to attract patients as potential clients” (p.9). Turner (2012) investigated news media reports from 1993 to 2011 and identified and described 26 reported cases of deaths of individuals who underwent cosmetic surgery or bariatric surgery in medical tourism countries. Jun and Oh (2015) investigated how Korean American community newspapers represented risks and benefits involved in Korean medical tourism using content analyses. They found that Korean American community newspapers not only rarely engaged in risk communication but also emphasized the diverse benefits of medical tourism undermining the lack of sufficient information about its potential risks. Examining electronic copies of 66 Australian television and 65 newspaper items from 2005–2011 for news media framing of medical tourism in low- and middle-income countries using content analysis, Imison and Schweinsberg (2013) reported
that Australian media coverage of medical tourism mainly featured cosmetic surgery procedures and therapies unavailable in Australia and focused on Asia. While this is a non-exhaustive review, it is evident that research studies investigating media and news reports on medical tourism mainly employed the qualitative approach of content analysis focused on Western media and news reports. Only a few examined the discourse of medical tourism on news reports in the Asian context especially in Thailand, which is one of the top medical tourism destinations in Asia. This research study aims to address these gaps in the literature.

3. Methodology

3.1 Data and Data Collection
The data for this study were 368 news reports posted on Bangkok Post online from January 2010 to May 2018. The downloaded data was composed of 366081 tokens and 16277 word types. While Thailand has a number of newspapers of national circulation, the data was taken only from Bangkok Post since it has the highest daily circulation of more than 70,000 copies. The newspaper is claimed to be a highly trusted news and information source for English speaking readers in Thailand and the international community around the world. The newspaper publisher also claimed that 60% of the 300,000 unique visitors daily to their online platform are from outside Thailand, with a record for website traffic reaching 1.04 million page views in a single 24-hour period on 13 October 2016 (Bangkok Post, December 2016).

3.2 Data Analysis
The research study had two parts: corpus-based keyword analysis (Scott & Tribble, 2006; Scott, 1997) and intertextual positioning analysis (White, 2015). Using the software AntConc 3.5.7, the corpus-based analysis examined the data for absolute and relative frequencies. Carreon and Watson Todd (2013) argued that generally, “words with the highest absolute frequencies are similar across different texts because these words are most commonly used in English, so relative frequencies of words compared to a benchmark of general English use are more insightful” (p.123). The British National Corpus or the BNC (BNC Consortium, 2007) was used as a benchmark since it is a corpus of general English use. Absolute frequencies of words in the corpus medical tourism news reports were compared against their frequencies in the BNC using log-likelihood (Rayson, 2008). Since the corpus is quite small in size, log-likelihood (LL) was used because LL values are not affected by the size of data (Rayson & Garside, 2000). The resulting words with the highest relative frequencies were iteratively categorized into themes (Krippendorff, 2012). Eight themes were identified with some words: (1) words relating to locations, (2) words relating to traditional medical care, (3) words relating to non-traditional medical care, (4) words relating to business and financial matters, (5) words relating to potential medical tourism stakeholders, (6) words relating to medical establishments, (7) words relating to non-medical establishments, facilities and requirements, and (8) words relating to intertextual positioning (White, 2015). Categories 2 to 8 shed light on the purposes of this study. Categories 2 to 7 provide specific information on the ‘medical’ and ‘tourism’ components of medical tourism. Category 8 presents information that may be endorsed or unendorsed by the authors and whether or not the authors claim authorial responsibility in their reports.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 What keywords characterize the medical tourism news reported on Bangkok Post online?
Linguistic keywords can be identified based on frequency and this commences by running a basic word frequency count with AntConc 3.5.7 software to find the absolute frequencies of words in the corpus. Table 1 presents the five most frequent words in the corpus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>15,782</td>
<td>the</td>
<td>the actual cost; the affordability; the promoted areas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>8,431</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>to a private hospital; to a nurse; to receive treatment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>8,296</td>
<td>and</td>
<td>special needs and customers; plan and decide; plastic and dental surgery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>7,172</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>services of a doctor; help of a friend; benefits of a healthy lifestyle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>6,297</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>in 2017; in India; in innovative medical care</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The high absolute frequencies of these five words are not surprising since they are commonly found in general English language use (see Carreon & Svetanant, 2017 for example). For instance, the high frequency of the article the (F=15,782) depicts that the examined data was written using long running sentences, where “the” is used to show definiteness of nouns or noun phrases when they are mentioned for the second and succeeding times (e.g. the actual cost; the affordability; the promoted areas). The high frequencies of the prepositions to (F=8,431), of (F=7,172) and in (F=6,297) were mainly used to indicate a goal or a direction of movement (e.g. to a private hospital; to a nurse; to receive treatment), time, location or group (in 2017; in India; in innovative medical care), and belonging to, relating to or connected with something or someone (e.g. services of a doctor; help of a friend; benefits of a healthy lifestyle), respectively. The conjunction and (8,296) shows conjoined words such as special needs and customers; plan and decide; plastic and dental surgery.

Deeper insights cannot be drawn from these words as they are characteristics of general English use not medical tourism. Thus, there is a need to examine words in their relative frequencies. Table 2 presents the top 40 words with highest relative frequencies together with their respective log-likelihood values and examples. Only keywords with log-likelihood values of not less than 200 were considered.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>LL</th>
<th>Keywords</th>
<th>Categories (words relating to…)</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2296</td>
<td>21635.01</td>
<td>thailand</td>
<td>physical and virtual locations</td>
<td>surgery in Thailand; medical tourism in Thailand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1823</td>
<td>10321.8</td>
<td>medical</td>
<td>traditional medical care</td>
<td>medical access, medical advice, medical care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1019</td>
<td>9260.83</td>
<td>thai</td>
<td>potential medical tourism stakeholders</td>
<td>Thai patients; Thai people; Thai workers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1085</td>
<td>8544.46</td>
<td>tourism</td>
<td>non-traditional medical care</td>
<td>high end tourism; plastic surgery tourism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>889</td>
<td>8194.98</td>
<td>bangkok</td>
<td>physical and virtual locations</td>
<td>attractions in Bangkok; center of Bangkok</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A total of 221 keywords with log-likelihood values of at least 200 were identified. These keywords were iteratively categorized into themes. Table 3 shows the relative frequencies and percentages of keywords categorized in each theme.

Table 3 Relative frequencies and percentages of keywords categorized in each theme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Words relating to physical and virtual locations</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>28.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Words relating to traditional medical care</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Words relating to non-traditional medical care</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>6.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Words relating to business and financial matters</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>14.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Words relating to potential medical tourism stakeholders</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>23.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Words relating to medical establishments</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>7.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Words relating to non-medical establishments, facilities and requirements</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>14.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Words relating to intertextual positioning (White, 2015)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The categories show that the 221 keywords are dominated by words relating to physical and virtual locations (F=64; 28.96%). These keywords relate to the areas where the phenomenon of medical tourism is practiced (places) and presented (cyberspace). This followed by keywords relating to potential medical tourism stakeholders (F=53; 23.98%). These refer to local and international people, agencies and institutions related to the practice of medical tourism (e.g. Thai; F=1019; LL=9260.83; Thai patients; Thai people; Thai workers). The combination (F=78; 35.29%) and high presence of keywords relating to business and financial matters (F=33; LL=14.93; billion baht; billion dollars), words relating to non-medical establishments, facilities and requirements (F=31; 14.03%; food industry, hotel industry), and words relating to non-traditional medical care (F=14; 6.33%; wellness tourism, wellness centre) indicate that most keywords support the ‘tourism’ component of medical tourism. A lower number of keywords associated with the ‘medical’ aspect (F=25; 11.31%) was found. All of these findings point to the kind of information being prioritized and presented by the online news writers to its readers. This kind of information shed light on the shift in medical services provided by hospitals from that of traditional medical care to medical care provided for well or healthy individuals. These findings support Carreon and Watson Todd (2013) of shifting concerns of private hospitals from the provision of traditional healthcare to provision of non-traditional medical care.

4.2 How Bangkok Post online news reporters intertextually positioned key information on medical tourism they reported?

To answer the second question, the researchers examined the keywords for triggers of intertextual positioning. Intertextual positioning (ITP) is concerned with the linguistic resources by which speakers/writers include, and adopt a stance towards, what they represent as the words, observations, beliefs and viewpoints of other speakers/writers. White (2015) posited that intertextual positioning is brought into play when “a writer/speaker chooses to quote or reference the words or thoughts of another … which, at the very least, indicate that these words are in some way relevant to the writer/speaker’s current communicative purposes” (p. intertextual positioning). White argued that ITP is triggered by verbs such as say and reported (non-endorsing), demonstrate, show and concede (endorsing), and claim and include (dis-endorsing).

The only trigger of intertextual positioning found among the keywords was the verb said. The difference in uses of the verb said within its concordance was categorized according to the affordances of White’s (2015) notion of (1) positioning with respect to endorsement, which states that endorsing can either be positive (endorsement) or negative (dis-endorsement), and (2) authorial responsibility, which states that authors may have sole authorial responsibility, shared authorial responsibility or no authorial responsibility to written news. Since there are 1850 instances of the verb said, the concordance was examined at 20 instances at a time until no new pattern emerges. A total of 120 instances were examined in depth. Table 4 presents the first 120 instances of the trigger verb said.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4 Top 120 instances of the verb said</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Categories</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Personal) high authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit negative judgment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit positive judgment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High status (generic collective)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 shows that Bangkok Post online news reporting that mainly used the verb *said* involved the insertion of explicit negative judgment of key information on the medical tourism mentioned, argued or even posited by high status specific human individuals. Through the news reporters’ explicit use of the verb *said*, they presented news without necessarily endorsing the content of this news. This way of reporting mainly assumes neutral or no authorial responsibility for the content of the news report (White, 2015). When news is read by potential patients, arguably, it may have some impact on international readers’ (potential patients) choice of a host country for their medical tourism needs.

5. Conclusion
The ultimate goal of this research paper is to examine the specific linguistic features that characterize the corpus of medical tourism and how the content of the news is intertextually positioned to online news readers. The findings reveal that news reports prioritized the presentation of information that pertains to the ‘tourism’ component of medical tourism instead of the ‘medical’ component in a manner of reporting that is either neutral or mainly assumes no authorial responsibility for the content of the news report. Due to the volume of the data which makes qualitative analysis quite challenging, one main limitation of this research study is the exclusion of some affordances of the Appraisal Theory (White, 2015) from the analysis, which could have provided more insightful views on intertextual positioning of the news. Future research investigations should examine in depth other triggers of intertextual positioning which may be found among keywords with lower LL values. Despite this limitation, we hope that this corpus-based Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL) research study using substantial data has shown one way of understanding the presentation of the phenomenon of medical tourism on online news websites when most investigations focused on manually dissecting a few news reports.

References


Corpus-based Teaching: Addressing the Scarcity of Commercial Textbooks in English for Lawyer Subjects

Jonathan Rante Carreon¹, Nick Soonthorndhai², Silawuth Chaengjaroen³, and Sudarat Chanpermpoonpaul⁴
Huachiew Chalermprakiet University
Thailand
¹carreonjrc@gmail.com, ²nicky_64@hotmail.com, ³silawuthchn@gmail.com, ⁴ajsudarat@hotmail.com

Abstract
Informed by corpus-based analysis (e.g. Carreon & Svetanant, 2017) and blended learning (e.g. Hou, 2014; Poole, 2011) frameworks, this research paper is aimed at answering three research questions: (1) What keywords characterize the legal news reported on Bangkok Post online?, (2) Has the use of the software AntConc 3.5.7 (Anthony, 2018) helped to improve students’ learning of legal English?, and (3) If yes, in what way has the use of AntConc 3.5.7 (Anthony, 2018) improved students’ learning of legal English? News reports written from January 2017 to August 2018, containing the words ‘case’ or ‘charge’, were gathered and combined to form a corpus. The corpus was used to demonstrate how to learn English vocabulary among 28 junior law students using the concordance, wordlist and keyword tools of the software AntConc 3.5.7. The findings revealed that keywords related to the law profession were abundant and varied and indicates that news reports are potential sources of supplemental materials for an ESP subject for law students. As for the use of the software, students claimed it was convenient and fun, an alternative/trendy way to learn English, useful to easily see patterns, and a practical tool since it can be used at home. For the specific ways the software helped in English language learning, the students reported that it was useful in learning basic and legal English vocabulary, helped them better understand English grammar, style of writing and English language use as whole.

Keywords: Blended Learning; English for Lawyers; English for Specific Purposes; Vocabulary Learning

1. Introduction
English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses have two important characteristics. On the one hand, to meet the needs of the learners, they should be designed using methodology and activities of the relevant disciplines and is centered on the language, skills, discourses and genres appropriate to the relevant activities of these disciplines (Dudley Evans & St. John, 1998; see also Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). On the other hand, the ESP courses are bound “to answer to the changing political, economic and social trends and this flexibility requires its permanent adaptation to different contexts” (Aurelia, 2012, p.5476). These two characteristics of ESP courses are few of the many factors that hinder English language teachers from embarking on a career in teaching ESP courses (e.g. Business English, Medical English, Maritime English, Legal English, etc.) since in most cases, they have quite scarce knowledge in the subject areas most especially in preparing pedagogical materials and activities for vocabulary intensive ESP courses such as the course English for Lawyers. In Aurelia’s (2012) words, teaching this course, like any other ESP courses, is quite demanding since the dynamic
pace of pedagogical activities, materials and methodology of teaching should be kept with the “changing students’ needs and to equip them with necessary skills in order to effectively operate in English in the new working environment” (p. 5476). This research paper is motivated by the main author’s experiences: (1) experience in teaching law students with below average English language proficiency to help them learn appropriate juridical terminology and develop the required language skills, (2) experience in collaborating with Thai practicing teachers-lawyers, and (3) experience working with neophyte ESP teachers. From these experiences, two burning issues in teaching the subject English for Lawyers became apparent: (1) authenticity of materials and (2) scarcity of textbooks for pedagogical purposes. The former arises from the difficulty of obtaining authentic materials relevant to the setting of the learners. For instance, in Thailand, the content of the few textbooks in ESP for Lawyers came from Western laws, rules and regulations. While the contents were taken from authentic sources, most were not adapted to the local context and did not include contents that reflect current legal practice. As such, these contents may be irrelevant and probably demotivating to Thai students. The latter springs from the challenging task of combining the English language skills and the legal content in one textbook, which to some extent requires translation of text from Thai to English since there is no English version available or the only existing translation is erroneous. Thus, to address these two burning issues and Aurelia’s (2012) call including changing political, economic and social trends in the learning resource materials, this paper employs a Corpus Linguistics software to prepare materials and serve as tool teaching the subject English for Lawyers.

2. Literature Review
Since the advent of advanced computer technology, its use for teaching ESP courses has been widely documented (e.g. Arno, 2012; Butler-Pascoe, 2009; Jarvis, 2009; Plastina, 2003). A number of research studies either qualitatively or quantitatively or both examined the use of course/learning management system (CMS/LMS) in ESP courses and reported positive attitudes of learners towards the use of LMS/CMS (e.g. Maulan & Ibrahim, 2012), increased student engagement and participation in the classroom (e.g. Mamakou & Grigoriadou, 2008), and improved student autonomy and independence (e.g. Kuzmina & Golechkova, 2012).

There were also research studies that focused on the use electronic dictionary and electronic glosses/annotation (e.g. Lenders, 2008), intelligent tutoring system (e.g. Gonçalves et al., 2004), grammar checker, automatic speech recognition and computer-assisted pronunciation training (Hincks, 2009), and for detecting plagiarism (e.g. Bikowski, 2012) and found that electronic glosses were useful and effective for ESP students’ vocabulary learning, weaker ESP students may benefit from computer-assisted pronunciation training, and ESP students who frequently use plagiarism detection software tools to check their academic writing were generally satisfied with these tools, respectively.

The use of technology as blended learning in ESP were also documented in synchronous computer-mediated communication, and in asynchronous communication and Web 2.0 tools. The former was investigated in virtual world and serious games (e.g. Chen, 2014), and in chat and conferencing (e.g. Lin & Kuo, 2011; Shamsudin & Nesi, 2006) while the latter was examined in wikis (e.g. Kuteeva, 2011), blogs (e.g. Fola-Adebowo, 2014; Sun & Chang, 2012), social networking sites (e.g. Sabater & Fleta, 2015), Internet forum and discussion/message boards (e.g. Yang & Hwang, 2013). Research studies were also conducted for ESP students’ use of mobile/portable networkable devices such as tablet PC and PDA, iPods and cell
phone/smart phones, and reported an increase in students’ motivation, and listening comprehension scores (e.g. Yamada et al., 2011).

As for ESP students’ use of corpus and corpus tools for blended learning, a number of research studies were also conducted. Fuentes (2003) found that the use of corpora helped business students produce more technical combinations and collocations in their discussions aside from enhancing students’ communicative ability and efficiency. Fuentes (2007) quantitatively examined the use of corpus among ESP students and found that the group that used corpus through electronic resources in vocabulary learning outperformed the traditional group (see also Balunda, 2009). Yoon (2008) qualitatively assessed the effect of corpus technology on EAP writing and the results showed that the use of corpus helped students decrease their writing mistakes and problems, and enhanced their lexico-grammar perceptions and language awareness. Hou (2014) pre and post-test investigation of students’ writing output showed that the introduction of a corpus-based course enhanced EAP students’ content, language, and vocabulary knowledge. Poole (2011) qualitatively examined the use of concordance-based glossing and the results showed that ESP students claimed to have improved academic vocabulary learning and vocabulary production and held positive attitudes towards concordance-based glossing.

Despite the profound research investigations conducted on the use of technology for teaching in the field of ESP, most of these research studies focused on examining the effectiveness or students’ perceptions of the use of these technologies. The actual use of corpus tools and corpus software in classrooms are quite undermined. Thus, this research study investigates a current corpus related to legal use of English using the software, AntConc 3.5.7 (Anthony, 2018). Specifically, this paper aimed to answer three research questions: (1) What keywords characterize the legal news reported on Bangkok Post online?, (2) Has the use of the software AntConc 3.5.7 (Anthony, 2018) helped to improve students’ learning of legal English?, and (3) If yes, in what way has the use of AntConc 3.5.7 (Anthony, 2018) improved students’ learning of legal English?

3. Methodology

3.1 Data and Data Collection
The study gathered data by searching news items containing the words ‘case’ and ‘charge’ posted on from Bangkok Post Online from January 2017 to January 2018. The words ‘case’ and ‘charge’ were taken as search words since they produce more news report returns on Bangkok Post Online search engine. The choice of news reports as data source and the inclusive date were intentional and in line with Aurelia’s (2012) argument that ESP materials should reflect changing political, economic and social trends. While Thailand has a number of newspapers of national circulation, the data was taken only from Bangkok Post since it has the highest daily circulation of more than 70,000 copies. The gathered date was composed 1,495,864-word tokens and 28,453-word types.

The corpus was used to demonstrate how to learn English vocabulary among 28 junior law students using the concordance, wordlist and keyword tools of the software AntConc 3.5.7(Anthony, 2018). After a brief training on how to use the software was provided, the students were then encouraged to choose five words each from the list of words provided by the teacher for them to practice using the software at home while simultaneously learning the meaning of the words. Then the students were interviewed to identify their perceptions on their
experience in studying English words using the software. Three questions were asked: (1) What do you think about the use of AntConc 3.5.7 software?, (2) Most of you expressed positive emotions on the use of AntConc 3.5.7 software. Do you think it improves your English?, and (3) In what way the AntConc 3.5.7 software has improved your English? The students were anonymized by assigning a number to each.

3.2 Data Analysis
The research study had two parts: corpus-based analysis and the investigation of the students’ perceptions on the use of AntConc 3.5.7 (Anthony, 2018). Using the software AntConc 3.5.7, the corpus-based analysis examined the data for absolute (Bednarek, 2011) and relative frequencies (e.g. Carreon & Svetanant, 2017) of words. The British National Corpus or the BNC (BNC Consortium, 2007) was used as the comparator corpus since it is a corpus of general language use and the research study aimed at identifying words used in news reports that are specific to the law profession. Given the small size of corpus, the statistical measure of log-likelihood (LL) was used because LL values are not affected by the size of data (Rayson, 2008). The resulting words with the highest absolute frequencies were iteratively categorized into themes (Krippendorff, 2012). The keywords were categorized into themes. The output of the interview were summarized in tables.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 What keywords characterize the legal news reported on Bangkok Post online?
As mentioned earlier, the corpus-based analysis comes in three stages that includes the identification of the absolute frequencies of words, identification of keywords expressed in LL values and the iterative categorization of keywords into themes. Table 1 presents the top 5 words with highest absolute frequencies. Due to space constraints, only the top examples can be shown in this paper. To simplify reporting of findings the following abbreviations are used: LL= log-likelihood and F=frequency.

Table 1 Top 5 words with the highest absolute frequencies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>79267</td>
<td>the</td>
<td>the court, the police, the government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>36156</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>to abuse power, to acknowledge charges, to a court of law, to a public hearing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>31096</td>
<td>of</td>
<td>draft of a bill, lawyer of a civil society, the people of Bangkok, the province of Khon Kaen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>24296</td>
<td>and</td>
<td>a jail term and a fine, legality and sanctity,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>22396</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>a charge of sedition, a lack of punitive action</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Initial implications can be drawn from Table 1. The high frequencies of the article the (F=79249) indicate that the data is made up of long running sentences where the is used to show definiteness (e.g. the court, the police, the government). The preposition to (F=36,156) was mainly used to indicate a goal (e.g. to abuse power, to acknowledge charges) or a direction of movement (e.g. to a court of law, to a public hearing). The preposition of (F=31,096) was primarily used to indicate belonging to, relating to or connected with something or someone (e.g. draft of a bill, lawyer of a civil society), reference to a particular background or place (e.g. the people of Bangkok, the province of Khon Kaen). The conjunction and (F=24,296) was mostly used to add one thing to another or to conjoin words (e.g. a jail term and a fine, legality and sanctity). Finally, the article a (F=22,396) was used to show indefiniteness (e.g. a charge
of sedition, a lack of punitive action). Similar findings were reported when a private hospital website (Carreon & Watson Todd, 2013) or even a political speech was examined (Carreon & Svetanant, 2017) indicating that these words are commonly used in general English. While these top words do not indicate the content of the corpus, pedagogically, these are indispensable components of the English language that may shed light on the grammatical component of the corpus—an aspect that cannot be omitted in a language class. Due to limited space, however, this will be dealt with in future research studies.

To identify words that reflect the specific characteristic features of the corpus, the data is compared against the BNC. To make sure that words with the highest relative frequencies are key keywords (Scott, 1997, 2000), only keywords with LL values of at least 200 were considered. There were 587 words with LL values of at least 200. Table 2 shows the top 20 words with the highest relative frequencies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>LL</th>
<th>Keywords</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3112</td>
<td>+22958.29</td>
<td>bangkok</td>
<td>streets of Bangkok, escape from Bangkok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2732</td>
<td>+19492.36</td>
<td>thai</td>
<td>Thai delegation, Thai democracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2361</td>
<td>+15606.69</td>
<td>thailand</td>
<td>threat to Thailand, corruption in Thailand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2389</td>
<td>+13213.62</td>
<td>gen</td>
<td>Gen Prawit, Gen Prayut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1650</td>
<td>+13190.17</td>
<td>baht</td>
<td>billion baht in damages, spend a million baht</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1472</td>
<td>+12041.79</td>
<td>yingluck</td>
<td>Yingluck administration, Yingluck’s assets</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1221</td>
<td>+9972.09</td>
<td>prayut</td>
<td>Prayut as a premier, Prayut administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>882</td>
<td>+7186.63</td>
<td>thaksin</td>
<td>warrant for Thaksin, trial for Thaksin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>948</td>
<td>+6734.72</td>
<td>pol</td>
<td>summons for Pol Col, Bureau Chief Pol Lt Gen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>776</td>
<td>+6347.77</td>
<td>prawit</td>
<td>Defense Minister Prawit, Prawit’s luxury watch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>789</td>
<td>+6321.6</td>
<td>nacc</td>
<td>probe by the NACC, powers of the NACC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1651</td>
<td>+5940.5</td>
<td>issued</td>
<td>issued a Royal Decree, issued an arrest warrant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>1299</td>
<td>+5808.12</td>
<td>ms</td>
<td>implicated Ms Amporn, charged Ms Juthamas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>3696</td>
<td>+5775.07</td>
<td>case</td>
<td>rice pledging case, criminal defamation case</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>2894</td>
<td>+5471.45</td>
<td>court</td>
<td>contempt of court, vetoed by the court</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>2577</td>
<td>+5047.71</td>
<td>minister</td>
<td>Science Minister, Energy Minister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>1933</td>
<td>+5024.4</td>
<td>prime</td>
<td>Prime Minister, Deputy Prime Minister</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>2647</td>
<td>+4951.29</td>
<td>police</td>
<td>police affairs, police station</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>606</td>
<td>+4942.31</td>
<td>shinawatra</td>
<td>Shinawatra era, Shinawatra administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>1736</td>
<td>+4334.52</td>
<td>military</td>
<td>military government, military officers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These 587 keywords were iteratively categorized into 10 themes following Carreon and Svetanant (2017): (1) words relating to locations, (2) words relating to public officials, political parties and government agencies, (3) words relating to people other than public officials, (4) words relating to legal matters, (5) words relating to financial matters, (6) words relating to time, (7) words relating to properties, (8) words relating to media and news reporting styles, (9) words relating to government activities, and (10) unclassified. Table 3 shows the frequencies and percentages of keywords categorized in each theme.
Table 3 Frequencies and percentages of keywords categorized in each theme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Words relating to locations</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>18.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Words relating to public officials, political parties and government units</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>38.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Words relating to people other than public officials</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>11.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Words relating to legal matters</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>17.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Words relating to financial matters</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Words relating to time</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Words relating to properties</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Words relating to media and news reporting styles</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Words relating to government activities</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>4.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Unclassified</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>587</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The top keywords were those relating to public officials, political parties and government units (F=224; 38.16%) and those relating to locations (F=107; 18.23%). These are not surprising findings, however, given the setting of the news reports and the kind of data that was examined. Moreover, most of these words were Thai words written and proper nouns, so their LL values are expected to be high from the onset. The third top group of keywords were those related to legal matters (F=102; 17.38%). From the standpoint of teaching English for lawyers, these keywords are the most useful as they directly depict issues associated with the practice of the law profession. Example of words under this category are case (F=3690; LL=+5920.07; rice pledging case, criminal defamation case), court (F=2893; LL=+5602.21; contempt of court, vetoed by the court), criminal (F=856; LL=+2364.93; criminal charge, criminal offense), ruling (F=731; LL=+2274.3; guilty ruling, final ruling), and law (F= 1779; LL=+2062.98; martial law, lese majeste law).

While not as numerous as first few categories of keywords, other useful keywords that can be included in teaching English for lawyers include those words relating to properties (F=13; 2.21%). Example of keywords relating to properties are assets (F=353; LL=+572.22; damaged assets, declared assets) and land (F=653; LL=+207.3; land deeds, land encroachment). These words are common terms in real estate which strictly governed by law. With the advent of the Cyber Law and the Anti-Defamation Law, keywords relating to media and news reporting styles become relevant (F=29; 4.94%). Examples of keywords relating to media and news reporting styles include media (F=1214; LL=+3099.81; leaked to the media; control the media, and footage (F=100; LL=+428.27; security footage, camera footage). Finally, words relating to government activities (F=29; 4.94%) are also interesting as they provide general information about the projects, plans and priorities of the government – pieces of information that should also be known to prospective lawyers since they may have future legal implications as a result of their management or administration. Examples of keywords relating to government activities are rice (F=816; LL=+3705.48; rice-pledging scheme, rice-purchase agreement), reform (F=655; LL=+1347.35; national reform, police reform) and election (F=789; LL=+1133.9; election campaign, election commission).

4.2 Has the use of the software AntConc 3.5.7 helped to improve students’ legal English? If yes, in what way has the software improved students’ legal English?
The result of the interview shows all of the 28 students agreed that the use of the AntConc 3.5.7 software helped them improve their learning of legal English. Table 4 presents a summary of the perceptions of the students with regards to the use of the software.

**Table 4** Students’ perceptions about the use of AntConc 3.5.7 for learning legal English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Convenient and fun</td>
<td>2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, 16, 17, 18, 19, 21, 22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Alternative/trendy way to learn English</td>
<td>1, 5, 9, 15, 16, 17, 23, 25, 28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Easily see patterns</td>
<td>3, 17, 21, 25, 27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Practical and can be used at home</td>
<td>4, 12, 14, 19, 20, 24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that most of the students thought that using the software is both convenient and fun (Students 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 13, 16, 17, 18, 19, 21, 22). The second group of students thought the use of the software is trendy or good alternative way to learn English (Students 1, 5, 9, 15, 16, 17, 23, 25, 28). The third group of students claimed that the use of the software is practical since it can also be used at home. The final group of students thought the software help them see patterns of (legal) English language use at ease.

Several students have mixed positive responses. For instance, both Students 16 and 17 thought that the software is convenient and fun to use, an alternative/trendy way to learn (legal) English, and patterns of English language use are easily viewed using the software. Student 19 claimed that the software was not only convenient and fun to use but also it is practical since it can be used at home. Student 21 perceived the software as both convenient and fun to use as well as helped in viewing patterns of English language use. Student 25 thought that while it was not that convenient since it requires some training to use the software, its use is trendy.

Not only that the students reported their perceptions on the use of the software, they also identified ways the software has improved their English as shown in Table 5 below.

**Table 5** Ways the AntConc 3.5.7 software has improved the students’ legal English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Useful in learning basic and legal English vocabulary</td>
<td>1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 27, 28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Help in better understanding English grammar and style of writing</td>
<td>3, 17, 20, 21, 25, 27, 28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Help in better understanding basic English and legal English language use</td>
<td>13, 17, 20, 21, 27, 28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 5, most of the students thought that the software is useful in learning basic English and legal English vocabulary (Students 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 27, 28). The meaning of each word was guessed from the context provided by the concordance of each keyword. For example, the keyword *rice* as a single word seemed to refer only to the steamed food served on the table. With its concordance, lexical bundles such as *rice*-pledging scheme and *rice*-purchase agreement became apparent. Hou (2014) observed similar findings upon the introduction of a corpus-based course enhanced EAP students’ content, language, and vocabulary knowledge. This is also congruent to Fuentes (2003) who found that corpora helped business students produce more technical combinations and collocations of words.
The second group of students claimed that the software helped them better understand English grammar and style of writing in English since grammatical patterns of English are easily accessible using the available tools of the software (Students 3, 17, 20, 21, 25, 27, 28). For instance, through the software it was easier for the students to understand the grammatical patterns of the keyword *issued* as it combined with other words (e.g. *issued* an arrest warrant, *issued* a warrant for the arrest of, *issued* a travel warning). Since the concordance tool of the software arranges the examples so that all similar examples are grouped together, the students were able to see a good number of similar examples, which strengthens their learning of English grammar. This is in concord with the findings of Poole (2011) who showed that ESP students claimed to have improved academic vocabulary learning and vocabulary production from the use of concordance-based glossing.

The last group of students claimed that the software helped them better understand basic English and legal English language use (Students 13, 17, 20, 21, 27, 28). For instance, they understood if information provided by the reporter is clear or vague, presented the news in formal or informal manner, cited sources of the news or not and others. This finding supports Yoon (2008) who pointed out that the use of corpus helped enhanced their lexico-grammar perceptions and language awareness. The ability to discern such information is indispensable in developing in critical readers.

5. Conclusion

The ultimate goal of this research paper is to identify supplementary corpus-based learning resource materials that can be conveniently access anywhere, using a free software and a computer, to initially address the scarcity of textbooks for the ESP subject English for Lawyers and to input locally-sourced materials to mostly foreign dominated textbooks. The findings of the study indicate that while legal words are not the highest in terms of number despite choosing legal news, their presence in the corpus was quite high (third highest) and therefore sufficient as source of supplementary teaching materials. Moreover, with the inclusion of latest news that are quite familiar to the students, learning legal English words becomes even more meaningful and experiential since meaning making was done with the aid of the context of the news and the software used not to mention the convenience of gathering data from online sources. In identifying keywords, the log-likelihood cut-off was set at 200. This is quite high and may have filtered a good number of law-related words. Future research studies may categorize the keywords according to the level of the students (e.g. elementary, intermediate, advanced). The words with the highest absolute frequencies should also be examined in detail since most of these words are function words that are crucial grammatical devices in the field of law. Finally, supplementary materials for other courses can also be done such as English for business or English for Science and Technology since these are also commonly featured in news reports. The turn of the century has seen the use of advanced computer technology as a tool in English as Second/Foreign Language (ESL/EFL) pedagogy. We hope that this corpus-based approach to English learning and materials preparation presented one way to help students learn (legal) English especially when commercially-available textbooks are scarce.

References


Analysis of the Comments’ Replies on the Online Travel Agency Website Expedia

Tipapan Chaiwong¹, Maythiya Khruawan², and Phitsinee Khaourai³
Huachiew Chalermprakiet University
Samutprakarn, Thailand
¹chaiwong@gmail.com, ²oop_may@hotmail.com, ³khaouraip@gmail.com

Abstract
Globalization has seen the bourgeoning of Online Travel Agency (OTA) websites that manage accommodation bookings for hotels worldwide. Based on Panseeta and Todd’s framework (2014), this research study examined word choices and common language expressions employed by Bangkok 5-star hotels in responses to guests’ reviews on Expedia. Anthony’s (2018) software AntConc 3.5.7 was used to analyze words and concordance of the corpus. Findings revealed generic pattern of replies as shown in frequently used words, phrases, and language expressions by which hotels addressed the comments of their customers. The greater use of words and expressions relating to the involved dimension of language indicated that hotels mainly focused on building interpersonal relationships with their guests. The study also provides implications on the use of language and its influences on perceptions of both former and potential customers in managing electronic word of mouth.

Keywords: Expedia; Online Customer Service; Online Hotel Booking; Replies-to-Comments

1. Introduction
Over the years, the internet has revolutionized the way firms market their products, corresponding to changing behaviors of today’s consumers. Information search for both goods and services to guide consumer decision-making is increasingly conducted via digital channels. Communication among the consumers over the internet also has become common practice. These behaviors and practices are observed among worldwide consumers as well in tourism and hospitality service firms. For instance, travelers rely on the internet to search for information to meet their needs as they engage in decision-making processes (Cetin & Dincer, 2014). Shared experiences of past customers may influence prospective customers’ pre-purchase evaluations of services rendered by providers. The same influence may be expected whether information is shared through face-to-face communications or on cyberspace channels through electronic-word-of-mouth (eWOM). Electronic word of mouth (eWOM) has been recently admitted as one of the most significant resources of information transmission and plays an important role in consumer purchasing decision (Jalilvand, Esfahani, & Samiei, 2011). Reviews of past experiences by travelers with tourism service firms provide other travelers helpful information to make informed decisions. From a similar vein of argument, responses of firms to customers’ reviews may influence travelers’ purchase intentions and decisions. Responses to reviews, especially to the negative ones, can communicate the level of care and concerns that the firms have for their customers. Therefore, many tourism service firms such as luxury hotels exclusively assign social media staff to respond to guests’ reviews. The efficiency of the hotel staffs in replying to guests’ comments has effect on perceived service quality and customer relationship (Panseeta & Todd, 2014). As a result, tourism service providers should regard effective management of online information as a critical marketing task.
2. Literature Review

Word of mouth (WOM) may be defined as communication between consumers that is independent of commercial influence about a product or company (Litvin et al., 2008). Traditional WOM passes along information via oral communication from person to person. However, the internet technology has changed the way consumers communicate. The rapid growth in online communication allows the new form of WOM to emerge. Electronic word-of-mouth (eWOM) refers to all informal communication via online platforms whereby consumers share information and opinions relating to their experience with the products and corresponding sellers (Litvin et al., 2008).

The influence of traditional WOM on consumer decision-making and purchase intention has long been established in consumer behavior research. More attention thus is given to eWOM and its effects on consumers. Research in this area found that compared to traditional WOM and advertisement, eWOM has more effect on purchase intention (Tseng, Kuo, & Chen, 2014). In terms of marketing, eWOM provides more cost effective means of promoting services, including those in the hospitality industry (Litvin et al., 2008). Given the intangible nature of services, consumers rely on pre-purchase information from various sources to evaluate service quality before making a purchase decision. Online guests’ reviews of hotels, for instance, provide useful information for travelers in the trip planning process and helping to guide their accommodation choices (Gretzel & Yoo, 2008). The importance of hotel’s online reviews is further emphasized when significant relationship was found between online reviews and financial performance. Hotels that pay genuine attention to online guests’ reviews by providing timely and lengthy customized responses are able to enhance their future financial performance. Whereas, less meaningful responses can lower future financial performance (Xie, So, & Wang, 2017). Park and Allen (2013) stated that even hotels under the same brand can have totally different response rates and patterns, so hotel’s staffs should be more prepared to respond to online reviews because they will become an important source of information for the guests. Therefore, how hotels respond to guests’ reviews and comments may influence consumers’ perceptions and can be crucial to their financial success. Especially, negative reviews of past customers can lead to negative perceptions of prospective customers about service quality and in turn, may deter purchase intentions.

Appropriate response to negative reviews due to customer dissatisfaction can contribute to successful service recovery effort and should be strategically implemented. Ho (2017) studied how hotel management responded to negative online reviews. According to the language used in the responses (i.e., response genre), commonly used strategy comprising of three obligatory moves were identified: acknowledging problem, expressing feeling, and thanking reviewer.

In Thailand, Panseeta and Todd (2014) examined 100 hotels’ responses to negative reviews using a Swales’ notion of move analysis (Swales, 1990). They found five generic moves with two to four steps throughout their data. This enterprise, however, may examine only a limited volume of data providing a snapshot view of the hotels’ responses. Lexical choices and language expressions used in these responses may determine the effectiveness of communication and messages. Put another way, language used in communication, if carefully tailored, can convey desirable messages and guide perceptions (e.g., image) as intended by the sender, so they are also worth examining.

Overall, past research focused on how hotel management responded to negative guests’ reviews (a form of eWOM) with the understanding that appropriate response strategy is required for
effective service recovery. Proper responses, particularly how the message is conveyed, are as important and can reinforce or change consumer perceptions and guide them in a desirable direction. However, no specific attention has been given to the language used in these responses in terms of word choices and expressions. Therefore, the goal of this study is to identify (a) frequently used words and (b) common language expressions employed by 5-star hotels in online communication with their guests, presented as responses to guests’ reviews. To accomplish the study’s goal, the researchers focused on 5-star hotels in Bangkok, Thailand as the study’s sample and their responses to guests’ reviews on Expedia. Findings of the study will have also implications for English language pedagogy for hotel industry courses offered in various higher education institutions.

3. Methodology

3.1 Data Source
The study aims to investigate frequently used words and common language expressions found in the responses to guests’ reviews on Expedia. Expedia, an online travel agency (OTA) website, was chosen for three important reasons. First, as one of the top three booking channels, Expedia makes the highest income for hotels in Thailand (TTR Weekly, 2018). Second, Expedia provides ratings based on verified reviews from travelers (room cleanliness, service and staff, room comfort and hotel condition). In other words, Expedia brings a source of reviews that the travelers can trust (Technosys, 2015). Third, Expedia provides the opportunity for both travelers and hotel representatives to respond to each other. These reasons make Expedia different from other OTA websites, which makes it a worthwhile OTA to investigate.

3.2 Data and Data Analysis
To maintain the focus of the study, only responses from 5-star hotels in Bangkok were considered. The city of Bangkok was chosen because it was named one of the top tourism destinations for two consecutive years by Mastercard's Annual Travel Index in celebration of World Tourism Day 2017. Both positive and negative reviews were recognized. Responses to the reviews by 41 hotels were collected during high season period from November 2017 to April 2018. Hotel responses to guests’ reviews were downloaded directly from Expedia. The corpus is composed of 73,706 word tokens and 2,375 word types.

The analysis followed these steps. First, the corpus was examined for words with high absolute frequencies. To identify the specific words that characterize the corpus (or the keywords), the researchers compared the words with high absolute frequencies against a comparator corpus. Relative frequencies were then calculated by comparing absolute frequencies against the frequencies in the British National Corpus or the BNC (see Aston & Burnard, 1998 for a succinct description of the BNC) using the statistical measure log-likelihood (LL). Following Carreon and Todd’s (2013) framework, the keywords with LL value of at least 100 are iteratively categorized into five themes: (1) words relating to hotel services and facilities, (2) words relating to hotel staffs, (3) words relating to hotel guests and guests' experiences, (4) words relating to language production (Bieber et al., 2003), and (5) words relating to location.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1 The word choices used in Bangkok 5-star hotels’ responses to guests’ reviews on Expedia
The first stage was to conduct a basic word frequency count to give absolute frequencies of words on the hotels’ responses. Table 1 shows the five most frequently used words.

Table 1. Five most frequently used words in Bangkok 5-star hotels’ responses to guests’ reviews on Expedia

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Top 5 Words</th>
<th>Absolute Frequency</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>to</td>
<td>3636</td>
<td>to provide; to learn; to read; to know; to see you again; to welcome back; look forward to; to our hotel; to our beautiful resort; to us; to Shangri-La; to your comment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>3607</td>
<td>thank you for; see you soon; you had a wonderful time; pleasure to have you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>your</td>
<td>2874</td>
<td>your feedback; your recent experience; your stay; your reviews; your return</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>the</td>
<td>2231</td>
<td>the Anantara; the Conrad; the Sukhothai; the legendary service; the inconveniences; in the future; the problem; the opportunity; the pleasure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>2202</td>
<td>thanks for choosing; thanks for your patronage; thanks for sharing; thanks for your return visit; thanks for your time; thanks for staying with us</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First of all, the high frequency of *to* reflects its common use in English as being followed by an infinitive to express use or purpose (e.g. *to* provide; *to* learn; *to* read; *to* see you again). It is commonly found in phrasal verbs (e.g. look forward *to* seeing you) and is used in order to express movement toward a place related to the hotel (e.g. *to* our hotel; *to* our beautiful resort; *to* us; *to* Shangri-La). The second most frequently used word was *you* which is as a pronoun referring to the guests (e.g. *you* had a wonderful time; pleasure to have *you*) and used in a language expression (e.g. thank *you* for; see *you* soon; *you* had a wonderful time). Next, the high frequency use of *your* is as a possessive adjective showing belonging to or associated with the experienced guests (e.g. *your* feedback; *your* recent experience; *your* stay; *your* reviews). A detailed discussion of the pronoun *you* and possessive adjective *your* is provided below. Fourth, the frequency of the article *the* is used as a definite article for denoting specific names (e.g. *the* Anantara; *the* Conrad; *the* Sukhothai) and it is used in sentences or clauses to define or identify a particular thing related to the hotel services and hospitality (e.g. *the* inconveniences; *the* problem; *the* pleasure). The article *the* is also used to mention time (e.g. in *the* future). Last but not least, the high frequency use of *for* reflects the common use of language expression in saying thank you (e.g. thanks *for* choosing; thanks *for* sharing; thanks *for* your time).

Carreon and Svetanant (2017) argued that “while these findings shed some light on the data under investigation, stronger conclusions cannot be drawn since absolute frequencies reflect
general language use but not the specific linguistic features of a text” (p.644). Table 2 shows the top 30 keywords or about 14.56% of all the keywords with LL values of at least 100, with their frequencies, LL values, categories and examples, where \( f \) is the absolute frequency and \( LL \) is the log-likelihood.

Table 2 Top 30 keywords with the highest log-likelihood values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Keywords</th>
<th>( f )</th>
<th>( LL )</th>
<th>Category (Words relating to…)</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>your</td>
<td>2874</td>
<td>14151.42</td>
<td>involved production</td>
<td>your feedback; your stay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>thank</td>
<td>1488</td>
<td>12643.57</td>
<td>involved production</td>
<td>Thank you very much; thank you for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Bangkok</td>
<td>836</td>
<td>10331.95</td>
<td>location</td>
<td>Conrad Bangkok; Dusit Thani Bangkok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>dear</td>
<td>1107</td>
<td>9518.8</td>
<td>involved production</td>
<td>Dear Guest; Dear Chris; Dear Valued Guest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>you</td>
<td>3607</td>
<td>9503.54</td>
<td>involved production</td>
<td>Thank you for; Thank you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>regards</td>
<td>814</td>
<td>8750.63</td>
<td>involved production</td>
<td>Best regards; Warm regards; Kind regards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>stay</td>
<td>1040</td>
<td>7761.6</td>
<td>informational conveyed</td>
<td>a pleasant stay; stay with us</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>feedback</td>
<td>601</td>
<td>6328.72</td>
<td>hotel services and facilities</td>
<td>your feedback; great feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>we</td>
<td>2137</td>
<td>5612.5</td>
<td>involved production</td>
<td>We look forward to; We are very happy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>welcoming</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>4482.67</td>
<td>involved production</td>
<td>look forward to welcoming you back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>guest</td>
<td>496</td>
<td>4461.44</td>
<td>hotel guests and guests' experiences</td>
<td>the guest experience; guest feedback</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>manager</td>
<td>699</td>
<td>4434.75</td>
<td>hotel staff</td>
<td>Executive Assistant Manager; General Manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>forward</td>
<td>699</td>
<td>4354.81</td>
<td>involved production</td>
<td>look forward to welcoming you back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>our</td>
<td>1151</td>
<td>4296.58</td>
<td>information conveyed</td>
<td>our service; our staffs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Hotel</td>
<td>616</td>
<td>3999.49</td>
<td>location</td>
<td>The Athenee Hotel; Sukosol Bangkok Hotel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>us</td>
<td>945</td>
<td>3435.2</td>
<td>involved production</td>
<td>give us a rating; give us a review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>choosing</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>3303.85</td>
<td>involved production</td>
<td>Thank you for choosing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>review</td>
<td>481</td>
<td>3024.52</td>
<td>hotel services and facilities</td>
<td>write a review; this review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>banyan</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>2752.09</td>
<td>location</td>
<td>at Banyan Tree Bangkok</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The words in Table 2 reflects the specific characteristic feature of the corpus. To understand further what these words meant, the top 30 keywords were iteratively categorized into themes using the concordance of each of these keywords as guide. Table 3 presents the keyword categories and their respective percentages.

Table 3 Keyword categories and percentages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Words relating to hotel services and facilities</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Words relating to hotel staff</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>18.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Words relating to hotel guests and guests’ experiences</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Words relating to language production (Bieber et al., 2003)</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>57.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Words relating to location</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>14.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>207</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The most frequently found keywords in the order of decreasing frequency are words relating to language production (N=119; 57.49%), words relating to hotel staff (N=38; 18.36%), words relating to location (N=29; 14.01%), words relating to hotel services and facilities (N=18; 8.70%), and words relating to hotel guests and guests’ experiences (N=3; 1.45%).
The top words relating to language production (f=119; 57.49%) include your (f=2874; LL=14151.42), thank (f=1488; LL=12643.57), dear (f=1107; LL=9518.8), you (f=3607; LL=9503.54), regards (f=814; LL=8750.63). Dear is used in salutations of hotels’ responses to guests’ reviews (e.g. Dear Customer). Thanks is used to start a letter with a positive note (e.g. Thank you for...). Regards is commonly used as a complimentary close, then followed by the signature of the sender. The second theme reflects the hotel staffs showing names of staffs that perform services for guests, the positions of hotels’ staffs and also the words in expression to show the feelings and reactions of the hotels’ staffs. The third theme reflects the location by addressing the specific name of the location and the hotels. The fourth theme reflects the hotels services and facilities provided from the hotels and the last theme reflects the hotel guests and guests' experiences which addressed the experienced guests showing their encountering services and facilities in the hotel.

Overall, it can be said that the 5-star hotels examined in this research were concerned mainly on using positive language to communicate with their customers. Using positive language may function in two ways. On the one hand, it serves as words of welcome and warmth for the customers. On the other hand, when a customer is complaining about a hotel’s services and facilities, it may serve as pacifying note so readers (customers) will calm down. While this move is welcomed by guests, it may be temporary, since future guests may be interested if the complaints have been addressed or not.

4.2 The language expressions used in Bangkok 5-star hotels’ responses to guests’ reviews on Expedia

In terms of language expressions used in responses by hotels, the top five most frequently used expressions are formed with the words your, thank, dear, you and regards. While most of these were already discussed above, some space will still be allotted for them to give more examples, especially when they are used as language expressions. The words are related to the ‘involved production’ dimension of language use. According to Biber, Conrad, and Reppen (1998), the involved production dimension is related to “a primarily interactive or affective purpose for the expression of feelings and concerns and with little or no informational focus such as the use of second person pronouns, wh-questions, emphatics, amplifiers and sentences relatives” (p. 150). Table 4 presents the keywords categorized according to language production (Biber, Conrad & Reppen, 1998).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Keyword</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>LL</th>
<th>Function of language</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>your</td>
<td>2874</td>
<td>14151.42</td>
<td>involved</td>
<td>your feedback; your stay</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>12643.57</td>
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<td>1107</td>
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<td>you</td>
<td>3607</td>
<td>9503.54</td>
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<td>f</td>
<td>LL</td>
<td>Function of language</td>
<td>Examples</td>
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<td>---------</td>
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<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>370</td>
<td>3303.85</td>
<td>involved</td>
<td>Thank you for choosing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>experience</td>
<td>525</td>
<td>2597.79</td>
<td>informational</td>
<td>good experience; recent experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>look</td>
<td>642</td>
<td>2531.83</td>
<td>informational</td>
<td>look forward to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>soon</td>
<td>502</td>
<td>2530.25</td>
<td>involved</td>
<td>back again soon; welcome you again soon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>future</td>
<td>513</td>
<td>2471.73</td>
<td>informational</td>
<td>a future visit; near future</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>sharing</td>
<td>310</td>
<td>2444.77</td>
<td>involved</td>
<td>thank you for sharing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>welcome</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>2418.27</td>
<td>involved</td>
<td>welcome you back again</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>back</td>
<td>799</td>
<td>2393.63</td>
<td>involved</td>
<td>welcome you back again</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>for</td>
<td>2202</td>
<td>2182.41</td>
<td>informational</td>
<td>apologize for any inconvenience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

First, the word you and thank are used together to form the language expression Thank you. This expression is used to express appreciation and gratitude to the guests for sharing either their positive or negative experiences from staying in the hotels. Examples include thank you for sharing your feedback, thank you for sharing your review, thank you for your great review, thank you for your stay, thank you for your recent visit, and thank you for staying at + Hotel name.
Second, the word *dear* is used in tandem with a guest name or words that refer to guests to form a salutation expression in the beginning of the responses. This type of expression is purposed to greet the guests and to show respect by addressing a customer by his/her name. Examples include *Dear Dongmin (Dear + guest’s name), Dear Guest and Dear Valued Guest*. Third, the word *regards* forms the expression in the complimentary close of the responses. Examples include *Best Regards; Best Regards, Mark O’Sullivan General Manager; Warm Regards; Warm Regards, Ben Perera Resident Manager; and With best regards from Bangkok, Patrick Bolt General Manager*. These expressions are the most common phrases in the hotels responses to the feedback of the customers to show respect and care. No matter how good or bad of the received comments, making guests feel respected or valued as a person are indispensable among hotels’ responses.

It is also interesting to investigate the production of language. Table 4 shows the 20 keywords relating language production and categorized as involved or informational production (Biber, Conrad, & Reppen, 1998). Involved production is related to the words that show expressions of feelings and interest with little or no informational focus such as the use of second person pronouns, possessive pronouns, and amplifier. On the other hand, informational production refers to the expressions with the main goal of providing information such as the use of nouns and prepositions in responses. The most common word relating to the informational production of language include *stay* (f=1040; LL=7761.6), *experience* (f=525; LL=2597.79), *look* (f=642; LL=2531.83), *future* (f=513; LL=2471.73), *for* (f=2202; LL=2182.41). Table 4 above presents the keywords used for involved and informational dimension of language.

Of all these words relating to language production, the pronoun *you* and the possessive adjective *your* are quite interesting to discuss a bit since they can be used by the hotels to directly synthetically personalize (see Fairclough, 2001) guests using cliché expressions (e.g. Thank you for choosing…; *Your* feedback is …). Fairclough argued that using these words has "a compensatory tendency to give the impression of treating each of the people 'handled' en masse as an individual (p.52)."

Overall, the findings show that hotels used involved production of language rather than informational production of language in replying to the guests’ comments. In order to make and keep strong friendship in the field of hospitality, hotel staffs tend to reply to the guests’ comments by using words in involved production of language and these words are used to enhance interpersonal relationship between the guests and the hotels which are the key path to an ongoing relationship (Park and Allen, 2013).

5. Conclusion
The goal of this research study was to examine word choices and the common language expressions used in the hotels’ responses to guests’ reviews. While this study focused only on 5-star hotels in Bangkok and one OTA website *Expedia*, findings still reveal an interesting trend for the language used in communication by hotels with their guests. More words and language expressions relating to the involved dimension of language indicates that the hotels mainly focused on building interpersonal relationships with their guests at the expense of addressing their needs and complaints. Future research studies should examine and compare between negative and positive comments from hotels’ customers and how hotels respond differently to these comments. An implication from this study is in its application to teaching English for Specific Purposes courses (e.g. English for Hotel and Hospitality Industry) where students are taught to employ both the involved and informational dimensions of language to
address guests’ reviews or comments. Despite its limitations, we hope that this paper contributed another perspective in understanding replies to hotel guests’ feedback using corpus-based approach.

References


Critical Discourse Analysis of How Foreigners Define “Thainess” through Online Comments about Dating Thai Women

Thipphayawan Chakthepwong
Chiang Mai University
Thailand
tchakthepwong@gmail.com

Abstract
Online communication narrows the world down to your fingertips. People from different places are able to share their opinions towards other social and cultural issues from their perspectives. This study about Thainess analyzed online discourse from commenters with different social and cultural backgrounds. The data sources of this study were from two online conversational sources: Thai Visa.Com, and Stupid Questions Chiang Mai Facebook Page with four conversational topics about dating Thai women. The purpose of the study was twofold: 1) to analyze the issue of Othering in relation to ideology and power in online conversational threads of commenters with different social and cultural backgrounds and 2) to reveal the in-group and out-group identities reflecting self-perception as well as Thainess via online discourse about dating Thai women. The analysis was based on Teun A. van Dijk’s Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) focusing on the Ideological Square of Othering. The Ideological Square postulates the concept of in-group and out-group presentations reflecting the relationship between ideology and power found in discourse. An interesting result was that some foreigners considered themselves as in-group with Thais and out-group with those foreigners who criticized Thais, showing another angle of the concept of othering demonstrated in online discourse.

Keywords: Critical Discourse Analysis, Ideological Square of Othering, Dating Thai Women, Tuen A. van Dijk

1. Introduction
The development of communication technology - computers and the internet have opened a new world of communication: computer-mediated or online communication. The popularity of online communication is because of its well-known qualifications for being easily accessible anywhere and anytime for everyone with a simple internet connection. This also means that people from different social and cultural backgrounds can convey their opinions about any conversational topics open for discussion (including topics relating to other cultures) based on their sociocultural viewpoints. Since the online commenters do not need to reveal their identities when expressing opinions about a certain topic, they seem to be more comfortable and more frank in speaking their minds towards certain topics. In face to face communication they might not feel so free because they must reveal their true identities; for example, with the topics of politics, religion, sexual issues, culture, beliefs, and traditions.
Hence, it seems that identity issues can influence the expression of opinions of online communicators in the virtual world. In relation to identity, the conceived ideologies of the commenters remain and are reflected through the language used. The discourse expressed in online conversation is a result of conceived ideologies towards self-perception of the commenters. It affects the interactions with in-group and out-group communities within the concept of Othering. This is a way to exercise power by considering one group as the dominant and the Others as the marginalized group.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Theoretical Frameworks

The analysis was based on Teun A. van Dijk’s Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) focusing on the Ideological Square of Othering. The Ideological Square postulates the concept of in-group and out-group presentations reflecting the relationship between ideology and power in online discourse.

2.1.1 Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

According to van Dijk, CDA is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. With such research, critical discourse analysts take explicit positions, and thus want to understand, expose, and ultimately resist social inequality (van Dijk, 2015, p.1). Hence, CDA is a tool to investigate language use in a particular circumstance; this includes written languages and online conversation.

2.1.2 Ideology

In relation to CDA, van Dijk has described ideology as “systems of ideas,” or a set of doctrines structuring other systems such as religion, politics, economics, and society (van Dijk, 2011, p.8). The structure of ideologies is described in six categories: identity, activities, goal, norms and values, group relations, and resources (van Dijk, 2011, p.17). The above structure suggests the concept of shared social beliefs as a foundation of a social group’s self-value since ideologies are social and shared by the members of a group. As a result, ideologies systemize self-perception or identity, reactions, intentions, standards, and values as well as relations to other social groups.

2.1.3 Power

In connection with self-perception or identity, power is one of the subtopics influenced by ideologies. It is considered an important factor in the produced and reproduced language used in online comments since discourse is another way to exercise power (van Dijk, 2011, p.35).

2.1.4 Othering

As another result of self-justification, the concept of Othering enables the portrayal of ideas of in-group and out-group that reflect the relationships of ideology and power. The Ideological Square of Othering of van Dijk supplies the concept of ideology and power as exercised through four principles portrayed in discourse as shown in the following figure (van Dijk, 1998, p.267).
2.1.5 Thainess

In order to extract the underlying ideologies about Thainess from the online conversations, the definition of Thainess needed to be defined. According to Sattayanurak, many intellectuals have defined Thainess as what might be considered as anything perpetuating Thai ideology which is not static but has been influenced by political and social changes from time to time (Sattayanurak, 2005, p. 1).

3. Methodology

The data source and topic selection process of the online conversational threads used as the study material for analyzing ideologies influencing the online discourse from people of distinctly differing socio-cultural backgrounds towards issues within Thai contexts are summarized as follows.

3.1 Source Selection

Three criteria were used to select the online sources analyzed in this study. The first criterion was that they must be in written a forum and publicly available for online access, as this study investigated online discourse. The second criterion was that the websites contain the opinions of people from other countries regarding foreign men dating Thai women. The third criterion was that the comments were between August 2016 to January 2017 and in English, since the use of English identified (presumably) commenters as foreign (non-Thai) who were demonstrating opinions towards Thai issues based on the commenters’ own social and cultural background.

A Google Search using the key phrase “Dating Thai Women,” was conducted on 13th December 2016. This resulted in a very small number of useful responses, with the first three pages being online dating services websites. Moreover, most of these were outdated since they were published from 2013 to 2016. As a result, the researcher discarded this data source.

Next, a search using the keywords “top 10 websites about Thailand for expats” was conducted. The first result shown was “10 websites to promote your business online in Thailand” which led to ‘Thaivisa.com’ as the first site recommended. This was selected as the primary source. Then the key words “dating Thai women” were entered into the ‘search’ box of the communication board of the ‘Thaivisa.com’ website, ‘Thai Visa Forum’. From the search, ten lists were generated; however, some were duplications.

For the secondary source, in order to determine whether data from a different source would provide a different perspective, Facebook was chosen for the second set of data using a specific location in Thailand. After conducting a Google search to find the most popular place for expats to stay in Thailand (on 21 December 2016 using the keywords, “Best Place for Expats in Thailand”) the first website link ‘The 5 Best Places for Expats
to live in Thailand’ lead to Chiangmai as the most recommended.

To find conversational communities, the Facebook search tool then was inserted with the keywords “Farang community Chiangmai,” resulted in locating 2 Facebook pages (‘Farang Community Chiang Mai City’ and ‘Stupid Questions Chiangmai’). To search for any conversational topics related to dating Thai women the keywords “dating Thai women” were employed with each web page. The Facebook page ‘Farang Community Chiangmai City’ included 2 relevant conversational threads: the visa procedure accompanying partners to Laos, and the prohibition of sexual intercourse on Buddhist holidays. The topics were considered not directly related to the key words “dating Thai women,” as they yielded insufficient benefits to the study and were therefore not used. The Facebook page ‘Stupid Questions Chiangmai Facebook’ contained relevant conversational topics about foreigners dating Thai women and was chosen as the secondary data source for the study.

3.1.1 Background of Primary Source: Thai Visa.Com
There were 2 online data sources used in this study. The primary source was Thai Visa Forum of Thai Visa.Com. Thai Visa Forum” is a communication board of “Thaivisa.com”, providing an online conversation channel used by website participants to express their opinions towards certain topics about Thailand. Founded in 2002, the popularity of this website drew over 2.7 million visitors a month in April 2017.

3.1.2 Background of Secondary Source: Stupid Questions Chiangmai
The ‘Stupid Questions Chiangmai’ Facebook page had around 2,700 members in 2017, with a slightly different purpose from the ‘Thai Visa Forum’. The main intent of the webpage was to allow expats living in Chiangmai to ask other members about anything which might be nonsense, or repetitive questions about living in CM.

3.2 Topic Selection
From the 2 sources, there were 4 conversational threads about dating Thai women selected for the study according to the criteria.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Websites</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Conversational Topics</th>
<th>No. of Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thai Visa Forum</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>“Is it Thai etiquette for Farang to pay for everyone?”</td>
<td>288</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>“Are there any farang men in CM who are NOT exclusively interested in dating Thai women?”</td>
<td>142</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stupid Questions Chiangmai Group Facebook page</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>“How to find a Thai girlfriend who is not bat s*** crazy ….?”</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>“Have you ever met anyone who’s fallen for these lies from bar girl in Thailand?”</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>601</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.2 Topic Selection

3.2.1 Summary of Each Conversational Topic
1. The first selected topic was “Is it Thai etiquette for Farang to pay for everyone?” with 288 comments from the ‘Thai Visa Forum as a primary source. It was the most frequently visited topic, the second most replies, and was relevant to the issue of dating Thai women.
Overall the conversations discussed whether it was Thai tradition to have male foreigners pay for everyone accompanying Thai women on dates. In the thread, some foreign commenters claimed to have both direct and indirect experience dating Thai women in which the foreigners were expected to pay for everyone, including uninvited companion(s).

2. The 2nd topic was from Stupid Questions Chiangmai FB page “How to find a Thai girlfriend who is not bat s*** crazy …?” with 114 comments.

Overall the conversation discussed dating experiences and relationships between foreigners and Thai women. The thread initiator separated his dating experiences with Thai women into 4 periods: Week 1 – 2 (Great time), Week 2 – 4 (Ownership Requisition), Week 3 – 4 (Public Relationship Status Update and Jealousy), and Week 5 - 5.1 (Breaking down). The commenters shared their experiences of the practices and opinions they thought unusual comparing them with dating Western women.

3. The 3rd topic was from the ‘Stupid Questions Chiangmai’ FB page “Are there any farang men in CM who are NOT exclusively interested in dating Thai women?” with 142 comments. The thread discussed the reasons why foreign men chose not to date Thai women with additional discussion about Western women dating Thai men.

4. The last topic was also from the ‘Stupid Questions Chiangmai’ FB page “Have you ever met anyone who’s fallen for these lies from bar girl in Thailand?” with 57 comments. The overall conversation discussed a page of a book titled, “Only 13: the true story of Lon,” and described the illogical reasons why some Thai bar girls claimed to require financial support from foreign men.

4. Findings and Discussion
There were four steps for data analysis.

1. The linguistic features used in the discourse demonstrating Othering issues were identified (the most often found features were implication, insulting term, negative connotation, metaphor, negative lexicalization, & simile)
2. The comments with Othering were determined.
3. The comments with Othering were divided into 4 groups following the Ideological Square of van Dijk.
4. The underlying ideologies were summarized.

After analyzing data, the findings were categorized into 2 groups based on self-perception or self-positioning, reflecting in-group and out-group identities or “us” and “them” expressed in online discourse of the selected data. The perceived identities of the commenters towards the others they commented about shape the language used in online comments as exercising power.

The first group defines foreigners as ‘us’ and Thais as ‘them’.
The second group defines foreigners siding with Thais and Thais as ‘us’ and the other foreigners criticizing Thais as ‘them’.

4.1 Group 1: Foreigners as “us” and Thais as “them”
### Table 4.1: Ideological Square of Group 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ideological Square</th>
<th>Group 1</th>
<th>Replies</th>
<th>100%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emphasizing our good things</td>
<td>Foreigners are generous. Foreigners are intellectual. Foreigners are superior.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>11.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasizing their bad things</td>
<td>Thai women are liars. Thai women are illiterate. Thai women and Thai families are money grabbers. Thai women are illogically jealous.</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>27.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deemphasizing our bad things</td>
<td>Supporting the statements that disparage Thai women. Praising retaliation against Thai women.</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>11.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deemphasizing their good things</td>
<td>Thai women are not truly attractive. Cultural dissimilarity is an unacceptable excuse.</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>12.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>380</td>
<td>63.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 4.1.1 Group 1 Samples of Comments with Othering Issues

Sample 1: Foreigners are intellectual.

“"That sure wasn't written by a "thai bar gurl." 😬 The *engrish* is just too good. In fact, I doubt it was even written by a thai national at all 😏”

The above quote discusses a book, *Only 13: the true story of Lon*, which is about the life story of a Thai child prostitute. The linguistic feature identifying Othering in this quote is a negative lexicalization. Overall, the quote connotes the assumption of intellectual superiority of foreigners by denying the English language ability of the biography’s author, a Thai bar girl. Since the book is written in English it is believed that the biographer - as a Thai bar girl - did not have the ability to produce the book by herself. This idea was expressed through the use of intentionally misspelled words “*engrish*” and “*gurl*”, probably to imitate the pronunciation of non-native English-speaking Thais.

It demonstrated belief in the poor ability in English of Thai bar girls and Thai people in general. This then implied that the only people capable of producing this book would be non-Thais. In relation to the Ideological Square, this quote presents Othering since it emphasizes the English inability of Thais which then suggests the superior literacy of the non-Thais.

Sample 2: Thai women are illiterate.

The above statement could also be categorized to the theme, ‘Thai women are illiterate’, according to the Ideological Square since it could be intended to demonstrate the poor

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1 Tod Daniels, ‘Have you ever met anyone who’s fallen for these lies from bar girls in Thailand?’, *Stupid Questions Chiangmai*, 4 January 2017, [https://www.facebook.com/groups/550726288422228/search/?query=bad%20rain%20led%20to%20bad%20rice%20harvest] [accessed 7 January 2017].
ability in the English language of not only Thai bar girls but Thai people in general as based on the excerpt, “In fact, I doubt it was even written by a thai national at all.” This generalized an idea of Thai people as being illiterate in English. In relation to the Ideological Square, this quote demonstrated Othering as it emphasized a negative stereotype of out-group members: Thai women and all Thais. That the non-Thai commenter used a negative connotation to describe the literacy of Thais is a concept of ‘Emphasizing their bad things’.

Sample 3: Praising retaliation against Thai women.

“Don’t be a pussy, if your date brings friends tell them to go, when it’s bed time she won’t let her friends in, I’m talking girls. Very common scam as reported in several posts. Just depart if you arrive last, or do a runner, it’s not as if you’ve agreed to pay for every bitch and her dog upfront, right?”

The linguistic feature used to identify Othering in this quote is a negative lexicalization, an insulting term, and a metaphor. They were applied to ‘Deemphasize a bad thing’ about foreigners. Overall, this quote agreed with the previous comments to run away from dates with a Thai woman when seeing uninvited guests. However, it contributed a slightly different idea as well; it firstly advised other foreigners to chase away the unexpected companion(s) at the appointment since it claims this to be a trick Thais may intend to use for free meals. The negative word demonstrating this belief is, “scam.” The commenter resorted to the strategy of using an insulting term and metaphor to describe the bad behavior of Thai women and their fellows. Namely, the insulting term “bitch” was used to attack Thai women with the conceived perspective of a malicious, spiteful, coarse, or unpleasant woman [note: a female dog used for breeding purposes] (Collinsdictionary.com). Moreover, the phrase, “her dog,” was used as a metaphor again comparing the Thai companions at the date to canines, possibly domesticated and tamed. This may have been intended to verbally dehumanize Thais.

Correspondingly, the praise of this type of mistreatment as promoted here may be considered as ‘Deemphasizing the bad actions’ of foreigners. According to Ideological Square, this post demonstrated Othering as it deemphasized the negativity of in-group members, non-Thais. That the non-Thai commenter used negative lexicalization, insulting terms and metaphor to brand Thai women as bitches and dehumanize Thai companions as dogs is a portion of the paradigm of ‘Deemphasizing their bad things’.

Sample 4: Thai women are not truly attractive

“I find Thai girls physically attractive but to be honest it seems like there isn’t much going on upstairs with them. I’ve been on dates with a decent amount of them and these were NOT bargirls. I dated a teacher, a bank teller and a nurse.”

The linguistic feature used to identify Othering in this quote is a negative connotation. It was applied to deemphasize good things about Thai women. While the poster stated

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3 Jacques Dubois, ‘Are there any farang men in CM who are NOT exclusively interested in dating Thai women?’, Stupid Questions Chiangmai, 16 January 2017, < Are there any farang men in CM who are NOT exclusively interested in dating Thai women > [accessed 20 January 2017].
his positive opinion of the physical attractiveness of Thai women, the statement immediately disparaged them with the following negative statement, “…to be honest it seems like there isn't much going on upstairs with them.” Thus it may be interpreted that Thai women were shallow with no other interesting components, only having their physical attraction. The opinion was also supported by identifying the type of Thai women dated: professional and educated Thais (which seemed to be positive about them). Hence, this also deemphasized the good things about Thai women. In relation to the Ideological Square, the above statement about Thai women demonstrated Othering; it ‘Deemphasized the positives’ of out-group members, Thai women. That the non-Thai commenter used a negative connotation to suppress Thai women’s good characteristics is a component of ‘Deemphasizing their good things’.

To sum up, the majority of the foreign commenters grouped themselves with other foreigners as an in-group and, at the same time, considered Thais to be an out-group. The non-Thai commenters in the first group depiction then defined themselves - as well as their other non-Thai in-group members - positively and as: generous, intellectual, and superior in terms of social, cultural, educational, and financial backgrounds. On the other hand, their perceptions of Thai women were expressed in negative ways as: liars, money grabbers, illiterate, and illogically jealous. In relation to power, the language used by the (presumed non-Thai) to express good things about themselves and their in-group was one way to express their power. Likewise, the discourse used to criticize Thai women was also a way to exercise their domination and suppress Thais for marginalization. Foreigners criticized Thai people and culture based on their own particular social and cultural backgrounds. They presented images of Thais through a comparison of characteristics between foreigners as dominant group and Thais as subordinate group. In addition, the negative presentations of Thai customs like sin sod or dowry, men paying the bill on dates, and Thai women financially supporting their families sometimes generated misinterpretation and misjudgment of these people and their culture.

4.2 Group 2: Foreigners and Thais as “us” and other foreigners criticizing Thais as “them”

58 comments (9.65%)

► Thai women are not all liars.
► Thai women and Thai families are not money grabbers.
► Cultural dissimilarity matters.
► Superiority is not important.

4.2.1 Group 2 Samples of Comments with Othering Issues

Sample 1: Thai women and Thai families are not money-grabbers.

“Whenever I've eaten at a Thai friend’s home he/they have paid for everything. Never had them present me with a "check bin" at the end of the meal.

Here's another point, 40 years ago if you were invited to a Thai house (not very common) for a meal it was rude to take a bottle of wine or any other contribution to the meal. It was taken as a direct comment that the host needs help to put on a meal.
It was considered quite insulting."

The linguistic feature identifying Othering in this post is an implication. It was applied to emphasize good things about Thais. In detail, the quote stated an opinion about instances where Thais treat foreigners to homemade meals. The excerpt presenting such an idea is, “Whenever I've eaten at a Thai friend's home he/they have paid for everything.” Additionally, the quote mentioned the Thai custom when inviting guests to eat at their residences in the excerpt, “…it was rude to take a bottle of wine or any other contribution to the meal. It was taken as a direct comment that the host needs help to put on a meal. It was considered quite insulting.” This then further delegitimized the concept of money-grabbing Thais. According to the Ideological Square, this post demonstrated Othering as it emphasized the positivity of in-group members, Thais. That the non-Thai commenter expressing positive statements about Thais used the implication describing the cultural dissimilarity of dining out at a Thai home without any monetary expectations is a concept of ‘Emphasizing our good things’.

According to this analysis, the second group of foreign commenters expressed their opinions differently. This group of non-Thai commenters sided with Thais as an in-group and, at the same time, considered other foreigners who criticize Thais to be an out-group. Therefore, the language used to express their views of Thainess is different. For example, the expressions depict opinions with more positive characterizations of Thai women or Thai customs compared to the opinions from the first group of foreigners who derided Thais as an out-group.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, the results of this study were separated into three areas: the stereotypes of Thai women through the non-Thai perspective, the classification of the in-group and out-group members, and the perception of Thainess through the eyes of foreigners. Based on Teun A. van Dijk’s Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) focusing on the Ideological Square of Othering, the concept of in-group and out-group presentations which reflect the relationship between ideology of self-perception and power has been postulated. The language used in each comment presents the hidden ideologies towards Thai women or Thainess using particular linguistic features with semantic meanings.

Online commenters usually take sides according to both their own cultural and social ideologies and any knowledge about another society and culture. Presentation of the language used demonstrates a sense of the distinction displayed between online conversational communities in accordance with the depictions of Us and Them.

While the majority of the commenters (presumed to be foreigners) were consistent in relegating Thais to the out-group, there were approximately 10% of the comments with the opposite stated perspective yielding significantly different meaning in the study.

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References


Relationships between Syntactic Pauses in Read-Aloud Performance and English Reading Ability of Thai EFL Learners

Soisithorn Isarankura
Dhurakij Pundit University
Thailand
soisithorn55@gmail.com

Abstract
This study investigated whether relationships existed between the reading comprehension ability and the use of syntactically-related pauses in read-aloud performance of Thai EFL learners. English reading ability was measured through achievement test scores obtained from a reading skill course that the students took during the semester. Syntactic pausing was evaluated in terms of the use of erroneous syntactic pauses in reading-aloud performance. Following the read-aloud test, a short comprehension quiz was administered to check the students’ comprehension of the passage. The participants were 60 third-year English majors classified as intermediate EFL learners based on their average scores on an in-house test of English proficiency. The results reveal that the performance of the students varied substantially in their reading ability and the use of syntactic pauses. The correlation analysis indicates a statistically significant, although moderate, correlation between these two abilities. The correlation between syntactic pausing and the comprehension quiz was relatively low, but significant at the 0.05 level.

Key Words: syntactic pauses, thought groups, reading-aloud or oral reading, reading ability

1. Introduction
The ability to use pauses properly is important in spoken language. Pauses play a crucial role in segmenting an utterance into smaller meaningful units, which aids the listener in understanding the message. In speaking or oral reading (i.e. reading out loud, as Americans call it, or reading aloud, as the British say), if pauses are used inappropriately, the result is difficulty on the part of the listeners to follow the thread of speech (Wennerstrom, 1994). Research (e.g. Wu, 2003; Strangert, 2004; Zvonik, 2004) has examined relationships between pause and syntactic structures of English and found a link between the reader’s ability to chunk language and produce pause-defined units (i.e. units of information between pauses) which are related to immediate constituent grammar. In the author’s previous study (Isarankura, 2013), an attempt was made to analyze pause location and distribution on the basis of syntactic structures in read speech of native English speakers and Thai learners with relatively high and low English proficiency levels. The results showed a relationship between pause and syntax at the phrase, clause and sentence boundaries.

Similar to speaking, reading, no matter whether it is done orally or silently, requires the reader to divide text into meaningful units. Meaning of text is related to a language learner’s ability to group words into meaningful phrases or thought groups, which aid language comprehension. Effective reading should be done with correct phrasing of information into thought groups or sense groups, i.e. meaningful units of words that are grammatically and semantically related with each other (Crystal, 1997). While higher reading ability is said to be dependent on the ability to effectively process chunks of words, children who have reading problems often lack
parsing or chunking skills. In second or foreign language learning, a learner who does not know how to chunk properly may have difficulties reading in the second language (Alderson & Urquhart, 1984, cited in Johnson & Moore, 1997). Levelt (1993, cited in Johnson & Moore, 1997) proposed that the learner’s ability to read language in proper grammatical units may have a parallel in one’s ability to speak in appropriate chunks so that the information can be more readily accessible to the listener. Reading-aloud, or oral-reading, which combines the ability to read with the ability to speak, can be used to determine the ability of L2 learners to read and speak using appropriate syntactic chunks.

2. Review of Theory and Relevant Research

2.1 Information Processing

Information is processed by a series of human processing systems, such as attention, perception, and short-term memory (McLeod, 2008). The received information can be stored, retrieved and transformed using mental programs, resulting in behavioral responses. In the reading process, the eye receives visual information, decodes information and sends it to the brain where it is stored and coded. Then, the information is transformed systematically, and the output (i.e., behavioral response) might be reading what appears on the printed page either silently or orally.

2.2 Linguistic and Syntactic Processing

Linguistic knowledge is classified into levels: phonetics or graphetics, phonology or orthography, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. According to Field (2003), these levels of linguistic knowledge are stored in the long-term memory (LTM). In language acquisition, a language learner needs to have the ability to analyze and process linguistic input in appropriate ways. It is believed that, in the perceptive domain, linguistic information is processed from the smallest to the largest units, or bottom-up processing. That is, the process begins with sounds (or letters), and then proceeds to words, sentences and meanings. In the productive domain, on the other hand, information is processed from larger to smaller units, beginning from meanings of utterances to sentences, words, and sounds (or letters), as shown above.

Figure 1. Perception and production linguistic processing (From Luksaneeyanawin, 2007)
Syntactic processing is said to be a complex phenomenon. Syntax involves the construction of syntactic representations constrained by rules which specify the hierarchical constituent structures at the phrase, clause and sentence levels. Successful syntactic processing requires sufficient amounts of syntactic knowledge stored in a learner’s long-term memory and working memory so it is available for linguistic processes. Clahsen & Felser (2006) maintain that second language (L2) learners’ processing of complex syntax may remain nonnative-like due to a lack of relevant syntactic knowledge even after many years of L2 usage and exposure to the English language.

2.3 Linguistic Processing of a Read-Aloud Task
In performing a read-aloud task, the reader begins processing the first chunk of information which appears in the text within the perceptive domain. To comprehend the message, the working memory will match the received information with the linguistic knowledge (e.g., theoretical grammar and theoretical lexicon) stored in the long-term memory. Then, the reader will use the linguistic and motor programming in the productive domain to create the output by reading the first chunk of processed information out loud. To get new information from the text, the reader starts reading again and processing the next chunk of information. The same process will be repeated until the whole text has been read.

2.4 Pauses and Syntactic Processing in Read-Aloud Performance
Pause refers to a perceptible stop and start in the speaker’s speech. There are physical and psychological pauses (Zellner, 1994). Physical pauses depend on linguistic contexts and can occur within sentences as well as at sentence boundaries. Psychological (or mental) pauses are those independent of linguistic factors but are perceived by the hearer in connected speech. In this study, only physical pauses were investigated.

As stated earlier, pauses are used to chunk information in spoken language. Evidence from many studies (e.g. Wu, 2003; Zvonik, 2004; Strangert, 2004) has shown a positive correlation between pauses and syntactic structure, which suggests that the use of pauses entails syntactic processing of the speaker. The results of those studies also indicate that pause occurrence is strongly correlated with the degree of cohesion between words in the utterance. The locations of pauses normally occur at major syntactic boundaries like clauses and sentences, which are referred to as strong boundaries. In addition to boundary strength, pause locations are also affected by the complexity and the length of a syntactic constituent. Thus, for L2 learners to be able to read in appropriate chunks, knowledge of L2 constituent grammar or the ability to recognize relationships between structural parts of a sentence plays a crucial role. Learners’ ability to process information in an L2 setting differs depending on varying amounts of knowledge in the second language that have been stored in their long-term memory. The explicit evidence of the processed information in the learners’ read-aloud task could be measured in terms of the number of appropriate chunks between pauses, phonetically referred to as pause-defined units (PDUs) or the units of information between pauses, which correlate with English syntactic units.

2.5 Reading-Aloud or Oral Reading and Reading Ability
One focal area of research in reading-aloud ability is to examine whether a relationship exists between reading proficiency in English and the ability to read aloud using correct syntactic chunks. Fujinaga (2003) conducted a pilot study investigating whether there is a correlation between Japanese learners’ English reading proficiency and their ability to read aloud properly. The results revealed a significant positive correlation between the participants’ reading
proficiency in EFL and their ability to read aloud in correct thought/sense groups. However, the analysis from this study also indicated that reading aloud in correct sense groups may not lead to text comprehension while reading aloud.

2.6 Silent versus Oral Reading and Comprehension

Related research has investigated efficacy of silent versus oral reading on comprehension of first language (L1) learners and found inconclusive results. Past research in the 1970s (e.g., Swalm, 1972 and Elgart, 1978, as cited in McCallum et al. 2004) found oral reading to produce superior comprehension for young or low ability readers. More recently, Fletcher and Pumfrey (1988, cited in Fujinaga, 2004) found that oral reading led to greater comprehension than silent reading for 7 and 8 year old children. Other studies, however, found mixed results. Miller and Smith (1985, cited in Fujinaga, 2004), for example, found that low ability readers had significantly higher oral reading scores, while medium ability readers had significantly higher scores in silent reading. High ability readers did not differ in their scores of both reading types. Rowell (1976, cited in McCallum et al. 2004) found comprehension to be higher in oral reading for urban/suburban fifth graders and for males, but not for rural fifth graders and females.

Unfortunately, little research has been conducted to investigate the differences between oral reading and silent reading, which facilitates comprehension of L2 learners. Results from a few studies (Hatori, 1977; Takanashi and Takahashi, 1987, cited in Fujinaga, 2004) conducted on Japanese students reported similar results that the students did not have higher comprehension in oral reading than silent reading. Fujinaga (2004) investigated the effects of oral and silent reading on text retention in L2 reading. The results showed no significant differences between oral and silent mode in two relative English proficiency groups. Inconclusive results from previous studies suggest that some textual factors, such as style, register, text complexity and difficulty, may yield either positive or negative effects on the students’ performance.

Motivated by previous research work, this study aims primarily to investigate whether there is a correlation between English reading ability and syntactically-related pauses in read-aloud performance of Thai EFL learners. In addition to this main objective, an examination of the relationship between oral reading and comprehension was also incorporated in this study to find out whether oral reading would have a positive impact on comprehension among intermediate Thai learners. It is hoped that the study will provide some insights with regard to the benefits of reading aloud as a useful classroom activity, which combines reading skills with speaking skills. Reading aloud can be encouraged for use as a method to develop learners’ intelligible oral fluency and enhance their reading ability.

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

The participants were 60 third-year English majors studying in a private university in Bangkok, Thailand. These students have studied English for 8 to 12 years. Based on the students’ average score on an in-house English proficiency test of 60.42 from the total score of 100, their English proficiency level was classified as intermediate learners of English. These students were asked to participate in the study, but were not informed of the language aspects to be investigated prior to the experiment.

3.2 Instruments
The instruments used in the study consisted of two tasks. The first task was a read-aloud test of an unseen passage containing 151 words. Although the passage included many complex sentences and dependent clauses, it was determined to be easily readable. This passage was used in the previous year with students of similar English proficiency level and was comparable to the experimental group. None of the vocabulary items were unknown, and the sentence length and complexity were within the English proficiency level of the participants. The passage was chosen for its predictability for pausing. To predetermine whether pauses were predictable, the passage was given to two native readers to read-aloud and to two linguistics experts to mark syntactic pauses. The second task was a comprehension quiz containing 6 multiple choice questions, which were given immediately after the read-aloud task to test whether the participants comprehended the passage while reading aloud.

3.3 Data Collection
Both instruments were administered in a language laboratory. The participants were instructed how to record their speech using the Sound Forge 9 program. Then they were asked to read-aloud the passage ‘at sight’ while paying attention to meaning. This aimed at preventing the participants from eye-mouth reading with no comprehension. Their read-aloud speech was audio-recorded. Immediately after the participants finished the first task, the reading passage was taken back from each participant and the 6-item comprehension quiz was given to check their comprehension.

3.4 Scoring
The scoring of the three variables was conducted as follows:

(a) Scores of the participants’ read-aloud performances were obtained according to the following procedures. First, pauses of 200 milliseconds (ms) or greater produced by the participants were acoustically detected by the PRAAT sound analyzing software, version 5.1.15. The performance of the students’ read-aloud test was analyzed by counting the number of pauses placed at inappropriate positions based on prior syntactic analysis for predetermined pauses, hereinafter referred to as ‘incorrect pausing’.

(b) Scores on the correct answers in the 6-item comprehension quiz were collected to represent the participants’ ability to comprehend the passage while reading aloud, hereinafter referred to as ‘comprehension quiz’.

(c) The participants’ English ‘reading ability’ was operationally defined by their achievement test scores which were obtained from a reading skill course that the students were enrolled in during the semester that the data was collected.

3.5 Data Analysis
The following statistics were used to correlate scores obtained from the reading-aloud task with those from the comprehension quiz and scores from achievement tests of an English reading course:

(a) Descriptive statistics: mean, standard deviation
(b) Independent Samples t-test
(c) Pearson product-moment correlations

4. Results and Discussion
The first analysis was conducted to compare the students’ average scores in the use of incorrect syntactic pauses against the average scores of their overall reading ability and the comprehension quiz.

Table 1: Incorrect Pausing, Reading Ability, and Comprehension Quiz

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Maximum Score</th>
<th>Minimum Score</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect Pausing</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16.35</td>
<td>7.582</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Ability</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25.18</td>
<td>7.931</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension Quiz</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>.825</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 presents the students’ maximum and minimum scores, mean values and standard deviation. The results show that the students’ incorrect pause positions ranged from 6 to 34, averaging 16.35. Scores of the reading achievement test, out of the total of 50, ranged between 12 and 41, with a mean of 25.18. The broad range of scores among the 60 students and the high standard deviations (i.e. 7.582 and 7.931) suggest that the students were assumed to be a heterogeneous group, having substantially varied abilities in performing the two tasks. Comparatively, scores on the comprehension quiz ranged between 3 and 6, and indicated a standard deviation of only .825, suggesting a narrower range of varied ability among the students.

As regarding the primary question for this study was to examine whether a relationship existed between the students’ ability to use syntactic pauses when reading aloud and their overall reading ability, Pearson product-moment correlations were therefore conducted to determine the strength of the relationship between the two abilities. Results in Table 2 indicate a moderate and statistically-significant correlation (r. = -.472, p < 0.05). The negative correlation was expected because the scores on the reading ability were positive, that is, high scores indicated high ability; whereas the scores on syntactic pausing reflected a number of incorrect pauses, and therefore was negative (i.e. high scores indicated a higher number of pause misplacement). The significant, although moderate, correlation between reading ability and the use of syntactic pausing, then, shows that the two abilities were related to a certain extent.

Table 2: Correlations between Incorrect Pausing, Reading Ability, and Comprehension Quiz

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Incorrect Pausing</th>
<th>Reading Ability</th>
<th>Comprehension Quiz</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Incorrect Pausing</td>
<td>r.</td>
<td>-.472*</td>
<td>-.299*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>.020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Ability</td>
<td>r.</td>
<td>-.472*</td>
<td>.216</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.098</td>
<td>.098</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension Quiz</td>
<td>r.</td>
<td>-.299*</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < 0.05
In the investigation of syntactic pausing and the comprehension quiz scores, the correlation analysis indicated a relatively low, but significant, correlation of \( r = -0.299, p < 0.05 \). This shows that the ability to understand the text while reading it out loud was, to some extent, related to the ability to use syntactic pauses. However, it seems premature to assume the results are conclusive since the read-aloud passage is quite short and there are only six items in the comprehension quiz, whereas the achievement test, which represents reading ability, contains a greater number of test items and several genres of text types. One may recognize that the correlation did not exist between reading ability and the comprehension quiz; these two abilities have no significant relationship with each other \( r = 0.216, p > 0.05 \).

5. Conclusion and Implications of the Study
The main objective of this small-scale study was to examine the relationship between reading comprehension ability and the ability to read aloud in syntactically-related chunks. The results were consistent with Fujinaga’s (2003) study indicating that a significant correlation existed between the two abilities. However, due to the fact that one may recognize the substantially broad range of scores in the performance of the two tasks, as shown by the high values of the standard deviation, it may be premature to conclude that higher EFL reading proficiencies are dependent on higher abilities to use syntactic pauses. More reliable results would call for a larger scale examination to investigate participants of more homogeneous groups at certain English proficiency levels. In terms of pausing and comprehension while reading aloud, the result indicates a significant but quite low relationship \( r = -0.299, p < 0.05 \). This is quite consistent with the result from Fujinaga’s (2003) study which indicates that the recognition of correct sense groups does not always facilitate text comprehension while reading aloud.

It should be noted that although the correlation between pausing and comprehension may still be inconclusive, the findings do not suggest that reading aloud poses a negative impact on comprehension. In fact, since syntactic pauses are not always symbolized by the graphetic (writing) system of English, correct syntactic pausing could provide evidence that the reader, to some extent, understands what is being read. One obvious benefit is that oral-reading can produce improvement in pronunciation and oral fluency for learners. As Kelly (2004) suggests, reading aloud combines silent reading skills with listening and speaking activities. It helps bridge the gap between using the eyes in silent reading and the ears in hearing sound dimensions, which is critical to listening and speaking. Thus, in a reading class, students should not only be taught strategies for reading, which include comprehending, summarizing, and inferring, they should also be taught the strategy of mouthing the words as they read. This will help them emphasize the link between reading in correct chunks and speaking with appropriate pauses. Reading fluently can then be transferred to speaking fluently. Taking into account the link between perceptive domain of language processing (i.e. reading) and productive domain (i.e. speaking), it can provide an insight into second/foreign language learning and teaching. Additionally, reading-aloud activities in class can enable both the teacher and the students themselves to identify pronunciation problems in spoken English. It appears that the advantages sufficiently outweigh the drawbacks of reading-aloud being incorporated into EFL lessons in order to enable students to read fluently as well as speak intelligible English.

6. Recommendations for Future Research
As the results of this study suggest, a few areas have emerged for further research. One area would call for research on the relationship between the students’ reading ability and specific places at which they make incorrect pauses when reading aloud. Examples of incorrect pausing environments are pauses occurring between a subject and the verb, between a verb and its direct
object, between the preposition and its object, and between an adjective and the noun, among several others. Knowing these error environments will allow teachers of English to explicitly teach their students to chunk language appropriately when reading a passage.

Another area of further research would call for a larger scale examination of the relationship between oral versus silent reading and comprehension, as well as retention, among Thai EFL learners of varying proficiency levels. As has been suggested from past research, different genres of text and other textual factors may affect reading comprehension performance. Future research may include different types of text so as to investigate which text types will benefit from silent reading and which will benefit from oral reading.

References


The Oldest Living Thing

There is a tree growing in America that is over three and a half thousand years old. People believe that it must be the oldest living thing! It even has a name – ‘General Sherman.’ The tree is about eighty meters tall. At the bottom of its trunk it is five meters around. This great tree stands in a park. It is a giant redwood tree.

Redwoods are magnificent forest trees that are among the world’s tallest. They grow along the west coast on the sides of mountains that face the Pacific Ocean. The bark of a redwood tree is very thick – about thirty centimeters – and it protects the trees whenever there are forest fires. Many houses in America are built of redwood. The wood is easy to cut, lasts for many years and is not attacked by pests. Some Australian companies buy redwood to make outdoor furniture.

B. Answer the following questions according the passage you have just read.

1. The oldest living thing is _________________.
   a. a whale           c. an elephant
   b. a giant tree      d. a horse

2. ‘General Sherman’ grows _________________.
   a. in Australia      c. in America
   b. in Africa         d. in South America

3. In Australia some people make ________________ from redwood.
   a. outdoor furniture c. timber
   b. floorboard        d. carts

4. In America redwoods are used for building _________________.
   a. trunks            c. coaches
   b. houses            d. boats

5. ________________ protects the redwood from being burnt.
   a. the bark          c. the trunk
   b. a forest fire     d. the pest

6. Redwoods grow near _________________.
   a. the Atlantic Ocean c. a mountain road
   b. the Pacific Ocean  d. a park
Balancing Vocabulary Pedagogical Games and Students’ Achievement in Nigeria

Wisdom Inibehe Jude¹ and Josephine Odey²

¹Department of Curriculum and Teaching, College of Education
Afaha Nsit, Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria.
²Department of Entrepreneurial Studies, Federal University of Lafia,
Nassarawa State, Nigeria
¹wisppa@yahoo.com

Abstract
This study is designed as a shift away from the conventional practice of vocabulary instruction that has permeated English Language lessons, especially at the Post Basic level of education in Nigerian public schools. It examined the effect of vocabulary pedagogical games medium in the form of Electronic Instructional Games (EIG) and Non-Electronic Instructional Games (NIG) on students’ vocabulary achievement. A quasi-experimental design was adopted using three co-educational schools drawn from a population of 65,583 students from 229 schools. The purposeful and criterion sampling techniques were used in selecting 3 intact classes consisting of 2 experimental groups and 1 control group in Akwa Ibom State. The study was guided by 2 research questions and hypotheses. The instruments for data collection were Vocabulary Instructional Package (VIP) and Vocabulary Achievement Test (VAT). The statistical tools used were mean, standard deviation and Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses respectively. Findings of the study indicated that students exposed to vocabulary pedagogical games through the media of EIG and NIG strategies had higher mean achievement scores than those exposed to conventional strategy. It was recommended that English language teachers should ensure that lessons are made rich with varieties of vocabulary games. The EIG and NIG strategies should be reflected in both teacher training curriculum and the JS2 English Studies curriculum. It was concluded that the strategies enhanced collaborative learning.

Keywords: Vocabulary Pedagogical Games, Electronic Instructional Games, Non-Electronic Instructional Games, Students Achievement, Vocabulary Content.

1. Introduction
English Language in Nigeria has gained acceptance as a common language, second language and language of instruction. English has become so much part of our everyday life that its teaching and learning must not be taken for granted. One of the ways in which qualitative basic skills of the language can be developed in learners is by ensuring that appropriate instructional strategies are utilized in the teaching and learning of English vocabulary.

Jafari; Madani and Maghsoudi (2013) opined that effective learning was commonly viewed to be solemn devoid of hilarity, fun and laughter. This position has been a challenge especially in the teaching and learning of language skills in second language (L₂) context.
which at times seems abstract in nature. According to Bamigbola (2015), one of the major problems associated with English language learning in Nigeria, is that mother tongue is used as language of instruction from primary one class and from primary four pupils are taught with English as a language of instruction. Hence, pupils are exposed to the use of English late in the public primary schools. The English teachers were also exposed late to English language which makes them lack proficiency in the target language. Hence, learners are taught by teachers who themselves are not proficient in the language, due to second language circumstances and poor teaching methods. In support, Olusoji (2012) opined that as a result of instructional incompetency, both teachers and the students they teach, become weak in vocabulary acquisition which is the building block for the development of language skills.

Vocabulary plays a more essential role in communication as a component of language. This is because they are the words learners use to communicate in oral and print language (Lehr, Osborn, & Hiebert, 2004). Students’ inability to communicate effectively during the teaching and learning process is associated with paucity of vocabulary in both verbal and written communication. The lack of vocabulary in routine conversations affected their communication activities and examinations (Ereke & Agwu, 2015). The vocabulary teaching and learning process should be such that provides appropriate and adequate words during lessons for the development of effective communication. Vocabulary Pedagogical Games is a technological innovation which heightens the sense of opportunity and possibility in classroom interaction. Vocabulary Pedagogical Games approach is new to education, aimed at equipping students with necessary skills and attitudes for lifelong learning and work in modern society (Perrotta, Featherstone, Aston & Houghton, 2013). Thus, teachers’ knowledge of utilization of Pedagogical Game based teaching and learning can be quite effective.

Balancing vocabulary pedagogical games entails instructional strategies that use educational games designed for the teaching of vocabulary in an enjoyable way that enhances active learner participation and collaboration. These games are classified based on the medium of presentation as they can be played using either the electronic media called Electronic Instructional Games (EIG) or non-electronic media (print) called the Non-Electronic Instructional Games (NIG). According to Stanley (2012) the terms computer games, video games, electronic games and digital games mean the same thing. They refer to any game played on a game console (such as the PlayStation3); desktop or laptop computer; or handheld/mobile device (iPod, mobile phone, tablet).

The Electronic Instructional games (EIG) are computer assisted vocabulary instructional games, which are accessed through any electronic device in the classroom (Yip & Kwan, 2006). It is an instructional technique that uses induced online games like ‘Match It Sentence’, ‘Match It Definition’ and ‘Line Match Games’. These games are designed taking into account the contextual and structural analysis approach in vocabulary instruction and the same vocabulary will be played in different ways in this study, using computer, print or (paper) in two groups. EIG involves using electronic devices like computers as interactive tools, to change lesson content for each student, based on their specific learning needs (Jude, 2016). Electronic Instructional Games (EIG) or Non Electronic Instructional Games (NIG) are appropriately infused into the classroom culture, the learning environment becomes activated, as learners are motivated, given opportunities to develop decision making skills.

During vocabulary game play each team collaboratively provided a common answer to the questions presented in the games. Students who played vocabulary games (EIG or NIG)
group used either the electronic medium or print medium. This gave them room to share ideas. There was opportunity for the more knowledgeable students to teach the less experience learners in each group. On the other hand, students not exposed to vocabulary learnt independently without the sharing of ideas as was commonly practiced in conventional classrooms. The balance of EIG or NIG as Vocabulary Pedagogical Games offers students a ‘flow’ experience, that brings about productivity. Vocabulary Pedagogical Games is a strategy that engages students and appeal to diverse learning styles.

Balancing vocabulary pedagogical games during lessons makes the teaching and learning process very interactive to students in a way that they are actively involved with their own learning process (Rosshalde, 2018). Students need to understand the vocabulary to aid their comprehension of concepts. Vocabulary pedagogical games strategies provide opportunities for teachers to be equipped adequately with innovative ways of manipulating and raising the bar of learners’ affective learning domain at equilibrium with the cognitive and psychomotor domains. The pedagogical games will expose students’ trouble spots, through question response time and whether the answers are correct or incorrect. The approach may also use differentiated instruction principles, to provide content that the learners can handle. For instance, it may provide building blocks customized to suit each learner’s learning needs by helping solve trouble spots before allowing the players to proceed to next level of play.

Vocabulary is an important part of every subject. Students need to understand the vocabulary of vocabulary of a subject to aid their comprehension of the concepts. Without vocabulary learners are bound to struggle to remember meaning of words. The perception by some teachers that vocabulary games are time consuming stems from its being viewed only for its fun element. (Richard - Amato, 1996 cited in Mubaslat, 2012). The problem of vocabulary in language teaching for English Studies teachers at the Upper Basic level of education in Nigeria. The prevalence of decline in the general academic performance and standard of education has necessitated a rethink and revamp of teaching strategies with the changing times.

Some scholars had blamed the use of conventional strategy for students’ lack of good grasp of basic language skills. The memorization learning process neither provides enough variety of contexts nor allows readers’ active processing of vocabulary and the learning of word differential meanings. Hence, students perform poorly because of ineffective medium of vocabulary presentation used by teachers during lessons. This results in students having defective reading, writing and speaking ability. As they have insufficient words reading becomes difficult, they tend to be deficient in comprehending academic task and written instructions which form the bases of learning at this level. This study sets out to answer the following questions:

1. How will students exposed to Electronic Instructional Games differ from those exposed to Conventional strategy in a vocabulary achievement test?
2. What is the difference in vocabulary achievement between students exposed to Non-electronic Instructional Games and those exposed to the Conventional strategy?

The present study used these null hypotheses as guides to test the difference between vocabulary pedagogical games and students’ achievement:
1. There is no significant difference between the vocabulary mean achievement scores of students exposed to Electronic Instructional Games treatment and those exposed to Conventional strategy.

2. There is no significant difference between the vocabulary mean achievement scores of students exposed to Non-electronic Instructional Games treatment and those exposed to a Conventional strategy.

2. Literature Review

Vocabulary instruction for thirty years according to some vocabulary methodologists (Behlol & Dad, 2010), was often neglected during English lessons as many teachers tended to stress mostly on grammatical rules more than vocabulary. According to National Reading Panel (2000), vocabulary instruction was first identified as an essential skill students need to improve reading achievement. “Without grammar very little can be conveyed….but without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (Wilkins,1972 as cited in Alfaki, 2015). Therefore, the study of vocabulary is at the center; while learning a new language. Among several strategies used to improve students’ vocabulary achievement such as CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning), drama, role-play, and so on, games are another useful strategy to promote students’ language proficiency (Richard - Amato, 1996 as cited in Mubaslat, 2012).

In Nigerian secondary schools vocabulary learning often take the form of the ‘dictionary method’ which is the conventional strategy. This involves teaching the meaning of words by encouraging dictionary definitions memorization. It is teacher-centered and considered the oldest and most prominent strategies used in teaching vocabulary in schools (Basurto, 2004 & Okoh 2008). The process of memorization, neither provides enough variety of contexts nor allows learners to actively process vocabulary.

Electronic instructional games (EIG) are computer assisted vocabulary instructional games, which are accessed through any electronic device in the classroom (Jude, 2016). It is an instructional technique that uses induced online games like ‘Match It Sentence’, ‘Match It Definition’ and ‘Line Match Games’ see figure 1.

Figure 1: Children having fun during vocabulary game based learning

The ‘Match It Sentence’ is a word game that guides students to match sentences with words that best completes them. The idea is to expose students to appropriate words that suit a particular context. This game builds up students’ vocabulary, logic and reasoning skills as they utilize the process of elimination through the game (Edelson, 2008). Students are
required to click on the words on the left of the screen that best suits the context and complete
the sentences on the right screen (Figure 2). The ‘Match It Definition’ games are similar to
‘Match It Sentence’, but students are expected to match words to their definitions in this
case. To play the game students have to click on the buttons provided on the left screen, to
match definitions on the right side of the screen with the words that best suit or define them.

The ‘Line Match Game’ shows two lists of words on the right to the left screen and players
are expected to connect words on the left of the screen, to the corresponding word on the
right, depending on the question. For instance, they could be asked to connect words on the
left screen to the correct synonyms on the right. During such exposure students can learn
synonyms through single words. These games are designed taking into account the
contextual and structural analysis approach in vocabulary instruction.

Figure 2: Sample of ‘Match It Sentence’ Games Adapted from Vocabulary Spelling
City.Com

The Non-electronic Instructional Games (NIG) are vocabulary games that are not played
electronically. The ‘Match It Sentence’ games as cited in figure 2 can be played using print
media, which is a Non-electronic medium and can also be played using computer which is
a Non Electronic medium, during the collaborative teaching and learning of vocabulary. All
the games in this study could be played using either the EIG or NIG strategy (Jude, 2016).
The NIG are designed for vocabulary instruction. They entertain as well as sustain active
learners’ participation and collaboration through print resource materials. They are non-
computer assisted instructional games, which often use print media to engage learners in
language learning. The difference between the two strategies (EIG and NIG) lies in the
manner or medium of game presentation. Thus, the same type of games played using the
EIG strategy could be played as NIG.

Many researchers argue that engaging children in word play activities and replacing it with
new words that have different and varying meanings is crucial in boosting learners’
Vocabulary instruction for thirty years according to some vocabulary methodologists (Behlol & Dad, 2010; Luchini & Serati, 2010), was often neglected during English lessons as many teachers tended to stress mostly on grammatical rules more than vocabulary. It was until in 2000, that vocabulary instruction was identified as an essential skill students need to improve reading achievement (National Reading Panel NRP, 2000). This was based on the premise that vocabulary acquisition is pertinent because without words one would be unable to convey thoughts through language or understand the thoughts of others. Knowing a word by a learner goes beyond the word’s definition.

Vocabulary entails the knowledge of words and word meanings. More specifically, vocabulary refers to the kind of words that students must know to read increasingly demanding text with comprehension (Kamil & Hiebert, 2005). It is something that expands and deepens over time. Stahl (2005) opined that vocabulary is the knowledge of words; not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world. Thus, for students to know what a word means the sheer complexity of vocabulary acquisition, as evidenced components of vocabulary such as receptive and productive vocabulary must be learnt (Kamil & Hiebert, 2005). Accordingly, Graves (2006) is of the opinion that development in the area of vocabulary have resulted in four elements of vocabulary that can benefit all students at every level include the following:

(a) The provision of rich and varied oral and print language experiences, which EIG and NIG offer during vocabulary instruction. Learners are given more opportunities to think about and learn from text when they participate in teacher - guided and small group discussions during NIG.

(b) Provision of instruction in multiple and individual words. The National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (2000) stressed the need for vocabulary to be carefully selected and taught explicitly. Students must encounter a word for about 12 times so as to comprehend the word.

(c) Teaching independent word learning strategies along with explicit word instruction can greatly increase students’ vocabulary.

(d) Using contextual analysis, a learner infers the meaning of a word by examining the words or phrases surrounding it for clues to its meaning (Baumann, Font, Edwards & Boland, 2005). Context clues include embedded definitions, synonyms and antonyms.

3. Empirical Review
Analysis of empirical studies on related researches done by other specialists in the field of study like Jafari, Madani and Maghsoudi (2013). The researchers conducted a study which attempted to compare the impact of learning vocabulary items through instructional games against the traditional method on vocabulary improvement and retention in Iranian EFL students. The results of the t-test showed that the instructional games approach was more successful in long term vocabulary retention than the traditional approach. Similar studies by Saffarian and Gorjian (2012), Kilickaya and Krajka (2010), Dehaan, Reed, and Kuwada (2010) carried out independently, on the effect of computer-based video games on vocabulary achievement in different parts of the world had similar results. Thus, indicating that the use of electronic games in teaching and learning of vocabulary improved students’ achievement.
On the aspect of Non Electronic Instructional Games, Atawi (2011) conducted a study on the effect of word games on students’ achievement in English vocabulary. The area of study was Tabouk district in Saudi Arabia. The findings indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in the posttest between the control and experimental groups. Studies conducted by Barani (2013), Young and Lin (2009), Yipaul and Kwan (2006) examining the impact of electronic games on students’ achievement do agree that experimental groups, who used games performed higher than those in the control groups who were not exposed to games.

On the effect of NIG on students’ vocabulary achievement, findings showed that NIG strategy had significant effect on students’ vocabulary achievement. Ratnawati, Bindarti and Rofiq (2013); Orawiwatnakul (2013) and Khuvasanond, Sildus, Hurford and Lipka (2012) as well as Alemi (2010) agreed that vocabulary games presented through a non–electronic medium resulted in higher vocabulary achievement by the students. Thus, in this present study games (NIG) was used as instructional strategy in vocabulary lesson. It broadened the scope of using games during vocabulary lessons. The present study also used ANCOVA as statistical tool and intact classes with larger class size which was not used in previous studies.

4. Theoretical Framework
This study was anchored on Cognitive Field Theory by Wolfgang Kohler (1887 – 1967) and Vygotskian Social Constructivism Learning Theory (1896-1934). Wolfgang Kohler (1887 – 1967) was among the early cognitive theorists. He argued that everything was not learned through trial-and-error process (stimulus-response association). The experiment emphasised on insightful learning instead of “stimulus response connections”. The cognitivists also emphasised “meaning and wholes” as demonstrated in his experiment with Sultan. Thus, learning involves changes in both observable and unobservable behaviours.

According to Okoro (2002), the educational implication of Kohler’s theory is that learning should be made meaningful and interesting. Also, learners should be encouraged to participate actively in the learning situation. This is in agreement with the concept of using Electronic and Non Electronic Instructional games strategy, as it involves active learners’ participation, sustains their interest in the lesson as well as makes them learn collaboratively. As teachers make extensive use of EIG and NIG strategies, students learn more and are motivated to participate in the teaching/learning process. Wolfgang’s theory advocated for insightful learning and emphasized learning should be made interesting and meaningful, which informed the use of EIG and NIG strategies in vocabulary instruction.

Social constructivism was propounded by post-revolutionary Soviet psychologist and former cognitivist called Lev Semyonich Vygotsky in 1924. It is called a social constructivist theory because the proponent believed that teaching and learning takes place with the help of others. Vygotsky’s thinking is that the classroom should provide variety of learning materials (electronic and non-electronic) and experiences in a social context. He argued that all cognitive functions originate in and must therefore be explained as products of social interactions and that learning was not simply the learners learning but was the process by which learners were integrated into a knowledge community.

During EIG or NIG strategies learners communicate with each other as the games were played in groups. They shared ideas and learned vocabulary from one another. This theory
shows that students can assist one another and co-construct knowledge as they play the games in groups.

5. Methodology
The study adopted the quasi-experimental design with a sample size of 198 JS2 students from three public co-educational schools, out of a population of 62,583 students. Two research questions and two hypotheses were formulated for the study. The purposeful and criterion sampling techniques were used in selecting three intact classes (two experimental groups and one control group) from schools. The criteria used in the selection included the fact that the school must have at least a manageable ICT unit, offers Computer Studies at Junior Secondary 2 (Upper Basic level), be within Uyo Senatorial District, has functional ICT unit with a public power supply. Such school should have computer literate English language teachers with five years of teaching experience.

The instruments for data collection were subjected to face and content validation by experts. The vocabulary Instructional Package (VIP) was adopted from spellingcity.com. It was designed to accommodate teachers’ contributions to the game content. The vocabulary relevant to registers in marine, law, politics and medicine were typed in to the game and some sentences restructured by the researcher to suit the Nigerian context. VIP comprised of games like Match It – sentence, Match It-definition and Line - Match. This package was used by the experimental groups only. The Vocabulary Achievement Test (VAT) was constructed by the researcher. The test was developed to cover English registers in the area of marine, law, medicine and politics. The aspect of vocabulary content employed included homophone, homonym, prefix, suffix, synonym and antonym. The instrument consisted of 50 item objective questions carrying two marks each. It was subdivided into sections A, B, C and D, in accordance with the English language curriculum approved for Upper Basic II in Nigeria (FME, 2006). Descriptive and inferential statistical tools of mean, standard deviation and Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) answered the research questions and tested the hypotheses respectively.

6. Findings and Discussion
Research Question One

How will students exposed to EIG differ from those exposed to conventional strategy in VAT?

Figure 3: Profile of difference between EIG and Control group VAT means.
From Figure 3, it can be observed that students exposed to EIG strategy in an intact class of 65 had 48.62 Post VAT mean score value in comparison with 43.46 Pre VAT mean score. On the other hand, those exposed to conventional strategy in an intact class of 63 had 33.19 mean score value in Post VAT as against 29.46 Pre VAT mean. Hence, students exposed to EIG strategy scored higher in VAT than those not exposed to the treatment.

Table 1: Mean and standard deviation for pre and post test scores of students exposed to EIG and conventional strategies.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Pre – Vat</th>
<th>STD</th>
<th>Post - Vat</th>
<th>STD</th>
<th>Mean Gain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ELIG</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>43.46</td>
<td>16.0</td>
<td>48.62</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>5.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>29.46</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>33.19</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Diff.</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td></td>
<td>15.46</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 revealed EIG pre VAT means of 43.46 and 29.46 for EIG and conventional group respectively. The post VAT mean score for EIG was 48.62 and that of conventional group was 33.19. The result implied that students exposed to EIG strategy performed better than those exposed to conventional strategy in the vocabulary achievement test both in pre and post-test.

Research Question Two
What is the difference in performance between students taught with NIG and those taught with conventional strategy?

Figure 4: Profile of difference in performance between NIG and conventional groups.

This figure shows that students exposed to NIG scored higher in both pre-test and post-test (43.53 & 29.46) than the conventional group at (51.41 & 33.19) respectively. Although the NIG group scored higher at pre and post-test than the conventional group; the mean difference at pre-VAT is 14.07 while the post VAT is 18.22. Students exposed to NIG performed better than those in the control group.
Table 2: Mean and standard deviation for students exposed to NIG and conventional strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Pre – Vat</th>
<th>Post – Vat</th>
<th>Mean Gain</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$\bar{x}$</td>
<td>STD</td>
<td>$\bar{x}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NIG</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>43.53</td>
<td>15.57</td>
<td>51.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>29.46</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>33.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean Diff.</td>
<td></td>
<td>14.07</td>
<td>18.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows the difference between the pre VAT post VAT mean scores of students taught using NIG at (43.53 and 51.41) and those taught using the conventional strategy at (29.46 & 33.19). This therefore means that the NIG group scored higher and gained 4.15 values more as a result of the treatment while the control group did not have much improvement.

**Null Hypothesis 1**

There is no difference between the mean achievement scores of students taught with EIG and those taught with Conventional strategies.

Table 3: Summary of ANCOVA results testing for differences between students exposed to EIG and conventional strategy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>9542.916a</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>477.146</td>
<td>5.076</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>6315.284</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6315.284</td>
<td>67.183</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional_Post_VAT</td>
<td>17.265</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>17.265</td>
<td>.184</td>
<td>.670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional_Pre_VAT</td>
<td>1.146</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.146</td>
<td>.012</td>
<td>.913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EIG_PRE_VAT</td>
<td>8827.979</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>490.443</td>
<td>5.217</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>3948.068</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>94.002</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>159412.000</td>
<td>63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>13490.984</td>
<td>62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. R Squared = .707 (Adjusted R Squared = .568)

An examination of Table 3 shows the significant effect of EIG strategy on students’ achievement on VAT (F-calculated-value = 67.18, F-crit value = 4.00, df (1, 63) p< 0.5). The null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant difference between the mean achievement score of students exposed to EIG treatment and those exposed to conventional strategy is rejected. The result means that EIG strategy enhanced students’ achievement in vocabulary.

The result of the analysis revealed that students exposed to EIG strategy achieved higher in VAT compared to the students exposed to the conventional strategy. The findings of this study supports earlier findings by Yipaul and Kwan (2006) on the effect of using online vocabulary games for teaching and learning English vocabulary among students. The Electronic Instructional Games strategies provided a repetitive, fun and collaborative vocabulary learning environment that aided academic achievement. This implied that electronic devices used to present the lesson may have appealed to students’ sense of sight, audio and touch as well as opportunity to collaboratively solve problems during game play. Students in this group forgot the abstractness of vocabulary and participated in the class.
Null Hypothesis 2
There is no significant difference between the mean achievement scores of students exposed to NIG treatment and those exposed to a conventional strategy.

Table 4: Summary of ANCOVA results testing for differences between students exposed to NIG and conventional strategy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>8405.181a</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>466.954</td>
<td>12.685</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>5699.212</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5699.212</td>
<td>154.824*</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional_Post_VAT</td>
<td>15.455</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15.455</td>
<td>.420</td>
<td>.520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventional_Pre_VAT</td>
<td>103.402</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>103.402</td>
<td>2.809</td>
<td>.101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NIG_PRE_VAT</td>
<td>8196.164</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>512.260</td>
<td>13.916</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>1619.676</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>36.811</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180065.000</td>
<td>63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>10024.857</td>
<td>62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observation of Table 4 reveals that there is a significant effect of NIG strategy on students’ VAT (F-calc = 154.8, F-crit value = 4.00, df (1, 63) p< 0.5). This showed difference between the mean scores of students taught with NIG strategy and those taught with conventional strategy. The null hypothesis that ‘there is no significant difference between the mean achievement scores of students exposed to NIG treatment and those exposed to a conventional strategy’ is rejected, because the NIG strategy improved students’ achievement in vocabulary.

Findings showed that vocabulary games presented through a non–electronic medium, like NIG provides varieties of learning contexts for lesson presentation and improved vocabulary achievement of students. The finding agrees with Ratnawati, Bindarti and Rofiq (2013) as well as Orawiwatnakul’s (2013) studies on the effect of using crossword puzzle on vocabulary achievement of the eight–grade students in Indonesia. The result is similar to this present study as it was conducted on students from secondary level in a second language context.

The Social Constructivism Learning Theory called for the use of collaborative learning which is central in the application of EIG and NIG strategies in this study. The games were played collaboratively as each experimental group answered the vocabulary questions and scored as a team. Students who were engaged in EIG strategy outperformed students taught using conventional strategy. This was because of the impact of electronic on their sense of sight, audio and touch as well as opportunity to collaboratively solve problems during game play. Students in this group forgot the abstractness of vocabulary and became actively involved in the learning process.

Learners’ exposed to NIG strategy had higher mean achievement scores than those exposed to conventional strategy. This was because students in NIG group played the vocabulary games using print medium. This gave them room to share ideas. There was opportunity for knowledge sharing amongst them.

7. Recommendations
Policy decision should be made by education stakeholders to ensure that Instructional Games form integral part of the curriculum for English vocabulary studies at the Junior Secondary schools level. Also, computer literacy should be made compulsory to English language teachers to acquaint them with skills on how and when to apply EIG strategy during lessons.

Parents, Teachers Associations should provide secondary schools with functional ICT laboratories and learners should be given access to the facilities. In addition, English language teachers should apply collaborative strategy during lessons to enable students learn from one another.

References


Professional Digital Competence and Professional Development among Higher Education Teachers: An Explorative Survey

Lucas Kohnke
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
Hong Kong, China
lucas.kohnke@polyu.edu.hk

Abstract
The aim of this study was to investigate the perceptions of forms of professional development (PD) designed to promote skills in information and communication technology (ICT) among teachers at a university in Hong Kong (N=33) using a quantitative approach. ICT has become an integral aspect of the delivery of learning and teaching in universities and has largely been taken for granted, though teachers still struggle to embrace it. The participants in this study, 33 teachers working in an English language centre at a Hong Kong university, voluntarily completed an online questionnaire. The analysis of their responses distinguished attitudes about PD that did and did not relate to ICT. The findings suggest that collaboration is the key determining factor in engaging teachers with PD as it relates to ICT.

Keywords: Professional development, Teachers, ICT, Hong Kong

1. Introduction
In the past decade, professional development (PD) has attracted increasing interest from researchers (Darling-Hammond, Hyler, & Gardner, 2017) as part of the effort to revitalise teachers’ knowledge and skills through the incorporation of new digital pedagogies into the classroom. This effort has often been cited as a key factor in enhancing student performance (Scott 2015; Strong, 2015). Currently, information communication technology (ICT) is integrated into most higher educational contexts in the understanding that it can facilitate students’ critical thinking skills, make learning more student-centred, and generally transform approaches to teaching (Roblyer & Doering, 2010). Teachers must thus cope with the demand to integrate ICT into their classrooms so as to deliver the course material effectively by updating their skills and knowledge (Chiu & Churchill, 2016; Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich, 2010).

The incorporation of digital pedagogy into higher learning has resulted in a number of controversies that remain unresolved (Curwood, 2016; Hendersen, Selwyn, & Aston, 2017). Current views of PD accordingly need to be scrutinised in order to determine the extent to which current delivery methods are effective and consistent with evolving notions of teaching. In light of the fact that educating teachers is a crucial aspect of the integration of technology into the classroom (Sert & Li, 2017), the present small-scale, exploratory study focused on professional development at a university in Hong Kong relating to technology skills and the needs of second language teachers.

2. Literature Review
Previous studies have explored teachers’ existing skills base and disposition towards the integration of technology on the curricular level (Bitner & Bitner, 2002) and their ability to
exploit the technology (Cabanatan, 2003). It appears that most higher education teachers continue to lack specific training in ICT, though their assigned tasks necessarily presuppose a certain level of familiarity with such tools as discussion boards, wikis, and polling in a pedagogically sound manner (Almerich, Orellana, Suárez-Rodríguez, & Díaz-García, 2016). Under these circumstances, many higher education teachers have been unwilling or unable to make effective use of ICT (Rijst, Baggen, & Sjoer, 2017). Recent research indicates that attempts to facilitate PD in ICT can be of little practical value owing to the lack of proper structure that encourages the adoption of new approaches (Tondeur, Forkosh-Baruch, Prestridge, Albion, & Édirisinghe, 2016). Furthermore, PD related to technology focuses generally on short-term goals and merely extends already available approaches (Harris, Mishra, & Koehler, 2009).

2.1 Technology Acceptance Model
In order to encourage the adoption of technology as a starting point for PD, stakeholders must understand teachers’ perceptions and beliefs and their sources of tacit concerns. The technology acceptance model (TAM; Davis, Bagozzie, & Warsaw, 1989) was developed to address precisely these issues, as it assumes the perception that technology serves the teaching and learning goals of the classroom to be associated with other favourable impressions of it. Other research, however, has suggested that the TAM model cannot account for the complex nature of teachers’ actual decisions regarding the deployment technology. Li (2014), for instance, discussed the interrelated psychological and physical influences on teachers’ actions and reported that they tend to be exasperated by such external aspects of their jobs as securing resources, training, and technical support.

2.2 Teachers as Agents of Change
Educators in higher education can no longer be satisfied using technology merely as a support for lecture-based instruction (Lawless & Pellegrino, 2007). Rather, the current best practices in the field call for teachers to use “constructivist-compatible” instructional activities in place of the traditional “transmission” view of learning (Pea, 1996). Nevertheless, teachers need must be convinced if they are to alter their practice significantly, for change that an administration mandates may not meet with acceptance and the status quo may remain in force (Evans, 1996). The challenge, therefore, is to train teachers to employ ICT by promoting the understanding that it will promote student-centred learning in the form of more effective approaches to instruction and/or changes in the content or context of learning, instruction, and assessment—particularly changes that encourage interactive learning environments (Lawless & Pellegrino, 2007).

2.3 Professional Development Paradigms
The evolution of information technology and the pressure to integrate it into education, then, has been placing additional demands on teachers in terms of on-going professional development. Consequently, there is a need to identify PD activities that are suitable for updating the knowledge and skills of higher education teachers so that they are able to apply the best ICT practices in the classroom. Unfortunately, PD relating to ICT still fails for the most part to focus on strategies, techniques, and approaches that deliver authentic learner experiences (Albion, Tondeur, Forkosh-Baruch, & Peeraer, 2015).

Various professional development paradigms have guided PD for higher education teachers. According to the deficit paradigm of Gall and Renchler (1985), PD addresses a lack of skill and/or knowledge on the part of teachers, who are conceived as empty containers “to be filled”
(Garmston, 1991, p. 64). Also influential has been the “professional growth” paradigm, according to which direct engagement with students’ needs and interests drives teachers’ autonomous, self-directed development (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). Guskey (1994) advocated a problem-solving, “growth approach” to identify the needs and goals of students through what is “increasingly seen as a process, not an event . . . [an] intentional . . and . . . systematic effort to bring about positive change or improvement” (p. 63). More recently, Fullan, Hill, and Crevla (2006) advocated an educational change paradigm that involves constant incorporation of new approaches to pedagogy. This substantial body of research, then, taken together, calls for an overall holistic approach to PD that, rather than situating it within a particular paradigm, focuses instead on identifying and implementing best practices (Muijs & Reynolds, 2018).

2.4 Modes of Delivery
In professional development, conventional modes of delivery have often involved individual, non-integrated workshops with little if any follow-up (Little, 1999). This “one mode fits all” approach has obvious limitations; instead, PD should identify and match teachers’ needs and provide deep, engaging, and meaningful learning opportunities (Appova & Arbaugh, 2018) designed to bring about change. Without matching, the probability of a favourable impact on students’ learning may be small (Goodall et al., 2005), as teachers’ professional needs are situated in their own personal and professional contexts.

The education field is evolving at a rapid pace and making use of innovative technologies as teachers have received increased access to digital tools and digital resources in recent years (Prestridge & Tondeur, 2015). This access has, in turn, influenced pedagogy and the manner in which students and teachers interact and engage with learning (Burden et al., 2016). Still, the use of ICT in the classroom consistently fails to meet expectations (Tondeur, Aesaert, Pynoo, Braak, Frayman, & Erstad, 2015), indicating that the current methods of PD in this regard are not addressing teachers’ need to integrate digital tools and resources into their pedagogy.

3. Methodology
The overarching purpose of this study was to increase understanding of those PD activities that teachers find most effective when it comes to imparting ICT skills. I accordingly formulated the following research question:

Which forms of PD do teachers consider the most effective for enhancing their ICT skills?

3.2 Research Method
This study used a Quantitative survey approach to answer the research question. It should be noted that generally qualitative approaches have been utilised in professional development research (Desimone & Garet, 2015; Garet et al. 2001; Kennedy, 2016), however, the positivist stance adopted for this study can reveal important trends and provide a foundation for future research. I administered the survey using the online survey instrument SurveyMonkey. It consisted of closed-ended matrix questions, which make it possible for the same kind of response to be given to several questions and can be completed quickly (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). The questions were adapted from Mak’s 2010 study of the professional development needs of ESL teachers in Hong Kong. I first administered the questionnaire in a pilot study involving three higher education teachers and made changes based on their feedback regarding individual items, the instructions, the visual layout, and the types and format of the questions. The respondents interpreted the questions in similar ways and had similar ideas in
mind when answering them thanks to the information that they received about the topic (survey information) prior to completing the survey. The final item asked for background (demographic) information and employed a 5-point, Likert-like scale. I chose this scale because it is easy to administer and is widely used in quantitative research (Woodrow, 2014).

3.3. Research Participants and Location
The sample consisted of 33 higher education English teachers employed at a university in Hong Kong. I relied on convenience sampling (also known as haphazard or accidental sampling) to collect information from participants who were easily accessible at a given time and willing to participate in the study (Dörnyei, 2007; Saumure & Given, 2008). Assuming that the target population was homogeneous, convenience sampling was a suitable method (Palinkas et al., 2015). The sample of teachers in this study varied in terms of age, teaching experience, education level, possession of a teaching certificate, and gender. Table 1 provides the demographic information for the sample.

Table 1
Demographic Survey Participants (N=33)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average age of participants:</th>
<th>42.5 years of age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average teaching experience:</td>
<td>11 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic position:</td>
<td>25 Instructors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6 Lecturers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 Senior Lecturer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1 Assistant Professor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education level:</td>
<td>4 PhD/EdD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29 MA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Certificates (CELTA, DELTA, PGCE):</td>
<td>16 Participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>23 Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10 Female</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4 Data Analysis
I used descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) to analyse the survey results and answer the research question. This analysis also provides information that can guide the design of any future follow-up studies. I tabulated the responses and analysed them using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 Summary of Results
The research question concerned the participants’ perceptions of PD relating to ICT skills. Table 2 presents a summary of the results.
Table 2
Summary of Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>very unfavourable</th>
<th>unfavourable</th>
<th>neutral/unable to judge</th>
<th>favourable</th>
<th>very favourable</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Being supported in online material/development/usage by a mentor</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharing good teaching practice involving use/adaption of online materials with colleagues</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating in in-house workshops</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enrolling in external courses focusing on ICT skill development</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lunch-time sharing sessions</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watching online training videos</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>100%</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

As shown in the table, most of the respondents (94%) felt that watching online training videos contributed to their professional development. A similarly large portion (88%) rated highly the benefit of sharing effective teaching practices and materials online with colleagues as a means of professional development. In-house workshops were viewed less favourably, with a fair number of respondents (12%) rating them ineffective in contributing to their professional development. Large portions again had favourable impressions of lunch-time sharing sessions (79%), online support from a mentor regarding materials, development, or usage (78%), and enrolling in external courses (76%).

4.2 Attitudes Towards PD Regarding ICT

4.2.1 Enrolling in External Courses and Mentoring

Many of the respondents referred to PD activities that do necessarily involve technology directly, such as enrolling in external courses (76%, n=25) and mentoring (79%, n=26). The former result was somewhat surprising, as teachers usually are only able to enrol in external courses during their extended vacation time. Previous research has indicated that, unsurprisingly, teachers tend to be receptive to PD opportunities that are readily available and require relatively little time commitment (Darling-Hammond et al., 2017).

4.2.2 Sharing Good Teaching Practices

Most of the participants (88%, n=29) considered collaboration with colleagues (i.e. sharing of good teaching practices) a central aspect of PD. This is a significant aspect of the notions of the zone of proximal development and scaffolding, in the context of which teachers communicate and share information and personal experiences. Thus, for instance, colleagues teaching the same course can expand their collective understanding by pooling their insights.
Collaboration also encourages the exploration of new possibilities and solving challenging problems in ways that encourage the integration of ICT and its innovative use in the classroom. In Fisher’s (2006) terms, teachers can work together as agents of change and bring a personalised approach to introducing ICT through contextualised workshops. The expectation of exposure to practical ideas directly applicable to the day-to-day operation of their classrooms, as Fullan and Miles (1992) discussed, is what attracts teachers to PD. So also Prestridge and Tondeur (2015) pointed out that teachers need to collaborate and focus on continuous learning in order to engage meaningfully with ICT, which is to say in ways that reach students who are increasingly digital natives. In other words, teachers can, through collaboration, realise the transformative possibilities of ICT in their classrooms (Thurlings, Evers, & Vermeulen, 2015) and become more willing to take risks with new teaching strategies. They can transform their current educational practices and embrace the latest trend in PD ICT, namely a focus on pedagogy rather than on the technology itself (Prestridge, 2014).

4.2.3 Online Training Videos
The popularity of watching online training videos (viewed favourably by 94% of teachers, n=31) may be attributable to the fact that this particular form of PD demands relatively little of learners. This approach to PD has the drawback of focusing primarily on technological issues (Lankshear & Bigum, 1999) associated with “domesticating” the computer and associated tools in the classroom at the expense of pedagogy. More positively, the popularity of these videos may reflect the participants’ curiosity and desire to investigate new opportunities to use ICT in a non-threatening environment (Crump & McIlroy, 2003). Further, while this type of PD can occur without collaboration, additional informal discussions can be held to supplement the videos and encourage teachers to implement new methodologies and to take risks within the classroom (Sherin & Van Es, 2014).

4.2.4 Lunch-time Sharing Sessions
Also well regarded by the participants (79%) were brief sharing sessions that the staff development committee arranged and in which teachers shared best practices, innovative ideas, and research findings. Through this particular type of PD, teachers are able to identify and match concepts to their professional needs in a manner consistent with Goodall’s (2005) conception of effective PD. Scheduling represents the main obstacle to this approach, that is, ensuring that all who stand to benefit have access to the sessions. A possible solution is to record such sessions and make them available online in the form of the kind of training videos discussed earlier.

4.2.5 Workshops
Most of the respondents, though not an overwhelming majority of them (58%, n=19), viewed favourably short, in-house university workshops (of 1-2 hours) during which teachers had opportunities to listen and to receive hands-on practice working with Blackboard integration, discussion boards, wikis, and the grade centre—all of which can have an immediate impact in the classroom. These findings were unexpected, as previous studies have found the lack of specific training in ICT to be the main factor in the reluctance to integrate technology into classrooms (Albion et al., 2015). It may have been the case that these teachers were already comfortable with the basics and did not feel challenged or “stretched” by the material presented in the Educational Development Centre’s workshops (Huberman, 1993) or were unable to see the pedagogical benefits of the workshops owing to a focus on short-term goals (Harris et al., 2009). Alternatively or in addition, the teachers may have felt a sense of isolation and dissonance when teamed with colleagues from other departments (Hargreaves, 2010) whose
teaching situations may have differed significantly from their own or, again, simply have found little of value in the individual workshops (Brown-Easton, 2004).

5. Conclusions
In summary, the results of the survey made clear the respondents’ intrinsic desire for continuous learning as educators. This explorative study further revealed potential avenues to increase the effectiveness of professional development. Particularly interesting was the finding that teachers viewed very favourably viewing online videos for PD purposes but were less favourably disposed towards traditional workshops. Acquiring practical experience with the technology was perhaps one of the main reasons that respondents were highly favourable to sharing good teaching practices, attending lunch-time sharing sessions, and receiving support from a mentor. The participants in this study seem to have felt that these forms of professional development were effective because they provided opportunities to receive context-specific training from their colleagues in an informal manner. One surprising finding was that the participants indicated their willingness to participate in activities that require a considerable time commitment, such as enrolling in external courses. Because educators are constantly asked to do more with less and to take on various roles within their institutions, it is encouraging that these teachers viewed favourably enrolling in time-consuming courses in the pursuit of PD.

The results of this study need to be interpreted within the context of its limitations (sample size, generalisibility, use of convenience sampling). In any case, they warrant further investigation; for while the importance of professional development is clear, there is a need to revise the methods in use in light of the issues discussed here. Thus the findings indicate that collaboration is most often the determining factor when it comes to engaging in PD, probably owing to the limited time commitment involved and the immediate benefits to the classroom practice. Subsequent research could, accordingly, explore this approach further from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives. Experienced teachers and those recently entering the profession alike have various experiences that can be shared so as to create a cohesive and supportive working environment. In sum, while this was an explorative study that relied on a limited sample, the findings nevertheless help to clarify teachers’ professional development preferences regarding information technology that is rapidly evolving.

References


Charm as an Interactive Power in Classrooms

Kuanthai Kuadnok
Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Chiang Mai Rajabhat University
Thailand
ankus_h@hotmail.com

Abstract
This paper reports findings about the power relations that operate in the enactment of teaching pedagogies in Thai EFL context. Reconstrucutive data analysis procedures involved interactive power analysis and thematic analysis of the interactions, identifying the Power theme and the Pedagogic theme. This study brings together these two notions in an analysis of pedagogy and power exhibited in EFL classrooms. Carspecken’s (1996) typology of interactive power – charm – was used in the discussion of the findings, since this form of power was found in the interactions between teachers and students in the social space of the classroom. The paper concludes that Thai teachers of English need to be informed about using charm, together with interactively established contracts, to gain students’ consent, loyalty, and trust. Since ‘charm’ is one of the interactive powers that circulated in classroom space, specific recommendations of the use of this power are provided.

Key words: charm, EFL, pedagogy, power relations.

1. Introduction
This article has been written up from the research study. The study focuses upon teachers and students’ interactions produced in the primary school-level EFL context of Thailand. Also it investigates and examines the ways in which teachers’ use pedagogies. The notion of power is a significant part of sociocultural approaches to learning but has merely recently been investigated in the Thai EFL contexts rather than other aspects of language literacy.

It is noted that when teaching pedagogies are carried out, the interaction between teacher and students produces particular types of power. New perspectives about the teacher, the student, and the power relationships constructed during their interactions in specific EFL contexts can be carried out through examining pedagogical practices. Due to the international increase of English in the 21st century, the results of this study will benefit future research conducted in terms of pedagogies implemented and power relations established in various schooling contexts. This study highlights the issues of power and pedagogical practice that shape the teaching of English writing to Thai EFL students.

This study employed Carspecken’s methodology, which was designed to help researchers comprehend power relations, operating in the classroom setting. This article examined particular social interactions between teachers and students within classrooms that influence teachers’ decisions to use or not to use exclusionary discipline, types of power are inserted in these relationships; for instance, charm, normative power, coercive power, and interactively established contracts. Carspecken (1996) claimed that these forms of power relations are found in varying degrees for different purposes regarding classroom interactions. In addition, these typology of interactive power were conveyed into the analysis of power relations relied on four
themes: normative power, coercive power, charm, and interactively established contracts in both subtle and obvious practises as necessitated in the data analysis.

2. Literature Review
Reviewed literature has been undertaken in relation to English language teaching and learning in order to understand the English writing pedagogies, teaching practices, and power relations that operate in Thai primary classrooms. Specifically, I reviewed ones with applicability to the nature of EFL contexts in Thailand, which comprise the social context of this research. Theories are often re-contextualised by teacher education agencies, for example, teacher education, institutions, education systems, and publications of professional associations (Williams, 1999). Thus, it is essential to discuss the applications of writing pedagogy in the context of Thai schooling.

2.1 Teaching EFL Writing in Thailand
In Thailand, teaching English as a second language (ESL) approaches have been adopted and attentively followed approaches, which are developed in predominantly English native speaking countries, such as in the UK, the US and Australia. Approaches traditionally developed in the EFL context were primarily focused on speaking skills. Writing skills were frequently introduced to students as a memory assistance when they became proficient at oral skills. Writing has typically been the secondary skill set, instead of being valued for its distinctive contribution to the development of whole-language competence since the early 20th century.

In recent years, writing pedagogy has become a field of increasing interest. Paradigm shifts in the teaching of writing in EFL are obviously seen in the last 20 years because of dramatic changes in the field. There have been various approaches to the teaching of writing. However, it is significant to consider the controlled composition approach, together with, the “current-traditional rhetoric approach”, which are still observed at the tertiary level of education in Thailand in order to comprehend the history of teaching EFL writing in Thailand. Nevertheless, there has currently been emphasis and debate on the dissimilarity of three major approaches – the process-based approach, the product-based approach, and the genre-based approach.

In Thailand, Thai teachers of English teach writing as a part of teaching language. The teacher often addresses four skills, which are listening, speaking, reading, and writing in language classrooms both in Thai and in English. However, writing is not highlighted if it is not a subject for students whose major is in English language. Many approaches may be presented in Thai classrooms. Writing instruction in Thailand; however, traditionally can be classified in two main approaches in accordance with ESL/EFL writing instruction: the traditional writing approach and the process approach.

Obviously, it is necessary to conduct research in the field of the teaching of writing in the Thai curriculum since it is ambiguous with regard to recommendations for pedagogical practices. Therefore, there is a calling to research study to be undertaken such as this one. Additionally, researchers have noted that research on various aspects of English writing instruction is needed for Thai EFL students (Glass, 2008; Shulman, 2005). On the other hand, numerous studies have examined how to improve students’ English writing in other EFL/ESL contexts.

English writing skill is considered one of the most difficult skills for EFL students. This is because it comprises the process of transferring writers’ ideas to readers’ thoughts. Glass (2008)
conducted his study in Thailand and concluded that the Thai education system is incompatible with the teaching of writing skills. Interestingly, Kaewnuch (2008) carried out research study on the whole language approach and teaching writing agency and power in Thai EFL classes. Unlike the current study, Kaewnuch (2008) only focused on a single pedagogy, rather than a range of approaches currently used in Thai EFL classrooms. In particular, research on the teaching of writing with school children has been done very little (Glass, 2008), specifically at the primary school level.

To sum up, it is vital to investigate English writing pedagogies adopted by teachers at the Thai primary school level. Understanding what Thai teachers of English do and why they select specific approaches to writing can be the first step to ascertaining the most suitable writing pedagogies which accordingly can be utilised to the teaching of writing in Thai contexts.

2.2 Critical Sociology Applied to Linguistics
Critical applied linguistics aims to describe the relations between the study of language and society. It becomes important to explore the complex social and cultural perspectives that impact learning in terms of L2 pedagogy, and to investigate methods as being circumstantial. Canagarajah (2008) points out, “no sensible professional can practise ELT without being alert to the heterogeneity of English varieties…and the values behind methods and materials, and unequal classroom relationships and roles” (p. 213).

Therefore, the first step of the examination of methods and approaches to teaching English is to understand how power operates in the selections that are made by educators and education policy and curriculum stakeholders. For example, there is a problem of the imposition of teaching approaches of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), though it has been developed in various contexts besides Thailand with its local pedagogical practices and beliefs (Baker, 2008; 2012). In addition, the lack of oral communication in English language in Thailand can be one of the weaknesses of the grammar translation method, which once has been greatly depended on in English language classrooms in Thailand (Forman, 2005).

It is useful to understand how power operates in EFL teaching, a short background to the socio-cultural aspects of language and literacy within the Thai context. Using the lens of critical sociology applied to linguistics helps the researcher to analyse the complexities of power which influence Thai EFL contexts in noticeable ways. This is because critical sociology applied to linguistics emphasises on the social, cultural, and historical antecedents of language use. For example, Pennycook (2001) noted that since English is used as a primary language of education, science and technology, finance, and globalisation, it is important to study how English is appropriated and resisted by people in several parts of the world. Despite the fact that English has its role as a foreign language in Thailand, with 10 per cent of the population speaking English (Canagarajah, 2006, as cited in Iyer, Kettle, Luke & Mills, 2014), it is a compulsory subject for all levels of education. Consequently, not only in Thailand, but also in other parts of the world, English is introduced in all schools and at earlier grades.

2.2.1 A socio-cultural perspective in English language teaching
Socio-cultural perspectives of literacy are associated with socio-linguistic conceptualisations regarding the ways in which language use varies in relation to contexts (Bakhtin, 1986), and the relationship between language use and power. Ethnographies of communication were the earliest examples of socio-cultural perspectives of language (Hymes, 1994). Iyer, Luke, Kettle & Mills (2014) trace the origins of ethnographies of communication in the socio-cultural
tradition that have a long legacy in studies of writing (Kuadnkok, 2017). Discourse analysis is typically applied by Ethnographies of communication to explain differentiated forms, dialects, discourses and accents of English that are operated across numerous speech communities.

Many interrelated factors affect literacy development in multilingual contexts (Durgunoglu & Verhoeven, 1998). It is also essential to use different methodologies, such as case studies, ethnographic observations of communities and classrooms, and experimental manipulations to make these perspectives clearer. Gee (1996) states that language “always comes fully attached to ‘other stuff’: to social relations, cultural models, power and politics, perspectives on experience, values and attitudes, as well as things and places in the world” (p. vii).

This research employs the socio-cultural approach to language because of its importance. According to Street (2001), to focus on the ways in which people use reading and writing, and how these diverge in different contexts, researchers need various perspectives from anthropology and sociolinguistics. Thus, a great deal of socio-cultural research in literacy is constructed on an assumption that “an understanding of literacy requires detailed, in-depth accounts of actual practice in different cultural settings” (Street, 2001, p. 430). In accordance with socio-cultural theory, all learning is situated in social practice. Therefore, a socio-cultural approach to literacy involves the importance of specific skills in terms of social and literate practices (Warschauer, 1997). The social interactions of teachers and students in classroom settings is an example of the context of participation in social practices, hence, language learning can be examined.

Analysing sociocultural communities of practice, socio-cultural perspectives of English language teaching are provided, especially in the classroom as a community of practice that comprises students from diverse linguistic and cultural groups. According to Street (2006), literacy practices are always social from the outset. Teachers and students’ interaction and also the discourses that are used are significant to English language learning. Particular attention must be contributed to building on the discursive knowledge of those who are most distant from the dominant cultural discourses (Mills, 2006). The social structure of schooling can both facilitate and restrict the re-contextualisation of literacy practices as curriculum knowledge (Mills and Unsworth, 2015). Consequently, the demonstration of the analysis and discussion of power relations exercised through the practices of pedagogies in the Thai EFL classroom are assisted by socio-cultural perspectives.

Significantly, to understand socio-cultural perspectives comprehensively offers a significant lens to analyse and interpret the data. Teachers and students in this research were observed and investigated in-depth through an ethnographic approach, which was carried out in a primary school in Chiang Mai. Street (2006) claims that it is not sufficient “to extol simply the richness and variety of literacy practices made accessible through such ethnographic detail” (p. 430). He further suggests that researchers need “bold theoretical models” (Street, 2006, p. 430), which acknowledge the role of power relations in literacy practices” Hence, this research search for the identification of the power relations that seems to cause problems in the teaching of EFL writing in Thailand.

2.3 Charm
Specifically, ‘charm’ could be considered as reward power. The students align their behaviours to school expectations when teachers exercise this type of power to win the heart of their students (Carspecken, 1996). The word ‘charm’ is used to describe how “a subordinate acts out
of loyalty to the superordinate because of the latter’s personality” (Carspecken, 1996, p. 131). For example, when the teacher says, ‘They were so perfect!’ and when the teacher talks to her students in a friendly and warm manner, with this way, the teacher gains students’ obedience through the exercise of charm.

Additionally, when students give their consent to their teacher’s teaching instruction, they appear to obey a kind and friendly teacher. Pane (2009) and Pane et al. (2014) illustrated that the students attentively listen to the teacher while they are studying and being cooperative in classroom activities. This can be explained that the students know that if they give wrong answers, this teacher would not blame or scold them. Obviously, the teacher obtains the obedience and loyalty of the students by using this type of power – personal charm. On the other hand, when students are given a compliment from their teacher, they feel encouraged to learn English, for example, ‘Well done! Lucy.’ and ‘Good job! Gemma’. Thus, the exercising of charm can be seen through teachers’ compliments to students’ work or to students themselves.

In addition, many research studies demonstrate that teachers use charm as well as interactive established contracts to receive students’ cooperation in classroom activities (Carspecken, 1996; Mills, 2007; Pane, 2009; Pane et al., 2014). For instance, a teacher who has a friendly personality, tries to get students to practice writing on pre-determined topics. This is not successful, since the students are not interested to write about those topics. The teacher seems to exercise interactively established contracts over the students in order to encourage them to propose the topics in which they are interested for more alternatives. Eventually, the students give their consent to these changes and comply to the teacher instructions.

3. Methodology

This research comprised core data and supplemental data exploiting a number of descriptive techniques, including classroom observation, field note taking, videotape recording and digital audiotape recording in the data collection. According to Carspecken (1996), the core data are those involving teachers’ interviews and those from classroom observations, while the supplemental data include curriculum archives and written work samples collected from students. The classroom observations aimed to identify what teaching pedagogies for writing which the two Thai teachers of English used with EFL primary students and to investigate the relations of power exercised in implemented pedagogies. This collected data was analysed afterwards, based on the research question, and also the aspects of power relations and pedagogies in the Thai context were addressed.

A methodological theory of critical ethnography, together with empirical techniques and data coding methods provided by Carspecken (1996) are employed in this research. By using critical ethnography, the researcher can collect data with the teacher participant in a real scene. Thus, using ethnographic research methods is considered suitable for answering the research question which “concerns description of the local” (Carspecken, 1996, p. 40). This research was conducted with two Thai teachers of English who teach the students in a primary school in the Thai EFL context. These students live in a local cultural context, including ethnic minority groups, such as Hmong and Karen. The advantage for critical ethnographers is that research is flexible (Creswell, 2012), permitting the lived realities of participants to evolve in their natural (Dunbar, 2009).
Carspecken (1996) described that critical ethnographic research enables the researcher to investigate the system relations, such as to identify power relations between the local data and global international patterns in teaching EFL writing. Moreover, this research applied Carspecken’s five stages (1996, pp. 40-43), including Stage 1) observation and analysis of observational data; Stage 2) ‘monological data’ and dialogical data generation; Stage 3) analysis to discover relationships between individuals, groups, and systems; and Stage 4-5) examination of findings in relation to existing theories of society.

Comparing multiple sources of evidence was carried out in order to enhance the validity of the study, cross referencing core data and supplemental data (Merriam, 2009). Hence, to investigate the pedagogies typically used to teach English writing, teacher participants and students’ interaction, and written work samples of students, the researcher chose different methods of data collection. For example, an ethnographic approach that included semi-structured interviews and non-participant observations was used to collect data. The record of two interviews with the teacher participants was transcribed in Thai and then translated into English for reporting the findings of the research. The classroom observations was carried out for the purpose of identifying the teaching pedagogies for writing with Thai EFL students and to examine the power relations in pedagogies implemented by the teacher participants.

In this study, the interpretive approach of content analysis was used to explore the transcripts for the two teacher participants’ thoughts and knowledge, and their application of English writing pedagogies. The framework of this research was relied on existing theoretical concepts of English writing pedagogies. It should be noted that not all the written work samples of the students were analysed in deep detail, since that would be beyond the scope of this research. Some of the students’ writing work samples were relatively used as examples to demonstrate the given tasks that teachers assign students in the Thai EFL classroom. It is advised that according to Carspecken’s five stages, the procedure of on-going analysis in which the data was checked and re-checked, interpreted, and reinterpreted were conducted as the techniques of data analysis, in order to ensure the reliability of the data in this research.

4. Findings and Discussion

As mentioned earlier, charm is used to describe how a “subordinate acts out of loyalty to the superordinate because of the latter’s personality” (Carspecken, 1996, p. 130). For example, the teacher obtains students’ obedience and consent through charm, when he says ‘They were so outstanding!’ and talks to the students in a friendly manner. Moreover, charm is exercised when teachers consider giving reward to students’ accepted manners. Carspecken (1996) points out that charm involves the possession of a certain ability to use culturally understood identity claims and norms to obtain the trust and loyalty of others. Mills (2007) illustrated in her example that charm is established “when a teacher praises a child for their good idea” (p. 230). This causes a peer who has made little contribution to a group work start “participating enthusiastically and industriously”.

4.1 Teachers use ‘Charm’ in Classrooms

In terms of explicit power that teachers use in their classrooms, scores, recognition, prizes (e.g. candies, pencils), and praise were given to students by the teachers, were coded as ‘rewards’. As previously mentioned, the conversations between teachers and students could be analysed in relation to ‘Power theme’ in order to find out whether reward power was employed in the teachers’ practice with students in the Thai EFL classroom. These reward power and pedagogical strategy relations (Carspecken, 1996; Foucault, 1977) had an impact on students’
motivation and confidence in learning and using English language in the EFL context. For instance, one student used the wrong tense of the verb ‘buy’, and then she recognised her mistake. She later corrected herself after a teacher explained the use of verb to her. This makes this student more confident to use the correct verb of ‘buy’. It can be concluded that in the language learning classroom, students can be redirected when the notion of rewarding students’ behaviour is established, which can result in good learning behaviour.

In addition, in relation to verbal approval, praise and encouragement can very often cause positive reinforcement and offer behaviour modification in the EFL classroom. Those verbal rewards include, “You’ve done a good job”, “Well done!”, and “Give him a big hand”, for example. Students are rewarded when they are praised for their willingness to participate in classroom activities, through recognition, or given a pleasant job assignment. Thus, reward power is established through the practice of the teachers, which is also associated with Foucault’s account of disciplinary power. As Foucault (1977) emphasises, “the teacher must avoid, as far as possible, the use of punishment” (p. 180). On the other hand, the teacher must attempt to give rewards more often than penalties. In sum, the teacher participant used discipline and rewards to support students to behave in the desired ways.

According to the observation field notes, it was noticed that both teacher participants showed their acceptance and approval of students’ answers and actions by nodding their heads. Carspecken (1996, p. 126) argues that power will be revealed when body posture suppresses or represses action or indicates an imposed subjective state of some kind, such as lowering the head, and making the body small and stooped. By using gestures to designate acceptance and respect, the students realise that the teacher approves their behaviours. Also, if the teacher or their classmates approve their behaviours, students will be more prepared to perform appropriate behaviours and actions for their class. On the other hand, students are also aware that they will be less likely or carry out actions if the class does not approve their behaviours. Charm could be defined as part of a teacher’s personality, which affects the students’ motivation to learn English. Charm is another sort of interactive power by which the teachers, being gentle and friendly, can obtain students’ obedience (Carspecken, 1996).

In the EFL class, it is important to use reward power to maintain the social relationship between students’ motivation in learning English language and the teachers’ practice. This implicit relationship is important to ensure that students feel valued and competent. In its most healthy form, reward power is a positive reinforcement to gain the students’ willingness to learn English language, and also enables the teachers to recognise students’ efforts to learn English.

Charm was generated through the teacher’s verbal praise and personality. Pane et al. (2014) noted that charm comprises “culturally relevant, positive, and appropriate humour; smiling, laughing, and teasing to encourage students; and reducing social distance to show concern and care” (p. 309). Charm is considered as a type of reward (Carspecken, 1996): for example, a teacher used verbal expressions of praise, such as, ‘Well done!’ as a reward to the student since that student corrected the sentence and substituted the incorrect word ‘go’ with the correct word ‘went’. Thus, the student received a positive reinforcement to continue learning. Likewise, in terms of verbal approval, the teacher said, ‘Good job’ to the boy who volunteered to answer the question in front of the classroom, and then she patted him gently on his shoulder.

Significantly, based on the examination of examples from the teacher participants’ classes (Kuadnok, 2017), it was evident that teacher participants had the ability to reward their students
in many forms; for instance, “Well done, Ann”, “Good job”, and “You’ve got one point, Joe”. These were usually employed to reward students’ behaviour and their achievement in classroom tasks. This form of teachers’ practice could be termed reward power, the exercise of regulation in Foucault’s account. For example, Teacher Lina taught her class with a lively, enthusiastic, and warm manner. Her students showed their cooperation and attention to the mind-mapping activity. It can be argued that charm is a part of a teacher’s personality, which affects the students’ motivation to learn English and therefore, “the teacher gains the students’ obedience” Carspecken (1996, p. 126).

Interestingly, the student was willing to help Teacher Sopin clean up the blackboard. Another student offered to carry a pile of notebooks from the classroom to the teacher’s room. He was happy with Lina’s previous compliments on her homework, which was all correct, with a neat and clean handwriting. She said ‘Thank you, teacher Lina’. These examples confirm the exercise of charm between the teacher and students as a form of power. Mills (2007) illustrates that charm is exhibited “when a teacher praises a child for their good idea, causing a peer, who has made little contribution to a collaborative task, to start participating enthusiastically and industriously” (p. 230).

5. Conclusion

Given that English is important today and will continue to be in the future, more critical research on the impact that power relations have in various EFL contexts needs to be conducted. Thus, it is recommended that there should be substantial research through regular studies. For example, in the EFL class, it is important to use reward power to maintain the social relationship between students’ motivation in learning English language and the teachers’ practice. As Foucault (1977) points out, “the teacher must avoid, as far as possible, the use of punishment; on the contrary, he (the teacher) must endeavour to make rewards more frequent than penalties” (p. 180).

Additionally, charm is a positive reinforcement to gain students’ willingness to learn the English language, and also enables teachers to recognise students’ efforts to learn the language. For example, providing encouragement and praise resulted in positive reinforcement in the EFL classroom, and also, by using gestures to designate acceptance and respect, such as teachers nodding when they agree with students, students realise that the teacher approves of their behaviours (Carspecken, 1996). Based on the discussion of this study, it is recommended that there should be research investigating “charm”, which is recognised as one of the interactive forms of power in teacher and student classroom interaction. Future research, alternatively, might involve the study of “charm” and how teachers embody this type of power in their EFL classrooms.

This study reveals the possibility of applying a socio-cultural perspective in English language teaching to the Thai EFL writing classroom at a primary school level. Critical ethnography used in this study is useful in terms of permitting the researcher to investigate the relations between power and pedagogies – seen through classroom observations and teacher participant interviews.

It is evident that there are still unbalanced power relations when viewed through the lens of critical applied linguistics in EFL classrooms (Ruan & Ma, 2013). Future studies could shift from focusing on linguistic features to social and cultural impacts on language learning to find ways of empowering the development of theories regarding power relations and pedagogies.
Mills (2007) suggests that “cultural and linguistic diversity must be seen as a powerful classroom resource for access to literacies, not only for marginalised groups, but also for the benefit of all” (p. 240).

References


Abstract
Correspondence, may it be in written or electronic format, has dominated the business realm for ages. Malakul and Bowering (2006) examined the moves and steps in research writing at Pibulsongkram Rajabhat University. They analyzed students’ works and writing features through their understanding in genre as well as their grammar and vocabulary, and found that genre-based approaches enhanced the students’ ability to produce better work in academic writing. In this paper, all students in a business writing class are assigned to independently write two emails in class addressed to the teacher: (1) an email to arrange an appointment, and (2) an email in replying an arrangement for a meeting using whatever knowledge they already have about letter writing. The former is used to guide each student to write a formal email to make an appointment with a potential business partner and the latter is used to guide each to write either a formal letter of acceptance or refusal. Then students were explicitly taught about the generic structure these business letters. After the intervention, the students were instructed to write again two business letters of making an arrangement and replying to an arrangement for a meeting using the generic structure (moves and steps) they learned from their teacher. The findings show that the explicit teaching of moves and steps enhanced students’ business correspondence writing skills as the data collected from students’ post-test. The study discusses that a combination of genre and familiar task can create a crucial pedagogical tool which is expected to serve as a springboard to improve the email writing skills that can be used in formal business settings.

Keywords: Business Correspondence; Email Writing; Foreign Language Writing; Genre Awareness

1. Introduction
Business correspondence has evolved from using calligraphic to non-electronic-typewritten to electronic-typewritten business mails and eventually sent to the recipient through postal services and human messengers. While a growing number of companies have shifted to sending emails for their business English correspondence needs using the affordances of the cyberspace, the communicative purpose and staging of these emails largely follow their earlier incarnations. Thus, whether these business correspondences are written traditionally in black-and-white and sent through postal services or done electronically and sent as emails, the resulting letters or emails continue to attract interests among researchers especially when it comes to writing business correspondences in countries where English is an international/foreign language (EIL/EFL). This paper argues that in these countries such as Thailand, business English correspondence writing can be quite challenging for students and company workers who have to communicate with their business partners or with their colleagues. They still have to deal with common problems such as maintaining the
communicative purpose and the expected staging of the correspondence not to mention the issues in grammar, spelling, format and punctuation. Thus, it is a continuing interest to investigate ways to teach letter writing despite the shift to writing emails.

In various linguistic studies and articles, researchers claimed that a possible effective method for teaching non-native students is through conducting genre analysis in class to emphasize their awareness in genre of a specific writing task. Bhatia (1993, pp. 22-34, cited in Hyland 2004, p. 196) mentioned that providing basic steps in genre analysis seem to help teachers to develop useful guidelines to teach students to possibly be able to aware of the core purposes of given tasks and seemingly be able to reflect what they have been thought. Put another way, genre analysis is likely an effective tool for teachers to enhance students’ performances in their writing and likely lead them to be able to improve their writing skills and their awareness of professional forms, functions and formats of what they are writing (Hyland 2004, p. 195).

To help English language learners find solutions to these concerns, commercially-available textbooks presents business correspondences in genre-based formats, with the components of letters/emails clearly identified and explained. Thus, it can be argued that commercially-available textbooks are powerful tools and significant sources of samples for moves and steps which seemingly normally use in professional works that students might use in their future workplaces. Understanding these moves and steps might be instrumental in helping students, who have less understandings and experiences in real workplace working conditions, become aware of what are actually done in the workplace. Moreover, Swales (1990 cited in Hyland 2004, pp. 195-196) posited that understanding these moves and steps may lead to the understanding of the communicative purposes innate to each genre. Thus, it can be claimed that genre awareness in writing is possibly a significant key in developing students’ writing abilities and may be useful in correcting student writing flaws that continue to abound, threatening the clarity and accuracy of the messages they want to transmit. Specifically, this paper is aimed at answering two research questions: (1) Has the explicit teaching of moves and steps helped students’ business correspondence writing skills? and (2) If yes, in what way has the explicit teaching of moves and steps improved the students’ business correspondence writing skills?

2. Literature Review

Within the scope of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), a genre includes communicative events with some sets of communicative purposes shared by the expert members of the discourse community which helps shape the schematic structure of discourse while simultaneously influencing and constraining the content and style of that discourse (Swales, 1990). In ESP classrooms, this vein of argument assumes that pedagogical activities that explicitly present develops genre awareness may enhance the learning of a particular genre.

2.2 Related research

Several research studies on genre awareness have studied patterns in specific professional writings using structural moves analyses. Swales (1990, p.58) explained that genres are likely classified as “communicative events” that could be divided by their “communicative purposes” and variety of “structure, style, content and intended audience” of specific writings. Understanding these discourse analysis factors through examples can be possible way to develop professional writing patterns. Furthermore, Bhatia (1993, p. 32) suggested that studying moves is the key element for understanding generic structures in writing for specific purposes, especially letters and other business correspondences. Qasim et al. (2015) explored
genre-based approach established by Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993) to study business letter and business writing competence of non-native and native employees and in a Pakistani organization. There were both similarities and dissimilarities. For Pakistani employees, their Quotation call letters consisted of 3 major moves: (1) QC, (2) Item description, and (3) Terms and conditions, despite the QC letters of native writers consisted of 4 major moves: (1) QC, (2) Item description, (3) Technical specifications, and (4) Terms and conditions. It was found that genre-based approach and understanding in moves and steps could possibly utilize and enhance non-native business writing skills by reflecting between similarities and dissimilarities. This could be assumed that contextual patterns and strategies in genre-based approach could be applied as ESP tools for training and teaching.

In Thailand, most research studies on genre examined moves and steps in research articles and research abstracts (e.g., Amsnua & Wannaruk, 2012; Kanoksilapatham, 2007; Lieungnapar & Watson Todd, 2011; Pasavoravate, 2011; Promsin, 2006). One study on generic structure of replies to negative comments investigated the generic structure in terms of moves and steps of English responding messages from 20 Thai 5-star hotels that were collected from TripAdvisor and found that hotels’ responses to negative reviews on TripAdvisor had five moves: (1) opening, (2) acknowledging feedback, (3) dealing with complaints, (4) closing remarks, and (5) ending (Panseeta & Watson Todd, 2014). From the review of related research, it was found that most of the studies in genre analysis and awareness focused on the investigation of moves and structures in research abstracts and research articles. There were no research studies yet that examined business letter on making an arrangements and replying to an arrangement for a meeting. Thus, in this paper, we employ a framework on genre awareness that both examines the moves and steps used in making an arrangement for a meeting and replying to an arrangement for a meeting while at the same time investigating the effectiveness of the intervention provided to the students.

2.3 Conceptual framework

To shed light on the research objectives of this study, the conceptual framework of Malakul and Bowering (2006) are combined with the concepts of Littlejohn (2015), and Barnard and Meehan (2017) as shown in Figure 1 Conceptual Framework below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genre awareness</th>
<th>Moves and Steps in Making an Arrangement for a Meeting and Replying to an Arrangement for a Meeting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Malakul &amp; Bowering (2006)</td>
<td>Business expressions on Making an Arrangement for a Meeting and Replying to an Arrangement for a Meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Littlejohn (2015)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barnard &amp; Meehan (2017)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1 Conceptual Framework

Malakul and Bowering (2006) pinpointed that strongly emphasizing the genre, grammatical and lexical features of texts significantly provided effective results in teaching academic writing to Thai university-leveled students. From their research studies, Malakul and Bowering (2006) examined the moves and steps in research writing with last year science students at Pibulsongkram Rajabhat University. They analyzed the way students organized their works
and writing features through their understanding in genre as well as their grammar and vocabulary. In their analysis, they found that genre-based approaches enhanced the students’ post-test scores, including their ability to produce better abstracts, and their understanding grammar and vocabulary used in academic writing.

The results of their research inspired the researchers in adapting moves and steps in business correspondence from Littlejohn (2015) and examples of expressions used in Barnard & Meehan (2017) for promoting students’ awareness of genre. Since this research aims at improving students competence in writing emails for making an arrangement for a meeting and replying to an arrangement for a meeting, these genre-based approaches could be served as a tool to assist the students to be able to improve their outcomes in these assigned tasks as well as other various business contexts.

3. Methodology

3.1 Data and Data Collection 1: Pre-test
The data comprised two assigned tasks for 20 business major students. The first task was writing an email to ‘arrange an appointment’, and the second is writing an email to ‘reply an arrangement for a meeting’. The students were given 30 minutes for each of these writing tasks that include 15 minutes to organize their thoughts and another 15 minutes to actually write the email. The initial outputs were collected and the students were given a 15-minute break.

3.2 Intervention
The free writing was followed by a session where the teacher explicitly taught the generic structures of the two business letters. For the ‘arranging an appointment’ email, the following ‘moves and steps’ were taught:

### 3.2.1 Moves and Steps of writing an email to arrange an appointment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move</th>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Move 1 | Step 1 Email Heading| - Students are able to fill in all the necessary elements in email header section (To, From, CC, Subject)  
- Students are able to write the appropriate subject heading (Noun phrase which is the topic of the whole email) |
|        | Step 2 Salutation    | - Students are able to write the appropriate salutation based on degree of formality  
  • Dear Sir or Madam,  
  • Dear Title and Family name,  
  • Dear Company name,  
  • Dear Position,  
- Students learn the difference between the uses of comma (,), and colon (:) in salutation |
| Move 2 | Step 3 Opening statement | - Students are able to write the appropriate opening statement  
  • Making an arrangement for a meeting  
  = I hope everything is going well with you. |
### Step 4 Mentioning the topic concerning the meeting
- Students are able to mention the topic they want to discuss with the addressee
  - I wonder if we could meet sometime next week to discuss….

### Step 5 Suggesting date, time and place for the meeting
- Students are able to suggest time and/or place
  - Would Tuesday morning at 10 a.m. at your office be convenient for you?

### Step 6 Agreeing (confirmation)
- Students are able to confirm the arrangement by stating date, time and place for the meeting.
  - Friday at 10 a.m. at your office would be convenient/ fine for me.

### Step 7 Ending statement
- Students are able to close the message appropriately
  - Making an arrangement for a meeting
    - = I look forward to your reply.
    - = I look forward to hearing from you.

### Move 3 Step 8 Complimentary close and Signature
- Students are able to end the message by using a proper closing and signature.
  - Sincerely, Jessica Wong
  - Best wishes Jessica Wong

---

**For the ‘replying an arrangement for a meeting’, the following moves and steps were taught:**

### 3.2.2 Moves and Steps of replying an arrangement for a meeting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move</th>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Move 1   | Step 1 Email Heading          | - Students are be able to fill in all the necessary elements in email header section (To, From, CC, Subject)  
                        | - Students are be able to write the appropriate subject heading (Noun phrase which is the topic of the whole email) |
|          | Step 2 Salutation             | - Students are able to write the appropriate salutation based on degree of formality  
                        |   - Dear Sir or Madam, 
                        |   - Dear Title and Family name, 
                        |   - Dear Company name, 
                        |   - Dear Position, 
                        | - Students learn the difference between the uses of comma (,), and colon (:) in salutation |
| Move 2   | Step 3 Opening statement      | - Students are able to write the appropriate opening statement  
                        |   - Replying to an email arrangement for a meeting  
                        |   = Thank you for your email. |
|          | Step 4.1 Confirming date, time and place for the meeting | - Students are able to confirm date, time and/or place for the meeting  
                        |   - Tuesday morning at 10 a.m. at your office would be fine for me? |
Step 4.2 Refusing (apologizing and rearranging the meeting)  - Students are able to refuse the meeting appropriately and rearrange the meeting.
  • I’m afraid/ sorry Friday at 10 a.m. is not possible.
  • I’m sorry, but I have another appointment.
  • Would …(date)… at …(time)… be convenient for you?
  • Would it be convenient to see you on …(date)… at …(time)…?

Step 5 Ending statement  - Students are able to close the message appropriately
  • Replying to an email arrangement for a meeting
    = I look forward to seeing you (then).

Move 3 Step 6 Complimentary close and Signature  - Students are able to end the message by using a proper closing and signature.
  • Sincerely,
    Jessica Wong
  • Best wishes
    Jessica Wong

The moves and steps taught were adapted from the students’ textbook, Writing for the Real World (Barnard & Meehan, 2017). The explicit teaching of the generic structure of the two business letters lasted for 1 hour and 30 minutes, followed by another 15-minute break. The students sent their outputs by sending two different emails to their teacher.

3.3 Data and Data Collection 2: Post-test
After the intervention, the students were again convened and instructed to write similar business emails about ‘arranging an appointment’ and ‘replying an arrangement for a meeting’ using all the knowledge they learned from the explicit teaching of the generic structures of the two kinds of business letters. The post-test was done on the same day to make sure that the students could easily recall what they learned. Like in the pre-writing tasks, the students sent their outputs by sending two different emails to their teacher.

3.4 Data Analysis
After the three sessions, the data collected were evaluated by two teachers in the research team who are experienced in teaching generic structures of business letters to neophyte students. The data was statistically analyzed using t-test, aiming at studying the significantly different results in comparing students’ email writings before and after they have been taught how to write business correspondence emails through genre awareness approach and have been shown examples of moves and steps in the commercial text. Significantly different results are expressed as p-values of not more than 0.001. Comparing the results from pre-tests and post-tests, the interpretations of t-score likely served as the crucially pedagogical indicators to show the clear-cut comparison of both results.

4. Results and Discussion
The results of the research study are presented and discussed following the two research questions below.

4.1 Has the explicit teaching of moves and steps helped students’ business correspondence writing skills?
The finding revealed that the explicit teaching of moves and steps enhanced students’ business correspondence writing skills.

4.1.1 The pre-test scores and post-test scores of ‘writing an email to arrange an appointment’ were analyzed using t-score and the findings are presented as the following table.

**Table 1** Comparison of the pre-test and post-test scores of ‘writing an email to arrange an appointment’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>( \bar{x} )</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>( t )</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12.95</td>
<td>2.964</td>
<td>-6.004</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.72</td>
<td>2.520</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the statistical information form Table 1, the comparison between pre-test scores (20 points) and post-test scores (20 points) of ‘writing an email to arrange an appointment’ had statistical significance at the 0.001 level. The post-test scores of the students after the explicit teaching of moves and steps were higher than the pre-test scores. The mean score of the pre-test was at 12. and the standard deviation was at 2.964 whereas the mean score of the post-test was at 16.72 and the standard deviation was at 2.520.

4.1.2 The pre-test scores and post-test scores of ‘replying an arrangement for a meeting’ were analyzed using t-score and the findings are presented as the following table.

**Table 2** Comparison of the pre-test and post-test scores of ‘replying an arrangement for a meeting’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>( \bar{x} )</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>( t )</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.07</td>
<td>1.718</td>
<td>-4.421</td>
<td>.000**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15.90</td>
<td>2.452</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the statistical information form Table 1, the comparison between pre-test scores (20 points) and post-test scores (20 points) of ‘replying an arrangement for a meeting’ had statistical significance at the 0.001 level. The post-test scores of the students after the explicit teaching of moves and steps were higher than the pre-test scores. The mean score of the pre-test was at 13.07 and the standard deviation was 1.718 whereas the mean score of the post-test was at 15.90 and the standard deviation was at 2.452.

4.1.3 The overall of learners’ awareness in generic structures, in terms of expressions, language uses, and written grammatical structure after they received the explicit teaching of moves and steps were at “Good” level. (\( \bar{x} = 3.95 \), S.D = 0.645)

4.2 *In what way has the explicit teaching of moves and steps improved the students’ business correspondence writing skills?*

Moves and steps may improve students’ email writing competence as they understand the language uses, conventions, and styles.
Table 3 Example of a student’s task on writing an email to arrange an appointment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move 1: Step 1 Email Heading; Step 2 Salutation</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To: Teacher 1 (Teacher’s email address)</td>
<td>To: Teacher 1 (Teacher’s email address)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From: Student 1 (Student’s email address)</td>
<td>From: Student 1 (Student’s email address)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject: Dinner</td>
<td>Subject: Business meeting</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hey bro!</td>
<td>Dear Mr. (Teacher’s last name),</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move 2: Step 3 Opening statement; Step 4 Mentioning the topic concerning the meeting; Step 5 Suggesting date, time and place for the meeting; Step 6 Agreeing (confirmation); Step 7 Ending statement</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are you ok. I saw you last week. You look not feel good. Are you free on September 14, 2018 at 6.00 p.m. I want to dinner with you</td>
<td>I hope everything is going well with you. I wonder if we could meet sometime next week to business meeting. Is Friday, September 14 at 6.00 p.m. at Sala Rim Naam, The Mandarin Oriental Hotel be convenient for you?</td>
<td>See you at MK Restaurant at Mega Bangna on September 14 at 6.00 p.m.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move 3: Step 8 Complimentary close and Signature</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>See you na.</td>
<td>Sincerely,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bas</td>
<td>Student’s full name</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General manager</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IKEA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 Example of a student’s task on writing an email in Replying an arrangement for a meeting

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move 1: Step 1 Email Heading; Step 2 Salutation</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To: Teacher 1 (Teacher’s email address)</td>
<td>To: Teacher 1 (Teacher’s email address)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From: Student 1 (Student’s email address)</td>
<td>From: Student 1 (Student’s email address)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subject: Re: Go Go Party</td>
<td>Subject: Re: Dinner</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hey bro!</td>
<td>Dear Mr. (Teacher’s last name),</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Move 2: Step 3 Opening statement; Step 4 Mentioning the topic concerning the meeting; Step 5 Suggesting date, time and place for the meeting; Step 6 Refusing (apologizing and rearranging the meeting)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I’m fine. I’m free on Friday. I want to join the Party.</td>
<td>I’m afraid Friday, September 14 isn’t possible. How about Monday? 7 p.m. would be fine for me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>See you at the Party.</td>
<td>I hope this isn’t too inconvenient for you.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Move 3: Step 8 Complimentary close and Signature

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>See you na.</td>
<td>Sincerely,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bas</td>
<td>Student’s full name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General manager</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IKEA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 Example of Improvement in Language Uses and Expressions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mentioning the Topic Concerning the Meeting and Suggesting Date, Time and Place for the Meeting</td>
<td>I want to go to dinner with you, September 14, 2018, 6 p.m.</td>
<td>I wonder if we could meet sometime next week to business meeting. Is Friday afternoon convenient for you? How about 6 p.m. at Sala Rim Naam, The Mandarin Oriental Hotel?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreeing: Confirming</td>
<td>OK. I want to go on a good Friday.</td>
<td>7 p.m. Friday September 14 at Sala Rim Naam. The Mandarin Oriental Hotel would be fine.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 Example of Improvement in Conventions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Salutation</td>
<td>Dear Vee</td>
<td>Dear Mr. Chinorak,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complimentary Closing</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>Best wishes,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Signature</td>
<td>Pinkeaw</td>
<td>Pinkeaw Kaewsan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 Example of Improvement in Styles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Before</th>
<th>After</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal &amp; Less Formal Styles</td>
<td>Are you OK. I saw you last week you look not feel good.</td>
<td>I hope everything is going well with you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Text-Message Abbreviations</td>
<td>R u free in September 14, 2018. I want invite u to have a dinner a MK restaurant.</td>
<td>I wonder if we could meet on Friday, September 14, 2018 to have business meeting at restaurant near Sala Rim Naam, The Oriental Hotel.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tables 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7 above illustrate how effective the explicit teaching of moves and steps influences student’s writing skill. For example, in Table 3, Move 1, the student was able to write proper salutation by starting with ‘Dear’ followed by recipient’s last name, instead of using informal salutation ‘Hey bro!’ In Table 3, Move 2, the student emailed to arrange a
meeting using conversational language. After explicit teaching, the student was able to rewrite with appropriate expressions and tone, though some grammatical mistakes occurred. This is similar to the findings of Qasim et al. (2015) where contextual patterns and strategies in genre-based approach could be applied as ESP tools for training and teaching. Malakul and Bowering (2006) insisted that strongly emphasizing the genre, grammatical and lexical features of texts significantly provided effective results in teaching academic writing.

5. Conclusion
The ultimate goal of this research paper is to study the moves and steps in business correspondence emails and enhance genre awareness of students studying email writing. While the current research is limited by the number of participants and the number of tasks done by the participants, it is found that the explicit teaching of moves and steps to students studying business correspondence promotes genre awareness in email writing. Students were also able to write their business email more properly. Further research studies should deal with higher number of participants and variety of business correspondence tasks assigned which may produce more accurate and reliable research results. Nevertheless, several weaknesses in writing abilities among Thai students are still found, especially limited number of vocabulary and expressions, ability to use grammatical structure correctly, and even appropriate use of punctuations and abbreviations in business writing and therefore also warrants further investigation. We hope this paper expanded current knowledge on explicit genre awareness for business English correspondence pedagogy.

References


An Investigation into Thai Engineering Students’ Perceptions of Classroom Video Projects and their Self-Efficacy

Asst. Prof. Dr. Pornpun Oranpattanachai
King Mongkut’s University of Technology North Bangkok
Thailand
opornpun@gmail.com

Abstract
This study investigates Thai engineering students’ perceptions on the implementation of video projects in English language classrooms and their self-efficacy. The participants were sixty Thai engineering students taking an English course at a public university in Thailand. The 60 participants were assigned to create a job-interview video clip in pairs. Upon completion of their video project, the participants were asked to answer a questionnaire and were interviewed in groups. Their responses were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The results showed that the participants had a high to very high level of perceived satisfaction towards producing video clips. In addition, there was no significant relationship between their grades and their level of perceived value towards the video creation (P ≤ 0.05). However, there was a significant relationship between their grades and their perceived self-efficacy as English language learners (P ≤ 0.01). Pedagogical implications drawn from these findings are that a video clip project in an English course should be assigned in the following semesters and teachers should find ways to boost students’ self-efficacy which will in turn enhance their performances in learning English as a foreign language.

Keywords: Students’ Perceptions, Video Project, Self-Efficacy, English Course, Thai Engineering Students, English as a foreign language.

1. Introduction
In Thailand, English which is used as a foreign language has played an important role in professional development. Unfortunately, as reported by the Education First English Language Proficiency Index (EF EPI) in 2018, Thailand is ranked 64th out of 88 countries which is considered to be “Low Proficiency”. Out of 8 Asian countries, Thailand is ranked 6th, according to EF EPI (2018). In my university context, the engineering students realize the importance of English for their future career despite the fact that they do not seem motivated to learn English in the classroom. As a Thai teacher of English, I have to find ways to improve the students’ English proficiency. One way to deal with the challenge is through a teaching method.

One type of teaching methods that has been widely used and highly valued as a means of teaching more effectively and creatively is through students-produced video projects. According to many researchers, students-created video projects provide learners with rich and meaningful authentic learning experiences and can promote autonomy, team-working, motivation, social interaction among students which may not occur in a conventional classroom (Kulsiri, 2018; Yuliani & Lengkanawati, 2017; Loi, 2017). I have therefore decided to integrate students-produced video projects in my English classroom as an assignment for students when...
teaching a job-interview lesson. This is because they will need to attend job interviews when they apply for a job after they have completed their studies.

In addition to a teaching method, one non-language factor, students’ self-efficacy, has very strong influence on students’ English language ability. (Wang, Kim, Bong, & Ahn. (2013) In the same vein, Spratt, Humphreys and Chan (2002 cited in Ayoobiyan & Solemani, 2015) notes that self-efficacy is a motivational construct which in turn influence students’ autonomous learning.

However, there are only a few studies which examine the students’ perceptions towards the students-produced video project and their perceived self-efficacy in relation to English language performance in a Thai context. Therefore, the main purpose of the current study is to investigate the students’ perceptions of job-interview video projects and the relationship between students’ perceptions of job-interview video projects and their English language performance (grades). Also, this current study examines the relationship of students’ self-efficacy with English language performance (grades)

1.1 Research Objectives

1. To survey the students’ perceptions of the job-interview video projects used in the Communicative English and Report Writing course.
2. To investigate the correlation between the students’ perceptions of their own video clip creation projects and their grades.
3. To investigate the correlation between the students’ grade and their perceived self-efficacy in English ability.

1.2 Research Questions

1. What are the student’s perceptions of the video projects used in the Communicative English and Report Writing course?
2. Is there any significant correlation between the students’ perceptions of their video clip creation projects and their grades?
3. Is there any significant correlation between the students’ grades and their perceived self-efficacy in English ability?

2. Literature Review

In this section, research studies similar to the present study about students’ perceptions towards their video projects and their perceived self-efficacy in relation to English language ability will be briefly reviewed.

2.1 Students’ Perceptions towards Students-Produced Video Projects and English Language Performance

The students’ perceptions towards their video clip creation were examined by several studies (Oranpattanachai, 2018; Kulsiri, 2018; Petersen & Nassaji, 2016; Marwan, 2015; Wanchid & Wattanasin, 2015; Ting, 2013) and the results revealed that students have positive perceptions towards learning English through the video clip creation. They perceived that their English skills were enhanced. An additional benefit was that other soft skills such as collaboration, social interaction with classmates, technological skills were improved. The studies carried out by Oranpattanachai (2018) and Wanchid & Wattanasin (2015) found that there was a significant
relationship between the students perceptions towards their video clip creation and their English grades. This seems to suggest that learning English through students-made video projects is suitable for students at all English proficiency levels. Two experiment studies using pre-posttest as a research instrument conducted by Seepho and Neewprasit (2015) found that English language ability of the university participants improved significantly ($p < .05$).

2.2 Self-Efficacy and English Language Performance

A number of research studies investigated the role of self-efficacy in relation to English language ability using questionnaire as a research instrument and found that there was a positive correlation between students’ self-efficacy and their English language performance (Ayoobiyana & Soleimani, 2015; Rahimi, 2007; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Mahyuddin, Elias, Cheong, Muhamud, Noordin & Abdulla, 2006; Cotterall, 1999). This seems to suggest that students’ self-efficacy influences their English proficiency. Nonetheless, the results from few studies (Tseng, 2013; Anyadubalu, 2010) revealed that there was no significant relationship between self-efficacy and English ability.

3. Methodology

This is a survey study aimed at investigating the students’ perceptions of the implementation of job interview video clip creation projects into the English language classroom. It is also a correlational study since the students’ perceptions of the video clip creation projects and their final English grades and their self-efficacy in English ability are also explored.

3.1 Participants

The participants of this study were 60 first-year engineering students enrolled on a two-year engineering program from College of Industrial Technology, King Mongkut’s University of Technology North Bangkok in Thailand. They enrolled in a Communicative English and Report Writing course as a compulsory course in the first semester of academic year 2017. The majority of the participants are male (95%) and female (5%) between the ages of 20 and 22.

3.2 Instruments

The questionnaire adapted from Oranpattanachai (2018) was used to collect the data about the participants’ perceived value of the video creation project in the English language classroom. The online questionnaire is divided into two parts. The first part is about student participants’ demographic information (e.g., gender, age, their self-efficacy in English ability and English grade). The second part is close-ended and contained 18 items eliciting the participants’ perception of the video project work using 5 point Likert scales: 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = neutral, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree. Having answered the questionnaire, the student participants were interviewed in groups of about 4-5 students relating to what they liked and disliked about video clip creation.

The formula below shows the range of the arithmetic means that was used to interpret the level of agreement.

\[
\text{Range of score} = \frac{\text{Maximum score} - \text{Minimum score}}{\text{Number of Score}} = \frac{5-1}{5} = 0.8
\]
Table 1 below shows the evaluation criteria of the questionnaire.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score Value</th>
<th>Level of Agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.21 – 5.00</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.41 – 4.20</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.61 – 3.40</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.81 – 2.60</td>
<td>Very low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00 – 1.80</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 The Video Project Work Development
The students worked in pairs. They chose their own pair and created a script for a 7-10 minute-video clip of themselves speaking English on the job-interview topic in a business context. After that, the student participants submitted the scripts to the English teacher to evaluate and make any corrections if there were grammatical errors. Then the students made corrections accordingly. Following this, the student participants created the English-subtitled video clips with no assistance or guidance regarding how to create a video clip.

Regarding the video clip evaluation, the total score for the video clip project was 10 points which was part of their assignment. The assessment criteria for the video clip project was as follows:

Table 2 below shows the assessment criteria of the video clip project.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Points</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use of Language</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Video Clip Length</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtitles</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creativity</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective Use of Technology</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Points: 2 = good to very good, 1 = fair

3.4 Data Collection and Analysis
The student participants were asked to answer the online questionnaire in Thai after they submitted the video clip to the researcher who was their instructor for Communicative English and Report Writing Course.

For analysis, SPSS 11 for windows was used as follows.
- Descriptive statistics was computed on the students’ responses of the perceptions towards video clip creation projects
- A Pearson’s correlation test was used to determine whether there was a significant correlation between the students’ perceptions of their video clip creation projects and their grades.
- A Pearson’s correlation test was used to determine whether there was a significant correlation between the self-efficacy and English ability.

4. Findings and Discussion of the Study

Research Questions
1. *What are the students’ perceptions of the job-interview video projects used in the Communicative English and Report Writing course?*

The students had a high to very high level of positive perceptions towards the video clip projects as can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3 shows the students’ perception levels towards the video clip projects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Producing a video clip in groups helps you to develop your English in terms of speaking skills.</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Producing a video clip in groups helps you to develop your English in terms of listening skills.</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Producing a video clip in groups helps you to develop your English in terms of reading skills.</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Producing a video clip in groups helps you to develop your English in terms of writing skills.</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Producing a video clip in groups helps you to develop your English in terms of expressions used in job-interview.</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Producing a video clip in groups helps you to develop your English in terms of English grammar.</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I liked producing the video clip.</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>English classrooms in the next semester should use a group video project as a teaching tool.</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>V.High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>All members of my group contributed equally.</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>V. High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>My group members and I have gains knowledge from each other while working on a group video project.</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Producing a video clip helped me practise working in a team.</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>V. High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Producing a video clip encourages creative thinking.</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>V. High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I have formed a new and good relationship with my group members.</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>V. High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Each group member received the same score.</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>V. High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>The experience of working on a group video project improve my computer skills.</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Producing this video clip in a group will help me to have more confidence in real job-interview tasks.</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Producing this video clip in a group has not involved a significant financial investment.</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>V.High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Producing this video clip in a group was not time consuming.</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note*  V. High = Very High
As can be seen from Table 3 above, the student participants have a high to very high perceptions towards creation of job-interview clips. This finding agrees with the results of previous studies (Oranpattanachai, 2018; Kulsiri, 2018; Petersen & Nassaji, 2016; Marwan, 2015; Wanchid & Wattanasin, 2015; Ting, 2013). This seems to suggest that students are motivated to learn through video project work. This method can enhance the development of students’ necessary soft skills beyond English (Oranpattanachai, 2018; Kulsiri, 2018).

These 18 items were classified into four categories; 1) English language improvement, 2) pair work, 3) challenges and 4) learning through video clips.

In terms of English language improvement, the student participants had positive perceptions at a high level towards video clip creation as can be seen in Table 4 below.

Table 4: English Language Improvement Category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>Producing a video clip in groups helps you to develop your English in terms of expressions used in job-interview.</td>
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<td>.80</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Producing a video clip in groups helps you to develop your English in terms of English grammar.</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding pair work activity, the students had a high to very high levels of positive perceptions towards the video clip project work as can be seen in Table 5 below.

Table 5: Pair Work Activity Category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>All of members of my group contributed equally.</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>V. High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>My group members and I have gained knowledge from each other while working on a group video project.</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Producing a video clip helped me to practise working in a team.</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>V. High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I have formed a new and good relationship with my group members.</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>V. High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Each group member received the same score.</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>V. High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
With regards to the category of challenges, the student participants had a high to very high level of perceived satisfaction towards challenges as can be seen in Table 6 below.

**Table 6: Challenge Category**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Producing this video clip in a group has not involved a significant financial investment.</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>V. High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Producing this video clip in a group has not been time consuming.</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to the category of learning through video clips, the student participants had positive perceptions at a high to very high level of perceived satisfaction towards learning through video clips as can be seen in Table 7 below:

**Table 7: Learning Through Video Clip Category**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I liked producing the video clip.</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>English classrooms should use a group video project as a teaching tool in the following semester.</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>V. High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Producing a video clip encourages creative thinking.</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>V. High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Producing this video clip in a group will help me to have more confidence in real job-interview tasks.</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. *Is there any significant correlation between the students’ perceptions of their video clip creation projects and their grades?*

There is no significant correlation between the students’ perceptions of their video clip creation projects and their grades (P > 0.05) as can be seen from Table 8 below.

**Table 8: Pearson Correlation between Participants’ Perceptions and Grades Correlations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Perceptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grades</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.(2-tailed)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.060</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.(2-tailed)</td>
<td>.060</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This finding supports that of Oranpattanachai (2018) and Wanchid and Wattanasin (2015) who also found that there was no significant correlation between students’ attitudes towards project
work and their final scores (p ≤ .05) This finding seems to imply that the use of project work could be effective with students at all English proficiency levels.

3. Is there any significant correlation between the students’ grades and their perceived self-efficacy in English ability?

There is a significant correlation between the student participants’ self-efficacy and their grades (p ≤ .01). This finding is in line with previous studies (Ayoobiyan & Soleimani, 2015; Bassi, Secta, Della & Caprara, 2007; Mahyuddin, Elias, Cheong, Muhamud, Noordin & Abdullah, 2006; Cotteral, 1999) who found that there was a significant correlation between students’ grades and their perceived self-efficacy. From this finding, to improve students’ English language performance, teachers should enhance students’ efficacy beliefs when teaching.

Table 9: Pearson Correlation between Participants’ Grades and Self-Efficacy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlations</th>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Perceptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self-Efficacy</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.(2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.(2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>60</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

For the information obtained from the group interview, the data was analysed based on content. It was found that the student participants had more positive perceptions than negative. Generally, this seems to support the questionnaire data. The following are the student participants’ positive feedback to group interview questions:

1. What skill did you develop when you create this video clip?
   Speaking skill is the skill I think I developed most.
   I have developed the listening skill.
   I have learned grammar more when you corrected my interview script.
   I have developed all four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

2. Do you like producing this video clip?
   I like it at a high level because it’s fun because I had an opportunity to make fun of my friend who worked with me. I know how handsome I am through this video clip I created. (students laugh....)
   I like it because I had a chance to do acting.
   It’s not difficult to do this video clip.
   Producing video clip help me to develop creating thinking skill.

3. Is creating video clip useful to you?
   Yes. I have more confidence in speaking English.
   Yes. I can speak English more fluently. It’s a chance to practice English.
   Yes. Apart from practising English, I also learn how to work in a team.
It’s useful to me. I learn how to produce a video clip with subtitles.
Yeah. I have learned how to think creatively.
I think producing job interview video clip should be implemented in next semesters.
I would like my juniors to do it.

The student participants had negative feedback only for the group interview question 4. Following are the student participants’ negative answers to group interview question 4:

4. Did you have any problems when producing this video clip?
   My English is not good. I had to take a long time to recite the interview script. I forgot it.
   The time I and my friend wanted to set to do this video clip is different. We had time conflicts.

In general, the data obtained from the group interview seems to support the questionnaire data. In other words, they had high level of perceived satisfaction towards producing video clips.

5. Conclusion
Since students viewed video project work as positive learning experience, it can be concluded that job interview video clip project assignments should be pedagogically implemented in the subsequent Communicative English and Report Writing courses at the engineering program at the college where the present study was conducted. Also, teachers should boost students’ self-efficacy in various ways because this in turn helps improve their English ability.

The findings of the present study cannot be generalized to Thai engineering students in other universities due to the small sample size. A replication of this study should be conducted with a larger sample size and different participants from different disciplines and educational levels. The results of the study may yield similarities or differences which will be useful and contribute to the English language teaching and learning as a foreign/second language field.

References


Kulsiri, S. (2018). Students’ Perceptions of a Student-Produced Video Project in the General English Language Course at Srinakariniwirot University, Thailand. Arab World English Journal (Special Issue No.4), 40-54.


Utilizing Electronic Devices in English-Speaking Vietnamese University Classrooms

Quang Phan
HCMC Vietnam National Universities – International University
Vietnam
ptquang@hcmiu.edu.vn

Abstract
The use of electronic devices in English classrooms within universities has sparked interest as well as confusion among English teachers in Vietnam. Across different classrooms, there are several different policies on the use of devices during lessons. How can electronic devices be utilized pedagogically in an English speaking class? Can technology be used in the classroom in a way that is relevant to Vietnamese university students and also intrigue them in learning? This present study with 48 participants at the International University examined students’ perception of a speaking class with electronic devices integrated. It also scrutinized their opinions towards the three applications: Poll Everywhere, Quizlet, and Mentimeter. The results indicated that these mobile devices enhanced students’ speaking confidence and motivation. The participants also hoped to attend more language programs that incorporate technology.

Key words: electronic devices, speaking, applications, Poll Everywhere, Quizlet, Mentimeter

1. Introduction
In this digital age, educational technology has become an essential part of English teaching and learning as it is closely relevant and socially connected to students’ daily lives. Indeed, over the past few years, many leading researchers have called for a transformation in language teaching pedagogy that utilizes technology in the class. As Chapelle (2001, p.2) asserted “anyone concerned with second language teaching and learning in the 21st century needs to grasp the nature of the unique technology-mediated tasks learners can engage in for language acquisition.” One of the most remarkable breakthroughs in technology industry is the invention of mobile devices, especially smartphones. The author can safely say that almost every Vietnamese university student nowadays owns a cell phone that allows them to not only call or text but also take pictures, make videos, find routes, socialize and create a virtual world within. Also, together with the development of numerous language learning applications created every day, teachers tend to see these devices as potential learning tools for their students. However, in Vietnam, the use of electronic device is not encouraged in the classroom by any means. These devices are considered a learning distractor due to its easy access to social networks, entertainment, and online newspapers (David, Kim, Brickman, Ran, & Curtis, 2014). This challenges teachers’ willingness to allow phone use in their class. As a teacher, one should seek for success in teaching a foreign language with careful adaptation of incorporating gadgets such as laptops, smartphones and tablets into their
classrooms to help students in their language proficiency as well as high-level critical thinking skills.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Electronic devices - distractor and disturbance in class
In a classroom that allows electronic devices, understandably, there are some worries and concerns. Many researchers warn the challenges as well as unfruitful results caused by misused technological devices (Warschauer, Zheng, Niiya, Cotten, & Farkas, 2014). The first and most noticeable challenge is distraction from schoolwork. With the fastest growing social network sites, such as Facebook, Instagram, and Twitter running on their gadgets, students are more likely to concentrate less and have low academic performance (Dynarski, 2017). Many teachers also write strong policies that restrict the use of electronic devices in the classroom due to the disturbance, distraction, and cheating in exams as well (Kolb, 2011). The second issue that gained attention from researchers is connectivity. Mosavi Miangah and Nezarat (2012, p.310) asserted that using electronic devices required the “capability of being connected and communicated with the learning website using the wireless network of the device to access learning material ubiquitously”. In many classrooms or learning environments that are not Internet-connected, students are unable to download resources or use the applications for learning. Consequently, its advantage as a portable learning tool is questioned.

2.2. Electronic devices – powerful language learning tools in class and beyond
Instead of resisting the use of electronic devices in English classrooms, there have been many studies that advocated the idea of exploiting these devices in a language classroom. In the light of Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL), Stockwell (2007) emphasized the significance of acquiring languages through mobile technology given the constantly growing popularity of electronic devices among students. Picking up from early literature, there have been many studies investigating the application of mobile devices in language teaching and learning. Forty graduate students of two majors: Engineering and Education were invited to participate in an interview to investigate how students used smartphone applications and their favorite ones. The results indicated that students had downloaded and frequently used a great deal of useful apps for learning purposes (Kim, Ilon, & Altmann, 2013). It is also important to mention the benefits of these tools on students’ self-paced learning (Chen & Li, 2010).

Noticeably, some other researchers also investigated the use of electronic devices, especially smartphones for language learning outside the classroom. For “modern learners who oftentimes are forced to study anywhere and anytime”, utilizing mobile devices with learning apps has been inevitable (Evans, 2008, p.56). Also, language educators were suggested to “encourage and assist the learner autonomy” and “provide means for learners to combine formal and informal learning” (Godwin-Jones, 2011, p.8). In this direction, many other studies examined the impact of electronic devices on seamless learning, a learning approach that students can learn at their own pace and location. They could also switch scenarios effortlessly (Wong, 2015).

With respect to vocabulary and pronunciation learning, electronic devices were also believed to contribute to the development process. Kennedy and Levy conducted an experiment where participants received nine or ten SMS that contained some learned
vocabulary every week. At the end of the study, participants found those messages vital for vocabulary learning (Miangah & Nezarat, 2012). In terms of pronunciation, electronic devices together with up-to-date applications allowed students to record and listen to their own voice. Then they can compare their own pronunciation with the ideal one from the application, thereby improving students’ oral production.

To have deeper understanding of the effectiveness of electronic devices in an English classroom, more research should be conducted. With an intention to contribute to the field, this paper will examine students’ perception of utilizing electronic devices in their language learning. The research questions are as follows:

1. What are students’ opinions towards the use of their electronic devices in a language classroom?
2. What are students’ opinions on the three applications: Quizlet, Mentimeter, and Poll Everywhere?

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants
The researcher conducted our study with 48 Vietnamese participants of two Intensive English classes from various majors at the International University, Vietnam. Their proficiency levels are Pre-Intermediate and Intermediate. There were two class-meetings per week. Both classes received the same instruction and procedure from the author. There was no control group.

3.2. Materials

3.2.1. Applications
There are plenty of language-learning applications available for the teaching and learning of English speaking in App stores. Among them, due to the scale of the study, the author employed three following apps into the investigation.

Poll Everywhere transforms one-way presentations into two-way conversations with the students, who will respond on the web or via SMS texting on their phones. The question types are varied ranging from Short Answers, Multiple-choice Questions to Ranking. Quizlet is a vocabulary learning application. Students can either use their laptops or their phones to use this tool. In both displays, there is a wide range of activities that help students to learn the language they need, for example: Flashcard (learning definitions), Learn (checking their progress), Spelling (spelling the words they hear), Gravity & Matching (playing vocabulary games) and Test. Students can create their own study set or use the available sets created by the teacher. Mentimeter is a web-based interactive presentation software. It has a variety of question types suitable for different speaking activities, such as: Word-cloud, Open-ended Questions, Image Choice, etc. Students can go to menti.com and type the code provided by the teacher.

3.2.2. Survey
Survey will be conducted twice in the form of electronic questionnaire on Microsoft Form for better understanding of students’ perception of electronic device use in English class. The link of the survey was distributed via Facebook group. Students completed the surveys anonymously by a given time. Links to the surveys are embedded below.
Since the questions were designed to investigate students’ opinions towards the use of technological devices in class, a majority of questions in the first survey focused on their familiarity and frequency of using those devices for different purposes. The first section was to collect students’ data including their levels and genders. The second section was to observe the significance of electronic devices on students’ daily lives. The next part was to examine their opinions of utilizing technology in a speaking classroom. In the second survey, students’ viewpoints towards each application implementation in speaking activities were collected. The two surveys are valid due to the accuracy of what being inquired into. The questions measured what is supposed to be measured, which is the students’ opinions of the three applications. These surveys also maintain reliability since there was a consistency in the measurement in terms of participants, procedure, and question types throughout the research.

3.3. Procedure
At the beginning of the semester, participant students completed an electronic survey of 12 questions about their daily use of electronic devices. The purpose of this questionnaire is to examine students’ opinion about their use of electronic device before the instruction. During 14 weeks, the author utilized the three applications into his classrooms. Students were encouraged to download the apps onto their phones or tablets prior to the instruction.

The teacher used Mentimeter as check-in and wrap-up activities. During the course, students were asked some questions about their feeling, their weekend, and their today’s plan at the beginning of the class. The teacher used the Word-cloud showing layout so that the students could see all short answers on the screen. Then students stood in a circle or walked around and shared with other classmates. At the end of the session, another question was asked to check students’ understanding.

During the class, the teacher used Poll Everywhere to raise a thought-provoking question relevant to the topic of the unit and let the students respond by their own electronic devices. The responses would pop up on the screen within seconds. Students could see the percentage of people having the same and opposite opinions with them. Students then prepared for the reasons for two minutes and stood up to find their partners to discuss. Each group would have a short discussion before going to a debate. Language for debating was introduced in advance.

Students also were asked to use Quizlet to create a study set which contained all vocabulary in each unit as their homework. Students were free to choose their favorite learning activities on the app. However, since Spelling and Learn have pronunciation practice, these two sections were compulsory.

After 14 weeks, they were given another survey of 19 questions about their opinions on using the three applications during class and how these motivated them to speak. Some follow-up questions were asked through short interviews after the survey for deeper understanding of the underlying reasons why students had such choices.
4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. The frequent use of electronic devices, especially smart phones
The result from the survey illustrates that students spent a great deal of time daily on their phones (See Figure 1). This again can be a positive sight to the application of electronic devices in language teaching and learning. Since students nowadays tend to opt for their phones rather than their laptops, teachers should look for an optimum approach to utilize this technology into their classroom, especially a speaking classroom.

Figure 1: Students’ screen time

4.2. Students’ interest in social networks
Unsurprisingly, the students spent most of their screen time on social networks (See Figure 2). Given their popularity and constant update and development, there has been a growth in the number of social network users, resulting in the increase in daily screen time. Since they are familiar with using social networks and find these entertaining, it is possible for teachers to bring on some of their functions, such as polling, chatting, commenting, and posting into their English classrooms.

Figure 2: Purpose of using electronic devices

4.3. Students’ possible distraction and expectation
It is important to point out that teachers can encounter the possibility of students using their phones for personal purposes during class (See Figure 3). The result indicates that students admittedly lacked concentration for several reasons during class time. Therefore, teachers should be concerned when introducing and implementing these applications in a large class, which requires effective classroom management and discipline.
4.4. **Students’ interest and expectation in a technology-assisted speaking class**

A majority of the participants showed positive attitudes towards using their phones as a learning tool (See Figure 4). They expressed their enthusiasm on the three applications and how these brought “an interactive world” into their English classrooms. Details on how students were intrigued by each application will be discussed in the next section.

4.5. **Students’ perception on each application**

To answer the second question, data of students’ attitude for each application were collected. Not surprisingly, 98% of the participants were strong advocates for using Quizlet in the speaking class. They believed it would boost their learning autonomy by studying vocabulary at home. Meanwhile, 96% expressed their interest in the two-way presentations: teacher asking and students responding in Poll Everywhere. Regarding Mentimeter, although fewer students showed their interest in a Mentimeter-used speaking lessons compared to the other two applications, a majority (87%) of the participants believed on the effectiveness of this app. The reason for this may be because this application was only used during the warm-up and wrap-up phases of the teaching. Students supposed it was not as essential to their learning as Poll Everywhere and Quizlet.
For Quizlet, amongst the activities, most students thought spelling would be the most essential part. In contrast, Match and Gravity received the least attention from the students (See Figure 6). Students reported the reason for the preference, which was about the pronunciation-integrated function of this application. Students can learn the spelling and review the pronunciation simultaneously.

When choosing their favorite activities in Poll Everywhere-assisted speaking class, students showed more interest in the part that they responded to questions of different topics by their phones, which allowed them to have more confidence in speaking the language with their friends (See Figure 7).
For Mentimeter, students were most fascinated by the nature of the Mentimeter-assisted activities, which was sharing their feeling (See Figure 8). Walking around was their least favorite part, which only accounted for 4%.

![Figure 8: Students’ opinions on each activity on Mentimeter](image)

It is also vital to point out that a large number of the participants thought the three applications helped them to gain more confidence in speaking (See Figure 9). Culturally speaking, Vietnamese students find it easier and more confident to express their opinions at a secondary level after hearing others’ viewpoints first.

![Figure 9: Students’ opinions on the impact of these apps on their confidence](image)

4.6. Limitation
Despite these promising findings, this study also has several limitations. First, since only students’ opinions were taken into consideration in this study, only students’ interest and confidence were analyzed. There are still some questions about the impact of utilizing electronic devices on students’ oral language development and achievement. Third, as only three applications were used as materials for testing, it is not sufficient to conclude that students can benefit greatly from other online mobile applications. It is hoped that further research will address these limitations and provide teachers with absolute statement on the effectiveness of electronic devices in a language class.

5. Conclusion
This era has witnessed the explosion of various mobile applications created for the purpose of assisting human in every aspect of life. Education, especially the foreign language teaching and learning, obviously benefits greatly from that. This study has
proven a specific group of Vietnamese students were intrigued by the three mobile applications: Quizlet, Poll Everywhere, and Mentimeter. Although students’ language achievement was not investigated during the 14 weeks, it is worth emphasizing in the innovativeness and effectiveness of the utilization of electronic devices in improving learning motivation and confidence.

References


A Journey of English Development for Professional Communication: A Narrative Study of a Professional Engineer

Patpimol Phiphatchirakul\(^1\) and Saowaluck Tepsuriwong\(^2\)
School of Liberal Arts, King Mongkut’s University of Technology Thonburi
Thailand
\(^1\)plaesabuy@gmail.com, \(^2\)saowaluck.tep@kmutt.ac.th

Abstract
English is acknowledged as an important language which has been generally taught as a compulsory subject in Thailand. However, it seems that most Thai people, especially engineers, are not proficient in English. Some of them, nevertheless, can develop their English proficiency not merely to survive in their workplace, but also to become successful English users. Therefore, this study aimed to explore a journey of English development for professional communication using a narrative of a Thai engineer. Since most of the previous research tended to emphasize a quantitative approach, this paper applied a qualitative approach through the use of narrative inquiry. The data obtained from a life-history interview revealed critical incidents and significant factors influencing the subject’s English development. The findings would be beneficial for teachers to improve their teaching methods for formal instruction in classroom and helpful for those who desire to develop their English for successful professional communication.

Keywords: Foreign language learning, professional communication, narrative inquiry, life-history interview

1. Introduction
Language is a means of communication to convey thought, opinion, knowledge, or experience to other people. Learning the first language has occurred since early childhood and its proficiency has been continuously developed over time through both environmental and educational settings. In the current global context, however, the world is connected via technology which facilitates people all over the world to contact each other easily, quickly, and conveniently. Therefore, foreign language learning has become more crucial for people whose mother tongue is not English. Since English is the most widely used language in the world, it does not only open the door to broader knowledge, but also shaping more opportunities for education, employment, mobility, and other societal advantages (Munandar, 2015).

At global level, English proficiency seems critical in certain industries, especially engineering where the communication skills in English are highly required (EF Education First, 2014). Such requirement tends to be more obvious in the context of Thailand due to an increasing number of expatriates working in many global firms nationwide, where English is used as a lingua franca. For this reason, English skills are necessarily required for Thai employees. Having the right English skill does not only allow them to get a good job, but also attracts great chances for their career path; for example, a field trip overseas or working abroad. Thus, it can be said that English proficiency offers several benefits to Thai employees in terms of professional growth.
Even though English is one of significant factors for professional development, many Thai engineers seem to be unable to communicate in English fluently mainly due to lack of vocabulary and grammar comprehension (Kosashunhanan, 2016). This outcome reflects that the English proficiency of most Thai engineers seem lower than a desirable expectation despite at least 12 years of English language learning as required by Thailand’s educational policy. Apart from that, some students develop their English by themselves through informal contexts such as listening to foreign music, having foreign friends, and using self-study materials and technology.

Success in foreign language learning of each individual depends on various factors because humans are different and learn in a different way (Dörnyei, 2005). In order to understand how an individual successfully develops their English proficiency, it is important to examine individual differences since they have a huge impact on the attainment of foreign language learning.

One way to explore the individual differences is looking through the lens of narrative. The narratives of individuals can be collected through life-history interview which has rarely been applied in this area. Hence, the purpose of this study was to investigate how an individual developed their English for professional communication using the life-history interview. Additionally, it attempted to determine the impact of individual differences on English development.

2. Literature Review
Since language learners are different in many ways, therefore, different language learners learn in different ways. Having said that, individual differences have a huge impact on success of language learning, not only mother tongue, but also foreign language which the outcome is considerably more diverse. Individual differences refer to anything that makes a person different from another and unique. The way in which an individual differs from others is very large because of countless interactions between genetic inheritance and circumstance that take place during the whole lifetime (Dörnyei, 2005). In this study, certain main factors related to individual differences and affecting the mastery of foreign language learning are highlighted as follows.

2.1 Attitudes
There are two major aspects of attitudes – “behavioral” and “cognitive” aspects. The first one considers how an individual acts and reacts in specific circumstances. Learners with positive attitude seem to have positive behavior towards studying since they include themselves in it and are eager to learn more (Brown, 2000). Additionally, they are more active to explore new knowledge and solve problems which are beneficial to their daily lives and their emotional engagement will trigger their positive learning behavior (Kara, 2009). The latter deals with language learners’ belief, knowledge, understanding of language learning process. The cognitive attitude consists of four stages as follows: linking prior knowledge to the new one, constructing new knowledge, examining new knowledge, and implementing new knowledge in different environments (Brown, 2000).

2.2 Motivation
According to Gardner and Lambert (1972), motivation can be largely separated into two types – “instrumental” and “integrative” motivation. Learners who have instrumental motivation may learn the foreign language to shortly achieve practical goals, gain some advantages in business,
enhance professional status, even accomplish educational goals, etc. Those who have integrative motivation may learn the foreign language for their personal development, cultural enrichment, or involving in native culture or community. Although these two types of motivation have been related to achievement in foreign language learning, their influences are slightly different in certain learning contexts (Zanghar, 2012; Wimolmas, 2013) as a variety of both instrumental and integrative motivation is found in most language learners (Littlewood, 1984). Another two types of motivation are “extrinsic” and “intrinsic” motivation. Extrinsic motivation is defined as behaviors or actions that lead to successful and productive end. On the contrary, intrinsic motivation is the motivation which makes an individual have a desire to participate in an activity as it is pleasant and gratifying to do that (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

2.3 Input and Output: Language Exposure and Interaction

According to Long (1983, p. 127), input refers to “the linguistic forms such as morphemes, words, and utterances – the streams of speech in the air – directed at the non-native speaker”. The foreign language learners are exposed to the input through various sources; for example, authentic and pedagogic materials, teacher talk, foreigner talk, interlanguage talk, and interlanguage. These sources may provide positive or negative evidences to the learners. Apart from that, the nature of linguistic input plays an important role in the attainment of learners. The ideal input should resemble the input for a child that is simple, understandable, and relevant to their attention. This type of input can help learners naturally acquire the foreign language and feel more comfortable when confronting any situations which need them to communicate in the foreign language (Littlewood, 1984).

Even though the input is available and assessible for the learners, it may not be sufficient to help them acquire the foreign language and develop positive attitudes towards the foreign language community. For this reason, interaction or output is required since it promotes the learners to interact with such input and communicate with other target language users which can help them gain feedback. Then the interaction is associated with the learning process because it enhances communication, bridges gaps between received input and output, provides direct or indirect forms of feedback, helps the learners modify output when clarification needed, and stimulates the learners to produce more comprehensible output for mutual understanding (Muho & Kurani, 2011).

2.4 Willingness to Communicate

Defined by MacIntyre et al. (2001), WTC refers to “the intention to initiate communication, given a choice” (p. 369). Their work also acknowledges that WTC is consistent and trait-like variable due to a close relationship between WTC inside the classroom and WTC outside the classroom.

Learners who are willing to interact with various types of conversations have some similar background; for instance, self-confidence which they have developed from prior language learning, lack of language anxiety, adequate competence in communication, and enjoyable experience related to foreign language. WTC enables the learners to be able to use the language for communicative purposes more such as socialising with new people, experiencing new culture or communities, using it for their jobs, or travelling to other places where the target language is spoken. Thus, if learners have better communication skills, they will be more willing to communicate (Zafar & Meenakshi, 2012).
3. Methodology
The participant in this study, Wasin (pseudonym), was purposively selected because of his position as a professional English user. He has good English proficiency and is considered a senior in his field. He is Thai professional engineer currently working for an international company in Bangkok, Thailand. He completed a bachelor’s degree in Engineering. He had experience in working for several international companies in different countries for almost 10 years which English communication skills were required for his position. Even though he is currently working for a global firm in Thailand, he still always uses English at work with his foreign colleagues and customers.

The data were collected using life-history interview adapted from McAdam’s framework (1995). His framework was chosen because it could present insights of participant’s experiences through various stages of life which were essential for data analysis. The framework also covered critical incidences and other significant events which could illustrate the participant’s journey of English development. The gathered data were analysed and narrated based on individual differences and critical incidences emerged from the data to determine how the participant had developed his English proficiency for professional communication.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1 Findings

4.1.1 A Poor Start: Negative Attitudes and Poor English Performance
Wasin’s explicit experience with English could be traced back when he was studying in a secondary school in Lampang. When he was young, he tended to prefer mathematics to English. He described that he did not like English subject at all due to unpleasant atmosphere in class. His English teachers were very tough and strict. He was usually punished when he did some mistakes in class or his performance was unsatisfactory for the teachers. Such situation made him feel bad with English and he tried to avoid participating in class. As a result, his English proficiency was poor.

“I didn’t like English because I might be at the school where the teachers were tough and very strict. When I made a mistake, they usually hit me. That’s why I didn’t want to learn English. At that time, I knew nothing about English but I couldn’t escape it.”

Even though after graduation he considered himself as an engineer with weak English proficiency, he did not realise the importance of English to his career path. His poor English caused him a real problem when he started his first job as Laboratory Engineer in a Japanese company. At that moment, he was unable to use English at all meanwhile at the site he needed to speak English to coordinate with foreign colleagues. During this period, he had negative experience because he struggled heavily to communicate in English, especially with his Japanese boss, which caused him difficulties at work.

4.1.2 Changing Attitudes and Awareness of English for Professional Survival
Due to his poor English skills, Wasin sometimes avoided using English. He, however, realised that avoidance strategies and relying on others did not seem like a good solution in a long run. His constraint in English proficiency caused him a severe stress. It was even worse when a work conflict occurred. Some colleagues who could speak English sometimes claimed for the
achievement of others and blamed them for the mistakes they did not make just because they were unable to speak English.

“Other persons might take my achievement and blame me for their mistakes I didn’t do because they knew I didn’t understand English. I saw some people did this to others who couldn’t speak English in my office.”

Such conflicts in the workplace became a critical incident in his life. It struck Wasin to see the importance of English. Wasin realised that it might cause him more problems in the future if he still lacked communication skills in English. After realising this threat, therefore, he became determined to practice English to be better at professional communication for himself and his own career path.

4.1.3 A New Start: Better English Performance for Bigger Career Growth

Wasin chose to start by sticking with a Filipino friend who worked in the same company. His strong determination to learn drove him to follow this Filipino colleague everywhere which could help improve his English little by little. Moreover, he employed more “focused” learning strategies apart from exposing himself to acquire English from his shadowing activities with the Filipino. During any conversation with foreign colleagues, Wasin might ask them to spell the words he did not understand and collect them in his small notebook to look for their meanings later.

“When I asked my foreign coworkers how to call this or that in English, I sometimes didn’t understand what they said or forgot how to write it. Then I let them spell and I jotted down in my notebook to search for more meanings in a dictionary.”

Wasin's work and life were more expanded when he decided to work in Dubai. He was promoted to Senior Engineer and responsible for a team of 400 Thai workers. Apart from his English development for professional communication, he also had more opportunities to expand his language use for everyday life since most of his workers could not speak English. He needed to manage every problem of his team members such as financial issues at the bank. This encouraged him to deal with different and unfamiliar situations and also helped him communicate in English more fluently. During this period, Wasin enjoyed practicing his English though listening to music and watching movies in English. When the project under his supervision was completed, he decided to resign from the company to work in South Africa.

4.1.4 A Restart: A Big Leap for Greater Challenge and Successful English Performance

When moving to work in South Africa, Wasin thought that his English proficiency was fine but the situation did not seem fine as he expected. He found out that other people did not understand what he talked to them even though he knew exactly what he was talking about. Later, he became aware that his communication problem was rooted in his pronunciation. He needed to pronounce accurately to make others understand his messages. Additionally, he improved his English through reading printed matters at his workplace based on his interest. He also read some English textbook to improve his grammar and writing skill by himself since he thought that he needed to master these skills as communicative abilities.

More importantly, Wasin had a chance to stay in the same home with an English colleague for 7-8 months. He noticed that his English proficiency, particularly his accent, was much more developed since he had a chance to use it all the time both at workplace and at home which
encouraged him to become more familiar with it. Previously, he normally used English to discuss work-related topics with his colleagues. After living with the English colleague for a while, the conversation was expanded to social talk such as politics and sports. To Wasin, this was regarded as an impressively significant leap of his English development which did not only increase his opportunity to use English, but also make him enjoy sharing discussion with different viewpoints.

“The most impressive experience in developing my English was when I stayed with this English friend because I could talk to him more than work such as politics. We shared our opinions and kept discussing many topics. It made me feel that I understood the world more from different opinions of other people.”

According to his endeavor, he could feel that his pronunciation was getting better. He observed the other results from other people whom he had talked to before since they could understand him more. This made Wasin feel that the more he practiced, the better result he could achieve.

4.2 Discussion
Wasin considered his journey of English development as an adventure that he could learn and improve his English though life experience. Regarding his narrative, it could be seen that there were certain significant factors affecting his successful development of English as follows.

4.2.1 Attitudes and Motivation
Wasin’s narrative revealed that attitudes appeared to be closely related to motivation as a significant affective factor influencing English language learning. This was because attitudes are strongly associated with learning performance. Also, it might support or hinder individual motivation to learn English through different situations (Bartram, 2010). Wasin started learning English with a negative attitude because of an unfavourable class atmosphere and this affected his later progress. This finding was in line with Zhao (2015) who emphasised that the students with bad attitudes and low achievement were not willing to learn English because of their weak proficiency and fear of difficulties.

“I think right attitudes is important. When I just started my first job and needed to use English, I tried to practice it every day. It’s necessary. I fought for it. I admitted that I strived so hard to achieve. As I said, the more I ran away from English, the more I realised that I needed to use it. So I decided to learn. I was not afraid, shameless, and didn’t give up. That’s how I did it.”

However, when Wasin was aware of the impact of English proficiency on his career growth, his attitude was gradually changed. Even the negative attitudes towards English language could be turned into favourable ones when some critical incidents occurred. This was concordant with Oroujloj and Vahedi (2011) who pointed out that, without good attitudes, only a little progress would be the result even though the students were excellent or gifted. They suggested that positive attitudes and high motivation also made the learners become persistent, which was one of desirable characteristics of a good language learner.

4.2.2 Language Exposure and Interaction
Wasin’s professional contexts provided him exposure to English. The exposure came from his boss, colleagues, and professional environment. Authentic language exposure was important and had an effect on language improvement. Magno, Filho, Lajom, Regodon, and Bunagan
(2009) reported that the learners who had more exposure to the language in English-speaking contexts could develop their English proficiency through communication and socialisation, both formal and informal.

“The turning point that truly improved my English a lot happened when I worked in South Africa. The company rented a house for me to stay with another colleague from England. We’re at the same age and close friends. I talked to him every day and I felt my accent was better. I thought it’s because I had a chance to often get familiar with the native speaker which could improve my English skills.”

Another interesting point that could be noticed in his narrative was that he tried to arrange his personal environment to increase the level of English language exposure through several types of media which resulted in his better performance. According to Ortega (2011), English media exposure such as television broadcasting, cinemas, music, and books could considerably support the English language learners to attain higher proficiency level. Additionally, Wasin utilised his exposure to the language as input or model to apply with other people. He had opportunities to apply the input in various contexts which could expand his interaction and gain more knowledge. Such exposure in different situations gradually developed him to higher level of proficiency until he became a successful English user.

4.2.3 Willingness to Communicate and Perseverance
The last significant factors found in Wasin’s narrative were willingness to communicate and perseverance. Wasin encountered many situations that he seemed to not be willing or hesitant to communicate in English. To Wasin, during his early career, he was reluctant to learn and use English at work due to his negative attitudes, poor competence, and low motivation.

“As I worked for the second company as a Construction Engineer, sometimes I was blamed because I didn’t understand what they said or wanted me to do. But I was diligent and tried to work even harder. I kept working like this and my English was better. I could understand more and my boss acknowledged me.”

Nonetheless, Wasin’s attitudes and motivation were turned into positive ones because he would like to pursue his career growth. He appeared to be more willing to deal with them and communicate in English which could improve his English skills at the same time. As shown in the study, willingness to communicate was closely related to attitudes and motivation. Yashima (2002) stressed that positive attitudes and motivation had an influence on learners’ willingness to communicate. Those who were motivated dedicated themselves to developing their English proficiency more and accomplished a better level of competence than those who had less ones. When learners were more willing to communicate in English, they would persevere in mastering their skills to achieve their goals. As seen from the journey of Wasin, he did not give up or stop improving his English when confronting language difficulties. Mustafa, Rashid, Atmowardoyo, and Dollah (2015) had similar conclusions that learners who attained a higher achievement of learning English possessed a high level of perseverance and willingness to communicate. They found that learners might persevere in attempting to use English if they deemed that the situations or their purposes were important or necessary for them.

5. Conclusion
The main interest in the journey of English development for professional communication aimed to explore how a Thai professional engineer with weak background and competence became a
successful English user. The findings highlighted certain factors which significantly contributed to the participant’s attainment of English proficiency. These factors including attitudes and motivation, language exposure and interaction, as well as willingness to communicate and perseverance. Ultimately, the results portrayed that the individual English improvement did not happen just within a day but it was a life-long development. Acknowledging this nature of foreign language learning process was helpful for the teachers to arrange appropriate pedagogy and learning environment to suit each student as much as possible. This would help them to become naturally eager to learn and improve their English proficiency not just for in class, but for their professional success as well.

References


‘This study examined …’ Self-mentions in Research Article Abstracts

Punjaporn Pojanapunya
King Mongkut’s University of Technology Thonburi
Thailand
punjaporn.poj@mail.kmutt.ac.th

Abstract
As a preview of an article, a research article (RA) abstract serves as promotional material for the audience in a research community, to help readers determine whether or not they will choose to further access full articles. A self-mention is the most explicit marker which authors deploy to express the authorial voice in their writing. Self-mentions in RA abstracts are therefore key elements to acknowledge the presence of authors and to create a relationship with readers at an early stage. This study examined three categories of self-mentions in 300 abstracts from three social science disciplines: political science, psychology, and sociology. The most common self-mentions in the three disciplines were analysed for the functions they performed. The results show that the first person pronoun is most frequently used, with ‘we’ as the most common marker. The second most common marker is an inanimate self-mention (e.g. ‘this article’), whereas the third person noun (e.g. ‘author’) is relatively rare. ‘We’ was heavily used to describe methods with ‘examine’ as the dominant research verb. ‘This’ and a noun referring to the text (e.g. ‘article’ and ‘study’) is commonly used to state a research purpose. Overall, self-mentions presented in the abstracts are associated with purpose and methods, but are relatively rare in the statements related to introduction and conclusion. The results imply that self-mentions are more likely to perform informative than evaluative functions in abstracts. The findings provide some pedagogical implications concerning professional communication training for novice writers.

Keywords: self-mentions, interactional metadiscourse, research article (RA) abstracts

1. Introduction
A research article abstract is one of the key discourses which is a medium for knowledge sharing among scholars in research communities. Being limited in length, an abstract has to be concisely and precisely written. Authors take a role as a source of knowledge and arguments needing to project a specific professional identity. At the same time, they will need to interact and create a relationship with other community members or readers as quickly as possible, in this early stage of a paper. Therefore, the abstract can be considered a rich source of interactional devices that the authors use to position themselves in a community, create a relationship with readers, and express their expertise in a knowledge domain (Hyland, 2004).

Self-mention is perhaps the most straightforward and most explicit way of expressing the voice of the author (Bondi, 2014) that is presented in abstracts. While experienced authors use self-mentions to position themselves in a research community, novice researchers tend to avoid using this device in writing. One of the major problems that novice writers usually have is a lack of authorial voice, and self-mentions have been reported as underused in work written by novice writers, or student reports (Flowerdew, 2001; Hyland, 2012). In general, although it has been widely recognized that a writer’s presence is not a feature to be wholly rejected in academic writing, some novice writers avoid using the feature simply because of the traditional
notion that academic writing has to be impersonal (Flowerdew, 2017; Pho, 2008). Additionally, novice writers might be reluctant to accept personal commitment (Hyland, 2012). For example, they avoid using authorial pronouns in writing in order to downplay their personal role in the research. Self-mentions were found in the Method move in quantity-focused abstracts and the Results move in quality-focused abstracts (Song, 2015), which are related to performing informative functions rather than evaluative or argumentative functions (such as Introduction and Conclusion). Therefore, this study investigated whether self-mentions are used in abstracts, and if so, what functions they perform. The findings on the use of self-mentions in abstracts should be useful to novice writers, as they can learn the most explicit way for authors to present themselves by using self-mentions in their writing.

This study identified potential uses of self-mentions in RA abstracts published in international refereed journals in social science disciplines as sample by sampling work written by experts. Because understanding of research methods and variables of the social science disciplines is less likely to be shared, knowledge in this domain is constructed to be interpreted, and strongly requires negotiation of claims that create understanding between writers and their audience (Hyland & Tse, 2004). Such authors rely more heavily on linguistic resources to engage themselves in texts and with the community. Therefore, this study focused on abstracts from three disciplines under the social science knowledge domain, where the presence of authors in texts is more explicit than in the hard sciences.

2. Previous research into abstracts
There is a considerable amount of previous research into language use in abstracts. Rhetorical structure and moves in RA abstracts have received great attention from a number of previous studies. Many studies identified moves and structures of abstracts collected from various academic fields, for example, moves of RA abstracts in applied linguistics (Al-Khasawneh, 2017), biology and wildlife behavior (Samraj, 2005), electronic management in library and information science (Lee, 2017), and tourism (Ahmed, 2015). These studies contribute greatly to these specific fields. However, some major frameworks provided by well-known scholars, i.e. Swales (1990), Swales and Feak (2009), and Hyland (2004) have been adopted in several recent studies as operational models for analysis. This seems to imply that abstracts in scientific research typically have shared common moves (Pho, 2008) with one of the most common models of moves including (1) Introduction, (2) Purpose, (3) Method, (4) Results, and (5) Conclusion (Hyland, 2004; Jiang & Hyland, 2017).

In addition to the studies on the macro-structure of abstracts which are valuable for novice writers, another aspect which involves training novice writers is about linguistic resources typically used in abstracts, with a greater variation of interests. For example, there are studies on lexical bundles (Cortes, 2013), stance adverbs (Cakir, 2016), organizational linkers (Ebrahimi & Heng, 2016), and hedging devices (Li & Pramoolsook, 2015). Among these linguistic resources, interactional or interactive linguistic resources have received great attention in several studies (e.g. Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010; Jiang & Hyland, 2017), of which Hyland’s model of interactive and interactional metadiscourse is most well-known. Since self-mentions are interactional metadiscourse markers, they have therefore been partially investigated in research on metadiscourse or interactional metadiscourse markers. Of particular interest in the self-mentions were personal pronouns, or even specific pronouns, e.g. “we”, or “I”. As a consequence of their particular interest in specific self-mentions, previous studies did not normally focus on their variety, nor did they include detailed analysis of these features, e.g. how self-mentions function in abstracts, and which functions they frequently perform.
Moreover, among interactional metadiscourse markers, self-mentions seem to have received less attention than, e.g. hedges, boosters, or attitude markers (e.g. in Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010; Li & Pramoolsook, 2015).

Among several studies, two major works, Bondi (2014) and Pho (2008) provide a rich source of information on authorial voice features, including the use of self-mentions in abstracts. Bondi (2014) examined trends of authorial presence in three disciplines, namely, economics, history, and linguistics, over two decades. The study discussed a wide coverage of features including both implicit and explicit features (e.g. self-reference, choice of verbs and nouns, argumentative connectors, modal verbs and attitudinal adjectives which are markers of stance and argument). However, because the study provided a wide coverage of authorial presence over the past 20 years, quantity changes of diachronic variation of voices were highlighted compared to syntactic and semantic patterns of use. In terms of academic disciplines or sources of abstracts, previous studies were more likely to study abstracts from broad areas, such as humanities and social sciences, or hard sciences, while some other studies focused on a specific academic field (Pho, 2008). However, the internal variety within a single area, e.g. within the social sciences community, has not been fully considered.

This study was conducted to address two research questions. 1) How frequently are self-mentions used in three corpora of RA abstracts from three social science disciplines? 2) How are self-mentions commonly used in the abstracts?

3. Methodology

3.1 Corpora
This study collected 300 RA abstracts from political sciences, psychology, and sociology. They were intended to represent three related disciplines in the humanities and social science domain, which should allow us to see internal variation of self-mentions within the same major domain. There are four corpora used for analysis in this study. Each of the first three corpora consists of 100 abstracts collected from Scopus-indexed journals in political sciences (15,267 words), psychology (16,040 words), and sociology (17,803 words), respectively. The fourth corpus is a combination of all three corpora, a corpus of 300 abstracts which is referred to as a corpus of social science abstracts (49,110 words).

3.2 List of self-mentions
Potential self-mentions investigated in this study were surveyed and collected from previous studies related to interactional metadiscourse and self-mentions (e.g. Bondi, 2014; Hyland 2004, 2012; Pho, 2008). Three main categories of self-mentions investigated are: first person pronouns, i.e. ‘I’, ‘my’, ‘me’, ‘we’, ‘our’, ‘us’; third person nouns, i.e. ‘author’, ‘authors’, ‘researcher’, ‘researchers’, and inanimate self-mentions, i.e. ‘this’ followed by the nouns referring to RA (e.g. study, article, and research).

3.3 Procedures and data analysis
1. 300 abstracts of RAs from three social science disciplines were collected, 100 abstracts from each discipline.
2. Four corpora were prepared: 1) A corpus of 300 abstracts in social sciences or Soc (This corpus is not intended to represent social science disciplines. However, it is used for counting frequencies and calculating proportions of self-mentions among the three
disciplines.), 2) A corpus of 100 abstracts in political science (Pol), 3) A corpus of 100 articles in psychology (Psy), and 4) A corpus of 100 articles in sociology (Socio).

3. Word frequency lists of the four corpora were generated by using AntConc (Anthony, 2014).

4. All self-mentions were searched for their frequency in the four word frequency lists of abstracts. Each specific self-mention was searched for its frequency, one at a time.

5. All frequencies of the self-mentions were normalized per 1,000 words to allow comparison of the frequencies.

6. Descriptive overview of self-mentions was identified as individual disciplines and as three social science disciplines.

7. Some of the common self-mentions in three corpora were analysed for their use in context through analysis of concordances. Many studies disregarded the internal variability among related academic disciplines. Justifying writers’ language choices of self-representation in various related disciplines as a single domain might risk oversimplification. Rather, writers’ decisions should also be presented within individual disciplines. Therefore, this study also analysed interesting self-mentions which are most frequently used in each discipline for their use in their respective context. In order to conceptualise the uses in context, the uses were grouped according to functions they performed according to a categorization of moves in article abstracts (Jiang & Hyland, 2017: 4), as presented in Table 1. This framework was applied in the analysis since it is claimed to be the most common structure that is most consistent across time (Jiang & Hyland, 2017).

8. Concordances of the most common self-mentions in each discipline were identified for which of the functions that each self-mention performed in abstracts. Functions performed by the most common self-mentions in each discipline were counted and calculated into percentage. For ease of conceptualizing the overview of self-mentions’ functions, findings were reported in terms of the moves associated with the functions that self-mentions situated (as shown in Table 1). For example, if concordances of a self-mention show that the self-mention was used for giving information on methodological issues, it is reported as the self-mention which is found in the Methods move.

Table 1: Categorization of moves in article abstracts (Jiang and Hyland, 2017: 4)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move</th>
<th>Function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>Establishes context of the paper and motivates the research or discussion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose</td>
<td>Indicates purpose, thesis or hypothesis, outlines the intention of the paper.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>Provides information on design, procedures, assumptions, approach, data, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>States main findings or results, the argument, or what was accomplished.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>Interprets or extends results beyond scope of paper, draws inferences, points to applications or wider implications.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Results

4.1 An overview of occurrences of self-mentions in three disciplines

The results suggest that authorial voice focusing on self-mentions does exist in abstracts (2.3 cases per abstract). Table 2 shows frequency of occurrence (f) of self-mentions in a corpus of 300 abstracts as well as in individual disciplines. Normalized frequency (nf) per 1,000 words is also presented in the table to allow comparison of the devices’ occurrences.
Table 2: Self-mentions in abstracts of three social science disciplines (nf = normalized frequency per 1000 words)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Words</th>
<th>Pol f</th>
<th>Pol nf</th>
<th>Psy f</th>
<th>Psy nf</th>
<th>Soc f</th>
<th>Soc nf</th>
<th>Soc #abs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1st person pronouns</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td>490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>me</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>we</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>5.2</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>307</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>our</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>us</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3rd person nouns</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>author(s)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>researcher(s)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Inanimate subjects</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This article</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This paper</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This study</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This research</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#self-mentions in all three disciplines</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>#tokens in a corpus</td>
<td>15,267</td>
<td>16,040</td>
<td>17,803</td>
<td>49,110</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As a whole, the 300 abstracts showed that the first person pronoun was the most frequently used self-mention among three main categories (f=490, nf=10.1), with ‘we’ as most common (f=307, nf=6.3), occurring in 136 abstracts. The second most common self-mention type, but far less frequently, was the inanimate self-mention, which is ‘this’ followed by a noun referring to a research study (f=166, nf=3.4), such as ‘this study’, or ‘this article’, both of which were typically used to make the authors’ presence less explicit (Yang, 2016). ‘This study’ and ‘this article’ (nf = 1.3 and 1.2) were used by authors considerably more than ‘this paper’ (nf=0.6) and ‘this research’ (nf=0.3). Third person nouns, i.e. author(s) and researcher(s), were found in a few papers with relatively low occurrences, compared with the first two types of self-mentions.

Focusing on individual disciplines, the most common first person pronoun found in all three disciplines was ‘we’, with normalized frequencies equal to 8.3 cases in political science, 5.2 cases in psychology, and 5.4 cases in sociology. There were slightly different preferences for the use of inanimate nouns with ‘this’ among the three disciplines. Research in political science (Pol) and sociology (Socio) showed a greater occurrence of ‘this article’ as most common, while research in psychology (Psy) showed the use of ‘this study’ with the highest proportion.

4.2 Functions of self-mentions in abstracts and patterns of uses of self-mentions in three disciplines

To gain insights into how self-mentions were used in abstracts, the presence of some of the most frequent self-mentions was examined and reported as the presence in five moves based on Jiang and Hyland (2017:4).
4.2.1 The use of ‘we’ for describing research methodological issues

As presented in Table 2, ‘we’ occurred 127 times in the Pol corpus (nf=8.3), 84 times in Psy (5.2), and 96 times in the Socio corpus (nf=5.4) which was the most common first person pronoun and most common self-mention in all three disciplines.

Based on concordance data, most items of ‘we’ were found for describing research methodological issues, e.g. the research design, data, and research procedures which is the function of the Methods move (33.9% in Pol, 42.7% in Socio, and 51.2% Psy), as can be seen in Figure 1. In Pol and Socio, ‘we’ was usually followed by a simple form of a verb, e.g. ‘analyse’, ‘assess’, ‘combine’, ‘compare’, ‘conduct’, ‘identify’, ‘test’, and ‘measure’. The most dominant verbs found in the Socio corpus were ‘use’ and ‘examine’. However, ‘we’ was usually followed by a past-tense form of a research verb, for example, ‘examined’, ‘used’, ‘analyzed’, ‘assessed’, ‘compared’, ‘investigated’ in the Psy corpus. These uses of ‘we’ showed that the Methods move could be written in a personal style. The findings are in contrast to the conclusion drawn by Pho (2008)’s study of 30 abstracts in applied linguistics and educational technology, which asserted that the methodology move is more impersonal than other moves.

Figure 1: The use of ‘We’ for different functions associated with the five moves

All concordances of ‘we’ which were used to describe methodological issues were examined. The results show that authors of political science abstracts used ‘we’ with various forms of research verbs in a simple form, such as ‘test’, ‘examine’, ‘conduct’, ‘analyse’, ‘explore’, ‘develop’, ‘employ’, and ‘manipulate’. Some examples of ‘we’ followed by the research verbs in contexts can be seen in the concordances below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>line</th>
<th>Concordances</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>a factor behind welfare state persistence.</td>
<td>We analyze a new country-level data</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>their mutual relationships to third parties.</td>
<td>We analyze over 40,000 dyadic relationships among</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Using data from two recent surveys,</td>
<td>we analyze the relationship between Big Five</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>specified. After explaining the AIPW estimator,</td>
<td>we conduct a Monte Carlo experiment that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>a core measure of human development,</td>
<td>we conduct a series of time-seriesA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>of a postelection, pre-inauguration period,</td>
<td>we conduct a survey experiment in which</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>these phenomenon have often been inadequate.</td>
<td>We examine a unique source of data,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>e personality traits and political participation.</td>
<td>We examine forms of participation that differ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>of voter decision making. In contrast,</td>
<td>we examine state executive office elections to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>to trace effects over time, and</td>
<td>we examine this dynamic across political units.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>are those that have resisted privatization.</td>
<td>We explore the diffusion of four innovative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>directly to changes in public opinion.</td>
<td>We explore the two causal pathways suggested</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>hority and undermining incentives for compliance.</td>
<td>We explore these concepts in a laboratory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>on public perceptions of police conduct.</td>
<td>We test several hypotheses, including discounting,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>would insulate women from political stimuli.</td>
<td>We test these competing predictions with a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>benefits of privatization. In this study,</td>
<td>we test whether county governments that have</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>on theory from these related fields</td>
<td>we test whether the emotional content of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some examples of patterns of ‘we’ and the research verbs in a particular context emerged from the concordances, with frequency of occurrence in brackets as follows.

- ‘we’ + ‘test’ + hypothesis/variable (5), e.g. lines 14-17 - (Pol)
- ‘we’ + ‘examine’ + data/context (4), e.g. lines 7-10 - (Pol)
- ‘we’ + ‘conduct’ + paradigm (3), e.g. lines 4-6 - (Pol)
- ‘we’ + ‘analyse’ + data/variable (3), e.g. lines 1-3 - (Pol)
- ‘we’ + ‘explore’ + variable (3), e.g. lines 11-13 - (Pol)

In psychology and sociology, the use of research verbs was more restricted to two dominant verbs, i.e. ‘examine’ and ‘use’. While psychology abstracts used the past-tense form, sociology abstracts tended to use a simple-tense form of the verbs.

- ‘we’ + ‘examined’ + variable (8), e.g. lines 18-20 - (Psy)
- ‘we’ + ‘used’ + method/approach (4), e.g. lines 21-23 - (Psy)
- ‘we’ + ‘examine’ + variable (6), e.g. lines 24-26 - (Socio)
- ‘we’ + ‘use’ + data/method (8), e.g. lines 27-30 - (Socio)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>line</th>
<th>Concordances</th>
<th>Use of Research Verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>adverse health outcomes. In a longitudinal study, we examined the consequences of prenatal and postn</td>
<td>examined the consequences of prenatal and postnatal health outcomes. We examined the mediating effects of perceived organizational fit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>-environment fit and work-family conflict (WFC), we examined the mediating effects of perceived org</td>
<td>examined the mediating effects of perceived organizational fit and work-family conflict. We examined the relationship between personality variables and job satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>creative performance. Applying job design theory, we examined the relationship between PSD and emplo</td>
<td>examined the relationship between performance and job design. We examined the relationship between personality variables and job satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>ional experiences are especially well remembered. We used a novel paradigm that combined recently invented methods with traditional research approaches.</td>
<td>used a novel paradigm that combined recently invented methods with traditional research approaches. We examined the relationship between psychological traits and job performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>visual processing? In the study reported here, we used electrophysiological measures to examine t</td>
<td>used visual processing techniques in the study reported here. We used electrophysiological measures to examine the effects of a new treatment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>cognitive functions. In the study reported here, we used event-related potentials (ERPs) to disclos</td>
<td>examined cognitive functions. We used event-related potentials (ERPs) to disclose the effects of a new treatment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>design to address this debate. More specifically we examine the effects of class and education</td>
<td>designed a study to address this debate. More specifically, we examined the effects of class and education.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>the results of multivariate regression analyses, we examine the extent of polarization in soccer</td>
<td>examined the results of multivariate regression analyses. We examined the extent of polarization in soccer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>community life and to keep crime low. We examine the link between religious ecology and</td>
<td>examined community life and to keep crime low. We examined the link between religious ecology and crime prevention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>stable (for class) or increasing (for education). We use a meta-analytical design to address</td>
<td>examined stable (for class) or increasing (for education). We use a meta-analytical design to address the link between religious ecology and crime prevention.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>value of personal relationships in that sector. We use a unique data set on collaboration,</td>
<td>examined the value of personal relationships in that sector. We used a unique data set on collaboration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>(heading: Abstract) We use categorical and logistic regression models</td>
<td>(heading: Abstract) We use categorical and logistic regression models.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>domains of hardship are similar and different. We use qualitative interview data to examine five</td>
<td>examined domains of hardship are similar and different. We used qualitative interview data to examine the impact of hardship on different domains.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.2 The use of ‘this’ for indicating research purpose
Apart from ‘we’, an inanimate subject was the second most common self-mention used in three corpora. ‘This article’ was further examined as the most frequent inanimate subject in the Pol and Socio corpora, while ‘this study’ was taken as an example for the Psy corpus. Proportions of the use of most common inanimate subjects in three disciplines are presented in Figure 2.
Figure 2: The use of ‘this + article/study’ for different functions associated with the five moves

The results show that ‘this + article/study’ was most common in the Purpose move (77.3% in Pol, 62.9% in Socio, and 53.6% in Psy). This inanimate subject was used for indicating research purpose, hypothesis, or intention of research articles. It is important to note that many authors merge Purpose and Method moves into a single sentence because of the abstract’s length constraints (Hyland, 2004). In this study, the potential merging P and M moves (e.g. concordance lines 31-37) which were written as the first sentence or at the introductory part of the abstracts were reported under the P move section.

While research verbs that followed the inanimate subject in the P move differed across disciplines, the research verbs ‘examines’ and ‘explores’ were most common. Furthermore, research verbs in political science varied, e.g. ‘analyses’, ‘examines’, ‘explores’, ‘proposes’, ‘demonstrates’, ‘tests’ (hypotheses) to indicate purposes of research at the beginning of abstracts, with ‘analyses’, ‘examines’, and ‘explores’ as the most dominant verbs (concordances 31-40). On the other hand, authors of psychology abstracts were more restricted to ‘examine’ (concordances 41-45) and authors of sociology abstracts were more restricted to ‘examines’ and ‘explore’ (concordances 46-53).
5. Discussion and implications

The results indicate that first person pronouns, specifically ‘we’, were the self-mentions most frequently used in abstracts of research in the social science disciplines under investigation. The we-forms were also reported as perceptible features both in terms of occurrence of use and in the number of abstracts that used them in the Economics, History, and Linguistics disciplines (Bondi, 2014). The results of the current study show that authors commonly used ‘we’, particularly in the Methods move, amounting to 33.9, 51.2, and 42.7 percent in the Pol, Psy, and Socio corpora, respectively, with little variation across the three disciplines. While the abstracts in political science contained a greater variety of research or discourse process verbs following ‘we’, those in psychology and sociology saw the dominant use of ‘examine (s/ed)’.

For the second most common self-mention, the inanimate subject ‘this + research noun’ was generally found in the P or merging P and M moves. One minor variation found across the three disciplines was that they seem to prefer different research nouns, ‘article’ or ‘study’, which were two of the top four shared nouns used in three soft science disciplines in Bondi (2014). While ‘this article’ was found to be most common in Pol and Socio corpora, ‘this study’ was the most frequently used in the Psy corpus. ‘This article’ and ‘this study’ were used to refer to a discourse unit. They were two common self-referential nouns referring to discourse, research, and cognitive units. A long list of self-referential nouns can be found in Bondi (2014), such as ‘model’, ‘theory’, ‘approach’ in Economics, ‘research’ in Linguistics, and ‘evidence’, ‘debate’ in History.

Overall, self-mentions were heavily used in the Purpose and Method moves, but were relatively rare in the Introduction and Conclusion moves. According to Hyland (2012), the use of self-mentions in the P and M moves reflected a fairly low degree of personal representation, while a stronger degree of self-presence was reflected through the self-mention in R moves. The results from this study correspond with Hyland’s (2012) conclusion on the use of self-mentions in students’ reports, observing that self-mentions are likely to be restricted to innocuous functions, such as stating purpose, and describing and explaining methodologies. The authors of abstracts in this study used a considerable number of self-mentions; however, these self-mentions were used for functions which involve a low-risk writer role. Their use of self-mentions took a low-profile representation of self or personal risks, with less implication of commitment to their own arguments, i.e. in I and C moves. In contrast to the general assumption that abstracts are objective and impersonal (Pho, 2008), this study suggests that authorial voice expressed through the use of self-mentions does exist in abstracts. On the other hand, the results contrast with previous findings asserting that expert writers typically project themselves in the body text of research articles, especially for presenting arguments or claims (Hyland, 2012). The results provide evidence that degrees of self-presence in abstracts are different from those of the body text of research articles. Writers might be more self-conscious and thus assume a lesser degree of self-presence in abstracts than in the body text of RAs.
The findings provide pedagogical implications for academic writing or research writing courses in particular. Pho (2008) pointed out that novice writers need to learn both the prototypical moves and organization of an abstract in their respective disciplines, and to realize each move linguistically. It is not sufficient to give overly rigid advice, such as abstracts in psychology, political science, and sociology need always be impersonal. There is room for writers to position themselves in abstracts through the use of self-mention, as the most explicit feature to express authorial voice. The results from this study suggest that ‘we’ present with a considerable proportion in the method move than other moves, and ‘this+research noun’ was commonly used to state research purpose. Therefore, novice writers should be informed of how can they use self-mentions in abstracts, and what types of self-mentions can be used for different functions. However, they can decide to assume different degrees of self-presence in different moves of abstracts, which is also different from the self-presence in the body text of research articles.

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Hegemony and Its Impacts on Identities and Diasporic Experiences in Amitav Ghosh’s *The Glass Palace*

Intharasuwan Punjanakkakorn
English Department, Humanities Faculty, Chiang Mai University, Chiang Mai 50200 Thailand
introrn.ep@gmail.com

Abstract
Drawing on Antonio Gramsci’s theory of hegemony and his conceptualization of ‘common sense’, ‘good sense’ and the ‘organic intellectual’, this paper offers a Gramscian reading of the *The Glass Palace* by Amitav Gosh, a prominent Indian author. Central to the exploration of the paper is the novel’s depiction of the impacts of British colonization in India and Burma as well as the plights of the Indian and Burmese diasporas. The investigation is set around outstanding characters whose lives are profoundly affected by colonization and its legacies. Some of these characters experience permanent displacement and are trapped in a state of forced exile, alienation, and humiliation. There are, however, characters who are able to reconstruct their identities through their diasporic experiences and successfully climb a social and economic ladder, or acquire greater freedom and autonomy for their lives. Also, this paper examines the interaction between a traditional form of indigenous hegemony and a more powerful hegemony established by British colonizers, and how dominant hegemonies exert their control over the consciousness, worldview, and behavior of the colonized. Furthermore, the paper draws attention to the fact that dominant hegemonies can be undermined and challenged and to the vital role of ‘organic intellectuals’ in initiating and organizing a counter-hegemonic force.

Keywords: hegemony, common sense, good sense, organic intellectual, postcolonial literature, diaspora studies

1. Introduction
According to Horvath (1972), colonialism is the exploitation operated through the utilization of imperial power over indigenous peoples, and western colonization of Asian countries was made possible through the form of “the westernizing regime through the reforms of economy and politics” over ‘backward’ societies (Brown, 2012). In other words, the notions of reform, progress, and civilization have been employed by the west as the justification to rule over non-western territories perceived by the west as lacking intellectual and scientific advances. This paper argues that Antonio Gramsci’s concept of hegemony is particularly helpful in understanding western powers’ domination of their colonies and subjects. Hegemony, defined as the domination of less powerful groups by a more powerful group through the combination of force and consent, helps shed light on the power relations between the colonizers and colonized, and how the latter’s identities and worldviews are affected by them. The concept of hegemony also explicates how a ruling group or colonizers are able to maintain their power and persuade those under their domination to internalize the ideologies promoted by the ruling group and retain their subordinate status. Furthermore, hegemony can be utilized as a means to investigate ‘dynamics and power distinction’ between different classes in a particular society. The upper classes, who strive to maintain their power and legitimacy, generally utilize military power and ideological as well as cultural means to govern people and make them adhere to their policies and economic and societal rules (Fontana, 2008).
2. Literature Review

2.1 Synopsis of *The Glass Palace*
Published in 2000, Amitav Ghosh’s novel, *The Glass Palace*, is mainly set in Burma and India, and revolves around the lives of three generations living under the control of the British colonizers. The novel can be seen as a historical novel, as it mirrors the realistic social, political and historical contexts of Burma and India. The narrative begins in Mandalay at the end of the nineteenth century in November, 1885, when Burmese King Thibaw’s Konbaung Dynasty was overthrown by British colonization, forcing the Burmese royal family and their servants into exile in Ratnagiri, India. The novel is divided into several parts that focus on the trajectories of various characters. The lives of the exiled royal family are narrated in the first part, and the story of Rajakumar’s success in Burma is in the second section. The latter part narrates the stories of the younger generations. In brief, the whole novel deals with the unequal power relations between the colonizers and the colonized and the struggle of the colonized to reconstruct their identities and improve their livelihoods as well as to fight against the colonial oppression and indoctrination. The first part of the story is narrated from the point of view of one of the protagonists, Rajakumar, an 11-yearold Indian orphan forced to find a job in Myanmar to earn his living. Rajakumar was enamored with Dolly, an exquisitely beautiful 10-year-old girl, who worked as a nursemaid for the Burmese royal family. Later, Dolly left Burma for India with the exiled royal family. Years later, Rajakumar became rich and successful after getting involved in the teak industry in Burma. As he was still in love with Dolly, he took a journey to India to look for her and eventually married her.

3. Methodology
In this study, Antonio Gramsci’s theory of hegemony and theoretical concepts related to diaspora identities and experiences are employed as theoretical frameworks to investigate the devastating impacts and tragic consequences of colonialism on the colonized. The theory of hegemony is particularly helpful in examining how dominant groups exert power and control over other less powerful groups, and how the identities and experiences of the latter are affected. Drawing on key concepts in diaspora studies, this research also seeks to explore how the colonized struggle to reconstruct their identity and improve their livelihoods.

3.1 Gramsci’s Concept of Hegemony
Gramsci’s theory of hegemony is considered one of the most important theoretical concepts, and it is highly applicable to the analysis of Western colonizers’ exercise of power over non-western societies. Hegemony can serve as a useful investigating apparatus for the readers of postcolonial literature as it helps explicate the use of power in a particular social phenomenon and epoch. In postcolonial literary studies, the concept of hegemony enables readers to gain a better understanding of the power relations between the colonizers and colonized and how the latter’s identities and worldviews are affected by them. According to Antonio Gramsci, the renowned Italian Marxist thinker, hegemony is defined as the domination of the rulers over the ruled through the combination of force and consent (Ahmadi, 2014). The term hegemony became popular in 1930s and it was used to explain how a ruling group in a particular society controls the whole society (Ashcroft et al., 2007). Hegemony can be utilized as a means to investigate ‘dynamics and power distinction’ between different classes in a particular society (Fontana, 2008). In order to maintain their power and legitimacy, the ruling classes utilize military power and ideological as well as cultural means to govern people and make them adhere to their policies and economic and societal rules. (Fontana, 2008). Intellectuals can be recruited to assist the ruling classes in their hegemonic project. Ashcroft and et al. (2007)
content that the interests of the ruling class are made to be perceived as the benefits of all people; as a result, the worldviews of the ruling classes are made universal to all subjects, who perceive them as sharing common ground with their daily lives, or, as Crehan (2011) terms, the ‘taking-for-granted’ process. Lull (1995) proposes that hegemony entails the acceptance by people to be under the control of “principles, rules and laws” that meet only the needs and interests of the upper classes. Subordinated people are misguided to cling on to the invented misleading consciousness as if they are universal social values and a life guidance contrived within groups of the sovereign classes. Landy (as cited in Martin, 2002), concludes that the “indirect power”—hegemony—is practiced through “civil institutions” and Gramsci emphasizes that traditional intellectuals play an important role in the “power legitimation”.

Unlike an oppressive domination in which force is employed as a major apparatus in ruling, hegemony deals with a discursive utilization of power by means of persuasion through established ideas, beliefs and universal concepts, or ‘common sense’. Fontana (2008) concludes that hegemony, to Gramsci, is defined as “the supremacy of one group or class over other classes or groups”; hegemony brings about the supremacy in a society with the use of consent rather than force. It can be said that consent and persuasion are the results of the intellectuals’ operation (Fontana, 2008). The intellectuals use their privileged position to legitimate ideologies and world views to control the subordinate classes, or the subaltern groups, and aim to cause passiveness among the ruled. In addition, the dominant classes gain the capability of maintaining their power over the rest. In addition, Gramsci pays specific attention to the idea of common sense, especially how it is originated and performed as a mode of power achievement of the traditional intellectuals. Common sense, according to Gramsci, refers to incoherent, fragmented worldviews or values widely, though passively, accepted or internalized by members of the subaltern classes (Howson and Smith, 2008). Howson and Smith (2008) remark that common sense can be considered part of “the traditional world view” that deeply influences the everyday life of a particular subaltern social group. The majority of the population in society have internalized and assimilated what O’ Brien calls “accepted knowledge” or “ruling-class definitions of reality” without questioning (as cited in Paletta, 1990).

Nonetheless, Gramsci contends that, even though cultural hegemony can be established by powerful groups, in the long run, the subaltern classes are capable of weakening the powerful groups’ hegemony and becoming the leading group (Howson and Smith, 2008). With the assistance of “organic intellectuals” and cooperation among the subaltern classes, “common sense” can be transformed into a new common sense or new world view (Liguori, 2009). Therefore, to replace and eradicate ‘common sense’ and the hegemony of the ruling class, “organic intellectuals” play a crucial role. Organic intellectuals, in Gramsci’s view, are people from the subaltern classes who possess critical consciousness and the ability to help the subaltern classes to change their consciousness (as cited in Piss-ard, 2016). Organic intellectuals play a significant role in social reconstruction and the elevation of the ruled classes’ consciousness; in other words, they turn the ruled from being passive to active. In order to deconstruct the traditional common sense and the world governed by distorted ideology, organic intellectuals should generate what Gramsci calls “good sense” or the ability to make judgements and to have critical thought without relying on a fixed set worldview or perception of life (Paletta, 1990). Eventually, the new hegemony makes it possible for the subaltern groups to transform their status from being ruled to being the ones in control of their lives and destiny.

3.2 Diasporic Identities and Experiences of the Displaced
Colonialism was one of the root causes of displacement, bringing about predicaments upon diasporic people. Traced back to its origin, the term “diaspora”, as Avtar Brah (1996) asserts, is derived from the Greek word, speirein, which means “to scatter”; in addition, Ashcroft et al. (2007) proposes another meaning—“to disperse”. Brah (1996) further explicates that, unlike an ordinary journey, diasporas’ journeys are associated with “putting roots elsewhere”. According to Ashcroft et al. (2007), these displaced people are forced to leave their “homelands into new regions”, dealing with “the temporary or permanent migration and settlement”. Robin Cohen (2008), remarking about the attributes of the diasporas, expounds that:

diasporas, to some extent, have some shared-common traits: being dissipated from an original land to other alien territories, maintaining a “collective memory” pertaining to their homeland, being strangers and aliens in new foreign countries. They, in other words, perceive the feeling of being separated and isolated towards their existence in “host societies”. Moreover, their ancestral home is “idealized”; they are in search of their original land, seeking ways to return. Lastly, “ethnocommunal consciousness and unity” are common to and shared among the diasporas, for they have to relate their new life in foreign countries to their ancestral homeland (p. 6).

Since the inevitable dispersion took place, the dislocated people inevitably face an identity crisis and catastrophic experiences, caused by their existence in unfamiliar lands. Consequently, the diasporas have to encounter myriad dilemmas, especially a reconstruction of self-identities. Srivastava (2016) observes that they have to adjust themselves with the new environment, social order, strange languages and unknown food as they resettle in new countries. Displacement can bring about “cultural dilemmas and transformation of identities” among diasporas, creating new demands and perspectives (Rana, 2010). Self-adjustment in the new land could lead to identity crises that involve cultural dilemmas and the feeling of being uprooted. Manghlakshmi (2015) observes that the diasporas have to “negotiate two cultures”, the indigenous and new culture. He further asserts that, due to the clash of two cultures, “self-recognition, self-definition and self-realization” are regarded as the dilemmas among the diasporas. Their circumstances can be very complicated for they seem uprooted from the original homeland and might feel alienated living in a new country where they were forced to migrate to.

Diasporas are deeply affected by cultural denigration, leading to predicaments concerning their identities (Ashcroft et al., 2007). Academics also contends that displacement can result in “societal alienation” or dichotomy—such as what Brah (1996) describes as, “bipolar oppositions” or “social division”—master and slave; free and bounded or dominant and dominated. Members of dominant groups may impose undesirable identities on the displaced, resulting in feelings of inferiority in the mind of the displaced. They might feel that their sense of self, traditional beliefs and cultural values are devalued and belittled. The diasporas can be seen as marginalized minorities and oftentimes they have to encounter difficulties and miserable conditions due to their insecure existence in new countries (Cohen, 2011).

Nevertheless, diasporic existence and in-between positions in an adoptive country has some advantages. According to Homi K. Bhabha (1994), “migrants, living between two cultures and territories, reside in the borderlines” as their past is the original homeland while their present belongs to foreign countries. Bhabha (1994) also contends that dislocation somehow provides the dislocated new perspectives to see the world. Displacement, to some extent, allows the dislocated to learn and perceive the new and unfamiliar things of the new countries namely,
language, culture, norms and knowledge, and those things may enable them to construct new identities in new lands, as what Maira (2005) terms, a “culturally hybrid style”. Therefore, the dual-identity of the diasporas, inheriting from the ancestral home and acquiring from the experience of living in foreign countries, assists them in constructing new identities and forming cognitive and emotional bonds with the host people in the adoptive countries. They, eventually, may recover from the sense of exclusion and alienation.

4. Findings and Discussion

*The Glass Palace* offers a wealth of interesting representations for literary and cultural analysis in the fields of postcolonial, cultural and socio-political studies, as the novel foregrounds British colonization and its impacts on Burmese and Indian citizens as well as the clashes between an indigenous form of hegemony and the hegemony of the British colonial power. The novel also depicts how the worldviews of the colonized are influenced by common sense that renders them passive and submissive to hegemonic powers. Interestingly, however, it is also portrayed through some of the characters that common sense and dominant hegemonies can be challenged once individuals acquire critical consciousness that enables them to abandon negative aspects of common sense. Indeed, there are characters whose roles resemble those of organic intellectuals who help pave the way towards the formation of counter-hegemony or a more progressive form of hegemony that originates from the subaltern classes. Furthermore, the novel shows the hardships and traumatic situations facing those in the diaspora and how some of them are able to improve their economic and social positions despite numerous difficulties.

To illustrate, the two characters whose lives and experiences best exemplify colonial impacts, diasporic experiences and the clashes of indigenous and colonial hegemonies are the last king and the queen of the Thebaw dynasty. Before the British colonization of Burma, the dynasty had ruled the kingdom with absolute power for years by means of force and cultural hegemony. The royal family was considered the most powerful and respected family in the eyes of the Burmese. Their absolute power was symbolized through the design of the royal palace and the rules and codes of conduct imposed on ordinary citizens. The doorways of the royal palace are set low in order to force the servants to keep low and bend down as much as they can when they enter the palace. When people approach the king and queen in low knee-crawling postures, they are prohibited to have direct eye contact with the royal couple. These kinds of architectural designs and codes of conduct reflect the supreme power of the Burmese monarchy during the period before British colonization. The invasion by the British, however, brought about the end of the monarchy’s absolute rule over their subjects. In other words, the indigenous form of hegemony could not withstand the superior strength of the British colonizers and was replaced by colonial hegemony that forced the Thebaw royal family to give up its power and go into exile in India. Their diasporic experiences were deeply traumatic as they were marked by alienation, loneliness, and humiliation. In India, they had to live in a rundown building and their privileges and wealth were stripped from them. They were also deprived of freedom of movement and, due to their distinctive Burmese identity, they were unable to adjust themselves to a new country and its different customs and norms. Moreover, since the royal couple no longer occupied the hegemonic position, some of their servants and maids refused to serve them and no longer wanted to adhere to traditional rules and codes of conduct. This suggests that hegemonic power does not last and it can be overthrown or weakened by a more powerful force. The royal couple never recovered from their devastating loss and they made no attempt to find a sense of belonging in India. They eventually died in exile. Nonetheless, life in the diaspora was not the same for all the characters in the novel, as there are those who were able to utilize
diasporic experiences for their own advantage. A good example is Rajakumar, an Indian business man who spent many years living and working in Burma.

At the age of 11, Rajakumar, an Indian orphaned boy, took a boat journey from India to Burma to find a new life. Initially, the Indian boy experienced a lot of hardship as well as prejudice and bias. Burmese people discriminated against his Indian looks and they often looked down on him. Nonetheless, after some years in Burma, Rajakumar became fluent in Burmese and he began to see Burma as his homeland and forget past memories about his life in India. He was also able to acquire business and professional skills that eventually made him a successful and wealthy teak business owner. Thus, he managed to climb up the economic and social ladder and was considered by those around him as a powerful and influential business tycoon. His diasporic experiences were therefore markedly different from those of the Burmese king and queen, as he was not trapped or imprisoned by alienation and displacement but was capable of making a new country a new home and embracing the culture and language of that new country. However, what should be noted is that despite his business success, Rajakumar did not rise beyond the level of common sense, which, according to Gramsci, refers to the values disseminated and widely promoted by those in power as a means to subjugate members of the subaltern classes. Living in Burma during the time of British colonization, he submitted himself to the values and beliefs imposed on the colonized by the colonizers, particularly the ones that helped affirm British superiority and the legitimacy of colonial rule. This kind of worldview was crucial to his survival and professional success yet it made him too passive and subservient to those in power, who, in this case, were the British colonizers.

Rajakumar’s wife, Dolly, is another outstanding character who is influenced by common sense. When she was a child, Dolly was adopted by the Burmese queen who trained her to be loyal and devoted her life to serving the royal family. Dolly grew up with the view that her most important goal in life was to take care of the royal children and please the queen. This kind of view mirrors Gramsci’s notion of common sense since it originates from the interests of the ruling class and benefits them and they successfully make those under them accept such a view as natural and unquestionable. When the Burmese royal family went into exile in India, Dolly followed them there and remained their faithful servant. The experience of migration and relocation, however, started to change Dolly’s worldview and it gradually transforms her common sense into good sense, or the ability to make judgements and to have critical thought without relying on a fixed set of worldviews or perceptions of life. After years of faithfully serving the Burmese royal family in India, Dolly realized that staying with them would ultimately lead to her own psychological and spiritual death and decided to accept Rajakumar’s marriage proposal and took a journey to Burma with him. Her decision to free herself from servitude in order to start a new life suggests that the common sense instilled in her through the indigenous hegemonic power of the Burmese monarchy had undergone significant transformation. She gained critical consciousness with regard to her life and eventually made an important decision based on her newly gained good sense rather than common sense. What happened to Dolly can also be seen as the indirect outcome of the clashes between indigenous hegemony and a more powerful colonial hegemony that drastically affected the lives of the colonized, particularly those who were displaced or forced to live in exile.

While Dolly’s good sense was limited to an individual quest for freedom and agency, the characterization of Uma, another important female character, reflects a different form of good sense that has a greater political impact on members of the subaltern classes as a whole. Arguably, Uma, an Indian woman who was Dolly and Rajakumar’s friend can be seen as an
‘organic intellectual’, someone who plays a vital role in educating members of the subaltern classes so as to transform their common sense into good sense. Uma was strongly against British colonization and she devoted herself to free her country from the grip of the British colonizers. She enrolled in an Indian political organization and actively participated in political activities that aimed to educate Indian people about the devastating effects of colonization and the subjugation to the common sense values promoted by the British. In other words, she was passionate about formulating a new hegemony of the colonized that would defeat the British colonial hegemony.

Another character whose role resembles that of Uma is Dinu, a young Indian man who served in the British army. Even though Dinu was trained by the British, his association with knowledgeable people and experience of being a colonized Indian living in British India enabled him to develop the good sense that critiqued and challenged British hegemony. He also attempted to educate his friends about the threats of the dominant hegemony while others still held on to a colonial mindset or the common sense advocated by the British colonizers. Dinu believed that common sense served the British well as it promoted passivity, causing the colonized to become subjugated and inferior. Accordingly, Dinu can be regarded as another good example of an ‘organic intellectual’, for he wanted to cultivate anti-colonial sentiment or good sense among his colleagues and other subaltern members. In addition, similarly to Uma, Dinu actively participated in the political sphere. He always joined public discussions about political issues and tried to educate members of the subaltern classes about the devastating impacts of colonial hegemony. Although Dinu was not an official member of a political organization, he worked tirelessly and selflessly to free the colonized from the yoke of colonialism.

5. Conclusion
The Glass Place depicts various forms of the impacts of British colonization on the colonized. One of the most important impacts is the loss of homelands among the colonized who are forced to migrate to another country. Colonization also leads to the movement of people into the diasporas for a number of different reasons. Living in the diasporas can be a traumatizing experience for some while others manage to find a sense of belonging and attain economic success. Applying Antonio Gramsci’s concept of hegemony to the analysis of the relationship between the colonizers and the colonized as represented in the novel helps shed light on the way the colonizers maintain their power and domination through force and consent. Furthermore, Gramsci’s conceptualization of common sense and good sense offers insights into the worldviews and beliefs of the colonized that can either subjugate them or urge them to fight against the dominant hegemonies that oppress them. Significantly, some of the important characters are portrayed as performing the role of organic intellectuals who attempt to help others to rise beyond the level of common sense so as to pave the way towards counter-hegemony or the formation of a progressive hegemony.

References


Exploring Manipulation Strategies Used by Truth-Tellers and Deceivers in Thai Online Chat

Montarat Rungruangthum
Faculty of Liberal Arts, Rajamangala University of Technology Phra Nakhon
Thailand
linguistmona@yahoo.com

Abstract
Previous studies on deception detection have investigated identifiable patterns and manipulation strategies to fight against online crimes. As most studies derived from western contexts have centered on English, these findings might not be applied to Thai. This paper, therefore, aims to find out the manipulation strategies used by truth-tellers and deceivers in Thai online chat, and the naïve partners’ attitudes towards language use when being paired up with truth-tellers and deceivers. The experimental study was conducted in a controlled computer laboratory in a Thai state university. The participants were randomly divided into chatters and naïve partners. They were asked to engage in two 10-minute chat sessions. The chatters were instructed to be either truth-tellers providing only truthful information or deceivers convincing chat partners that they were someone else. In other words, they were required to switch their roles either as truth-tellers or deceivers between two 10-minute chat sessions. For naïve partners, they were informed that they would engage with two chat sessions with unknown chat partners twice. The results show that deceivers used three manipulation strategies (clarity, relevance, image and relationship protecting behaviour) more frequently than truth-tellers in Thai online chat. The majority of naïve partners’ responses were not aware of language use when being paired with truth-tellers or deceivers in Thai online chat. These findings may usefully be applied in automated deception detection tools for Thai language.

Keywords: Manipulation Strategies, Thai language, Online Communication

1. Introduction
The rapid growth of technology not only provides a new communication channel but also open up new possibilities of online crimes such as sexual harassment, phishing for information, stealing identities, and other online deceits (Johnson, 1997). The rise in online crimes causes a serious concern at the international level, for example, the 2017 findings from the U.S. Federal Bureau of Investigation show that the total amount of financial losses from online crimes have risen $1.4 billion (Internet Crime Complaints Center, 2018). This situation has raised a serious concern for all internet users, including those in Thailand where the number of internet users has gone up from 17,771,629 to 29,078,158 in the last five years (Information Internet Research, 2017).

Considering cybercrimes in Thailand, most cases are related to romance scams and fraud investments, that is, the victims were lured to transfer money to romance scammers and financial schemes. For example, two Thai women had been swindled to marry a general from the Canadian Army and lost 16 million baht (Fernquest, 2014). Some internet users, in other words, fall for online deception which can be defined as a message knowingly transmitted by a sender to create a false belief or conclusion (Buller & Burgoon, 1996). In many cases, the
online deception is in the form of text communication, particularly on social media and chat programs so it is very difficult to prevent online communication because of the lack of physical cues.

The situation has led to initiatives in Social Psychology and Information Technology to develop a new defensive approach by identifying language features associated with these crimes, such as the linguistic features of deception (e.g., Burgoon, Blair, Qin, & Nunamaker, 2003), and manipulation strategies such as how deceivers manipulate information when telling lies in online communication (e.g., Zhou et al., 2004), believing that verbal language can reflect the speakers’ emotion and inner feelings (Ochs & Schiefflin, 1989). When speakers tell lies either in face-to-face or online communication, they leak verbal and nonverbal clues unconsciously because of their anxiety and fear (Buller & Burgoon, 1996).

Previous research into deception detection was done based on the above assumptions by comparing the differences in language use between truth-tellers and deceivers from Desert Survival Problem (DSP)—asking participants as deceivers to give opinions different from what they really thought as a high-ranking desert survival item in online communication (see Zhou, 2005). The findings from previous studies (e.g., Hancock, Curry, Goorha, & Woodworth, 2005) report that deceivers produce more words and turn-taking than truth-tellers so as to achieve their deceptive goals and to lessen suspicion from their chat partners in online communication (associated with manipulating image and relationship protecting behaviour). They also produce fewer self-references to distance themselves from online conversation (relevant to the strategy of dissociation). These features derived from English were developed as linguistic-based cues for deception detection with two objectives, to establish automated deception detection programs, for example, Agent 99 Analyzer (see Humpherys, Moffitt, Burns, Burgoon, & Felix, 2011), and to verify the reliability and validity of deception detection in online communication.

As there has been little information available on associated features of manipulation strateigies in Thai online chat, researching this topic seems to be promising. It is still questionable whether the investigated features and manipulation strategies found in English could be applied to Thai. In prior studies, the attitudes of chat partners paired up with truth-tellers and deceivers were frequently neglected though it may provide a gist of information on individual’s awareness of being deceived when engaging in online communication. This paper, therefore, aims to find out two research questions as follows:

1. What manipulation strategies are used by truth-tellers and deceivers in Thai online chat?

2. What are naïve partners’ attitudes towards language use when being paired with truth-tellers and deceivers in Thai online chat?

2. Online Deception

A wide range of deception is part of social conversation and can be seen as a common phenomenon in everyday life (DePaulo, Kashy, Kirkendol, Wyer, & Epstein, 1996). Some studies report that people on average tell lies a few times a day. They normally deceive one another about all sorts of matters from the trivial, such as opinions about appearance, to the more serious, such as police interrogations and court testimony (Hancock, 2007). Deception in most previous research has centered on face-to-face communication, focusing on what kind of behaviors and language patterns deceivers perform frequently compared to a person providing
the truth. However, with the advancement of information technology, the internet offers new possibilities for deception and has become a severe issue. Recent incidents such as cyber-attacks and the emergence of new communication technologies have led to an increased emphasis on the capability to detect deception so as to prevent internet users from becoming victims (Driskell, Salas, & Driskell, 2012). As a consequence, the latest research on detection deception has shifted its focus from face-to-face to online communication.

Considering the context of online deception, for example, Instant Messaging (IM), communication is in the form of text-based messages. The opportunity for online deception to be discovered is low due to the fact that other observable indicators relevant to deception such as gestures, body movement, facial expressions, and eye contact are not available. Researchers and practitioners in detecting deception (Burgoon, Buller, & Floyd, 2001) have proposed to use language (for example, negators – relevant to feelings of anxiety or guilt when telling lies) as cues to deception and strategies used by deceivers when telling lies in online communication.

3. Interpersonal Deception Theory and Manipulation Strategies
In addition to understanding the deceivers’ strategies and how they manipulate information when engaging in online communication, it is necessary to understand identifiable patterns so as to display the strategies that they use for telling lies. This idea, also known as Interpersonal Deception Theory (IDT), was first introduced in the field of Communication and Social Psychology.

IDT has become the leading theory used in deception detection research since 2003, investigating how deceivers manipulate information, for example, the content of the messages and their images when engaging in online communication. This has led to the investigation of identifiable patterns in language use between truth-tellers and deceivers in online communication (Zhou, 2005). This theory was originally proposed by Buller and Burgoon (1996) to explain deception and its detection in interpersonal contexts from the perspective of Communication Theory. Therefore, IDT views deception as an interaction process between senders and receivers hypothesizing that deceivers need to manage information (the strategy of manipulation of content messages), behavior (the strategy of suppressing any signals of telling lies to appear normal) and image (the strategy of maintain credibility) (Burgoon 2009).

Interpersonal Deception Theory has influenced the latest studies on deception detection, and provides a fundamental understanding of verbal cues in face-to-face and online communication because deceivers may change strategies of manipulating information based on how their partners interact with their messages. In terms of analyzing manipulation strategies, previous studies investigated language use or linguistic features relevant to deceivers’ manipulation strategies when engaging in online communication. For example, deceivers manipulate content strategy by using modal verbs and hedge to provide indirect answers with vague details.

Table 1 summarizes six manipulation strategies, associated features found in English, and investigated features in Thai (adapted from Zhou et al., 2004). To apply these features to other languages like Thai, some features could be applied to Thai very straightforwardly such as the total number of sent messages, and total number of spontaneous corrections. Other features (e.g., total number of words and modal verbs) required preparation before getting frequency count and categorizing manipulation strategies used by deceivers and truth-tellers in Thai online chat.
Table 1 A summary of manipulation strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Manipulation Strategies</th>
<th>Features found in English</th>
<th>Investigated Features in Thai</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Quality – deceivers with high cognitive load may produce compound and complex sentences less frequently than truth-tellers in online communication.</td>
<td>- Sentence types</td>
<td>- Sentence types</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Sentence complexity</td>
<td>- Sentence complexity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Quantity – deceivers may produce fewer words and talk less than truth-tellers in online communication because deceivers’ brains generate untruthful information.</td>
<td>- Total no. of words</td>
<td>- Total no. of words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Total no. of sent messages</td>
<td>- Total no. of sent messages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thai words were segmented before getting frequency count</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Clarity – deceivers use modal verbs to display uncertain feelings. They also use sensual verbs (e.g., hear, touch) less frequently than truth-tellers because of lacking actual experiences.</td>
<td>- Total no. of sensual verbs</td>
<td>- Total no. of stative verbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Total no. of modal verbs</td>
<td>- Total no. of modal verbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Total no. of demonstratives</td>
<td>- Total no. of demonstratives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Relevance – deceivers may provide irrelevant details, and they may also be syntactically indirect.</td>
<td>- Indirect form of polite speech</td>
<td>- Total no. of particles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Opening new topics</td>
<td>- Opening new topics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Depersonalization – deceivers try to dissociate themselves from online conversation by producing fewer 1st self-references and using more passive sentences.</td>
<td>- The use of first self-references</td>
<td>- The use of self-references in Thai.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>There are many ways to used self-references in Thai (for example kin term) (Iwasaki &amp; Ingkaphirom, 2005)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Image and relationship protecting behavior – Deceivers pretend to be calm and sincere, however, they make more mistakes and leak negative feeling more often than truth-tellers in online communication.</td>
<td>- Total no. of negators</td>
<td>- Total no. of negators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- Total no. of spontaneous correction</td>
<td>- Total no. of spontaneous correction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Research Methodology

4.1 Participants

Participants in this study were 96 undergraduate students, Thai native speakers, whose age ranged from 18 to 23 and they are representative of the most frequent internet users in Thailand according to the National Electronics and Computer Technology Center’s report (2010). These participants were divided into two groups chatters (21 males and 27 females) and naïve partners (25 males and 23 females). Chatters, in this study, refers to participants taking a role of either
truth-tellers providing only truthful information or deceivers trying to convince their chat partners (naïve partners) that they were someone else while engaging in Thai online chat. For chatters, they were assigned to engage in two chat sessions in Thai online chat without knowing the true objective of the study.

4.2 Task and Settings
The experimental study was designed to mirror real-world situations where the chatters encountered unknown chat partners for the first time, and were also piloted before the data collection in this study (see Rungruangthum 2017; Rungruangthum & Watson Todd, 2017).

The data collection was done in a computer laboratory in a Thai state university. All participants were led to remote computer terminals where they were informed that they would engage in online conversation with unknown chat partners on Instant Messaging twice and completed a consent form. The pseudonyms and instructions were given in the consent form.

These participants were randomly divided into two groups: chatters and naïve partners. The chatters were informed about the objective of the study, that is, to examine manipulation strategies by comparing language differences between truth-tellers and deceivers in Thai online chat. So, participants as chatters were required to switch their roles either as truth-tellers or deceivers in two 10-minute chat sessions. Before starting the experiment, the chatters prepared themselves for five minutes to generate truthful or untruthful information. Participants as truth-tellers were instructed to provide only truthful information when having an online conversation. Participants as deceivers were instructed to convince naïve partners that they were someone else in online conversation. For naïve partners, they were informed that they would participate in two chat sessions with unknown partners (either with truth-tellers or deceivers in one of the 10-minute chat sessions) so as to examine the attitudes towards the language use in Thai online chat.

At the end of each chat session, the naïve partners were asked to complete the questionnaire adapted from Galanxhi and Nah (2007) reporting their attitudes when being paired with truth-tellers or deceivers in online communication. The truth-tellers’ and deceivers’ chat dialogues were automatically recorded on the server. The data collection lasted for 30 to 35 minutes. The true objective of the study was identifying manipulation strategies between truth-tellers and deceivers by analyzing language use which was revealed after all participants finished the task. The naïve partners were allowed to withdraw from the study if they wished.

4.3 Data Analysis
The data in this study examining manipulation strategies in Thai online chat were mainly divided into two sets. The first set of data involves the investigated features in order to see what strategies deceivers used when engaging in online communication. The data were segmented, tagged for parts-of-speech, and analyzed by using Simple Concordance Program (Reed, 2002). From this, the 96 chat dialogues contained 25,479 words, and 7,720 turns, giving 3.00 words per turn. Some features with no sub-categories (e.g., total number of sent messages) were analyzed by using percentage differences. An arbitrary cut point of fifteen percent was set to be interpreted as showing a difference between truth-tellers and deceivers in Thai online chat. Other features with sub-categories (e.g., particles) were analyzed by using a chi-test to examine whether there were any statistically significant differences in the use of features between truth-tellers and deceivers in Thai online chat.
The other set of data obtained from naïve partners compared what their attitudes were towards the language used when they were paired up with either truth-tellers or deceivers in Thai online chat. Their responses were also calculated by a chi square test to distinguish whether there were any statistically significant differences in positive and negative attitudes (combining the five questions together) when naïve partners were paired up with truth-tellers and deceivers in Thai online chat.

5. Findings and Discussion

The findings, as can be seen in Table 2, show significant differences in modal verbs, demonstratives, particles, opening new topics, spontaneous correction, and self-reference types between truth-tellers and deceivers in Thai online chat, indicating that deceivers in this study used three strategies including clarity, relevance, as well as image and relationship protecting behaviors when telling lies in online communication. However, most features found in English could not be applied to Thai, for example, deceivers used first self-references and particles more frequently than truth-tellers because they swapped their gender when engaging in online conversation, suggesting that they had manipulated their identity when convincing people that they were someone else in Thai online chat.

Table 2 Deceivers’ manipulation strategies in Thai online chat

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quality</th>
<th>Deceivers</th>
<th>Truth-Tellers</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>X^2</th>
<th>P-Value</th>
<th>Percentage Differences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sentence types</td>
<td>961</td>
<td>1009</td>
<td>1970</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.05</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence complexity</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quantity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total no. of Words</td>
<td>6518</td>
<td>6378</td>
<td>12896</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>2.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total no. of sent messages</td>
<td>1987</td>
<td>1998</td>
<td>3985</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>-.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clarity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total no. of verbs</td>
<td>1007</td>
<td>1008</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrative</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>19.48*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modal verbs</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.92</td>
<td>00**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relavance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total no. of particles opening new topics</td>
<td>740</td>
<td>635</td>
<td>1375</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37.53</td>
<td>.00**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depersonalization</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-reference Types</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>-1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Image &amp; relationship protecting behavior</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>17.24*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a noticeable percentage difference between truth-tellers and deceives.

**a statistically significant difference between truth-tellers and deceivers at .01 level (p < .01).
For the naïve partners’ questionnaires there was a five-part Likert scale, the left item referred to positive feelings, while the right item could be defined as negative feelings of language use by their chat partners in the two chat sessions. The most common responses were feeling uncertain about whether their chat partners were being truthful or untruthful in Thai online chat. A possible reason for these findings is that the ability to detect deception is no more accurate than chance (e.g., Ekman & O'Sullivan, 1991). When combining all of the responses for the left and right items for each of truth-tellers and deceivers, the findings, as can be seen in Table 3, show statistically significant differences in naïve partners’ attitudes for truth-tellers and deceivers in Thai online chat at a significance level of .05 ($p > .05$), indicating that the naïve partners expressed left-item attitudes (positive) for truth-tellers in 101 cases, and right-item attitudes (negative) for deceivers in 68 cases. It is possible that some naïve partners may have been aware of the language use by their chat partners.

**Table 3** Naïve partners’ attitudes towards truthful and deceptive conversations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Naïve partners’ attitudes towards</th>
<th>Deceivers</th>
<th>Truth-tellers</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>$df$</th>
<th>$X^2$</th>
<th>$P$-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strong feeling for left item</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak feeling for left item</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>116</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided or uncertain</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10.98</td>
<td>* .026</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Weak feeling for right item</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>94</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong feeling for right item</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>243</td>
<td>240</td>
<td>483</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Conclusion

This study examined manipulation strategies by comparing language differences between truth-tellers and deceivers in Thai online chat. However, there are three methodological limitations to this study.

First, this work solely focuses on quantitative analysis and lacks in-depth analysis for analysing manipulation strategies. If qualitative analysis has been conducted, it would shed light on how deceivers manipulate information when telling lies in online communication.

Second, the task was conducted using an initial encounter between two unknown chat partners so it is unclear whether these findings can be comparable to previous findings with different task types (e.g., mock crimes and desert survival problems). The investigated features used in this study were derived from English so there might be other features specific to Thai which could be used to identify manipulation strategies in Thai online chat.

Third, the data obtained from truth-tellers and deceivers were treated as a single source where the individual differences are hidden.

The findings of the study, however, show some differences in the language use associated with three manipulation strategies (clarity, relevance, and image relationship protecting behaviour), which have not been previously reported in the Thai context. These manipulation strategies may be usefully applied in the field of Natural Language Processing to establish deception detection programs and highlight the need to supplement the investigations of deception detection in English with investigations of other languages, especially in the Asian context.
7. Acknowledgements
This paper presents partial findings of my dissertation investigating deception in Thai online chat, supported by grant fund under the program Strategic Scholarships for Frontier Research Network for the Ph.D. Program Thai Doctoral degree, Office of the Higher Education Commission, Thailand.

References


Perceived Pedagogical Knowledge of Non-Thai Teachers Teaching English at Thai Schools

Maneewan Sangprawet¹ and Asst. Prof. Pamararat Wiriyakarun, Ph. D.²
King Mongkut’s University of Technology Thonburi
Thailand
¹maneewan.sang@gmail.co; ²pamararat.wir@kmutt.ac.th

Abstract
This study was conducted to investigate the perceived pedagogical knowledge of non-Thai teachers teaching English at Thai schools. Participants were 30 non-Thai teachers teaching at Thai public schools. The instrument used was a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire on the teachers’ pedagogical knowledge which included five main subscales: knowledge of the communicative language learning theory, knowledge of skills and teaching techniques, knowledge of classroom management, knowledge of curriculum and knowledge of assessment. Descriptive statistics was used to describe the perceived pedagogical knowledge of the non-Thai teachers. The findings revealed that the perceived pedagogical knowledge of most non-Thai teachers was at a high level; however, they might need to be trained more in terms of knowledge of assessment. It was also found that knowledge of teaching and teaching experience were the most important factors that influenced their beliefs as well as quality of teaching.

Keywords: Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)/ English Teaching Problems/Non-Thai Teachers/ Teachers’ Pedagogical Knowledge

1. Introduction
Pedagogical knowledge or knowledge of teaching is an art and science focusing on the relationship between learning and teaching which are not separated from each other (Van Manen; 1999 cited in Loughran, 2006). In addition, pedagogical knowledge has been defined clearly as the ability of the teacher to transform content to the learners that distinguishes the teacher from the expert (Shulman, 1986). Thus, it could be said that pedagogical knowledge is very important and, therefore, is a part of the teacher’s required qualifications.

Pedagogical knowledge has been presented as the model of teacher knowledge and has been categorized into two main parts: general pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986, 1987; Grossman, 1990). General pedagogical knowledge has been introduced as the basic knowledge of teaching including the educational purposes, the method of teaching and learning (techniques or methods) and the strategies for assessing the students’ knowledge (Shulman 1986;1987: as cited in Fernandez, 2014). Meanwhile, the pedagogical content knowledge is an understanding of what makes the learning of specific concepts easy or difficult by integrating the pedagogical knowledge and subject matter knowledge to comprise the pedagogical content knowledge (Shulman, 1986).

Nowadays, a great number of non-Thai teachers are employed to teach English at some Thai public schools with a policy to hire non-Thai teachers to teach English at their schools in order to promote the quality of schools and internationalization. Meanwhile, most Thai students studying English in private schools in Thailand also expect their teachers to be a native speaker
of English (Avasadanond 2005, cited in Weawong 2007). Moreover, most Thai parents also believe that studying English with teachers who do not speak Thai could help their children learn English more naturally and effectively.

However, there are still a lot of problems concerning employing non-Thai English teachers to teach English at Thai schools. For example, the quality or the certification of teaching English of non-Thai teachers is not controlled by the Thailand Ministry of Education. Also, there has been increasing number of backpackers who apply for teaching positions to stay longer in Thailand leading to questions about their pedagogical knowledge. In addition, Bancha (2010) studied the problems in teaching and learning English at the Faculty of International Studies, Prince of Songkla University in Phuket, and he found that teachers (both Thais and non-Thais) did not have sufficient knowledge about teaching techniques and that insufficiency hindered students’ understanding, resulting in problems in students’ learning. Similarly, concerning the teachers’ assessment, the data suggested that the teachers were not satisfied with the tests and assessment used to evaluate the students’ performance of learning English.

Based on the problems mentioned, it can be assumed that those teachers might lack pedagogical knowledge that does affect student learning. Therefore, to prove this assumption, this study was conducted with the aims to answer the research question: “How much do non-Thai English teachers perceive their pedagogical knowledge in English language teaching?”

2. Literature Review
This section mainly reviews the important literature related to the pedagogical knowledge of language teachers. Regarding to Shulman (1986; 1987) who firstly introduced the idea about the teacher knowledge’ component in different four dimensions: subject matter content knowledge, pedagogical content knowledge, curricular knowledge, and the knowledge of social and contextual dimension. The model of teachers’ knowledge presented by Shulman (1986; 1987) was later followed by many researchers but using the different terms. Grossman (1990) has clearly systematized the concepts of general pedagogical knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. General pedagogical knowledge includes the knowledge of learner and learning, classroom management, curriculum and instruction and others. Meanwhile, pedagogical content knowledge consists of knowledge of students’ understanding, curricular knowledge, and knowledge of instructional strategies. In addition, the conceptual framework modified by Shulman (1986;1987) and Grossman (1990) has been widely used as the source of the inquiry relevant to many current studies. For instance, a study conducted by Akbari, M., Ghafar, S, and Kiany, G. R, 2013 demonstrated the nature of language teacher educators’ pedagogical knowledge by identifying its constituent categories. The finding showed that the teachers’ educator presented the pedagogical knowledge consisting of eight macro categories as follows:

1) knowledge of language related discipline
2) knowledge of ELT theories, skills and techniques
3) knowledge of context and social relations
4) knowledge of class, time and learning management
5) knowledge of research and professional development
6) knowledge of practicum
7) knowledge of teacher and their assessment
8) knowledge of reflective and critical teaching.
Regarding the study mentioned, the findings confirmed that pedagogical knowledge was regarded as the teachers’ source of knowledge in teaching English as a second language even though they presented their differences in terms of aspects and values. It was also suggested that the training program for language teacher educators can develop the teachers’ quality based on the eight macro categories presented. In addition, in order to perceive the pedagogical knowledge in language teaching, some researchers explained that teachers could draw pedagogical knowledge through their past experience (Devon Woods, D and Cakir, H., 2011).

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants
The subjects of this study were 30 teachers consisting of 18 males and 12 females with the average age ranging from 20–30 years old. They were non-Thai English teachers teaching English at different levels of Thai public schools: primary, secondary and high schools. There were 9 native-speaker teachers and 21 non-native speaker teachers: 5 Americans, 4 Britons, 9 Filipinos, 6 South Africans, 1 Ugandan, 1 Russian, 1 Brazilian, 1 Irish, 1 Hungarian and 1 Ghanaian. Two teachers worked in Bangkok and twenty-eight teachers worked in provincial areas and their teaching experience in Thailand ranged from 4 months to 15 years. About 29 participants held a Bachelor’s Degree and 1 held a Master’s degree in majors related to education and non-education. There were 10 participants who held a major in English and education; whereas, there were 20 participants who held a non-education related degree. Regarding certificates in teaching, there were 11 participants who held a TEFL certificate, 5 held a TESOL certificate and 1 held a CELTA.

3.2 Research Instrument
The research instrument used in this study was the 5-Linkert Scale questionnaire modified from Grossman (1990) and Akbari, M., Ghafar, S, and Kiany, G. R, (2013). To design the questionnaire appropriately to serve the Thai schools context, some categories of the teacher educators’ pedagogical knowledge were ignored and three main categories were focused instead 1) knowledge of ELT theories, skills and techniques; (2) knowledge of class, time and learning management; and (3) knowledge of teachers and their assessment. Apart from that, the teachers’ model presented by Grossman (1990) showed that the knowledge of curriculum played an important role as one part of the teachers’ general pedagogical knowledge and pedagogic content knowledge. Because the curriculum used in Thai schools is controlled by the basic education curriculum core of 2008 (Samudvanijja, 2008), the questionnaire designed included the knowledge of curriculum. Moreover, since Thai schools emphasize the communicative language teaching theory or the learner-centered approach, all statements provided in the questionnaire were then related to the communicative language teaching theory.

All in all, the questionnaire was divided into two main parts; part I was concerned with personal information and part II was about pedagogical knowledge consisting of 30 statements focusing on five main areas of pedagogical knowledge: (1) knowledge of communicative language teaching method, (2) knowledge of teaching skills and techniques, (3) knowledge of classroom management, (4) knowledge of curriculum, and (5) knowledge of assessment. The participants were asked to rate their perceived pedagogical knowledge according to the 30 statements which were divided into two sections. Items 1-10 were related to knowledge of communicative language teaching method. Items 11- 30 were about other areas of teachers’ pedagogical knowledge — knowledge of teaching skills and techniques (7 items), knowledge of classroom
management (5 items), knowledge of curriculum (3 items), and knowledge of assessment (5 items).

3.3 Research Procedures
There were three main stages: preparation, data collection, and data analysis. Ten non-Thai teachers who are employed by government schools in Bangkok participated as the subjects in the pilot study and the SPSS program was utilized to estimate the reliability coefficient of the questionnaire which was reported as 0.80. After that, the revised version of the questionnaire was distributed to 30 participants who taught English in Thai government schools: 2 non-Thai English teachers from Bangkok and 28 non-Thai English teachers from provincial areas.

3.4 Data Analysis
The results of the study were analyzed quantitatively by using descriptive statistics for three sections: 1) the perceived pedagogical knowledge of non-Thai teachers for each statement, 2) the measurement of the perceived pedagogical knowledge of non-Thai teachers in 5 subscales, and 3) the levels of perceived pedagogical knowledge of non-Thai teachers. The data was divided into three main sections interpreted by using the criteria as below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean score ($\bar{x}$)</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Items 1-10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.21 – 5.00</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.42 – 4.20</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.61 – 3.40</td>
<td>Neither agree or disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.81 – 2.60</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00 – 1.80</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For Section 1, regarding each statement in both groups, the data were interpreted by using this criterion. Also, items 1 – 10 were related to the knowledge of communicative language teaching theory applied to investigate if non-Thai teachers understood the learner-centered approach used in the Thai context. In addition, items 11 – 30 were related to the other subscales of teachers’ pedagogical knowledge and focused more on the actual teaching practice of non-Thai teachers in classrooms. This section aimed to see the overall picture of the perceived pedagogical knowledge of non-Thai teachers. For Section 2, the five main subscales, namely knowledge of communicative language teaching method, knowledge of teaching skills and techniques, knowledge of classroom management, knowledge of curriculum and knowledge of assessment, were also measured in order to see any differences among the five subscales. Each subscale was interpreted by using the criteria as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean score ($\bar{x}$)</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.21 – 5.00</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.41 – 4.20</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.61 – 3.40</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.81 – 2.60</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 – 1.80</td>
<td>Very low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For Section 3, regarding the overall score of pedagogical knowledge perceived by non-Thai teachers in five main subscales, the data were analyzed in order to see in-depth information of the teachers that influenced the shaping of their pedagogical knowledge. The data obtained were categorized in different levels by using the criteria as follows:
Score Ranged                                      Interpretation
126 – 150                                        Very high
102 – 125                                        High
78 – 101                                         Moderate
54 – 77                                          Low
30 – 53                                          Very low

4. Findings and Discussion
The research question was used to examine the pedagogical knowledge of non-Thai teachers in five main subscales: knowledge of communicative language teaching theory, knowledge of teaching skills and techniques, knowledge of classroom management, knowledge of curriculum and knowledge of assessment. The data obtained are expressed as follows.

Table 1 Mean scores and Standard Deviations of Perceived Pedagogical Knowledge of Non-Thai Teachers’ Teaching English at Thai Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Communicative Language Teaching Theory</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Language learning should be done through communication.</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of the classroom activities.</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Fluency is the most important dimension of communication.</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Communication involves the integration of different language skills.</td>
<td>4.34</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error.</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Speaking skill is more important than other language skills.</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>Neither Agree or Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Grammar should be corrected immediately during the speaking activities.</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>Neither Agree or Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Teachers should focus on communicative aspects of a language, rather than the rules.</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Functional syllabus organized around communicative functions, such as identifying, reporting, correcting, describing, and so forth, is the most appropriate approach to language learning.</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>When students are involved in real communication, their natural strategies for language acquisition will be used.</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Skills and Teaching Techniques</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I design a different kind of task appropriate to the needs and levels of the students.</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I design the activities that help promote students’ speaking ability.</td>
<td>4.43</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Items</td>
<td>Statements</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Interpretation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I use pair-work and group-work activities rather than individual ones.</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I use authentic tasks to promote students learning, e.g. writing a comment on Facebook.</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>Rarely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I use authentic materials such as video clips, songs, and newspapers to motivate students.</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I use authentic language and have the students do meaningful tasks using the target language.</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I allow the students to select the topics they want to learn or types of exercise they want to do.</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>Rarely</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### III. Classroom Management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I provided guidance for classroom activities.</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I join the students' activities as an independent participant, not as a teacher.</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I teach culture through the classroom activities.</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I provide information about the different sources of learning outside the class.</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I help students identify their own strengths and weaknesses in language learning.</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### IV. Curriculum

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I design lesson plans based on the learner-centered approach.</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>I take into account need analysis when I design my lesson.</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>I use a functional syllabus that is structured around language function, e.g. asking for information and giving direction.</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### V. Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>I use authentic assessment to assess students’ learning ability, e.g. describing a picture, writing a letter and doing a role play.</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>I assess student's performance by using real-world tasks, e.g. writing an e-mail, writing an e-card and telephoning.</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>I ask students to assess their own work.</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>I encourage students to do peer-assessment through many kinds of tasks.</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>I use self-assessment and peer-assessment more than teacher assessment.</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>Rarely</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 1, it can be seen that the first-highest mean score is item 18 (\(\bar{x} = 4.75, SD = 0.44\)) which belonged to the subscale of the knowledge of classroom management. The data presented that non-Thai teachers always provided guidance for classroom activities. The second-highest is item 5 (\(\bar{x} = 4.70, SD = 0.53\)) showing that non-Thai teachers strongly agreed that learning is the process of creative construction and involves trial and error. Moreover, they
also strongly agreed that language learning should be done through the communication presented in item 1 (\(\bar{x} = 4.63, \text{SD} = 0.49\)), considered to be the third-highest mean score. In addition, items 5 and 1 are related to the subscale of knowledge of communicative language teaching theory or learner-centered approach used in Thai schools. The fourth-highest mean score is item 11 (\(\bar{x} = 4.60, \text{SD} = 0.56\)) focusing on how teachers designed tasks based on the communicative language teaching theory related to the subscale of knowledge of skills and teaching techniques. The data showed that non-Thai teachers always designed different kinds of tasks appropriate to the needs and levels of the students. The fifth-highest mean score is item 12 (\(\bar{x} = 4.43, \text{SD} = 0.63\)) which is concerned with the subscales of teaching skills and techniques. It revealed that non-Thai teachers always designed activities that helped promote students’ speaking ability.

On the other hand, the significant lowest mean scores presented come from three items of two different subscales. The first-lowest mean score is item 30 (\(\bar{x} = 2.41, \text{SD} = 1.18\)), which is under the knowledge of assessment. Self-assessment, peer-assessment as well as teacher-assessment are important to assess the students’ performance of learning English; however, the communicative language learning approach, which focuses on self-assessment and peer-assessment more than teacher-assessment, is preferred. The second-lowest mean score are items 14 (\(\bar{x} = 2.57, \text{SD} = 1.22\)) and 17 (\(\bar{x} = 2.57, \text{SD} = 1.04\)) which have the same mean scores and belong to the same subscales of the knowledge of skills and teaching techniques. Item 14 is concerned with authentic tasks used in a classroom and the data presented that non-Thai teachers rarely used authentic tasks to promote students’ learning. Similarly, item 17 showed that non-Thai teachers rarely allowed students to select topics they wanted to learn or types of exercise they wanted to do.

Table 2 Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Perceived Pedagogical Knowledge of Non-Thai Teachers Teaching English at Thai Schools in Five Main Subscales.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ Pedagogical Knowledge Perceived</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of communicative language teaching theory</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of teaching skills and techniques</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of classroom management</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of curriculum</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge of assessment</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Teachers’ Pedagogical Knowledge</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in Table 2, the overall level of teachers’ pedagogical knowledge is considered to be high (\(\bar{x} = 3.79, \text{SD} = 0.24\)). Meanwhile, the findings are concerned with the four subscales of teachers’ pedagogical knowledge and also ranked at the high level: knowledge of communicative language teaching theory, knowledge of teaching skills and techniques, knowledge of classroom management, and knowledge of curriculum. The first-highest mean score is the knowledge of curriculum (\(M = 4.08, \text{SD} = 0.02\)). The second-highest mean score is the knowledge of classroom management (\(\bar{x} = 3.95, \text{SD} = 0.44\)). The third-highest mean score is the knowledge of communicative language teaching theory (\(\bar{x} = 3.89, \text{SD} = 0.67\)) and the fourth-highest mean score is the knowledge of teaching skills and techniques (\(\bar{x} = 3.65, \text{SD} = 0.76\)). However, the results showed that the knowledge of assessment with its lowest mean score (\(\bar{x} = 3.39, \text{MD} = 0.58\)) is ranked at a moderate level.
It can be concluded that the data confirm that the participants of this study perceived their pedagogical knowledge of teaching English to be quite high, especially in the four main subscales: knowledge of curriculum, knowledge of classroom management, knowledge of communicative language teaching theory, and knowledge of teaching skills and techniques. However, they might need to be trained more in terms of the knowledge of assessment. Furthermore, it can be interpreted that non-Thai teachers focused more on the classroom activities than on the ways to assess the students’ performance of learning English.

**Table 3 Levels of Perceived Pedagogical Knowledge of Non-Thai Teachers Teaching at Thai Schools**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score Range</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>126 – 150</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13.33</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>102 – 125</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>63.33</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>78 – 101</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23.33</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54 – 77</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 – 53</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Very Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 reveals that 4 non-Thai teachers (13.33%) categorized their pedagogical knowledge at the very high level. According to the data presented, there were 1 Filipino, 1 American, 1 South African and 1 Hungarian. Their average experience in teaching English was 2 years. Interestingly, the Filipino-English teacher whose perceived pedagogical knowledge is at the high level with the highest score of 136 was the only teacher in this group who did not hold a certificate in teaching and had only 4 months of teaching experience.

Meanwhile, it could be said that the majority of non-Thai teachers, 19 teachers (63.33%), perceived their pedagogical knowledge to be at the high level. They were both native and non-native speaker teachers — 2 Americans, 2 Britons, 8 Filipinos, 3 South Africans, 1 Ugandan, 1 Brazilian, 1 Irish, and 1 Ghanaian. Within this group, 10 non-Thai teachers did not hold a certificate in teaching and 9 non-Thai teachers held a certificate in teaching. In addition, the average teaching experience of the two groups was 6 years. Lastly, 7 non-Thai teachers (23.33%) were classified at the moderate level. They were 2 Americans, 2 Britons, 2 South Africans and 1 Russian. Their experience in teaching was 4 years on average. It could be said that having a teaching certificate was very important for non-Thai teachers teaching at Thai schools; however, the data showed that there were 5 non-Thai teachers holding a certificate in teaching who perceived their pedagogical knowledge at the moderate level and 2 non-Thai teachers who did not hold a certificate in teaching were also ranked in this group. So, it could be interpreted that even though a certificate in teaching was widely used to guarantee the quality in the teaching of non-Thai teachers, teaching experience might be another factor that affected their perceived pedagogical knowledge in language teaching.

5. Conclusion

This study aimed to find out the perceived pedagogical knowledge of non-Thai teachers teaching English at Thai schools and the results revealed that the non-Thai teachers perceived their pedagogical knowledge to be at a high level. Considering this important finding, the discussion will be divided into two main points: the factors affecting the perceived pedagogical knowledge of non-Thai teachers and the contradiction between some areas of the perceived pedagogical knowledge of non-Thai teachers.
Firstly, based on the factors affecting the non-Thai teachers’ pedagogical knowledge as perceived in each level, the findings showed that nationality, teachers’ education, teaching knowledge and teaching experience may have more or less impact on the perceived pedagogical knowledge of non-Thai teachers teaching at Thai schools.

Teachers’ education might be another factor affecting the perceived pedagogical knowledge of non-Thai teachers. There were 10 participants who held an education degree relating to English language teaching, and it was seen that 8 non-Thai teachers classified perceived pedagogical knowledge at the high level. Within this group, 5 also did not hold any certificate in teaching.

Teaching knowledge seems to be another important factor that affected the perceived pedagogical knowledge of non-Thai teachers. The findings clearly showed that the perceived knowledge of non-Thai teachers is influenced by certification in teaching especially for those who graduated with education degree and for those who did not graduate with an education degree. It is important to note that the information shows 9 non-Thai teachers from the high-level group held a certificate in teaching and they had only 3 years of teaching experience on average. It can be interpreted that having a certificate in teaching is still essential in shaping non-Thai teachers’ pedagogical knowledge.

To solve the problems about the quality of non-Thai teachers teaching English at Thai schools, it is suggested that the quality and standard of language teaching of those teachers should be defined and enforced by the Ministry of Education of Thailand. Besides, the data clearly showed that non-Thai teachers paid much more attention to classroom activities rather than assessment. For further research, as this study focuses on the perceived pedagogical knowledge of non-Thai teachers teaching at Thai schools and not their actual knowledge, a pedagogical knowledge test and a performance test might be more appropriate measures for examining their actual pedagogical knowledge.

References


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Effects of Creative Writing Instruction Using Drama Techniques on English Creative Writing Ability: A Case Study of Rajamangala University of Technology Krungthep

Wipada Sutthiroj  
Rajamangala University of Technology Krungthep  
Thailand  
wipada.sutthiroj@gmail.com

Abstract
It is difficult for students to achieve writing skill and even more difficult to come up with ideas to write. This research study aimed to study the effects of creative writing instruction using drama techniques on English creative writing ability of undergraduate students and to explore their opinions towards learning English through the instruction. Twelve undergraduate students were selected to participate in the study. The instruments were a pretest, a lesson plan, a posttest, and a semi-structured focus group interview. After a 5-week experiment, students' opinion towards creative writing instruction using drama techniques were examined through a semi-structured focus group interview. The findings of the study revealed that: 1) English creative writing ability post test mean scores of the students were higher than the pretest mean scores at the significant level of .05, and 2) students had positive opinions towards creative writing instruction using drama techniques.

Keywords: Creative writing, Creative writing instruction, drama technique, teaching writing,

1. Introduction
With the pressure from the world, Thai government has signed the agreement to achieve the goal of Sustainable Development Goals: SDGs 2030 and one of the goals is to develop a sustainable education system. One of the weaknesses of Thai education system that has been mentioned in the National Education Plan (2017 – 2036) is that Thai student has low ability in English subject. Students at years 6, 9, and 12 or even the undergraduate level could not reach the expected goals when they were assessed achievement in English (Wongsothorn, A., Hiranburana, K., & Chinnawongs, S., 2003). In addition, English appears to be one of the foreign languages used only in the classroom; therefore, student’s exposure to the authentic input is limited.

Among the four skills from the strand of the language communication of Thai Basic Education Core Curriculum, writing seems to be the most complex and challenging for most learners, both for the first language and the second language learners (Al-Buainain, 2009; Byrne, 1988; Harmer, 2004; Nunan, 1991). Since writing is a productive language process which involves in producing the language rather than receiving it, students who have inadequate language knowledge tend to struggle with expressing the ideas through writing (Spratt, Pulverness, & Williams, 2011). Moreover, a writing piece should be well organized as to make the meaning as explicit as possible owing to the fact that the help of voices or facial expressions which help conveying meaning are not exist (Byrne, 1988; Olshtain, 2001).

Focusing on Thai English classroom, Thai teachers tend to focus more on teaching grammar, and when dealing with writing, some low-level assignments such as filling in the blank or
copying instruction were introduced. These kinds of activities could not help enhancing creativity or writing ability for the students (Duangkamol, 2007; Mackenzie, 2002). As mentioned in the National Education Plan (2017 – 2036), remembering content has been the main focus in Thai classroom which results in the lack of creativity. In addition, Thai students have been reported as lacking in critical thinking skills (Sivarnee as cited in Sanonguthai, 2014). The role of students in Thai classroom is simply to deliver knowledge in response to the given assignments, not to form or give opinions about them. Thus, competency in the creative expression of knowledge, thoughts and feelings might not enough to deliver through productive skills like speaking and writing.

By promoting creativity, the ability to write can be improved, as Grainger, Gouch, and Lambirth (2005) found that using language creatively is the key to develop the ability to write. Learners tend to discover new things about the language while doing creative writing which can create a pleasant and positive atmosphere in the classroom (Dornyei, 2001). Most of the writing activities teachers do in class focus more on the left side of the brain, where logical abilities functioning, while creative writing puts the emphasis on the right side of the brain which mainly focuses on intuition and feelings (Maley, 2009). This can balance logical and intuitive faculties of the students and allows them to grow their creativity together with their linguistic growth.

Fun and interesting activities such as drama techniques can be used to support writing instruction. Through drama techniques, students are provided with opportunities to express themselves and to make use of their past experiences to prepare for the writing tasks (Alan Maley & Duff, 2005). It can also drive students to go beyond reality or even be able to think as another person which promotes independent thinking. Moreover, drama techniques can encourage students to express themselves and let their imagination run freely through writing task.

Many researchers have conducted studies regarding creative writing or drama technique with young learners, but not many dealt with undergraduate students. Thus, the present study investigated how creative writing instruction using drama techniques effects undergraduate students’ English creative writing ability.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Creative Writing

Writing can be categorized in various ways and one of which is creative writing. Creative writing can be viewed as a record of thinking creatively. Harmer (2004) proposed that creative writing gives learners the opportunity to write freely to express their ideas that go beyond everyday talks. Creative writing piece presents a writer’s imagination. It should be different from regular writing, unique and has a sense of originality (Pranee, 2006). National Association of Writers in Education of United Kingdom defined creative writing in education as the study of writing (including poetry, fiction, drama, and creative non-fiction) and its contexts through creative productions and reflections on the process. It is not informational writing, but more on imaginative interpretations.

Wipada (2015) defined creative writing ability as the ability to share idea and feeling response to experience and relationship in their own unique ways through writing which shows the aspects as follows, communicate clearly and imaginatively with delightfulness and originality,
organize information and ideas into structure to support cohesion and coherence, and use the language variedly and accurately with impressive effect.

2.2 Drama techniques
Drama as a tool for language teaching is used to unlock learners' imagination, intellect, empathy and courage (Jude Kelly as cited in Arts Council England, 2003). Wipada (2015) defined drama techniques in language teaching as communication activities that allow students to express themselves through acting imaginatively. These kinds of activities can be varied such as activities regarding mime, scenario or developing words, phrases or sentences through fun and creative game.

Wessels (1987) as well as Maley and Duff (2005) stated that drama in language teaching uses the same tools employed by the actors in the preparation stage called drama techniques. Actors use these techniques to get them ready to perform in the sense of breathing, projecting voice, understanding characters and beyond. However, when drama techniques are used in the classroom, not on stage, the participants in the drama techniques are thus learners, not actors. The main purpose of using drama techniques in the classroom is not to create a play or theatre, but to motivate learners to be creative, to start thinking beyond reality and to enhance their ability to use language creatively.

2.3 Related Studies
Wipada (2015) studied the effects of creative writing instruction using drama techniques with upper secondary school students. The results of her research study showed that students gained a higher score after received the treatment of creative writing instruction using drama techniques.

Nushrat (2014) explored the effectiveness of creative writing for English language learning in both Bangla and English medium. The study indicated that students interested to write themselves using their creativity rather than following the teachers' instructions both in Bangla and English. The researcher further suggested that teacher should also be creative in designing class activities in order to motivate students to write.

Temyzkana (2011) studied the effect of creative writing activities on the skill of university students in writing story genre text. The results showed that creative writing activities are more effective than traditional writing education in improving story writing skill. The researcher further stated that creative writing activities should be implemented in Turkish classroom.

Supawadee (2003) studied the achievement in learning English writing skills of elementary school students. The study showed that the group of students who studied through creative writing method obtained higher post-achievement in learning English writing skills than the group of students who studied through conventional method. The researcher stated that creative group activities play an important role in promoting students’ imagination which allowed students to express their ideas freely and creatively through effective writing products.

3. Methodology
The study was a single group pretest-post test experimental design using quantitative and qualitative research methods. The population was Rajamangala University of Technology Krungthep (RMUTK), undergraduate students. The participants of this study were twelve students enrolled in the Public Speaking course in the 1st semester, 2018 academic year. The
participants had a mixed ability and mixed age. The English creative writing ability pretest and post test and interview questions used in focus group interview were used to measure undergraduate students’ English creative writing ability and their opinions towards creative writing instruction using drama techniques. The independent variables were the creative writing instruction using drama techniques and dependent variables were the participants’ scores from English creative writing ability test and their opinions towards the instruction. The study was carried out for five weeks during the first semester of the academic year 2018. The instruments consisted of; English creative writing lessons, creative writing ability test and interview questions, were developed. The 5-week experiment aimed at teaching students to write scripts and speeches. Before the experiment, students were asked to do the creative writing ability pretest. During the experiment, appropriate drama techniques were selected to integrate into each lesson. After the experiment, students took a creative writing ability post test and were interviewed by the researcher.

The diagram of the design of the study is presented below.

```
O X O
```

O means a pretest and post-test
X means a treatment which was creative writing instruction using drama techniques

The model of instruction was adopted from Wipada (2015) which consists of opening, free writing, discussing, teacher modeling, class writing, sharing writing, concluding, and publishing. Steps, where drama techniques, were used had also been presented in the figure. Details are as follows.

1) Opening
Informing the students what to write in today class. Allowing students to choose various topics or coming up with their own ideas.

2) Free writing
Performing drama activities variously according to the topics. Students start writing down words or phrases.

3) Discussing the writing activity
Discussing the previous activities, combining class ideas.

4) Teacher modelling
Providing more intense drama activities which provide students with sample writings, pictures, movies and other input.
5) Class writing
Concluding and contributing from what students discovered from previous drama activities. Start writing.

6) Sharing writing
Sharing their writing with partners, small groups or the whole class.

7) Concluding
Developing, revising, drafting and editing their writing.

8) Publishing
Presenting their writing piece by turning them into performances.

Drama techniques used in this instruction included 10 types of drama activities: getting ready, observation, working with mime, working with voice, working with objects, working with visuals, working with imagination, working from/into words phrases and sentences, working from/into texts, working from/into scenarios and scripts, and into performance. The activities in each stage were chosen according to the topics.
Creative Writing Instruction Using Drama Technique

Creative Writing Instruction (Carter, 2010)

1. Opening
   - Informing the class about writing activities

2. Freewriting
   - Warm-up games and activities
   - Brainstorming ideas

3. Discussing the writing activity
   - Reflecting on activities
   - Encouraging students

4. Teacher modeling
   - Modelling text
   - Providing context

5. Class writing
   - Doing writing

6. Sharing writing
   - Sharing/exchanging with others

7. Concluding
   - Revising and editing writing

8. Publishing
   - Presenting writing in various forms

Drama Techniques
- Getting ready
- Working with mime
- Working with voice
- Working with objects
- Working with visuals
- Working with imagination
- Working from/into words, phrases, and sentences
- Into performance
(Maley&Duff, 2005)

Gathering ideas and information to write
Providing more chances to share opinions and develop more ideas
Providing examples and context

Creative Writing Ability

(Wipada, 2015)
The researcher then developed creative writing ability test by adapting part B of Unit 3 of GCSE examinations. Choosing only writing script or speech task which relevant to the course students were studying at that time of the research. Students were given 3 options and were allowed to prepare one of the options in advanced. The tests were scored following the criteria which adopted from GCSE criteria.

4. Findings and Discussion

Pre-post creative writing tests were used to measure students’ creative writing ability before and after receiving the instruction. Cohen’s d was used to calculate the effect size of creative writing instruction using drama techniques. Cohen (1988) defined effect sizes as "small, d = .2," "medium, d = .5," and "large, d = .8." Even though this study had only 12 participants, Cohen’s d value was 1.26 which indicated that it had a large effect size.

The following table shows a comparison of creative writing ability pre- and post-tests scores of the students (score of 10).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mean Differences</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5.09</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6.91</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05

According to the table, students’ pretest mean score was 5.09 (SD = 1.58), with the lowest score of 2 and the highest score of 7. Whereas, the post-test mean score was 6.91 (SD = 1.30), with the lowest score of 5 and the highest score of 9. The mean difference was 1.82, and p-value was 0.00000568. It shows that the pre- and post-test scores are significantly different at 0.05 level (p<0.05). The results indicated that the mean score of post-test was higher than the mean score of the pretest. In conclusion, students’ creative writing ability after receiving the treatment of creative writing instruction using drama technique was improved.

The researcher conducted a semi-structured focus group interview after the treatment to investigate students’ opinion towards creative writing instruction using drama techniques. The researcher transcribed the conversations and categorized the information from the interviewer into 2 categories: advantages and limitations as shown in the following table.
### Students' Opinions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>Frequencies of keywords / key phrases in the answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. creating an engaging and positive learning environment</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. enhancing creativity</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. enhancing motivation in writing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. increasing self-confidence</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Limitations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Limitations</th>
<th>Frequencies of keywords / key phrases in the answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. anxiety about correct grammar</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most of the students reported that the instruction had provided them a chance to be more creative. Students said they enjoyed the class and were active and enthusiastic in learning. They also got involved in drama activities they had never done before which pushed them beyond their limits. Besides advantages, there were few students mentioned that grammar was their biggest obstacle. They reported that they had more ideas to write after they did drama activities, but they could not write well because they worried about their grammar.

#### 5. Conclusion

In conclusion, the findings from the current study revealed that creative writing instruction using drama techniques is an effective instruction that helps develop creative writing ability of undergraduate students of RMUTK. According to students’ interview, it can also create more chances for the students to use the language creatively through drama activities and writing. Courage students gained through performing drama activities drove their writing piece beyond day-to-day information.

The finding of this study also suggested that it is important to carefully select input and sample writing for the students. Although they are undergraduate students, some class still have mixed ability students which might include low-achiever learners. As a result, individual differences of students should be considered. Further studies are recommended to have a control group to compare the progress of creative writing ability with. Having a control group can give reliable baseline data for the research study.

### References


Teachers! R U Ready for Gen Z?

Rinda Warawudhi
Burapha University
Thailand
Lect.rinda@gmail.com

Abstract
In the 21st century, with the advancement of technology, EFL teachers have commonly developed themselves to be efficient technology users and applied it in their classroom. However, it might not be an absolute solution for students from the new generation or Gen Z. In addition, effective teaching and learning methods of one generation (e.g. Gen X) may not be appropriate methods for another generation (Gen Z). Communication with other generations then can be counted as intercultural communication. This study therefore examines published EFL research papers whether they are aware of the generation gaps via intercultural communication perspective. Through two frameworks for intercultural communication in educational settings, namely, Learning styles across cultures by Neu (2015) and Multicultural communication by Samovar et al, 2010), the findings reveal that the teachers acknowledge the difference and attempt to bridge the gap.

Keywords: EFL, Generation Z, KOLB, Immediacy, Empathy

1. Introduction
Twenty years ago, if students took out cell phones in class and were typing, surely they would be kicked out of the class without any questions from their teachers. Today if they do so, do they end up with the same results? Teachers may not treat their students badly without observing the real reason since students possibly use the phone for taking notes from Note application or searching for topics in class through Google. We, therefore, need to accept that students from different generations might behave differently from the others in terms of characteristics, learning styles, behavior and, other preferences. Currently, new type (Generation Z [or Gen Z]) of students have begun to enter university (Rickes, 2016). Educators around the world were aware of the emergence of these students in their institutes; they conducted several research studies in order to manage classroom for their Gen Z students appropriately (e.g. Deeter-Schmelz (2014); Cameron & Pagnattaro (2017); Igel & Urquhort (2012); Thacker (2016)).

However, there was no clear cut of the year span of each generation. People who were born in 1975 in Japan may be considered as Second Baby Boomer, but they would be Generation X if they were Russian or Brazilian (JIří, 2016). Jiří compiled global generation overview from many sources and he found that the perspective and age span in each generation might be different by countries. Therefore, Gen Z students in the USA may share similar characters with Gen Z students in Thailand with some differences since they were from different environment, geographic area, religion, and socio-economic factors. Even there was no study on the age span of each generation in Thailand; lecturers perceived the difference regarding generations and tried to adjust the teaching styles to suit their students’ learning behavior. For example,
Calculating by year of birth, now it can be presumably summarized that the teachers are Babyboomers, Gen X and early Gen Y whereas the students are late Gen Y and Gen Z. According to many studies on generations (Hope, 2016; Jiří, 2016; Rickes, 2016), they are not the same in learning behaviors nor their attitudes toward lives. It might not be a good idea to implement learning methods teachers learned when they were young (e.g. Grammar-Translation approach) to their students. Kongchan (2012) claimed that she was a non-digital native teacher and tried to engage her digital native students with the use of Edmodo, a Facebook-like application. However, only the implementation of technology is a true answer to make Gen Zers get involved in the classroom. The researcher, therefore, would like to investigate the appropriate teaching strategies for Gen Z as well as to examine whether the published research studies applied these teaching strategies through intercultural communication perspective.

2. Literature Review
Exploring intercultural communication in educational settings, it was found that most of the studies have focused on international students who flew to study in English-speaking countries. In fact, the previous studies had attempted to facilitate non-native speakers of English while living and learning in English-speaking countries (Neuliep, 2015; Samovar, Porter & McDaniel, 2010). For instance, a model of intercultural competence developed in 1997 (Byram, 2009) attempted to include nonverbal communication for foreign language teaching. In other words, the model required the educators to focus not only on teaching but also on one or more countries where the language is spoken – cultural awareness. In my point of view, intercultural communication can also exist where teachers and students are from different generation as well, even there is no theory or framework for teachers to teach or facilitate their students from different generation.

The researcher hence has selected two frameworks for intercultural communication in educational settings, namely, Learning styles across cultures by Neuliep (2015) and Multicultural communication by Samovar et al (2010) as a main framework to investigate the published papers to determine whether the teachers have been aware of the generation gaps via intercultural communication perspective.

2.1 Learning styles across cultures by Neuliep (2015)
Learning styles across cultures by Neuliep (2015) consist of two factors: David Kolb's Experiential learning theory (ELT) and teacher immediacy. Kolb's ELT model gained substantial amount of attention in education and psychology and has been extensively applied in cross-cultural and intercultural classroom. Kolb explained that we learn when we take our experiences and transform those experiences into knowledge. Learning is a result from four abilities: concrete experience abilities (feeling), reflective observation abilities (reflecting), abstract conceptualization abilities (thinking), and active experimentation abilities (acting). Kolb and other researchers believe that there are a variety of factors influencing our preferred learning styles and the variety in teaching styles will suit the diversity of students in the classroom as well. For Gen Zers, even they are silent generation and lack of interpersonal skills, they also have "a sincere love of learning". Three most influential factors to make them engage to the classroom were career preparation, interesting coursework and caring teacher (Rickes, 2016). Hence, the variety in Kolb's learning theory will suit Gen Zers' requirement for classroom. In this study, Kolb's theory can be interpreted as any learning approaches that try to promote student engagement by using various techniques that make classroom alive and distinguish them from traditional classrooms.
The Neuliep's second strategy is *teacher immediacy*. Teacher immediacy can be defined as the verbal and non-verbal communication expressed by teachers to reduce the physiological and psychological distance between teachers and students (Anderson, 1979 cited in Neuliep, 2015). In the USA, verbal communication can be judicious use of humour, self-disclosure, narration (storytelling), and the prosocial use of certain types of power such as expert power and referent power whereas non-verbal communication included smiling, moderate gesturing, moving around the class instead of standing behind a lectern, direct eye contact, and casual dress. Degree of teacher immediacy varies across cultures; however, it is almost always associated with positive learning outcomes. Hence, for Gen Z, the use of teacher immediacy might be one of the best solutions. The activities that fall into this category were any classroom activities trying to promote interaction between teacher and students.

2.2 Multicultural communication by Samovar, Porter & McDaniel (2010)

Multicultural communication is another model for intercultural classroom. It included two strategies called *immediacy* and *empathy*. For the first part, it is similar to Neuliep's teacher immediacy. The latter one means an ability to assume the role of another and, by imagining the world as the other see it, predict accurately the motives, attitudes, feeling and needs of the other.

There are two steps: 1) Teachers are able to imagine how it must be for students to adapt into a classroom where the surroundings are unfamiliar. In this case, traditional teaching styled might be considered old fashion and; 2) Teachers are rewarding to students who are the object of empathic prediction.


In this study, the use of technology such as Facebook, Brainshark, or Edmodo (e.g. Low, 2017; Deeter-Schmelz, 2014; Kongchan, 2012, respectively) fall into this type of learning strategy since Gen Zers are people who were born with technology.

3. Methodology

This section is a framework to evaluate published research papers through intercultural communication perspectives and the criteria to select the published research papers to investigate in this study. After the investigation whether the selected papers have concerned about the notions of intercultural communication established in the framework, the discussion and conclusion were conducted.

3.1 The framework to evaluate published papers

The framework in this study has integrated the two models from Literature Review section and it includes three strategies: 1) Kolb's Experiential learning theory (ELT), 2) Teacher immediacy and, 3) Empathy.

The researcher believes that these three factors can bridge the gap between older generations (Gen X or Early Gen Y) and the youngest generation (Late Gen Y and Gen Z). Then, the researcher investigated whether the published research papers on preparing the classroom for Gen Z applied the three strategies in their studies or not and its findings were shown in the Finding and Discussion section.
3.2 Criteria to choose published papers

Fifteen papers to analyse were selected from three sources: 1) Thammasat University’s library website, 2) Burapha University’s library website and, 3) google search engine. Since the researcher is a PhD candidate at Thammasat University and a lecturer at Burapha University, she can have full access on both websites. Hence, these two resources were selected. However, the papers that reached the criteria were limited. Google search engine was added as a third source in order to find more papers, especially the research papers in Thailand.

At first, several keywords such as Generation Z + EFL, Gen Z + teaching, Gen Z and classroom, etc. were used; very few papers on the EFL field were found. Therefore, the keyword was shorten to only the word “Gen Z” and the papers were selected with the following criteria:

1. The selected papers should be action research or classroom research studies. Otherwise, they should be the research studies on the teaching method for Gen Zers.
2. The subjects (or participants) were students or stakeholders in higher education level or equivalent.
3. The papers should be published during 2010 or later. (This is because the age of the participants in these studies will be considered Gen Z or late Gen Y)
4. For research studies in Thailand, a paper from a university was selected only once.

4. Findings and Discussion

Fifteen research papers that were selected in this study can be analyzed through the intercultural communication framework. The first seven papers were from international settings whilst the latter papers were from Thailand settings and the findings can be summarized as follows:

Table 1: Published research papers related to teaching Generation Z

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>International settings</th>
<th></th>
<th>Three IC strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Author(s) (Year)</td>
<td>class</td>
<td>country</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Cameron &amp; Pagnattaro (2017)</td>
<td>Business Law</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Igel &amp; Urquhort (2012).</td>
<td>Middle school class</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Deeter-Schmelz (2014)</td>
<td>Sales management</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Roseberry-McKibbon (2017)</td>
<td>Language-science class</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Thacker (2016)</td>
<td>sales</td>
<td>USA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Thailand settings</th>
<th></th>
<th>Three IC strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Author(s) (Year)</td>
<td>class</td>
<td>affiliation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The first group (Paper 1-7) to analyze belongs to seven papers from international settings. The following paragraphs are the analysis.

In the first study, Boholano (2017) investigates the teaching and learning skills of 270 preservice teachers in the Philippines using questionnaires and focus group. It was found that the new generation teachers preferred using social networking. In fact, they report having online conversation with students and other preservice teachers and they thought that social network could find and engage them with students. It can be noticed that these young teachers applied social networking in their teaching strategies with their students. Therefore, they reached all three IC strategies: Kolb's theory, Teacher immediacy and Empathy.

A second paper by Cameron & Pagnattaro (2017) presented Gen Z students with a mix of learning styles including 1) Visual– Effective PowerPoint presentation, pictures, video & props; 2) Auditory– Academic version of carpool karaoke, Ted Talk and, 3) Kinesthetic – printed playcard, props, role play, E-games. This shows that Gen Zers were presented with diversified teaching/learning strategies as well as the technology that they were familiar with, therefore, this study matched 2 out of 3 IC strategies: Kolb's theory and Empathy. They did not mention about the teacher immediacy, so they might not consider this strategy.

The third study by Igel & Urquhort (2012) did not conduct experiment on their teaching class but they surveyed the theories and previous studies for the most appropriate teaching technique that suited for their Gen Z’s characteristics. They found out that the cooperative learning was the best, hence, they proposed three principles for successfully implementing cooperative learning. Even there was no clear explanation for teaching technique, groupwork and attempt to promote interpersonal skills in this study; the researcher can assume that this study meets all three IC strategies: Kolb's theory, Teacher immediacy and Empathy.

The fourth study of Deeter-Schmelz (2014) noticed that Gen Zers had poor reading habits but they were keen on technology and multitasking adeptness. He therefore assigned students to make a Brainsharks presentation to summarize lessons. Since students were encouraged to read through Brainsharks, the technologies that students were familiar with such as a Youtube presentation, voice, and video, were allowed them to combine with PowerPoint presentation.
There was no mention of the attempt to bridge the gap between teacher and students. His study then applied 2 out of 3 IC strategies like the first study: Kolb's theory and Empathy.

In the fifth paper, Roseberry-McKibbin (2017) also did not employ teaching method in the classroom. Like Igel & Urquhort (2012), she compiled variety of teaching methods with her undergraduates such as large-group discussion, a small-group activity, a Youtube video and, a hands-on activity. She concluded that the diversity in teaching technique can win students’ interest. Importantly, her positive thinking about her Gen Z students that they can help her focus on new ways to engage her students and also can prove her attitudes toward new-gen classes. Hence, this article seems to match all three IC strategies.

Santosa (2017) from the sixth paper really did the full experiment research study by employing Schoology as an implementation in his English classes. He mentioned that this can increase the engagement of students after class. It was found that with the technology integration, not only students’ scores went better, their motivation and distance relationship between him and students have positively improved. This study could suit all three IC strategies.

In the seventh paper by Thacker (2016), the researcher has prepared the sales course for Gen Z students. To encourage them, four learning theories were applied to develop students' interpersonal skills including Metacognition, Scaffolding Spaced Learning, Project based learning theory and, Constructivist learning theory. With variety of teaching techniques and realistic activities, like the second study, this study seems to match all three IC strategies as well.

The next group to analyse is the research studies in Thailand (paper 8-15 in Table 1). To cover all types of higher education institutes, the researcher has selected eight studies from government universities, private universities, Rajabhat university (formerly teacher university) as well as the researcher’s university.

Starting with the first study in Thailand by Boonchum (2014), the researcher applied social network services – Facebook, email, Twitter and, others to give feedback of students writing assignments. Adding ways to text-talks or online chitchat with students outside the classroom can enhance her students’ writing abilities. It could assume that social media can be employed as an additional tool in this writing class. Hence, this study matches all three IC strategies.

The second paper in Thailand context belong to Chotipaktanasook (2016) from Dhurakij Bandit University - a private university in Thailand. Students were asked to post pictures of what they did during class time and to upload their learning experience in English language via Instagram. This could help improve students’ writing ability as well as to promote the willingness to communicate and interact with teacher ad classmates. Like the first study in Thailand context, the strategies in this study match into all three IC strategies.

In the third study, Kajornboon (2013) from Chulalongkorn university, a top government university in Thailand, implemented Facebook as a teaching tool in her Experimental English I with medical students. At first, she asked students to make comments on their peers’ writing assignment through Facebook and then categorized their friends’ mistakes and also made the corrections. Like the first two studies, this study matches all three IC strategies.
The fourth paper was conducted with students from Bangkok University, a private university in Thailand (Kitchakarn, 2016). Facebook was used as a learning tool in English in Action class. Similar to the above studies to employ a social media application – Facebook; this study attempted to diversify the activities such as post, Facebook group for group project, discussion and, uploading files for other peers. The researcher then concludes that this study can cover all three IC strategies.

The fifth one was from Kongchan, 57-year-old teacher of English who thought of herself as a non-digital native teacher (Kongchan, 2012). Edmodo, a Facebook-like e-learning application, was introduced in her class. This open-minded teacher can bridge the gap of age difference since she reported that she and her students enjoyed exploring new technology in her English classroom. This study introduced new teaching method into the classroom, so it earned the first IC strategy: KOLB, and the implementation of this program could help promote interaction between the researcher and her students since she asked for student assistance for helping her to use the program. This did not only present students with the stuff they in favor of but it could help the researcher and her students interact more. Therefore, this study reaches all three IC strategies from the framework of this study.

The study of Low (2017) was the sixth study from Kasetsart University, a government university. Low employed Schoology to assign works and to communicate with students outside the classroom. She claimed that this can help improve students’ achievement as well as the interaction among them as well as with her as a lecturer. Hence her study has integrated all three IC strategies to bridge the gap between the lecturer and Gen Z students.

The seventh study was the study from Thammasat University (Thongmak, 2014). This was not from EFL classroom but from management information systems courses. Facebook group was employed to enhance students’ communication and collaboration. With the belief that technology can benefit the students, Facebook group then was used as an additional learning tool. The researcher then concluded that this study matches all three IC strategies.

The last study was conducted by the researcher (Warawudhi, 2015) with English-major students in Burapha University. The researcher used Edmodo as a channel to prepare students for their group presentation. The students can have an online sub-group discussion with their lecturer, or they can share files and things that they thought best for their classmate. The researcher found that Edmodo is one of the best options for out-of-class interaction with students. Consequently, this study reaches 3 out of 3 IC strategies including KOLB, immediacy, and empathy.

After analysis all papers, it was found that even not all studies have met all intercultural strategies the researcher has reviewed: KOLB, immediacy, and empathy; they shared one thing in common which is the consideration of the new generation students who differ from the generation of the teachers. The teachers themselves attempted to provide better teaching strategies in their classroom. They might reach only one or two or all three criteria in this study. In different combination of teaching methods, they all created positive impact on Gen Zers’ learning. In addition, since we thought that Gen Zers around the world may have different characteristics; the age span for them might not be clearly decided by several studies. The analysis on papers from Western cultures like USA and Asian cultures like Thailand provide similar trends in preparing the classroom. In fact, they have things in common that can attract them to get engaged in the classroom. They were the need of variety of teaching/learning
methods and the use of technology in classroom. Prakash Yadav & Rai (2017) investigated social media usage of Gen Zers in India and other areas around the world e.g. USA, UK, etc. and found that the popularity of social media will reach its peak in some period of Gen Zers' life cycles, it declined to vary as they move on the different phrases of their lives. That is, social media may be the answer for teaching strategies for some periods and it might change to other things one day.

To sum up, for the first IC strategy - KOLB's ELT theory, David Kolb suggested that students may have different learning styles, so teacher could provide various techniques to make a class more attractive. Technique A may be best for student A, not B and Technique B may be good only for Student B, not A. Employing various techniques might be better for Gen Zers, to be exact, for every age group of students. For the second IC strategy - teacher immediacy, only two papers did not mention about this (Cameron & Pagnattaro, 2017 and Deeter-Schmelz, 2014). The researcher believes that with the various teaching techniques utilized to the class, it could surely create teacher immediacy. Researchers just did not focus to explain this phenomenon. For the last IC strategy - empathy, all papers acknowledged and included this strategy. That is, the researchers explained the difference of the new generation students and provided teaching method they assumed that was appropriate to their students. However, the researcher would not like to limit herself and others to only implement technology. The best solution might be to provide a comfort zone to their new generation students. It can be something else such as the creativity.

5. Conclusion
To the questions "What is the best teaching technique for Gen Z?" or "Are the teachers ready for Gen Z students?", after reviewing intercultural communication teaching and learning strategies as well as the analysis of the publi papers on Gen Z, the researcher realized that students and teachers have differed in several factors. The way teachers handled with students may change according to both teachers' and students' characteristics. So does the teaching for Gen Zers. As long as the teachers acknowledge the differences and attempt to bridge the gap, whatever techniques the teachers applied they could fit intercultural perspectives. This is because this can imply that teachers were aware of the differences and tried to deal with them as much as they could.

References


A Case Study on Linguistic Landscapes in Guilin, China

Kai Yao
Huachiew Chalermprakiet University
Thailand
yaonfa@hotmail.com

Abstract
Language is a tool of communication and linguistic landscape is one kind of language representation that is shown in the advertisement, billboard, direction board, street board etc. Meanwhile, from the aspect of language learning, linguistic landscapes are also a rich choice for studying the different languages in bilingual and multilingual settings. This paper will focus on: (i) landscapes’ linguistic features, (ii) influences of China’s language policy towards linguistic landscapes, (iii) how the historical linguistic landscapes are shaped in the light of four investigated areas viz: Jingjiang Wangling (JJWL), Zhengyang Walking Street (ZYWS), Qixing Park (QXP) and Jingjiang Wangfu (JJWF). A total number of 379 photos were collected by using a digital camera in the above mentioned places covering the period of 2nd - 6th, March, 2018. The new findings will add fresh perspectives in looking at linguistic landscapes in the investigated areas.

Keywords: language policy, linguistic landscape, multilingualism

1. Introduction
Language is one kind of media that people use to express their feelings, ideas or expressions with each other. However, while people from different countries want to talk to each other, they have to use the same language which both parties are familiar with. This is called a “lingua franca” which is often English that serves as their communication tool.

Nowadays, there are a variety of reasons involving the use of languages specifically English, due to globalization. Similarly, there are many aspects that we can identify the effects of globalization which includes the human and non-human sectors (Al-Rhodhan & Stoudmann, 2006, p.2). Among these aspects are international trade, international education (schools, universities, educational agencies etc.), as well as technology such as the Internet, Facebook, Twitter, and even mobile phones which allow us to communicate with people around the globe.

In China, the common internet applications used by people are: QQ, WeChat and Weibo. The language factors, which are varied such as English, Chinese, Korean, Japanese and other languages, have contributed to the efficiency and affectivity of communication. Language learners can also use these data as their database for learning different languages.

Furthermore, there is another way for learning foreign languages by using linguistic landscapes (Cenoz and Gorter, 2008). In order to collect this kind of language data we have to use another innovative tool, the digital camera installed in the mobile phone. It has facilitated the study of languages, which refers to the advertising boards, street names, billboards and other printed languages shown in the public and private areas (Landry & Bourhis, 1997).
Guilin, the location of the present study, is famous for tourist attractions, such as the Li River, Longji Terraced Fields, Reed Flute Cave, and the Elephant Trunk Hill etc (Guilin Attractions, 2018). On the other hand, the international tourism income of Guilin is increasing year by year as well as the number of foreign tourist (Guilin Statistical Yearbook, 2016).

2. Literature Review

2.1 Literature Review of Linguistic Landscapes
There are many scholars who have studied linguistic landscapes around the world. Cenoz and Gorter (2008) studied linguistic landscapes from the pedagogy aspect and pointed out that linguistic landscape can also be used as a language learning tool in terms of second language acquisition. This also reflects that language learners can regard the data of linguistic landscape as a language database, because when we learn a language, the first thing we have to do is to absorb the language data with our ears or eyes. Then we allow it to enter into our brain for further learning processes. Other than this, there are many other aspects related to the linguistic landscapes. The number of articles published in journals in the field of public signs in China has increased accordingly from 2002 to 2010 (Zou et al., 2011). All of these make a very good database and foundation for the study of linguistic landscape in China.

2.1.1 Environmental Print
Thom Huebner (2006) examined the environmental print, codemixing as well as language change from the perspective of linguistic landscapes. He discovered that (1) the influence of English has become more and more important as a global language; (2) foreign language in Bangkok has changed from Chinese to English; (3) other than the previous two findings, he also found that English helped and developed the phonology of Thai language.

2.1.2 Bilingualism, Multilingualism and Language Diversity
The study of Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) showed that linguistic landscapes are the symbolic representation for different places in public areas. According to their study, there are many different communities in Israel, and the linguistic landscape styles among them are totally different. For instance, in the Jewish communities the bilingual signs are predominated by Hebrew-English linguistic landscapes, while it is the Arabic-Hebrew signs in the Israeli-Palestinian areas. Finally, Arabic-English linguistic landscapes are the most frequent signs in the East Jerusalem areas. Linguistic landscapes can reflect not only the information of one certain language (script and phonology), but also refer to the main community or symbol of that place. Backaus (2007) examined the linguistic landscapes in Tokyo, Japan from a multilingualism perspective and the study revealed that official and non-official linguistic landscapes indicate the power and solidarity of the examined places. Although most of the Japanese people like to use Japanese only due to its monolingual society structure for a long period of time, and due to globalization and international trading in Tokyo. It has become a multilingual society.

2.1.3 Historical Linguistics
When we talk about linguistic landscapes, they can also be related to the languages which are shown in ancient rocks, items or places. There is a scholar, Bynon (1977) who mentioned that there are two parts in terms of historical linguistics. The first part is to study the changes of language(s) through hundreds or even thousands of years. On the other hand, this kind of study is also concerned with the old or traditional structures of these languages even though many years have passed. The study of a language or the deeper meaning of one language can be
found or illustrated in the history of that language as well as the histories during the period when that language emerged. Because language is a tool or a kind of media which is used by human beings in their daily lives, when the history changes, there will be some factors which will influence the language changes. For example, when history changes, the government may change, and the general policy, economy, trading national policy and other related aspects may also change. Therefore it will influence the languages which are used by the people who are in that country. However, some of the ancient languages which are shown on the historical attractions, places or items might be maintained for many years until the present time.

2.1.4 Commercial Discourses
Another aspect that we have to consider is the commercial discourses field. This part is also related to the linguistic landscapes in certain ways. Wang (2013) studied the 89 official and non-official multilingual signs in Wangfujing Street, Beijing City. The study showed the big influence of globalization as well as English language towards the linguistic landscapes in the investigated area. Meanwhile, these linguistic landscapes are also designed according to China’s language policy: (1) the standardization of Chinese; (2) the propagation of English and (3) the development of minority languages. Danielewicz-Betz, A., and Graddol, D. (2014) studied the linguistic landscapes in Shenzhen and Hong Kong. The study indicated that the English part of the linguistic landscapes in Hong Kong have been changed from British English to American English. At the same time the linguistic landscapes of both Shenzhen and Hong Kong have been influenced by English due to many reasons, such as colonization, politics, economics, transportation etc. However, these linguistic landscapes are also designed according to China’s language policy, more and more bilingual English-Chinese linguistic landscapes have emerged in both cities. Yao and Carreon (2015) investigated 694 linguistic landscapes in four main areas, Huo Ju Road; Walking Street; Wu Xiang Square; Nanning International Convention and Exhibition Center in Nanning City, China. They found that Chinese is still the main language which is presented in the linguistic landscapes of these four investigated areas. However, bilingual Chinese-English linguistic landscape is ranked in second place. Monolingual English linguistic landscapes are easier found in international tourist areas and highly modernized places. Meanwhile, mutual translation linguistic landscapes can be found more in the big establishments’ areas, and non-mutual translation linguistic landscapes are represented more in the small establishments’ areas. The study also showed that the linguistic landscapes in the four Nanning investigated areas are designed following China’s language policy.

2.2 Language Policy
When language is studied or investigated, another area that should be considered is the language policy of the target country. According to the study of Hu (2001), the foreign language policy of China should be consistent and should improve foreign language learning and teaching in order to maintain the balance between education as well as politics. Zhao (2012) indicated that foreign languages should be designed according to the real situation or should be more practical in various aspects of people’s lives. This will include politics, economics, culture, education etc. This means we have to use real life situational content as our language learning materials or guidelines for language teaching and learning, so that we can learn languages more efficiently and practically.

2.3 Second Language Acquisition
Since second language is not our mother tongue, it is vital that one should learn by using second language acquisition theories. According to Krashen (1981), in order to speak a second
language, an adult should familiarize oneself with the three main systems: (1) acquired system; (2) learned system and (3) utterance. Before one language can be spoken, the person who is going to speak should comprehend and absorb the information or knowledge of the target language first. An example of this is when walking down the street and seeing as much as one can of the linguistic landscapes. This process is the first step to accumulate the language contents. After that our brain will analyze or learn the foreign language by using that information. Finally, we are able to speak the foreign language according to the knowledge we have already learnt.

2.4 Simplified and Traditional Chinese
China has around five thousand years of history. Part of this history involves the Chinese characters for writing. Chinese characters are mainly separated into two types, Simplified Chinese and Traditional Chinese (Dai & Xiao, 2007). For many centuries, Ancient and Traditional Chinese had been used in mainland China. However, in 1956 the Chinese government permitted the Chinese people to use Simplified Chinese in order for written Chinese to be easier. In view of the above, the aspect of historical linguistics in this study will also be related with the type (simplified or traditional) of the Chinese characters.

3. Methodology
The data of this study were collected from the 2nd to 6th of March, 2018 in four areas of Guilin City, China. While the total number of 379 pictures were taken using a digital camera. The four investigated areas are as follows: Jingjiang Wangling (JJWL—historical tomb), Zhengyang Walking Street (ZYWS—shopping area), Qixing Park (QXP), and Jingjiang Wangfu (JJWF—historical place). The four mentioned areas are marked on the Google map as shown below:

Figure 1: Map of Guilin showing the four main areas

This study will illustrate three main aspects: 1. landscapes’ linguistic features; 2. influences of China’s language policy towards linguistic landscapes; 3. how the historical linguistic landscapes are shaped in the light of four investigated areas viz; Jingjiang Wangling (JJWL), Zhengyang Walking Street (ZYWS), Qixing Park (QXP), and Jingjiang Wangfu (JJWF), by
using the framework of Huebner (2006) and Yao and Carreon (2015) for analyzing and classifying different scripts, as well as the theory of Wang (2013) for analyzing whether the linguistic landscapes in Guilin’s four main areas are designed according to China’s language policy. The theory and definition of historical linguistics which is mentioned by Bynon (1997) will be adopted to analyze how the historical linguistic landscapes are shaped in the light of four investigated areas.

4. Findings and Discussion

Table 1: Classification of linguistic landscapes according to script used (Yao & Carreon, 2015)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bilingual English and Simplified Chinese</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>39.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monolingual Simplified Chinese</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>21.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Languages, Simplified Chinese and English</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>11.90%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pinyin, Simplified Chinese and English</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>8.18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monolingual Traditional Chinese</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pinyin and Simplified Chinese</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.99%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monolingual English</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Languages, Simplified Chinese, Pinyin and English</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilingual English and Traditional Chinese</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Languages and Simplified Chinese</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.79%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monolingual in Other Languages</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pinyin, Traditional Chinese and English</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cantonese Pinyin and Simplified Chinese</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cantonese Pinyin and Traditional Chinese</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cantonese Pinyin, Simplified Chinese and English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other Languages, Simplified Chinese, Kanji and English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.24%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 shows the most frequent linguistic landscape script which is the combination of Bilingual English and Simplified Chinese (N=148, 39.10%), and followed by the Monolingual Simplified Chinese (N=83, 21.90%). This indicates that the linguistic landscapes of four main investigated areas are dominated by the Bilingual Simplified Chinese and English script, and also shows a strong evidence of English influence to the linguistic landscapes in Guilin.

**Table 2:** Percentage of Chinese and English out of the total linguistic landscapes in four investigated areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>LL’s Number out of Total Amount</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese (including Pinyin)</td>
<td>365 / 379</td>
<td>96.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>248 / 379</td>
<td>65.40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>379</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that although English has a strong influence in the linguistic landscapes of the four investigated areas in Guilin, Chinese is still the predominant language of all and which is similar to the findings of Wang (2013).

**Table 3:** Foreign languages which are shown on linguistic landscapes except for English in the four investigated areas of Guilin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>QXP</th>
<th>ZYWS</th>
<th>JJWF</th>
<th>JJWL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>22 (81.50%)</td>
<td>2 (66.70%)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>22 (81.50%)</td>
<td>1 (33.30%)</td>
<td>25 (92.60%)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>4 (14.80%)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thai</td>
<td>1 (3.70%)</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1 (3.70%)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>1 (3.70%)</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 indicates that the first ranked foreign language (except for English) is Japanese and followed by Korean in Qi Xing Park (QXP). However, Korean is also more prevalent in Jing Jiang Wangfu (JJWF) and this information will also show that Japanese and Korean tourists are more numerous than the other foreign nationals in visiting Guilin.

**Table 4:** Percentage of foreign languages which are shown on linguistic landscapes except for English in four investigated areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>LL’s Number out of Total Amount</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>60.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30.40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thai</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 shows that the most frequent foreign language (except for English) is Korean (N=48, 60.80%) and followed by Japanese (N=24, 30.40%).

Table 5: Monolingual English and other languages’ sample linguistic landscapes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Linguistic Landscape</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English (Sportswear especially T-Shirts)</td>
<td><img src="image1.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korean (Zoo)</td>
<td><img src="image2.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese (Toilet)</td>
<td><img src="image3.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td><img src="image4.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thai (Tourist Service Center)</td>
<td><img src="image5.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin</td>
<td><img src="image6.png" alt="Image" /></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Classification of linguistic landscapes in terms of history

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classification</th>
<th>Quantity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Monolingual Simplified Chinese</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>51.80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monolingual Traditional Chinese</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>21.69%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pinyin, Simplified Chinese and English</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilingual English and Simplified Chinese</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10.84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilingual English and Traditional Chinese</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cantonese Pinyin, Simplified Chinese and English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows that the most frequent linguistic landscapes in terms of history is Monolingual Simplified Chinese (N=43, 51.80%), and followed by Monolingual Traditional Chinese (N=18, 21.69%). This indicates that these historical languages have hundreds or thousands of years of history so they have been kept as the original one (Traditional Chinese). However, the Chinese government is willing to let the other Chinese learners and Chinese people know the history of this information, so they use the Simplified Chinese as their first choice. On the other hand, there is bilingual Simplified Chinese-English (N=9, 10.84%) linguistic landscapes for helping foreigners understand its content.
5. Conclusion

The findings show that (1) Bilingual English-Simplified Chinese (N=148, 39.10%) dominates the linguistic landscapes of the four investigated areas in Guilin, and Chinese (N=365, 96.3%) is still the predominant language (Yao & Carreon, 2015). (2) English (N=248, 65.40%) is the predominant language of all the foreign languages which are shown on the linguistic landscapes of the four investigated areas in Guilin. Moreover, it indicates the influence of English on linguistic landscapes in Guilin. (3) There are five other foreign languages excluding English which are shown on the linguistic landscapes of the four investigated areas in Guilin. Korean (N=48, 60.80%) is the predominant language of all others and Japanese (N=24, 30.40%) follows. (4) Monolingual Simplified Chinese (N=43, 51.80%) ranks first in terms of historical linguistic landscape of the four investigated linguistic landscape areas in Guilin, and the Monolingual Traditional Chinese (N=18, 21.69%) is second. (5) The findings of linguistic landscapes in the four investigated areas of Guilin City suggest that the design of linguistic landscapes is influenced by the language policy of China (Hu, 2001; Zhao, 2012; Wang, 2013; Danielewicz-Betz & Graddol, 2014; Yao. & Carreon, 2015). (6) Linguistic landscapes can be a language learning database to facilitate language learning (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008). (7) the most frequent linguistic landscapes in terms of history is Monolingual Simplified Chinese (N=43, 51.80%), and it is followed by Monolingual Traditional Chinese (N=18, 21.69%). and (8) Since English is the predominant foreign language which is shown on the four investigated areas’ linguistic landscapes, tourists or language learners can use these resources for their English language or other foreign language learning purposes.

References


