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NIDA Language and Communication Journal is the official journal of the Graduate School of Language and Communication, National Institute of Development Administration. The journal is currently published as a periodical, with three issues annually. The English language issues are published in April and August; whilst Thai language issue is published in December. The purpose of this journal is to disseminate information of interest to language and communication scholars, and others interested in related social sciences. The journal presents information on theories, researches, methods, and ideas related to language and communication as well as related interdisciplinary social sciences. The editors welcome a wide range of academic papers, including research articles, review articles, and book reviews.

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Editor's Note

Having promoted an interdisciplinary recognition of the interplay between language and communication for over two decades*, NIDA Journal of Language and Communication* has strived to publish original research and review articles reflecting the up-to-date issues of all practice-oriented linguistic standpoints and communication as a theory, practice, technology, and discipline of power especially in applied contexts. Thanks to the increased interest in this dialectical relationship between language and communication among young scholars, our recently submitted manuscripts address the dynamic roles of language and its integrated communicational functions not necessarily confined by any particular disciplinary framework.

This issue presents a diverse selection of stimulating articles from scholars and students.Keerati Thongsonkleeb and Kasma Suwanarak's article, *Students' Perceptions towards the Roles of Local English Language Tutors and Problems of Learning English in Preparation for the AEC*, explores the necessity of teaching materials and teaching techniques employed by Thai English language tutors in stimulating students' motivation in learning English. Collecting 67 high school students' opinions about the assistive role of Thai English language tutors in helping students develop their English proficiency, the authors assert that the tutors' improved teaching styles and refined English accents are required in order to prepare students for the increasing demand of English communicative skills in relation to Thailand's integration into the ASEAN Economic Community.

Investigating the students' retention of the subject matter, the second paper, *Effects of Processing Instruction and Dictogloss on the Acquisition of the English Passive Voice among Thai University Students*, written by Anuchit Tharamanit and Narat Kanprachar, compares the effects of teaching the English past simple passive through processing instruction (PI), dictogloss (DG), and traditional instruction (TI). Employing a quasi-experimental research conducted with 95 first-year English major students from a public university in Thailand, the paper considers the PI and TI instructions more effective than the DG instruction. The finding also notes that all types of grammar instruction enhance the acquisition of the English passive.

Attapol Khamkhien's paper, *Combining a Corpus-Based Approach and Qualitative Analysis to Create a Pedagogically Useful List of Multiword Combinations for Research Publication*, investigates the frequency and use of phraseological patterns in applied linguistics research articles. Using corpus linguistics methodology in combination with qualitative analysis, this paper identifies phraseological patterns frequently co-occurring in research articles, their structural types, and pragmatic functions in contextual environments. The results of the structural analysis indicates that noun-based structures are the most popular patterns while other structures whilst verb-based and prepositional-based structures are less employed. Functional analysis underlines the strong association between the use of certain phraseological patterns and the communicative functions of a given section of the texts. This paper offers an explanation for the language use in this writing research genre and provides more evidence-based instructional practices, especially advanced language courses targeted at scholarly reading and writing.

Daranee Choomthong's article, *Characteristics of Slang Terms in Online Discussion among Thai Stock Investors*, examines the characteristics of slang terms used by Thai stock investors when communicating via social networking media. Employing a mixed-methods methodology by counting the frequency of slang terms and analyzing metaphorical expressions, nativatization and the categorizations of puns. 55 common slang words are found in online discussion forums frequented by Thai stock investors. Forming the largest group with 31 words, the most distinctive features of slang words used by Thai stock investors in online stock discuss the use of metaphorical expressions. The findings also include 15 slang words undergoing a nativatization process in addition to nine paronymic puns emerging from the data. The paper suggests that most of the slang terms used by Thai stock investors when discussing stocks have a humorous and sarcastic tone.

Ko Eun Lee's paper, *A Genre Analysis of English and Korean Research Paper Abstracts in Electronic Resource Management in Library and Information Science,* investigates the way the main text of the journal article is represented and the function of the abstract in order to identify the structural differences between Korean and English academic journal abstracts focusing on rhetorical structures and linguistic realizations of selected journal article abstracts in the discipline of library and information science. The paper finds that English abstracts prefer the structure of "introduction-purpose-method" while Korean abstracts employ "introduction-purpose-method-results" structure.

Chalermchai Chaichompoo's article, Using e-Mapping to Improve Reading Comprehension and Summary Skills of EFL Students, problematizes whether using electronic mind mapping for the purpose of analyzing and summarizing reading passages can enhance the reading comprehension and summary skills of EFL. Experimenting with 50 second-year English major students, the data from the questionnaire and interview suggest that students find this method helps them analyse and summarize the contents of the reading passages better, faster and more accurately.

Nuchada Dumrongsiri's article, *The Influences of Facebook on Romantic Relationship Development: Facebook Activities and Perception of the Person of interest*, examines the way Facebook is used in accessing information about potential romantic partners and its impact on the perception about their dates. Collecting data from 154 undergraduate students by self-administered questionnaires, the paper reveals that passive activities, arguably the strongest factor influencing relationship development, are the preferred methods in learning about the persons of interest although Facebook use does not automatically engender trust in their dates.

Soraya Ngamsnit's paper, *Learning of Media Ethics via Participation in Television Series Production,* discusses an effective modal for teaching media ethical issues to communication arts students. Offering students' first-hand experience in the media production processes, the research design aims to stimulate students' awareness of media ethical concerns. Through direct participation in television series production, students are found to actively respond to media ethical issues.

This issue presents a review of a book drawing attention to the psychological knowledge in language learning and teaching. Sureepong Phothongsunan contributes a resourceful review of the book “*Exploring Psychology in Language Learning and Teaching*”. This book is authored by Marion Williams, Sarah Mercer and Stephen Ryan. Marion Williams was formerly Reader in Applied Linguistics at the University of Exeter and is a past president of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language). Sarah Mercer is Professor of Foreign Language Teaching at the University of Graz, Austria. Stephen Ryan is Professor in the School of Economics at Senshu University, Tokyo.

Lastly, I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to all our contributors for enriching the *NIDA Journal of Language and Communication*.

Kind Regards,

Jaray Singhakowinta, PhD

Editor in Chief

Contents

Students' Perceptions towards the Roles of Local English Language Tutors and Problems of Learning English in Preparation for the AEC

Keerati Thongsonkleeb , Kasma Suwanarak

Abstract

This study investigates Thai students' perceptions towards the roles of local English language tutors and the students' English learning problems in preparation for the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC). The data were collected by using a mix-method of an online questionnaire and a semi-structured interview. The participants were 67 high school students from Wat Phrasri Mahadhat Secondary Demonstration School, Phranakhon Rajabhat University selected by the purposive sampling method. The questionnaire results showed that teaching materials and teaching techniques are the most crucial factors affecting students' motivation in learning English. The interview results revealed that the students considered Thai English language tutors helpful for improving the students' English skills. However, the tutors should improve their teaching styles and English accents in order that their language performance could be of good assistance in preparing the students for using English in the context of AEC.

Keywords: students' perceptions, local English language tutors, English learning problems

บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยนี้มุ่งสำรวจแนวความคิดของนักเรียนไทยที่มีต่อบทบาทของติวเตอร์สอนภาษาอังกฤษและปัญหาของการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษในการเตรียมความพร้อมสำหรับประชาคมเศรษฐกิจอาเซียนซึ่งมีการเก็บข้อมูลด้วยวิธีการแบบผสมผสานโดยการใช้แบบสอบถามออนไลน์และการสัมภาษณ์แบบกึ่งโครงสร้างประชากรที่ใช้ในการวิจัยได้แก่นักเรียนชั้นมัธยมศึกษาตอนปลายจำนวน 67 คนจาก โรงเรียนมัธยมสาธิตวัดพระศรีมหาธาตุ มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏพระนครที่ได้มาจากการสุ่มตัวอย่างแบบเจาะจงผลการศึกษาจากแบบสอบถามแสดงให้เห็นว่าสื่อการสอนและเทคนิคในการสอนเป็นปัจจัยสำคัญที่สุดที่มีผลกระทบต่อแรงจูงใจในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียน ผลการศึกษาจากการสัมภาษณ์แบบกึ่งโครงสร้างได้มีการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลด้วยวิธีการลงรหัสข้อมูลที่แสดงถึงความเชื่อของนักเรียนว่าเมื่อประเทศไทยได้เข้าสู่ประชาคมเศรษฐกิจอาเซียน โรงเรียนกวดวิชาภาษาอังกฤษจะยังคงมีความจำเป็นสำหรับนักเรียนเพื่อการพัฒนาทักษะและเตรียมพร้อมสำหรับการสอบ แต่ติวเตอร์ก็จำเป็นที่จะต้องปรับปรุงรูปแบบการสอน และสำเนียงการพูดภาษาอังกฤษในงานวิจัยต่อไปนั้นควรที่จะเน้นถึงปัญหาของการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษในประเทศไทยควรมีการวิจัยในบริบทของติวเตอร์สอนภาษาอังกฤษและเน้นย้ำถึงแนวความคิดของกลุ่มเป้าหมายอื่นๆที่นอกเหนือจากนักเรียน

คำสำคัญ: แนวความคิดของนักเรียน, ติวเตอร์สอนภาษาอังกฤษ, ปัญหาในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ

Introduction

The ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) is the regional economic integration of ten ASEAN member states. These ten ASEAN member states consist of Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand, Brunei, Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar (Burma) and Vietnam. The AEC may result in a substantial change in the economy, education, transportation and in earning a living throughout the region. The AEC, with the motto "one vision, one identity, and one community", focuses on four goals as follows: 1) Free trade and service area including investment, labor, and capital; 2) Competitive advantages which include tax and policy development; 3) Sustainable economic development; and 4) the world economic integration with the FTA (Free Trade Agreement) with other countries, and production network (Muttanachai Suttipun, 2012). The forthcoming AEC plays an important role in the educational system in Thailand. According to the Ministry of Education (2010), preparing and improving Thai human resources are very important since the AEC will be implemented in the very near future. Apart from that factor, Thai people could rise and become equally competitive with the population of the other nine ASEAN countries due to education and reformation (The Ministry of Education, 2010).

As it was stated in the ASEAN Charter Article 34, the working language of ASEAN shall be English; therefore, Thai people have been heavily influenced by the AEC to improve English, especially most Thai students who cannot use English fluently because of their lack of motivation to study English. Proficiency in English is one of the most essential needs beyond the necessary working skills because language is a basic part of workers' human capital (Kitjaroonchai, 2013). Lacking language skills and experience is still problematic in Thailand. The roles of English language teachers and tutors in Thailand are considerably important to develop English learners to be prepared in order to use English in workplaces and business communication when Thailand enters the AEC. However, the shortage of qualified English teachers or tutors is still one of the main problems. Kaewmala (2012) stated that native speakers and foreigners who speak English are hired to teach English in many schools in Thailand, and most schools still depend on these unqualified Thai teachers who cannot speak the language well enough, or have knowledge in English and skills in teaching students. Unlike common teachers who teach only English as a required subject, English language tutors will therefore play a role in passing on English skills to students and other people who need to use English as a working language.

Despite previous studies about both AEC and teaching English, relatively few studies have been done in the context of the English language tutors in the AEC. As an attempt to fill this gap, this study aims to investigate the extent to which Thai students perceive the roles of English language tutors in the AEC and problems of students' English learning. English language tutors in the AEC may become more eager to develop their English skills, teaching strategies, or curricula so that English learners in Thailand may be prepared for the AEC.

Objectives of the study

This study aimed to investigate Thai students' perceptions towards the roles of Thai local tutors teaching English in tutorial schools and the students' problems of learning English in preparation for the AEC. These questions were then developed to two research questions: 1) What are the students' perceptions of the roles of local English language tutors?; and 2) What are the students' problems of learning English in preparation for the AEC?

Literature review

English language and its roles in the AEC

The English language may become the most powerful communicative language when the AEC begins. The largest number of English speakers in the world is in Asia, and they use English as their second and foreign languages (Cheng, 2012, as cited in Poranee Deerajviset, n.d.). Kirkpatrick (2012) states the fact that English has become more and more important in ASEAN countries. Given that English shall be the working language of all ASEAN member countries after the arrival of the AEC, English language skills are very significant in this new approaching environment as well as communicative competence in English, which is extremely necessary for all people in ASEAN countries so that they are well-prepared for their jobs in the context of the AEC. Consequently, all ASEAN members should support the use of English and improve English learning in order to efficiently use English to communicate as a lingua franca and a working language.

As English is used as a working language in the AEC, like in many workplaces, language capability of workers could simplify communication with their colleagues and supervisors (Saraithong, 2013). Due to the importance of English language teaching and learning, the Thai government has attempted to promote educational improvement as Thailand is a core leader of ASEAN. Thai people should have communicative competence in English for good qualification in their work in the context of the AEC. Besides, developing and improving Thai students' English communicative skills is essential for their working lives in the future. This is the main reason to have tutors of English language and tutorial schools in the context of the AEC.

English language teaching and learning in Thailand and problems related to English language learning

According to the Thai TESOL Association study (Durongphan et al., n. d.), English language in Thailand has been taught for over a century since 1824 in the reign of King Rama III. Until during the reign of King Rama VI, when Chulalongkorn University was established, English was made a compulsory subject in the mainstream school system. It was also a required subject in the National University Entrance Examination.

English has been taught as a foreign language and has been widely used for business communication and workplaces in Thailand. It is taught in schools and in higher education as a compulsory subject (Wongsothorn, Hiranburana and Chinnawongs, 2003). However, English curricula in Thailand especially in secondary schools and universities cannot meet the demand for English which is used in the workplace (Kitjaroonchai, 2013). Most teachers in Thailand are not able to teach their students to adapt the English they studied in schools to their daily lives. According to Geringer (2003), teachers are the most important factor in student learning progress, and the quality of those teachers covers other factors such as motivation, funding and class sizes.

Some studies were conducted in the context of problems of English language learning. Kakkar (2013) investigated attitudes and problems in learning English at Prince of Songkla University, Pattani campus, Thailand. He concluded that students had positive attitudes in learning English listening and speaking. However, they think that English instructors should have more pragmatic methods to teach them. Sun (2010, p. 889) reported that some teaching materials, such as listening text, pictures, or songs are practical to make the lessons more appealing. Moreover, language teaching materials play a very important role in language learning and teaching activities (Seven and Engin, 2007).

Roles of tutorial schools and tutors of English in the Thai context

The roles of tutorial schools and tutors of English today are significant to be observed for the purpose that Thai students who are studying English from both the mainstream school system and tutorial schools would prepare and develop themselves and their communicative English skill for the AEC. Even though Thailand lacks qualified English instructors, especially English language tutors, problems of English language teaching and learning in Thailand cannot be solved by employing native speakers only (Nagi, 2012). For this reason, the major roles of tutorial schools and tutors of English are helping students to be proficient in English in such a way that they can efficiently use English in every situation and in the context of the AEC. Also, this study reflects the important roles of English language tutors. In addition, tutors need to improve their English language teaching skills to be qualified.

Related studies

In Hong Kong, Yung (2014) investigated the learning experience and reflections of 14 Chinese learners who had received English private tutoring (EPT) during their secondary education. The findings indicate that in spite of the appearance of EPT to be sought after by many secondary school students in contexts to focus on examinations like in Hong Kong, there is no evidence of English proficiency acquisition for real communication. The term EPT can be adapted to this study as it is one kind of tutoring, and some students would prefer private tutoring to tutoring in tutorial schools. In Bangladesh, Hamid, Sussex, and Khan (2009) examined the nature and practice of private tutoring in English (PT-E), in an underprivileged rural area. The data collected from quantitative analysis shows some positive links between PT-E and achievement in

English, and the qualitative data shows that students had obvious and structured views about PT-E they saw as crucial for successful learning accomplishment. Nevertheless, the data collection of the research on private tutoring in English (PT-E) which used the mixed-method approach to investigate attitudes of students can be adjusted to the current study in order to collect both quantitative and qualitative data.

In America, Bollin and Cai (2013) investigated the benefits of home tutoring of English language learners (ELLs) in the context of tutors' perspectives. This study reported the findings of content analysis of journal entries of 90 pre-service teachers who took part in home-based tutoring of Mexican immigrant children over the course of one semester. The findings showed that a home-based service learning experience became more successful than school-based and community-based service learning projects in leading to positive attitudes towards working with English Language Learners (ELLs).

Furthermore, Shin, Brudhiprabha and Surasin (2014) investigated the readiness of teaching English as a foreign language in Thailand. This research points out that Thailand is not ready to use English as a lingua franca in 2015. It is related to the study of students' perceptions towards the roles of tutors of English in the AEC in that the readiness of TEFL countries can reflect the roles of English language tutors in the Thai context which still lacks experience in using or teaching English, especially communicative English as well as English learners who study English as either a compulsory subject or a selective subject. Matthuchad (2012) explored the readiness of English language studies of high schools in Phitsanulok Province in the context of preparation to join the AEC in 2015. The results of this study indicated that both teachers and students were enthusiastic with the ASEAN Community in 2015. However, most students were weak in spoken and written English. Some teachers cannot speak English well. Some factors contributing to English language teaching and learning were also investigated. Pinnarote (2007) investigated the motivation, learning strategies, problems and needs for private tutoring in English of Matthayom 3 students of the two provincial high schools in Uttaradit. Three main reasons for students to attend private tutoring were found including the need of learning English, the significance of English for a future career, and the benefit of English. However, problems and needs for private tutoring in English can be the case for exploring problems of learning English in the context of the AEC.

Participants

The participants of this study were 67 high school students (Matthayom 4-6 students) from Wat Phrasri Mahadhat Secondary Demonstration School, Pharmakon Rajabhat University selected by using the purposive sampling method.

Research instruments

The online questionnaire was created with the application called Google Forms. This questionnaire was written in Thai and created into the form of a five point Likert rating scale adapted from Likert (1932) in order to show the level of agreement of students' perceptions. The semi-structured interview (see Appendix) was organized to support the data from the questionnaire and make it more explicit by asking students ten questions to obtain greater variation in answers and opinions which provide in-depth information about the roles of English language tutors and problems of learning English in preparation for the AEC.

Data collection and analysis

The link of the online questionnaire was distributed to students by the teacher from Wat Phrasri Mahadhat Secondary Demonstration School, Phranakhon Rajabhat University, and the semi-structured interview was conducted by a Line call together with audio-recording. The data from the online questionnaire was processed and analyzed by means of the computer statistical software Microsoft Excel 2010. The statistical devices employed in this study were percentage, arithmetic mean and standard deviation. The data from item 5 in the first part of the questionnaire and from open-ended questions were analyzed by grouping the key words in order to answer the research questions. The data obtained from the semi-structured interview were interpreted by a data coding method. All coding data were further analyzed by grouping the appropriate keys which can answer the research questions.

Results

The first table shows the general information of the respondents including gender, experience in tutorial schools of English and GPA in English.

Table 1: Number and percentage of senior high school students' responses on general information including gender, experience in tutorial schools of English and GPA in English

Biographical Data	Number of Respondents (N=67)	Percent (%)
Gender		
Male	11	16.4
Female	56	83.6
Total	67	100
Experience of studying English in tutorial schools		

Never		
less than 1 year	13	19.4
1-5 years	3	4.5
6-10 years	38	56.7
more than 10 years	13	19.4
Total	0	0
GPA in English	67	100
1	0	0
1.5	1	1.5
2	3	4.5
2.5	14	20.9
3	22	32.8
3.5	14	20.9
4	13	19.4
Total	67	100

Table 2 shows mean, standard deviation, students' perceptions of the roles of English language tutors and the students' problems of learning English. Students who are respondents of the questionnaire strongly agreed with the concept of tutor's teaching techniques and teaching materials and how tutors should manage them, as they are factors affecting students' motivation and learning.

Table 2: Mean, standard deviation, and students' perceptions of the roles of English language tutors and the students' problems of learning English

Statements	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	Level of Agreement
Curriculum 1. English language tutors should emphasize more on English for daily life communication.	4.48	0.78	Strongly agree
2. English language tutors should provide courses which give language knowledge to both students and people in general for their practical use of English in the AEC context.	4.43	0.65	Strongly agree
3. Activities to promote English language skills like AEC English camp between students in ASEAN member countries Should be provided.	4.22	0.69	Strongly agree
4. Apart from language knowledge, English language tutors should also give students knowledge about ASEAN countries' cultures.	4.09	0.82	Agree
5. In English class, English language tutors should teach students only in English.	3.91	0.91	Agree

Teaching Techniques 6. Activities in class, such as role plays, games, or singing should be provided to improve both knowledge and enjoyment.	4.39	0.83	Strongly agree
7. English language tutors should emphasize describing the meaning of vocabulary in English together with giving real examples.	4.52	0.61	Strongly agree
8. English language tutors should have attractive instruction media, such as cartoon, movies, songs, or video clips.	4.61	0.62	Strongly agree
9. English language tutors should have a good personality and an attractive tone of voice.	4.63	0.67	Strongly agree
10. English language tutors should explain mistakes to students every time.	4.72	0.45	Strongly agree
11. English language tutors should instill positive attitudes towards English in students.	4.73	0.56	Strongly agree
12. English language tutors should provide new sources of knowledge to students.	4.66	0.53	Strongly agree
13. English language tutors should test students before and after lessons.	4.43	0.65	Strongly agree
14. English language tutors should prepare tests which are suitable for students' level.	4.58	0.52	Strongly agree
15. English language tutors should use tests that can evaluate all students' English skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing.	4.52	0.72	Strongly agree

Teaching Materials 16. English language tutors should use provide handouts which are easy for students to understand and can be studied more by themselves.	4.49	0.58	Strongly agree
17. English language tutors should provide e-Learning to students so that they can study and review their lessons more.	4.36	0.64	Strongly agree
18. English language tutors should have online tests with answers so that students can practice their skills.	4.39	0.73	Strongly agree
19. English language tutors should have attractive teaching materials, such as Power Point, video clips, and pictures.	4.40	0.73	Strongly agree
20. English language tutors can use students as teaching materials by having them use English in real situations.	4.43	0.63	Strongly agree

Statements	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	Level of Agreement
Problems of learning English with Tutors 21. Learners do not cooperate with instructors in their teaching.	3.79	1.02	Agree
22. Instructors do not have enough knowledge and cannot answer learners' questions clearly.	3.46	1.14	Agree
23. Instructors lack techniques in passing on knowledge to learners.	3.45	1.25	Agree
24. Instructors lack ability in using English for communication.	3.25	1.21	Neutral
25. Instructors have no confidence in using English language.	4.04	1.06	Agree
26. Parents lack funds to support students in learning.	3.73	1.13	Agree
Total	4.26	0.77	

The qualitative data from the questionnaire and the data coding from the semi-structured interview show that the mainstream school system focused on learning grammar and examinations. However, many students who experienced studying in English tutorial schools also found various problems, such as the problem of tutors' teaching which is sometimes very fast. Most students who are not good at English cannot follow students who already have good basic skills. Other students have difficulties with S.E.L.F (Student Extensive Learning Fitness) system; sometimes they cannot log in and students have to review lessons independently. Most students agreed that English is important because it is the main language in the AEC; it is important for competition between ASEAN countries as well as being necessary for business and trading. English language tutors should be fun, give students additional knowledge in addition to textbooks, and speak only English in class. Students should be surrounded with people who speak English and students should practice using English in their daily lives. Most students think that English language tutors should improve by teaching how to speak English in daily life rather than grammar, improving their accents, and speaking only in English in class. From most of the students' views, English tutorial schools and English language tutors will still be necessary after the AEC is in place.

Discussion

According to Research Question 1: "What are the students' perceptions of the roles of local English language tutors?", the results of the study show how students perceive the roles of local English language tutors. They think that English language tutors should realize that their teaching techniques and teaching materials are important factors that affect students' motivation in English language learning. Hence, these factors should be well-prepared for tutors' English language teaching in preparation for entering the ASEAN Economic Community. These results are relevant to the study of Seven and Engin (2007) on the importance and effect of using aid materials in foreign language teaching. Their results revealed the importance of teaching materials, which have a significant effect on the participation of learners of foreign languages and the learning processes and activities. Therefore, this study shows similar results to the related study of Seven and Engin (2007) that teaching techniques and teaching materials are the factors that motivate students to participate and pay attention in class.

Regarding the Research Question 2: “What are the students’ problems of learning English in preparation for the ASEAN Economic Community?”, the results show that most students encountered problems of learning English in tutorial schools in addition to learning in the mainstream school system. For example, tutors’ teaching is very fast. Most tutors cannot teach students to apply English to their daily lives because of focusing too much on grammar. Other factors which effect student motivation and learning are lack of confidence in using the English language, teaching techniques and teaching materials. This is in line with Noom-ura (2013)’s study of English teaching problems in Thailand and Thai teachers’ professional development needs. The study of Noom-ura (ibid.) illustrated teacher’s problems including their dislike of teaching English, their lack of English teaching qualifications, vocabulary teaching problems, and problems of teaching grammar. There were also problems of students who lack opportunities to practice language. In addition, there were problems of textbooks and other factors like lack of native speakers, or insufficient budgets for teaching materials. The current study also focuses on the problems of learning English and has yielded similar results.

Conclusion

There are still many problems regarding English language teaching and learning in the context of the AEC. The main problem is that there is a shortage of qualified English language instructors and the English curricula in Thailand focus mostly on grammar and examinations which are impractical. Most students do not have the motivation to study languages because of unattractive teaching materials. As a result, English language tutors should help solve the problems of teaching and learning English by providing appropriate and effective teaching to their students who are not skilled in English. English tutorial schools are still necessary as Thailand is using the context of the AEC to help students improve their skills or English and be prepared for using the language in examinations and real lives. Nevertheless, the local English language tutors should improve their teaching styles such as focusing less on grammar and doing exercises, always speaking and explaining to students in English, and or improving accents. To some extent, the results of this study would help develop English language teaching in Thailand, especially in the context of English language tutors and English tutorial schools in Thailand as they are very necessary for not only Thai students but also all Thai people using English in the AEC context.

Implications

All results in this study imply that in preparation for entering the AEC, the Thai government should focus more on English language teaching in Thailand, especially the roles of local English language tutors who play a very important role in developing students' English in order to communicate efficiently when the AEC begins. Further research studies should put more emphasis on English language teaching which should be more effective in developing learners when English has become the lingua franca of Thai people. In addition, further studies in the context of English language tutors should not be neglected as tutors teaching styles can still be improved so that students' English language learning will not depend solely on teaching by native speakers of English. Apart from this study which focuses on perceptions of students, more studies should be carried out by emphasizing various groups of participants, such as parents, university students, or people in general.

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Appendix

Interview questions investigating students' perceptions

1. How long have you studied English?
2. Have you ever studied English in language institutes or tutorial schools?
3. Why do you take extra English tutorial classes?
4. Which tutorial schools do you mainly choose to study? Why?
5. From your own experience, have you found any problems from studying English in language institutes or tutorial schools? How?
6. In your opinion, is English important when Thailand enters the AEC?
7. In your opinion, how should the roles of English language tutors be or what styles of English language teaching do you want in order to be different from the school subject?
8. What factors do you think they would make learners develop English usage for communicating in the context of the AEC?
9. How should English language tutors develop and improve their teaching to make students practically use English.
10. When entering the AEC, are language institutes or tutorial schools necessary? How?

Effects of Processing Instruction and Dictogloss on the Acquisition of the English Passive Voice among Thai University Students

Anuchit Tharamanit, Narat Kanprachar

Abstract

There were two purposes to this study. One was to compare the effects of teaching the English past simple passive through processing instruction (PI), dictogloss (DG), and traditional instruction (TI), and the other was to study the students' retention of the subject matter. A quasi-experimental research was conducted with 95 English-major freshmen from a public university in Thailand. The research materials were three lesson plans and worksheets. A pre-test, an immediate post-test, and a delayed post-test were conducted. The participants were divided into three groups: the processing instruction group (PI: n= 29), dictogloss group (DG: n=29) and the traditional instruction group (TI: n=37). Data analysis was performed by using Mean ($\overline{X}$), Standard Deviation (*SD*), One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA): *F*, and the Scheffé test post-hoc test. The results indicated that while all types of grammar instruction could enhance the acquisition of the English passive, the PI and TI instructions were more effective than the DG instruction. The students in each group retained their understanding of the English passive over time. It is suggested that this study can inform teachers of ESL and EFL in their pedagogical approach, as well as indicating future research directions.

Keywords: processing instruction (PI), dictogloss (DG), traditional instruction (TI), the English passive

บทคัดย่อ

การวิจัยในครั้งนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์ 2 ประการ ได้แก่ เพื่อเปรียบเทียบผลของการสอนกรรมวาจกภาษาอังกฤษด้วยวิธีการสอนแบบ Processing Instruction (PI) Dictogloss (DG) และวิธีการสอนแบบดั้งเดิม (TI) และเพื่อศึกษาความคงทนของการสอนกรรมวาจกภาษาอังกฤษด้วยวิธีดังกล่าว การวิจัยในครั้งนี้เป็นการวิจัยกึ่งทดลองโดยเก็บข้อมูลจากนิสิตชั้นปีที่ 1 วิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษจำนวน 95คนที่กำลังศึกษาในมหาวิทยาลัยของรัฐแห่งหนึ่งในประเทศไทย เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการวิจัยได้แก่ แผนการสอนจำนวน 3 แผนและใบงานและแบบทดสอบที่นำมาใช้ทดสอบกลุ่มตัวอย่างก่อนเรียนหลังเรียนทันทีและหลังเรียนแบบทิ้งช่วงระยะเวลา

กลุ่มตัวอย่างได้รับการแบ่งออกเป็น 3กลุ่ม คือ กลุ่ม PI (29 คน) กลุ่ม DG (29 คน) และกลุ่ม TI (37 คน) การวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลกระทำโดยการหาค่าเฉลี่ย ส่วนเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐาน การวิเคราะห์ความแปรปรวนและการเปรียบเทียบความแตกต่างระหว่างค่าเฉลี่ยเป็นรายคู่ด้วย Scheffé test ผลการวิจัยพบว่า แม้วิธีการสอนกรรมวาจกภาษาอังกฤษทั้ง 3 วิธีจะช่วยในการรับรู้กรรมวาจกของกลุ่มตัวอย่าง แต่การสอนกรรมวาจกภาษาอังกฤษด้วยวิธี PI และวิธี TI มีประสิทธิภาพกว่าวิธี DG และพบว่านิสิตจากทั้ง 3 กลุ่มมีความคงทนในการเรียนรู้กรรมวาจกภาษาอังกฤษเหมือนกันงานวิจัยนี้ได้เสนอแนวทางการสอนไวยากรณ์กรรมวาจกแก่ครูผู้สอนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาที่สองและครูผู้สอนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศและได้เสนอแนวทางในการทำวิจัยในครั้งต่อไป

คำสำคัญ: การสอนด้วยวิธี Processing Instruction (PI), การสอนด้วยวิธี Dictogloss (DG) วิธีการสอนแบบดั้งเดิม (TI), กรรมวาจกภาษาอังกฤษ

Introduction

Extensive attention has been paid to the role of grammar instruction in ESL and EFL classrooms. The two types of grammar instructions, namely processing instruction (PI) and dictogloss (DG) have attracted a great deal of attention from scholars in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). PI is an input-based T&L approach which has its underpinnings in a comprehension oriented approach (VanPatten, 2002a, 2002b). PI facilitates language development by enabling learners to ignore default strategies and link form and meaning during comprehension. DG, on the other hand, is an output-based instruction in which grammatical rules are integrated into communicative collaborative tasks through dictation. It promotes second language learning development by providing an interactive conversation among peers.

Previously published research has examined the relative effect of PI and DG on ESL and EFL learners' grammatical knowledge. However, the results are not uniformly consistent. For example, Qin (2008), who examined the acquisition of the English passive voice through PI and DG with 115 seventh grade learners in China, found that learners in both PI and DG groups improved significantly in comprehension and production tests. Abbasian & Minagar (2012), measured motivation and attitudes towards PI and DG using questionnaires, and found that both DG and PI were significantly, and equally, effective at improving learners' grammar ability, yet DG was more motivational than PI. In contrast, a comparative study by VanPatten et al. (2009), evaluated the effectiveness of PI and DG on object pronouns and word order in Spanish, and found that the PI group outperformed the DG and the control groups in interpretation tasks, and the PI group achieved significant gains at the sentence-level production task. Uludag & VanPatten (2012), with a sample of sixty adult Turkish learners, that the PI group better acquired understanding of the English passive voice than the DG group in terms of sentence-level interpretation, while both groups showed similar results based on sentence-level production and text reconstruction.

Errors in using the passive voice commonly occur with Thai learners of English. Sattayatham & Honsa (2007) reported misuse of the passive voice as one of the top ten most frequent errors committed by EFL Thai adult learners in academic writing. Similarly, Arunsamran, Authok & Poonpon (2011) pointed out that undergraduate students' writing tasks and academic papers produced by Ph.D. students were filled with these types of errors, both at the sentence level (Ayurawatana, 2002) and at the paragraph level (Putthasupa & Karavi, 2010; Charernwiwatthanasri, 2012).

The question remains, however, 'Which is the more effective teaching approach to teach English passive voice, PI or DG? Given the difficulty of understanding this construct by Thai students, it is considered to be worthwhile to investigate further into this area. The current study thus centers on the two main objectives: (1) to compare the effects of teaching English passive through PI, DG, and traditional instruction (TI), and (2) to study the students' retention of the English passive taught by the three types of instructions. The study was with Thai students. The research questions that guide the present study are as follows:

1. What are the effects of teaching grammar through PI, DG, and TI on the students' acquisition of the English passive?
2. Is there any difference in the retention of the English passive taught by PI, DG, and TI?

The structure of this research article is as follows. First, it reviews the related literature, which includes explanations of processing instruction, dictogloss and related research. Then, it describes the research methodology in detail, followed by the research findings. Finally, it presents the pedagogical implications considered relevant, makes suggestions for future research, and then concludes the discussion.

Review of Related Literature

Processing instruction (PI) is an input-oriented and form-focused instruction technique rooted in input processing theory. In other words, PI refers to explicit grammar instruction where the main concepts of input processing have been derived and used in order to uphold learners' intake (VanPatten, 2005; Barcroft & Wong, 2013). PI consists of three main steps as follows: explicit information (EI), input processing strategy (IP), and structured input activities (SI). In the EI step, learners are given an explanation of the rules of the target structure, which assists them in connecting form and meaning. In the IP step, learners are given processing mechanism problems that result in their understanding of the grammatical rule. In the SI step, learners are provided with structured input activities to circumvent the problematic rules in order to motivate learners to bind meaning and form (VanPatten, 2002a; Lee & VanPatten, 2003; Benati & Lee, 2008, 2010; Lee & Benati, 2009).

Dictogloss (DG) is a kind of collaborative output task that is widely practiced in second language classrooms. It is a text reconstruction dictation in which more competent learners assist their partners in an interactive dyadic writing work (Davis & Rinvolucri, 1988). DG consists of six main steps. First, learners are initially asked to listen to a brief text that is read at a normal speed by a teacher and are allowed to take notes while listening. Then, they are asked to work in pairs or small groups in order to reconstruct the text, after which they compare their version to the original text and receive feedback from the teacher (Wajnryb, 1990).

The results from the various investigations into the relative effectiveness of PI and DG on ESL/EFL students' learning of English grammatical structures have largely been inconsistent. For example, Qin (2008) conducted a quasi-experimental study to examine Chinese seventh graders' acquisition of the English passive voice in the simple present and past tenses through PI and DG using Chinese fables. The results revealed that both PI and DG groups improved significantly in comprehension and production tests. VanPatten et al. (2009) conducted a comparative study which replicated the study by VanPatten & Cadierno (1993) to evaluate the effectiveness of PI and DG on object pronouns and word order in Spanish to 108 second year university level Spanish students, who were assigned randomly into these three groups: PI, DG, and a control group. The results showed that the PI group outperformed the DG and the control groups in the interpretation task, and the PI group made a significant gain at the sentence-level production task. A similar study comparing the effectiveness of PI and DG on the acquisition of the English passive voice was conducted by Uludag & VanPatten (2012), in which sixty adult Turkish learners were assigned into three groups, namely control, DG, and PI groups. Their grammar abilities were tested in terms of sentence-level interpretation, sentence-level production, and reconstruction tasks, similar to the study by VanPatten et al. (2009). The results confirmed that PI is superior to DG although both DG and PI instructions proved effective in improving the students' grammatical knowledge. It was also found that the PI group significantly outperformed the control and DG groups on interpretation task.

In addition to examining the effectiveness of PI and DG, other researchers have investigated the factors affecting learners' language acquisition in PI and DG classes. Abbasian & Minagar (2012) investigated the effectiveness of PI and DG on the learning of English passive particularly, and the students' attitudes and motivation in these classes. The participants were a group of 83 Iranian beginning learners of English divided into a DG group and a PI group. Teacher-made achievement tests and motivation and attitude questionnaires were used. Both DG and PI were significantly effective at improving grammar ability, but DG was more motivational than PI. In addition, Suandari et al. (2013) investigated the effectiveness of DG on writing performance and motivation of the eighth-grade students toward the DG. Using DG was superior to traditional techniques for enhancing writing achievement in both high and low motivation students.

Methodology

Participants

A quasi-experimental study was conducted in which 95 English-major freshmen from a public university in Thailand who enrolled in an Intensive English Grammar Course (205101). Students were initially divided by means of a semi-randomized procedure into the three following groups: the processing instruction group (PI: n= 29), the dictogloss group (DG: n=29) and the traditional instruction group (TI: n=37). They were pretested on interpretation and written production tasks. The ANOVA results confirmed that the level of language proficiency of the three groups before commencing the instruction was similar, (interpretation: F (2, 92) = 1.996, p =.142; written production: F (2, 92) = 1.036, p =.359), as seen in Table 1.

Table 1: Means and Standard Deviations of All Groups from Pre-Testing

Groups	PI(n=29)		DG(n=29)		TI(n=37)		F	Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD		
Interpretation	8.59	1.240	8.97	1.085	9.11	.906	1.966	.142
Written Production	7.72	1.750	7.76	1.746	8.30	1.970	1.036	.359

*p<.05

Target Structure: The English Past Simple Passive

The English past simple passive was particularly selected as the target grammatical structure because of three theoretical and pedagogical concerns. Firstly, as suggested by VanPatten (1996, 2002a, 2004a, 2004b), in reference to the First Noun Principle (FNP), learners are likely to assume the first noun or the first pronoun in the sentence is the agent. They misinterpret using their default strategies to think that the subject in the passive is the doer of the action. Secondly, Thai university students face many difficulties dealing with understanding and using the English past simple passive in academic writing tasks because of mother tongue interference (Thep-Ackrapong, 2005; Bennui, 2008), although most other learners whose native language is not English share this difficulty. Thai learners prefer to build up the passive sentence from perceiving the Thai meaning rather than the English syntactic rules (Danvivath, 2003). Thirdly, second language teachers often express concern about teaching the passive construction because it is seen as a complex structure, and it is a challenge for EFL teachers to expose learners to this structure (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1983; Hinkel, 2002).

Research Materials

Three lesson plans were developed, one for each of the teaching approaches. The PI lesson plan was based on the PI principles proposed by VanPatten (1996, 2002a, 2004a, 2004b; Lee & VanPatten, 2003; Wong, 2004; Farley, 2005). The DG lesson plan to encompass the dictogloss teaching steps originated by Wajnryb (1990; Shak, 2006; Nation & Newton, 2009), and the TI lesson plan followed the proposal of VanPatten (2000).

The PI group teaching materials included an informational handout on the English past passive and an explanation of structured input activities (SI). These activities were divided into four referential activities and two affective activities. The teaching materials for the DG group showed three stimuli images of a famous person and short texts explaining the images. The texts contained examples of the target grammatical structure. The TI group were given two handouts and six worksheets that explained the past passive voice rules in terms of the form, meaning and use dimensions.

The lesson plans and teaching materials were verified by a panel of EFL/ESL specialists. The materials were later piloted with a group of students, drawn from another public university, who had similar characteristics to those in the original pool of the participants.

Research Instruments

Research instruments for the current study consisted of a pre-test, an immediate post-test and a delayed post-test.

These tests all consisted of two parts. The first part contained 10 interpretation questions, and the second part contained 10 written production questions. All three tests were in parallel in terms of the number of items, length of time to complete, and format, but the test items were switched in order to avoid students' learning effects.

The interpretation questions were designed to assess the students' comprehension abilities. In each test, there was an interpretation section, comprising five sentence-level interpretation questions, each with a leading stimulus question, five grammatical-judgement questions, and a written production section comprising a section with five sentence level production test sentences, and a discourse level section. In this way, the students understanding of active or passive voice was variously tested.

In the interpretation section, each stimulus question had two associated but paraphrased sentences of similar meaning, indicated as *A)* or *B)*. The students were required to interpret the meaning of each of the associated sentences and mark the sentence which they thought had the same meaning as the stimulus sentence, indicating if they comprehended who was the patient or agent. The score focused on accuracy and graded with 1 mark given for each correct answer.

For the grammatical judgement questions, the learners were asked to indicate if they considered whether or not the sentences in each pair had the same or different meaning. The scoring procedure was administered according to discrete item points and graded with 1 mark for each correct answer. The same interpretative questions were used for all three tests. However, the test items and alternatives were switched by means of randomisation to avoid students' memorization.

The written production questions were constructed to gauge learners' language production skills. The questions were categorized into five sentence-level production questions and discourse-level production questions. Three of the five sentence-level production questions contained the target structures, and the other two were distracters. The students had to determine whether the sentences were active or passive and choose the correct structure. With respect to form and meaning of the English verb to *be* passive, the scoring procedure was administered by allocating 1 mark for each correct answer. For the discourse-level production questions, the students were required to write sentences according to the stimulus pictures using the given words. They needed to build up sentences using the passive voice to express their writing ability. Accurate usage was emphasized and was graded as 1 mark for a correct response. The score did not consider mechanical errors such as punctuation marks or grammatical structures. These errors were beyond the scope of the English past simple passive. The content of each of the three tests, and lists of nouns and verbs given, were different but were in parallel with respect to test format and number of required passive sentences.

To establish validity, three experts reviewed and evaluated the tests, and the level of congruence indicator of all three experts was 1, indicating that the original pool of items was appropriate (Osterlind, 2006). The three experts also modified the test items in terms of language and vocabulary usage, and these modifications where considered necessary.

To establish reliability, the original pool of items, both interpretative questions (30 items) and written production questions (5 items), was first trialled on 135 English-major freshman students in three separate classes at another public university in northern Thailand. The test scores from the trial using the original pool of items were calculated by using the Kuder Richardson formula 20 (KR-20) and Whitney and Sabers formula (Whitney & Sabers, 1970) to examine the level of difficulty (p) and the power of discrimination (r). For the written production questions, all five items were feasible. Three items were chosen because they revealed a high power of discrimination (0.63, 0.71 and 0.73). The reliability of the 30 multiple choice items, which included 20 interpretation questions and 10 sentence level production questions, was 0.50. The reliability of the 5 discourse level production questions was 0.87.

Pilot Study

The pilot study was trialled with the 135 students in order to examine their validity, reliability, and practicality before the commencement of the study. It took two weeks to cover all research procedures. All the research materials and instruments were included in this study. Following the pilot testing, the effectiveness and feasibility of the research instruments were determined by means of statistical analysis and the research material and research instruments were fine-tuned appropriately.

Data Collection Procedures

The data collection procedures occupied the second half of the first semester of the 2014 academic year, a total of eight weeks. This period included pre-testing and post-testing. The three classes were taught by the researcher at the students' usual class times, in one two-hour class and one one-hour class per week. An informed consent form approved by the Naresuan University Institutional Review Board was explained to the students and signed by them prior to their participation. The one hour pre-test was administered two weeks before the instructional period. Scores from the pre-test were used to determine that the level of language proficiency of all the students was equivalent. The participants were then divided by means of a semi-randomized procedure into the processing instruction group (PI: n= 29), the dictogloss group (DG: n=29) and the traditional instruction group (TI: n=37). The three groups were taught according to the theoretical frameworks and teaching steps underpinning PI, DG, and TI based on the designed lessons plans for three hours. Post-testing was administered for one hour immediately following. The students then pursued regular classes for five weeks at which time the delayed post-testing was done.

The DG group activity differed from the PI and TI groups in that the students worked in dyads of mixed ability based on the students' pre-test scores. According to Storch and Aldosari (2013), the optimal dyad that works best for form-focused instruction must be a mixed level of language proficiency pairing (H-L).

Results

Research Question 1

The results from the interpretation task and the written production task for research question 1, which investigated the effects of teaching grammar through PI, DG, and TI on the students' acquisition of the English passive, are presented below.

Results from the Interpretation Task

Table 2 below shows means, standard deviations, ANOVA from the interpretation task pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test.

Table 2: Means, Standard Deviations, and ANOVA of All Groups for the Interpretation Task

Group	n	Pre-test		Immediate Post-test		Delayed Post-test		F	Sig.
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD		
PI	29	8.59	1.24	9.38	.94	9.34	.76	5.79	.00*
DG	29	8.97	1.08	9.34	.81	9.28	.75	1.47	.23
TI	37	9.11	.90	9.54	.73	9.62	.54	5.12	.00*
F		1.99		.54		2.41			
Sig.		.14		.58		.09			

*p<.05

Table 2 shows the results for the interpretation task of the PI, DG, and TI groups. When considering the mean scores across the three tests for each group, we can see that the mean scores of the PI and TI groups increased from the pre-test (PI = 8.59, TI = 9.11) to the immediate post-test (PI = 9.38, TI = 9.54). Also, the mean scores of the PI group slightly decreased and the mean scores of the TI group slightly increased from the immediate post-test (PI = 9.38, TI = 9.54) to the delayed post-test (PI = 9.34, TI = 9.62). The ANOVA results also confirmed a significant difference among the mean scores of the PI group and the TI groups (PI: F (2, 84) = 5.79, p = .00; TI: F (2, 84) = 5.12, p = .00). The mean scores of the DG group, on the other hand, did not differ significantly across the three tests.

A post-hoc Scheffé test performed to examine which tests of the interpretation task of the PI and TI groups demonstrated statistically significant differences at the .05 level. The results for the PI group showed that the mean scores for immediate post-test and delayed post-test were both significantly higher than that of the pre-test (Pre-test vs. Immediate post-test: M_{Diff}= - .79*, SE = .26, p = .01; Pre-test vs. Delayed post-test: M_{Diff}= - .75*, SE = .26, p = .01). The results indicated that the PI instruction effectively helped the students improve their performance on the interpretation task of the past simple passive.

The Scheffé test results further revealed that, for the TI group, the mean scores for immediate post-test and delayed post-test were both significantly higher than that of the pre-test (Pre-test vs. Immediate post-test: M_{Diff}= - .43*, SE = .17, p = .04; Pre-test vs. Delayed post-test: M_{Diff}= - .51*, SE = .17, p = .01). The results indicated that the TI instruction effectively helped the students improve their performance on the interpretation task of the past simple passive.

Overall, the results from the interpretation task show that the PI, DG, and TI instruction approaches all had a positive effect on the students' acquisition of the English past simple passive, demonstrated in the gains made from the pre-test to the immediate post-test. However, there is a significant improvement from the students in the PI and TI groups, but not in the DG group, suggesting that the PI and TI instructions are more effective than the DG instruction.

Results from the Written Production Task

Table 3 shows means, standard deviations, ANOVA results from the written production task pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test.

Table 3: Means, Standard Deviations, and ANOVA of All Groups for the Written Production Task

Group	n	Pre-test		Immediate Post-test		Delayed Post-test		F	Sig.
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD		
PI	29	7.72	1.75	8.79	1.11	8.90	1.01	6.87	.00*
DG	29	7.76	1.74	8.03	1.89	8.79	1.08	3.19	.04*
TI	37	8.30	1.97	9.03	1.11	9.11	1.04	3.55	.03*
F		1.03		4.28		.78			
Sig.		.35		.01*		.46			

*p <.05

Table 3 displays results for the written production task of the PI, DG, and TI groups. We can see that the mean scores of the three groups increased considerably from the pre-test (PI= 7.72, DG = 7.76, TI = 8.30) to the immediate post-test (PI = 8.79, DG = 8.03, TI = 9.03). There was a minimal increase from the immediate post-test to the delayed post-test (PI 8.79-8.90; TI 9.03-9.11). In the DG group, there was a significant increase between the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test (DG 8.03- 8.79). The ANOVA results further confirmed a significant difference among the mean scores of the three groups (PI: F (2, 84) = 6.87, p = .00; DG: F (2, 84) = 3.19, p = .04; TI = F (2, 84) = 3.55, p = .03).

A post-hoc Scheffé test revealed that the mean scores of all three groups in both the immediate post-test and delayed post-test were significantly higher than that of the pre-test (Pre-test vs. Immediate post-test: M_{Diff}= -1.07*, SE = .35, p = .01; Pre-test vs. Delayed post-test: M_{Diff}= - 1.17*, SE = .35, p = .00). Of significance is that the results, as shown in Table 2, indicate that the TI instruction very effectively helped the students improve their performance on the written production task.

The Scheffé test results for the DG group surprisingly revealed that only the mean score for the delayed post-test was significantly higher than that of the pre-test (M_{Diff}= 1.03*, SE = .424, p = .05), while there was no significant improvement of mean scores from the pre-test to immediate post-test.

The Scheffé test results for the TI group revealed that the mean scores for the immediate post-test and delayed post-test were both significantly higher than that of the pre-test (Pre-test vs. Immediate post-test: M_{Diff}= - .73*, SE = .335, p = .09; Pre-test vs. Delayed post-test: M_{Diff}= -.81*, SE = .33, p = .05). The results indicated that the TI instruction effectively helped the students to improve their performance on the written production task.

When comparing the difference in mean scores between the groups on written production task (Table 3), we can see that the TI group had the highest mean scores on the immediate post-test (9.03) and the delayed post-test (9.11), followed by the mean scores of the PI on the immediate post-test (8.79) and the delayed post-test (8.90) and the DG groups on the immediate post-test (8.03) and the delayed post-test (8.79). The one-way ANOVA analysis of the written production task revealed statistically significant differences only among the three groups on the immediate post-test (F (2, 92) = 4.28, p = .01).

A Scheffé test was conducted to examine which groups demonstrated statistically significant differences at the .05 level on the immediate post-test on written production. The mean score of the TI group was significantly higher than that of the DG group (M_{Diff} = .99*, SE = .348, p = .020), indicating that the TI instruction was more effective than the DG instruction in improving the students' performance of the English past simple passive on the written production task.

These results from the written production task showed that the PI, DG, and TI instruction all had a positive effect on the students' learning of the English past simple passive. The students who received these instruction in any of these made some gains from the pre-test to the immediate post-test and maintained their performance in this task over time. However, a considerable improvement from the students in the PI and TI groups was observed, but not in the DG group. This suggests that the PI and TI instructions were more effective than the DG instruction for the written task.

Research Question 2

Research question 2 investigated the students' retention of the past simple passive taught by PI, DG, and TI.

Results from the Interpretation Task

When comparing the difference in mean scores between the groups on the interpretation task (Table 2), the TI group performed best on the immediate post-test (9.54) and the delayed post-test (9.62), while the PI and the DG groups performed almost equally on the two tests (Immediate post-test: PI = 9.38, DG = 9.34; Delayed post-test: PI = 9.34, DG = 9.28).

The Scheffé test results for the PI group revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of immediate post-test and delayed post-test (M_{Diff}=- .13, SE = .35, p = .95). The results indicated that the PI instruction helped the students maintain their performance on the interpretation task of the English past simple passive over time.

For the DG group, the ANOVA results (shown in Table 2), revealed no statistically significant difference between the mean scores across the three tests on the interpretation task. The results also showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test. This means that the DG instruction helped the students maintain their performance on interpretation task of the English past simple passive over time.

The Scheffé test results for the TI group revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of immediate post-test and delayed post-test (M_{Diff}= -.08, SE = .17, p = .89). The results indicated that the TI instruction helped the students maintain their performance on the interpretation task of the English passive over time.

The results from the interpretation task showed that there was no difference in the students' retention of the English passive taught by PI, DG, and TI techniques. However, the students in each group were able to retain their interpretation ability over time.

Results from the Written Production Task

Contrasting the mean scores between the groups on the written production task, as shown in Table 3, the TI group had the highest mean scores on the immediate post-test (9.03) and the delayed post-test (9.11), followed by the mean scores of the PI on the immediate post-test (8.79) and the delayed post-test (8.90) and the DG groups on the immediate post-test (8.03) and the delayed post-test (8.79). However, when a one-way ANOVA was carried out for the written production task, it did not show a significant difference of mean scores among the three groups on the delayed post-test (F (2, 92) = .78, p = .46).

The Scheffé test results for the PI group also revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of immediate post-test and delayed post-test (M_{Diff}=-.10, SE = .35, p = .95). The results indicated that the PI instruction helped the students maintain their performance on the written production task of the English passive over time.

The Scheffé test results for the DG group also revealed that there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of immediate post-test and delayed post-test (M_{Diff}=-.76, SE = .42, p = .20). This result indicated that the DG instruction helped the students maintain their performance on the written production task of the English passive over time.

The Scheffé test results for the TI group showed no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of immediate post-test and delayed post-test (M_{Diff}=-.08, SE = .33, p = .97), indicating that the TI instruction helped the students maintain their performance on the written production task of the English passive over time.

The results from the written production task showed that there was no difference in the students' retention of the English passive taught by PI, DG, and TI techniques. However, the students in each group were able to retain their writing ability over time.

Discussion

The findings for both Research Questions 1 and 2, suggest that the PI and TI groups performed better than the DG group and that the TI group performed best among the three groups on interpretation and written production tasks. These findings support many previous studies that share similar aims (e.g. Mégharbi, 2007; Qin 2008; Russell, 2009; Abbasian & Minagar, 2012; Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pawlak, 2012). However, they are inconsistent with studies by, for example, VanPatten & Uludag (2011) and Birjandi, Maftoon & Rahemi (2011), which indicated that PI was superior to the control group in the case of interpretation. These findings might possibly be explained according to three main reasons as follows: (1) Explicit Information (EI), (2) Structured Input activities (SI), and (3) the use of drills.

First, EI seems to be an important factor in the PI and TI students' interpretation and written production gains. EI pertains to the detailed explanation of rules containing the target form, which can be presented by either the language teacher or in any handouts used (VanPatten, 2009). The students who studied with the PI technique were initially equipped with EI about the English past simple passive. The TI group also studied English passive rules first before they were asked to build up the passive voice sentences in affirmative, negative and interrogative forms. Therefore, rigid rule explanation at the beginning of PI instruction and throughout TI instruction may be the crucial factor that raises the students' awareness of the passive voice, resulting in their lasting understanding of this grammatical structure and the TI group's satisfactory performance overall.

The value of EI found in the current study is evidently upheld by many studies. For example, VanPatten (2009) reported that the students' interpretation and written production test results on direct object pronouns and word order in Spanish were higher in the class taught by both PI and EI together, than in the class taught by PI only. In this case, EI seems to assist the students in recognizing the rules and verb inflection. Thus, the students were able to attend to the verbs from the input received and simultaneously comprehend form and meaning. VanPatten & Borst (2012) explained that EI also helps students to understand the meaning of the sentences by allowing them to process syntactic structures and use default strategies with the target forms. In terms of durability of knowledge, Seliger (1975) and Radwan (2005) reported that students' linguistic knowledge was durable over time after the students received explicit teaching. Thus, explicit instruction can bring about explicit knowledge. This may contribute to grammatical development and the retention of grammatical knowledge.

Unlike the PI and the TI groups, the students in the DG group were not provided with explicit explanation of the English passive while performing tasks. This possibly explains why the DG group had the lowest written task score among the three groups on the immediate post-test. This issue is supported by Gallego's (2010) study, which found that the DG group with rule explanation yielded greater gains than the DG group without rule explanation.

Second, an explanation why the PI group performed better than the DG group and that the students in the PI group could retain their passive voice knowledge over time could be related to structured input activities (SI). According to VanPatten (2002a), Benati & Lee (2010), SI is one of the components of PI consisting of referential and affective activities. Referential activities encourage learners to pay attention to target grammatical rules in order to perceive meaning. Learners respond to answers that may be either right or wrong. Affective activities require learners to express their opinions and feelings. Learners are provided with activities that they can incorporate into real world contexts. In these activities, there are no correct or incorrect answers. SI is related to PI in that PI encourages learners to deal with problematic operations and presents beneficial activities which assist learners in overcoming challenges. Once learners received explicit information, they tend to understand why particular utterances are problematic. From that point on, structured input activities will aid learners to turn away from default strategies (VanPatten & Uludag, 2011).

In the current study, the PI students had opportunities to engage in SI, including referential and affective activities, without performing language production at all. The purpose of SI, according to the First Noun Principle (FNP), is to coerce the students' attention away from considering the first noun or pronoun they encountered as the agent of the action (Barcroft & Wong, 2013). It can be considered that SI may encourage the students to form form-meaning maps, using their initiative, thus enabling them to link the target forms to their relevant meanings.

VanPatten & Fernández (2004) and Marden (2006) point out that SI can lead to positive effects both in the short-term and the long-term. In the current study the effects of PI also proved durable five weeks after instruction and thus strengthened the conclusion of the durability effect of PI on the acquisition of the passive voice.

Third, the use of drills is an important characteristic of the TI technique, and in this study, drills seemed to enhance the students' recognition and understanding of the active and passive forms and enabled the students in the TI group to perform better than the other groups in the interpretation and written production tasks. Drills in the current study are categorized into mechanical and meaningful drills. Mechanical drills refer to controlled learning practice which requires the students to memorize the target rule and respond to the given question without understanding. Meaningful drills refer to controlled learning practice which requires the students to understand the given questions and later provide an accurate answer. They need to understand both the form and meaning in order to overcome practice activities (Paulston & Bruder, 1976; Cook, 2008). The benefits of using drills to enhance language learning are attested, and it is generally accepted that drills are still viable as a method in teaching grammar (Khodamoradi & Khaki, 2012; Shinya & Ikhsan, 2013).

With respect to the result of the DG technique, which was found to be less effective than the PI and TI techniques in the current study, it is possibly due to the lack of pre-task modelling. Pre-task modelling is an activity that helps students become accustomed to an unfamiliar teaching process and can facilitate students' learning development (Kim & McDonough, 2011). The current research was carried out without modelling how to perform the DG tasks because of the time constraint of only three hours teaching time. The students needed more practice opportunities to become better acquainted with the DG technique, which was not practicable under the circumstances.

Nonetheless, the DG technique was found to help the students to retain their understanding of the English passive on both interpretation and written production tasks. Following are two major possible reasons that explain the durability effects of DG instruction: (1) the hypothesis formulation and testing function of output, and (2) the notion of noticing.

First, the hypothesis formulation and testing function of output may also help clarify the durability effect of DG instruction. This may be discussed together with the merit of feedback. Campillo (2003, 2006) posited that there are benefits in receiving implicit feedback from the teacher and explicit feedback from peers. These benefits lead to increased student retention of linguistic knowledge. In the current study, peer feedback was incorporated into the text reconstruction step. It allowed the students to modify, confirm, and reject the hypotheses that they had formulated about the past simple passive, as they attempted to clarify ideas and negotiate for meaning. The repeated clarification and negotiation that occurred during the text reconstruction step thus helped strengthen students' understanding of the English passive and enable them to retain knowledge about this target grammatical structure for a long time, according to the five-week delayed post-test.

The second reason that explains why the DG group was able to retain their knowledge of the passive voice is related to the notion of noticing, which refers to students' conscious learning mechanism in examining a linguistic form (Schmidt, 1990, 1994, 2010). In the current study, noticing may have been derived from the learning process of DG during Step 3 (Listening and Note-taking) and Step 4 (Text Reconstruction). This allowed the students to develop conscious awareness of the passive voice and possibly encourages them to notice the passive structures in the reconstruction text. Kuiken & Vedder (2002) specified that students' negotiation during

Step 4 involves them in extensive use of metatalks (or LREs), which ultimately leads to noticing. Swain (1995) and Shak (2006) also explain that students' negotiation during the text reconstruction step in dictogloss enables them to notice the gap between the grammatical forms they produce and the grammatical forms they should produce. This leads to noticing, and noticing influences the students learning and acquisition of the passive voice.

Other Possible Explanations for the Results from Research Questions 1 and 2

Regarding Research Question 1, one result was that the DG group's delayed post-test score on written production task was significantly higher than the pre-test score. This finding contradicted the expectation that the immediate post-test score would be higher than the pre-test score. This was possibly due to the fact that as the students had never experienced the DG instruction before in their past education and they were unfamiliar with all the processes involved and needed longer time to digest information they learned in the class.

For Research Question 2, there was no difference in the students' retention of the English passive taught by PI, DG, and TI. This signifies the students' ability to retain their understanding of the English passive over time. This phenomenon may be addressed in terms of the high test results from pretesting. That is, the three groups were equal at the outset of the study on interpretation and written production tasks, and the pretesting revealed that the students' interpretation and written production abilities on the English passive were rather high. This may be attributed to the students having background knowledge of the English past simple passive from their past education, so the grammatical structure chosen for the students to study was not what this group of students find challenging or problematic. Thus, this can be seen as a possible reason why the students in the three groups did not differ significantly on the students' retention.

The final observation of the research findings regarding Research Questions 1 and 2 was that the mean scores of the TI group were higher than those of the PI and DG groups on all tests. These findings were again counter to expectation. The PI and DG instructions were expected to be more rewarding to the students than the TI instruction, as they are widely recognized as promising teaching techniques for developing students' grammatical competence (Van Patten & Uludag, 2011; Birjandi, Maftoon & Rahemi, 2011; Uludag & Van Patten, 2012). The explanation of these unexpected findings may be related to the fact that the PI and DG instructions involve many steps, but there was insufficient time available to comprehensively explain all these steps. The PI technique contains three main steps: Explicit Information (EI), Input Processing Strategies (IP), and Structured Input Activities (SI). The DG technique contains six steps: preparation, listening for meaning, listening and note-taking, text reconstruction, text comparison, and writing and wrap-up. Since the students in this study had only three hours of class time to study the past simple passive, the time allocated was insufficient to acquaint the students with the new teaching techniques. Therefore, the students in the PI and DG groups were not able to score as highly on the tests as the students in the TI group, who studied with the type of instruction with which they were most familiar.

Pedagogical Implications

From this analysis, there are two pedagogical implications that can be deciphered. The first pedagogical implication is related to choosing a suitable text for teaching grammar. For a suitable text, the content needs to be interesting to students. This can be done by using text that has relevance to their lives as used in this study. If an authentic text is chosen, it should be simplified to fit the students' level of language proficiency and maximize the students' opportunities to learn the target structure. The stimuli images need to be vivid, interesting, and relevant to the given text to arouse students' attention at the beginning step. Additionally, the text should contain a high frequency of the target grammatical structure to help students to notice the target forms easily.

The second implication is related to using the DG technique to teach grammar to EFL students. Thai students find it difficult to listen to and then reconstruct the spoken text. It is suggested that the teacher allow the students to listen to each text more than twice and extend the period of time for the text reconstruction step. The teacher's decision should be based on a careful consideration of students' proficiency levels and time allocated for class activities.

Suggestions for Future Research

From the discussion on the comparison of teaching the English past simple passive through PI, DG, and TI, it can be suggested that the challenge for future research is to investigate the effects of PI, DG, and TI on ESL/EFL students with various language proficiency levels. However, another area of research is to examine the relationship between language learning development and attitudes in the PI, DG, and TI classes. This investigation will divulge the effects of cognitive and affective factors on language acquisition. Qualitative research may be conducted to extend knowledge about learning strategies that students use during the PI, DG, and TI techniques. As is stated in the discussion, many of the cited research was about teaching English in very different language cultures; Spanish (a European language with roots in Latin), Farsi (Spoken by the Iranian students, with its roots in Arabic), Thai and Chinese (Asian languages with very different roots and linguistic structures). The impact and influence of these widely varying L1's would seem to have an effect on both the understanding of English syntax and grammar, and on the EFL teaching styles. An analysis of these influences and their impact on the success of applying PG, TI and DG seems an interesting and fruitful line of research, for the future.

Conclusion

As stipulated at the beginning of this paper, the purposes of the study were to compare the effects of teaching grammar through processing instruction (PI), dictogloss (DG) and traditional instruction (TI) in assisting students' attainment of the English passive. This included studying the students' retention over time of the subject matter taught by PI, DG, and TI. The results from the interpretation task, and written production task revealed a significant improvement from the students in the PI and TI groups, but not in the DG group, suggesting that the PI and TI instructions were more effective than the DG instruction. The results also demonstrated no difference in the students' retention of the English passive taught by PI, DG, and TI, which means the students in each group were able to retain their understanding of the English passive over time. PI, DG, and TI contribute to the students' learning achievement and seem successful in promoting understanding of English grammar especially for Thai students in grammar-focused language classes. The current study can certainly inform Thai teachers of English, particularly at the university level, on the appropriate and best grammar instruction methods congruent with Thai students' language proficiency.

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Combining a Corpus-Based Approach and Qualitative Analysis to Create a Pedagogically Useful List of Multiword Combinations for Research Publication

Attapol Khamkhien

Abstract

University lecturers and graduate students have been under increasing pressure to publish their research work in prestigious journals. Among other things, multiword sequences seem to be challenging for novice writers and graduate students struggling to make their manuscripts convincing and interesting for potential readers in their research communities. This study reports on the frequency and use of phraseological patterns in applied linguistics research articles. Using corpus linguistics methodology in combination with qualitative analysis, the present study identified phraseological patterns frequently co-occurring in research articles, their structural types, and pragmatic functions in contextual environments. To begin with, two, three, and four-word n-grams were extracted from a corpus of the four internal sections of 50 research articles (equating to approximately 205,187 running words) to identify the suitable n-grams to focus on. Based on their semantic and grammatical relations, three-grams appeared to be pedagogically interesting, were further explored. Five EAP instructors were invited to select the strings identified, contributing to a pedagogically useful list of 289 multiword combinations. The results of the structural analysis indicated that the majority of writers employed amount of noun-based structures most, followed by other structures, verb-based and prepositional-based structures. Functional analysis clearly revealed that the use of certain phraseological patterns was strongly associated with the communicative functions of a given section of the texts. Pedagogically, this study sheds light on language use in this particular writing research genre and provides more evidence-based instructional practices, especially advanced language courses targeted at scholarly reading and writing.

Keywords: Academic word list, TCI database, English for Academic Purposes, Writing for publication

บทคัดย่อ

อาจารย์มหาวิทยาลัยและนิสิตนักศึกษาระดับบัณฑิตศึกษาได้รับการผลักดันให้เผยแพร่ผลงานวิจัยในวารสารที่ได้รับการยอมรับและมีชื่อเสียง ทั้งนี้ การใช้กลุ่มคำศัพท์เพื่อให้ผู้อ่านบทความเกิดความสนใจและการเขียนบทความให้มีความน่าเชื่อถือ ในชุมชนวิจัยนั้นดูเหมือนจะเป็นสิ่งที่ท้าทายสำหรับผู้เริ่มต้นเขียนและนิสิตนักศึกษาระดับบัณฑิตศึกษา งานวิจัยนี้ เป็นการศึกษาความถี่และการใช้รูปแบบกลุ่มคำศัพท์ที่ปรากฏขึ้น

บ่อยครั้งในบทความวิจัย ด้านภาษาศาสตร์ประยุกต์ โดยใช้วิธีการทางภาษาศาสตร์คลังข้อมูลร่วมกับการวิเคราะห์เชิงคุณภาพการศึกษา รวมทั้งจำแนกประเภทโครงสร้าง และหน้าที่ของกลุ่มคำศัพท์เมื่อในไปใช้ในบริบทต่างๆ การวิจัยเริ่มจากการวิเคราะห์กลุ่มคำศัพท์ (n-grams) ขนาดสองคำ สามคำ และสี่คำ ตามลำดับจากคลังข้อมูลที่ได้จากสี่ส่วนหลักของบทความวิจัยจำนวน 50 บทความ (205,187 คำ) เพื่อระบุขนาดของกลุ่มคำที่เหมาะสม ในการวิเคราะห์ เบื้องต้นพบว่ากลุ่มคำศัพท์ขนาดสามคำมีความน่าสนใจและเป็น ประโยชน์ต่อการเรียนการสอนโดยพิจารณาจากความสัมพันธ์ของความหมายและไวยากรณ์ จากนั้น อาจารย์มหาวิทยาลัย จำนวน 5 ท่านได้ทำการเลือกกลุ่มคำศัพท์ขนาดสามคำดังกล่าวทำให้ได้รายการกลุ่มคำศัพท์ขนาดสามคำที่มีประโยชน์ และเอื้อต่อการเรียนการสอนจำนวน 289 กลุ่มคำ ผลจากการวิเคราะห์ทางโครงสร้างชี้ให้เห็นว่าผู้เขียนบทความส่วนใหญ่ ใช้โครงสร้างกลุ่มคำนามมากที่สุด ตามด้วยกลุ่มโครงสร้างอื่นๆ โครงสร้างคำกริยา และโครงสร้างคำบุพบท การวิเคราะห์อย่างเป็นระบบยังเผยให้เห็นว่า การใช้กลุ่มคำศัพท์มีความสัมพันธ์อย่างยิ่งกับหน้าที่การสื่อสารของแต่ละส่วน ของบทความที่กลุ่มคำนั้นๆ ปรากฏ งานวิจัยนี้แสดงให้เห็นความสำคัญของการใช้ภาษาในการเขียนงานวิจัยและเป็นประโยชน์ต่อการเรียนการสอนภาษา โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งการนำผลไปใช้กับการพัฒนาหลักสูตรภาษาขั้นสูงที่มุ่งเน้นการอ่านและการเขียนเชิงวิชาการ

คำสำคัญ: ชุดคำศัพท์ทางวิชาการ, ฐานข้อมูล TCI, ภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อวัตถุประสงค์ทางวิชาการ, การเขียนเพื่อตีพิมพ์ในวารสาร

Introduction

Currently, writing a research article and getting acceptance to publish it in a peer-reviewed journal are vital. There is increasing pressure on Thai novice scholars and graduate students to publish in prestigious journals, particularly those indexed in the TCI (Thai-citation index) database. Most universities require their graduate students to publish at least one refereed article in refereed journals as part of their graduation. The task, nonetheless, may be difficult for them because being competent in writing for publication requires knowledge of the genre and its associated textual features (Feak & Swales, 2011; Hyland, 2004b). Macro- and micro-structures of the stretch of the texts have gained attention and prominence in writing instruction based on Swales' (1990; 2004) discoursal work on academic and research articles written in English. As a macro-structure, phraseological patterns are claimed to be helpful as it is "pre-packaging of information or of the structures used to present information" (Reppen, 2004, p. 83), which helps writers by reducing the processing load.

With current technology, phraseological patterns have established themselves as an important field of study within corpus linguistics. Implications for the teaching and learning of language can be made, in writing academic works and in several areas related to academic communication (e.g. Biber & Barbieri, 2007; Conrad & Biber, 2004; Cortes, 2004; 2006; 2013; Hyland, 2008a; 2008b; Li & Schmitt, 2009; Martinez & Schmitt, 2012). It is commonly agreed that this knowledge play a facilitative role in learning and using a language because they represent fluent linguistic production, particularly in spoken language (Pawley & Syder, 1983), and academic texts (e.g. Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad & Finegan, 1999; Conrad & Biber, 2004; Cortes, 2013; Hyland, 2008a, 2008b; Nesi & Basturkmen, 2006).

Given the umbrella of formulaic language, scholars differently define and use various terms in research on phraseology. For instance, Altenberg (1998), in his seminal work, multiword units referred to the term "*recurrent word-combinations*" in investigating word patterns typically recur in spoken English. The term "lexical bundles" is used in many studies (e.g. Biber et al., 1999; Biber & Barbieri, 2007; Biber, Conrad & Cortes, 2004; Conrad & Biber, 2004; Chen & Baker, 2010; De Cock, Granger, Leech & McEnery, 1998; Hyland, 2008a; 2008b). Schmitt (2004) preferred the term "formulaic sequences", whilst "phraseology" and "phraseological patterns" introduced by Charles (2006) and Granger and Meunier (2008) were generally used to refer to sets of recurrent word combinations. Moreover, the terms referring to phraseological patterns include "lexical clusters" (Hyland, 2008a), "recurrent word combinations" (Altenberg, 1998), "phrasicon" (De Cock, Granger, Leech & McEnery, 1998), "n-grams" (Stubbs, 2007). Among these distinctive terminologies, Erman and Warren (2002) stated that multiword combinations denote "combinations of at least two words favored by native speakers in preference to an alternative combination which could have been equivalent had there been no conventionalization" (p. 31), which is quite similar to Biber et al. (1999) who discuss that, based on our intuition, they can be fixed expression or so-called idiomatic phrases that have fixed meanings and can be understood by language speakers cannot be included because lexical bundles are distinct from those. They are also semantically transparent. Wray (2002) preferred to use the "word sequences" and explained that they are stored in the mental lexicon. These strings are nevertheless glued together in everyday discourse.

Even though several terms are used to refer to phraseological patterns, it can be seen that these terms and definitions share some common ground as they are a type of word combination or phrases frequently recurring in text, performing particular discourse functions (Cortes, 2004), helping to shape meanings and contributing to a sense of coherence in a text (Hyland, 2008a). Biber (2006) asserted that the identification of phraseological patterns is a resolutely quantitative activity, based solely upon frequency and distribution criteria obtained from computer programs. Cortes (2004) suggested that basic techniques employed to identify lexical bundles are word frequency counts, while concordance lines, lexico-grammatical profiles, and keyword analysis are techniques that can be done with multiword combinations once they have been identified, in order to identify their functions in context and their occurrence in the texts.

Considerable attention has been paid to the role of phraseological patterns in language teaching and learning (e.g. Cortes, 2004; 2006; Li & Schmitt, 2009). For example, Cortes (2004) compared the frequency and function of lexical clusters in the written production of professional authors and student writing in history and biology. The study showed that some lexical bundles were extremely frequent in corpora of research articles, while rarely found in the students' works. Cortes confirmed that the exposure to the use of lexical bundles in reading materials did not transfer directly into students' active production of lexical bundles in writing process. Therefore, the acquisition and appropriate use of lexical bundles does not seem to be a natural process, and, as such, corroborate Jones and Haywood's (2004) work. The study revealed that after a 10-week instruction period focusing on the production of lexical bundles, university students found that knowledge of word strings could assist them technically to express complex ideas in writing tasks, to facilitate the structure of different writing stages, and to show the necessary level of formality. Moreover, in Li and Schmitt's (2009) study, the development of students' formulaic sequence repertoire over the course tends to be slow, even though these students were language majors. Some studies (Durrant, 2015; Liu, 2012; Martinez & Schmitt; 2012; Simpson-Vlach & Ellis, 2010) are further complicated by the fact that the researchers have tried to create lists of academic words that are frequently used in different registers such as basic conversation, reading and writing (Nation, 2001), different academic journals and university textbooks (Coxhead, 2000), medical texts (Wang, Liang & Ge, 2008), academic writing in disciplinary differences (Durrant, 2015; Liu, 2012). These researchers have congruently stated that each subject discipline has its own way of argumentation, preferred forms, meanings and syntactical patterns (Martinez et al. (2009) because lexical items included in the lists may result from the shaping of the disciplines, text selection, and 'the particular ways of representing experience' (Yang, 2015, p. 30).

As can be seen, a number of academic word lists have been created in the literature to serve different purposes. Corpora used in each study are varied according to research purposes and interests, mostly taken from several disciplines. Therefore, to provide scaffolding support for Thai novice writers and graduate students to enhance the opportunities for scholarly publication, especially in journals indexed in the TCI database, knowledge of phraseology could provide them with a head start in embarking on an academic research writing task. The frequency of occurrence of the phraseological patterns identified may facilitate fluency in language production, especially how to start crafting their own articles effectively (Bybee, 2002). It is believed that, if learning to use the phraseological patterns of a discipline can contribute to gaining a communicative competence, identifying these lexical clusters may be advantageous so as to help these people acquire the specific rhetorical practices of the texts they have to produce (Hyland, 2008b). To accomplish this, this study sought to shed some light on the way language is directly experienced in academic articles by identifying the most frequent phraseological patterns and their pragmatic functions found in published research articles in applied linguistics. This study attempts to investigate the use of phraseological patterns in the research articles indexed in the TCI database and tries to answer the following questions:

1) What phraseological patterns do the article authors use in their academic writing for publication?
2) What are the structural types and functions of these phraseological patterns identified?

3) How are the pragmatic functions of these phraseological patterns identified associated to the functions of the given sections?

Related Studies on the development of academic word lists

Researchers acknowledge the usefulness of phraseological studies, and they aim to use the findings for pedagogic purposes, especially creating classroom materials to enhance student competence. Coxhead (2000), for example, created an Academic Word List (AWL) which contains 570 word families taken from a corpus of 3.5 million from four areas of arts, commerce, law and natural science. Each word included in the AWL list has to occur 10 times or more in each of the four main areas of the corpus, in at least 15 of the 28 subject areas, and more than 100 times in the entire corpus. With these criteria, the list can be then divided into 10 sub-categories based on frequency of occurrence. Due to its high coverage in academic text, both from research articles and textbooks, the AWL list has been claimed to be relevant for L2 learners with an academic purpose.

Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010) argue that frequency alone in identifying multiword combinations "does not necessarily imply either psycholinguistically salient sequence or pedagogical relevance; common sequences of common words, such as '*and of the*,' are expected to occur frequently" (p. 490). Their study combined measures of mutual information (MI) and frequency to investigate target corpora of academic discourse: MICASE, BNC files of academic speech, Hyland's (2004) research article corpus, selected BNC files, and genre categories for the BNC. The study first used 10 words per million (WPMs) as a cut-off criterion to identify three-, four- and five-word bundles. The MI score was then performed to assess the degree to which the words in a phrase occurred together more frequently than would be expected by chance. Qualitatively, 20 experienced instructors were invited to rate the formulas to determine whether the phases found were a formulaic expression, a phrase, or expression. Correlation analysis was performed with qualitative judgment data and the quantitative statistics to reassure the reliability and validity of these instructor insights. All of the processes made it possible to select multiword formulas and three functional categories were reached: referential expressions, stance expressions, and discourse organizers as suggested by Biber et al. (2004). Their study added contrast and comparison category into referential expressions group. Moreover, Simpson-Vlach and Ellis collapsed the categories of desire and intention/prediction into one called volition/intention. Finally, the discourse organizer category was modified.

Liu (2012), in parallel with Simpson-Vlach and Ellis' (2010) study, argued that some lexical bundles identified by previous research contained "structural/semantic incompleteness" (p. 27) and seemed neither "terribly functional nor pedagogically compelling" (Simpson-Vlach & Ellis, 2010, p. 493), for example, *and this is*, and *this is the*. Liu thus identified the most frequently-used multiword constructions (MWCs), covering a variety of fixed or semi-fixed expressions, in general academic writing across the academic divisions of the sub-corpora in Corpus of Contemporary American

English and British National Corpus. To determine the most common MWCs and examine their usage patterns, a cut-off value of 20 tokens PMWs was adopted. All MWCs identified that end with a/the, or any other incomplete NP (e.g. one of the) are represented in the form ending with "det+NP" (e.g. one of det+N). With this approach, Liu claimed that MWCs with "partially-filled constructions are more productive than the structurally-incomplete ones" (p. 28), facilitating students' learning process. A list of the 228 most common MWCs in general academic written English across the academic divisions, categorized into three bands according to frequency and semantic function, respectively, was finally created. It would be argued that the list generated may assist students in effectively grasping the constructions in their writing, raising their awareness of these common MWCs and encouraging them to use these MWCs in their writing. However, functions of the word list generated by the study are not provided, and thus work remains to be done on how best to make use of this resource.

While the description of common recurrent word combinations can help us understand something of the feature of academic writing, Durrant (2009) has argued that previous studies listing essential words for EAP students failed to include 'positionally-variable collocations' (p. 157). His study explored high-frequency collocations across academic discipline which learners need to acquire. He identified two-word collocations commonly found in research articles taken from written texts from five faculties: Life sciences, Science and Engineering, Social-Psychological, Social-Administrative, and Arts and Humanities. Using WordSmith Tools (Scott, 2004), the total frequency of all collocations found were compared with their frequency in an 85 million word of the BNC corpus. To arrive at the list of collocations used, these collocations needed to meet a minimum mutual information score of at least four in all five of the subject groupings. The analysis yielded a list of distinctively academic collocations comprising the 1000 most key items. A striking point is that most of the word pairs were grammatical collocations, containing at least one non-lexical word such as "prepositions, determiners, primary and modal verbs, conjunctions, subordinating adverbs, pronouns and numerals and ordinals other than *one* and *first*" (p. 163). Moreover, key collocations were reporting pattern verbs such as argue, assume, conclude, confirm, and demonstrate, to name a few, with that-clause construction. Unfortunately, like Liu (2012), the study looked at the grammatical forms, not at the functions of collocation, which limits the pedagogic usefulness of the list.

Similarly, Martinez and Schmitt (2012) recognized that most of the vocabulary list such as the Academic Word List (AWL) by Coxhead (2000), provides only individual words or "only the tips of phraseological icebergs" (p. 302), which might not be comprehensive enough for pedagogic purposes. Martinez and Schmitt, therefore, combined frequency and qualitative criteria in selecting individual words and phrasal expressions. The BNC corpus was selected as the corpus source, and Wordsmith Tools (Scott, 2004) was used to search for any two- and four-words strings repeated in the corpus at least five times. Then, a series of "Core criteria" and "Auxiliary criteria" (p. 308-310) were taken into account as a needed guidance to help justify intuitions regarding what may or may not be formulaic when selecting a multiword expression to be included on the list. Exhaustively, a random sampling technique was applied to the process of searching derived multiword lexical items line-by-line to check whether these items were phraseological polysemy. The final list called the PHRASE List ended up consisting of 505 multiword items, which was claimed to be "useful for pedagogic materials including more multiword items, such as textbooks, graded readers, and language tests" (p. 316). However, the benefits of applying the PHRASE List are still open to question because, similar to Durrant (2009) and Simpson-Vlach & Ellis (2010), the crux of the matter is that the functions of these multiword items were not included in the list, which might at first seem difficult, particularly for lower-proficiency learners.

The studies outlined above all proved very different approaches to create the pedagogic useful list, enabling us to see the importance and application of the research on corpus-based studies. These researchers and scholars have therefore increasingly come to see phraseological patterns as important 'building blocks of coherent discourse and as characteristics of language use in particular settings' (Hyland, 2008b, p. 8). It is interesting to note, however, the size and types of corpora compiled and the approaches adopted for investigation and a wide variety of texts as well as sources of corpus taken in these studies should be taken into consideration.

Corpus and Methods

The corpus of this study was systematically collected from 50 research articles taken from nine journals indexed in the TCI database. The main and practical reason for the selection of these articles was that, based on the results of journal quality evaluation of the TCI database, all the journals were classified in tier 1 which would be further included in the ASEAN Citation Index (Svasti & Asavisanu, 2007). Also, Thai graduate students and writers have been pushed to publish their research work in these journals. The sampling of the journals was restricted to the year 2013 and 2014 only to control for potential changes within the discipline and across time and to enhance the coherence and validity of the results of the study. Regarding the size of the corpus, Bowker and Pearson (2002) stress that "there are no hard and fast rules that can be followed to determine the ideal size of a corpus" (p. 45). We therefore decided to analyse 50 applied linguistics research articles as this corpus size is manageable and relatively suitable for the kind of analysis and objectives of the study, and it is possible to get much useful data and in-depth information from this corpus.

It is acknowledged that some other factors e.g. style of writing used in the articles, peer-review process and copy editing process would remain in these articles. These variations, however, are not taken into account in the study. Given the focus of this study on the investigation of the four internal sections (Introduction, Methods, Results, Discussion or IMRD) of the articles, other sections of the articles were excluded from the analyses, including all the tables, figures, notes, abstracts, references, and appendices in each text. These systematic procedures resulted in the corpus of approximately 205,187 running words. All of the selected 50 articles were then assigned numbers from 1 to 50 together with abbreviation representing the name of journal (e.g. [JES1] to [MNY 50]) to ease further reference and analysis in the study.

To investigate frequency statistics for sequences of words in the corpus, n-grams were generated with the use of SketchEngine (SkE) software (Kilgarriff et al, 2004). Since the SkE requires plain text to identify the formulaic patterns occurring in the text, the procedure began with first cleaning all of the texts by removing non-textual content. All the edited files were then saved, corresponding to the IMRD sections. We used the wordlist option to investigate two-, three-and four-word n-grams, which we refer to as high frequency formulaic expressions in the corpus. A number of issues need to be considered when identifying phraseological units based solely on frequency of occurrence. First, as n-grams are defined essentially by their frequency of occurrence, the cut-offs of frequency are somewhat arbitrary (Hyland, 2008b). The frequency threshold was set; each frequent n-gram reported occurs with the minimum of five times in the entire corpus. Second, to make comparisons of the findings of the study with previous studies possible, Biber et al. (1999) suggest a convenient formula for normalizing frequencies. Based on the length and number of words of the corpus, the choice of norming to 1,000 words was appropriate to use in the present study. Although using n-grams recurring at least five times per thousand words as selection criteria remains somewhat arbitrary, this cut-off point is determined by the total number of words and by the goals of this research as to examine the usage of phraseological patterns in the corpus. Besides, we carefully checked all the n-grams generated to ensure that they occurred in at least three files in the corpus, representing the occurrence of such n-grams in at least three articles. This practice was necessary to guard against the subjectivity and idiosyncratic expressions introduced by individual writers.

Four-word bundles are claimed to be more phrasal in nature (Biber & Barbieri, 2007; Biber et al., 2004; Chen & Baker, 2010; Cortes, 2004; 2006; Grabowski; 2015; Hyland, 2008a; 2008b). However, in the analysis, we started generating the list of two-word n-grams and found that they appeared ungrammatically complete (e.g. *of the, in the, to the*). According to Simpson-Vlach & Ellis (2010), the incomplete bundles are "neither terribly functional nor pedagogically compelling" (p. 493). Taken together, most of the four-word n-grams (e.g. *simple past tense form, intrinsic motivation of English*) were content-based lexical items in relation to a particular subject-matter, which are simply an artefact of what the writers are writing about. With regard to a pedagogic implication, they might not provide many implications for the whole context and the register in which they are written, compared with those n-grams which are pragmatically and grammatically complete units.

The three-word n-grams identified in the analysis appeared to be more interesting than the others because many of them constitute complete syntactic units as being independent meaningful phrases, including a number of grammatical items, expressing semantic relations (e.g. *in order to, as well as*), which are not simply content-based items. Even if most of them do not represent complete structural units (e.g. *the use of, the results of*), they are still seen as "important building blocks in discourse" (Biber & Barbieri, 2007, p. 270).

As for qualitative criteria, we removed from the list content-based strings or noun groups (e.g. *language learning strategies, teaching and learning*). By application of this qualitative criterion, we arrived at a first list of 476 potential n-grams. We then applied a further set of selection criteria. We went down the n-gram list item-by-item, looking for 'plausibly formulaic' multiword strings (Wray, 2009, p. 41) which realise meanings or pragmatic functions. To assure a high degree of reliability of the list, five EAP experienced English instructors were invited to select the items that appear to be pedagogically useful for article reading and writing. These instructors, at the time of study, were pursing their PhD at different universities in the United Kingdom. They were advised that the purpose of the exercise was the construction of the list of phraseological patterns worth learning and teaching when writing an article for publication. From the instructor insights, each of the potential three-word n-grams carefully chosen by at least three instructors was included in the final list. The selected multiword combinations were further explored in order to investigate to what extent they are used by article writers. They were then categorized and structurally according to their grammatical types and functionally in terms of their pragmatic meaning in each section of the texts they appeared.

Findings

1. Frequency and Structures of the Phraseological Patterns Identified

Through the process and these criteria, 289 different multiword combinations were categorized structurally in terms of their grammatical types. We used a mixture of a priori classification and inductive classification. That is, we initially looked through the list using Biber et al. (1999; 2004)'s classification consisting of three major types: 1) verb phrase fragments, 2) dependent clause fragments, and 3) noun or prepositional phrase fragments, but found that not all selected complete structural units seemed to nicely fit the taxonomy. We therefore attempted a more bottom up classification structure, with a resulting set of categories as follows: noun-based, verb-based, preposition-based structures, and other structures, with specific sub-types under each category.

Table 1 summarizes the structural types of the selected multiword items with the corresponding type, frequencies and percentages.

Table 1 Structural classification of the selected multiword items

Structure	Examples	Fre-quency	% of all structures
Noun structure			
Noun phrase with of-phrase fragment	a corpus of, a lot of, a number of, a result of, a variety of, all of the ,an analysis of, analysis of the, development of the, each of the, findings of the, frequency of the, good	74	25.61

	level of, knowledge of the, large number of, majority of the, most of the, number of the, one of the, part of the, some of the, the context of, the development of, the effectiveness of, the effects of, the findings of, the frequency of, the importance of, the number of, the part of, the percentage of, the process of, the purpose of, the result of, the role of, the study of, the success of, the use of		
Noun phrase with other post-modifier fragment	criteria based on, participants in the, results from the, the findings from, The results from	8	2.77
Noun/ pronoun phrase + be	finding is also, participants were able, research has been, the data were, the participants were, the questionnaire was, there is a, there is no, This can be, This finding is	17	5.88
Other noun phrase	an important role, study aims to, The above table, the current study, the present study	5	1.73
Verb structure			
Passive + prepositional phrase fragment	are presented in, are shown in, based on the, be seen from, be seen in, compared to the, considered as a, focused on the, followed by the, found in the, given by the, is obtained for, is used as, presented in Table, related to the, seen in Table, shown in Table, used as a, used by a, was based on, was carried out, was divided into, were used in	33	11.42
Anticipatory it + verb or adjective phrase	it can be, it could be, It is also, it is necessary, it is possible, It must be, It should be, it was found, it would be	9	3.11
Copula be + noun phrase/adjective phrase	are likely to, be able to, be aware of, is consistent with, is not only, is one of, is possible that, is similar to, were consistent with	12	4.15
Verb phrase with noun/pronoun	data were analyzed, the participants had, the respondents had, The results show	5	1.73
Other verbal fragment	can be seen, can be used, contribute to the, focus on the, is in line, should be conducted, should be noted	10	3.46
Prepositional-phrase fragments			
Prepositional phrase with embedded of-phrase fragment	by means of, in terms of	2	0.69
Prepositional phrase expressions	as a means, by the participants, for further research, from this study, in the study, of the findings, of the participants, of the respondents, of this study,	22	7.61

Other prepositional phrase	according to the, As can be, As shown in, at the beginning, At this stage, because of the, due to the, In addition to, in agreement with, in line with, in order to, In other words, in the following, On the other, with regard to	20	6.92
Other structures			
Verb or adjective to-clause fragment	are expected to, be related to, considered to be, found to be, found to exist, is used to, need to be, seems to be, was employed to, was found to, was used to, were required to	19	6.57
verb phrase or noun phrase + that-clause fragment	agreed that the, be concluded that, be seen that, findings show that, indicate that the, is suggested that, point out that, result shows that, the fact that, This indicates that, This means that, This suggests that	25	8.65
Adverbial-clause fragment	as a result	1	0.35
Other expressions	above table showed, as well as, aware of the, below illustrates the, consistent with that, likely to be, might not be, similar to that, such as the, the other hand, This is because, to be able, to be aware, to complete the, to determine the, to find out	27	9.34
Total		**289**	**100**

As seen from Table 1, most of the multiword combinations are parts of noun-based structures (104 strings, or 35.99%) of the entire list. The noun phrase with *of*-phrase fragment is the most dominating sub-category, comprising more than half of all forms in the list. Most noun phrase with *of*-phrase fragment structure is a result of a combination of *a/the+noun+of*, where the noun slot can be filled by a wide range of words, such as characteristics, purpose, part, type, frequency, etc. The second position is occupied by noun/ pronoun phrases + be, followed by noun phrase with other post-modifier fragments, and other types of noun phrases, comprising 8 and 5 items, or about 2.77% and 1.73%, respectively, of all the items on the list. The sub-category of noun or pronoun phrase with verb *be* (17 items or 5.88% of the entire list), which is not reported in the Biber et al.'s (1999; 2004) structural classification, was also observed in the present study. Given the high number of the strings classified into the noun-based group, the finding is consistent with what would be expected. It is in agreement with the works by Byrd and Coxhead (2010) and Hyland (2008a; 2008b), indicating that most of formulaic sequences in the view of academic writing are "noun-centric" (Swales, 2008, p. V). This finding also coincides with the notion of Biber and Barbieri (2007) observing that academic prose tends to be constituted from word combinations that are more phrasal than clausal.

Verb-based phrases account for 68 items (23.53%). The majority of combinations in the verb-based category are composed of a verb in the passive with prepositional phrase construction, which typically indicates a locative or logical relation (e.g. *are presented in, based on the*). In terms of passive construction with prepositional phrase, there is also a prevalence of passive structures with past tense verbs. They generally tend to be activity verbs which refer to specific research procedures such as *was based on, was carried out*. They also carry the sense of accomplishment of research activities. According to Hyland (2008a), this structural combination is used to convey the objective discussion of methodology used in a study being reported, and justification of claims. Some of the verb-based items can serve the function of referring to the findings in a study (*based on the*), comparing the findings with previous studies (*compared to these*), interpreting the findings (*highly related to*) and labelling data presented in tables (*shown in Table*). The multiword combinations in the other verbal fragment construction and the structure of verb phrases with noun or pronoun still highlight the importance of the active and passive construction usage in research writing (e.g. *can be seen, contribute to the, should be conducted*). In addition, anticipatory *it* with verb or adjective phrases, and copula *be* with noun or adjective phrases, could be classified. Although these two structural types were not frequent in the list, this finding coincides with Hyland's (2008b) study suggesting that these clauses are characteristic of academic writing rather than spoken data. Hyland (2008b) also claims that this structure introduced extraposed structures or anticipatory *it* and functions as a means of disguising authorial interpretations or to foreground the writer's evaluation of the findings without explicitly identifying its source (e.g. *it can be, it is possible, it should be*).

The third structural category, preposition-based structure, falls into three sub-types as follows: prepositional phrase with embedded *of*-phrase fragment, prepositional phrase expressions, and other prepositional phrase. The largest proportion of this category is prepositional phrase expressions (22 items or about 7.61%), followed by other prepositional phrases (20 useful items or 6.92% of the entire list). Most of the multiword combinations in the other prepositional phrase category are grammatically complete strings (e.g. *according to the, due to the, in addition to, in other words*). Some of them contain figurative meanings (*with regard to*). In the prepositional phrase expressions category, most of the items are characterized by specific meanings depending on the noun associated, for example, referring to the study (*from this study, in this study*). Only two items, *by means of* and *in terms of*, classified in the group prepositional phrase with embedded *of*-phrase, were found.

The other structure category can be divided into the following sub-categories: verb or adjective *to-clause* fragment; *verb* phrase or noun phrase with *that-clause* fragment; adverbial-clause fragment; anticipatory *it* with verb or adjective phrase; copula *be* with noun or adjective phrase; and other expressions. Other expression group is the most dominating sub-category containing 27 multiword combinations (9.34%) of the entire list. The second position is occupied by verb or adjective with *that*-clause fragment (25 items or about 8.65%), followed by verb phrase or noun phrase with *to*-clause fragment (19 strings or about 6.57%). Only one item can be found in the sub-category of adverbial-clause fragment. With regard to the structure of verb or adjective with *to*-clause fragment, most of the recurrent words are frequently used to interpret or discuss the findings as hedging statements (e.g. *seemed to be, considered to be, found to be*), whereas some of them are used to indicate research methodology (e.g. *were used* *to, were required to*). Likewise, verb phrases followed by *that*-clause fragments are used to report the findings (e.g. *indicate that the, revealed that the, show that the*) or to preface inferences drawn from those of other previous studies (*agreed that the*). It is worth noting that these two sub-categories can be accomplished by the use of the present and past tense verbs. The multiword items in the other expression category do not fit any previously classified categories (Biber et al. 1999; 2004; Hyland, 2008a; 2008b), they can be formed by different grammatical words such as infinitives (*to determine the, to find out, to identify the*), which might express the objectives of the study or research procedures, adjectival fragments (*likely to be, to be aware*), when reporting the findings of the study. Grammatically complete units, relating to semantic and pragmatic functions (e.g. *as well as, such as the*) can be also found in this sub-category.

2. Pragmatic Functions of the Phraseological Patterns Identified

We further looked at whether certain n-grams appeared more frequently in a particular section of the articles, while others did not, being more evenly distributed over several sections. The distribution of the phraseological patterns suggests that, some of them can perform multiple functions according to the contextual environments in which they are used. However, out of 289 phraseological patterns identified, 236 lexical items seem to perform their pragmatic function associated with the distinctive communicative purposes of a particular section of the articles (See Appendix).

In the following, we will focus on a small selection of phrases for a more detailed analysis of their contextual environments, using concordance lines in order to further elucidate a potential clue the way these multiword units are used in the text in terms of salient pragmatic functions related to the primary purpose of the section identified.

Introduction section

The Introduction section provides background information of the topic and writers' evaluation of existing research. It helps readers get a contextual fix on the article. The section also establishes a niche in previous research by either indicating a gap or raising a question to justify the need for the current study being reported. The use of *the importance of,* and *the purpose of* which seemed likely to be associated with the function of this particular section. The text examples below illustrate the use of these strings in the Introduction section.

[1] *Great attention is paid to grammatical aspects, whereas* ***the importance of*** *collocations is overlooked; likewise, lexical choices in a second language structure are often arbitrarily and improperly produced.*

LEA 8

[2] *However, since English has become an international language, this leads to an increased awareness of* ***the importance of*** *cultural aspects represented in*

English language textbooks that should incorporate more multicultural aspects in order to enhance learners' awareness of cultural diversity in English language teaching and learning.

VEJ 2

The instances above indicate that *the importance of* is used as a lexical unit to highlight the importance of the topic being presented, alerting readers to see the need for conducting the present study. This string is usually used with the present verb tense. As Swales (1990) stated, present tense used in a professional genre has two major pragmatic functions: 1) to situate a particular event in the present tense, and 2) to mark a particular proposition as a generalization. In the latter case, the use of present tense indicates that the propositional information is valid regardless of time, reflecting the topic being discussed is still of interest in the field. The use and function of *the importance of* in this context is therefore strongly associated with the function of this section which provides a much more specific description, particularly with regards to the needs for conducting a research study being reported.

[3] *Given the importance now placed upon the development of lifelong learning skills, inclusive of self-regulatory efficacy for learning, as well as the ever increasing use of the Internet as a learning resource,* ***the purpose of*** *this small-scale research study was to assess the validity, in the context of an international English-medium Thai university… .*

SCOJ 1

The string *the purpose of* allows writers to prepare readers for the current study after introducing the topic of the study and pointing out the importance of, and/or commenting on some problematic issues needed to be addressed. Shortly afterwards, the cluster *the purpose of* is used to explicitly foreground the purpose(s) of the study, which is seemingly associated with the communicative purpose of introducing the study.

The pragmatic functions of these strings are quite similar to those of description bundles in the research-oriented function category proposed by Hyland (2008a; 2008b), and those called descriptive bundles in the referential bundles category in Biber et al.'s (2004) taxonomy. The finding is also consistent with Hyland's (2008a) assumption that the structure 'noun phrase + of' is prominent in research-oriented functions.

Methods section

The Methods section basically provides the description and detailed information regarding the research methodology, including participants, research instruments, data collection and analysis used in the study being reported. Multiword items salient in this section include, for instance, *in this study, this study was, the participants were/ the questionnaire was, to determine the,* and *was used to/were used to/were asked to*. The examples below drawn from the Methods section of the corpus illustrate the use of these strings in this particular section.

[4] *To investigate the commodification of English through media discourses* ***in this study****, I will adopt a critical approach.*

NET 5

[5] *The instrument employed in* ***this study was*** *a LLS questionnaire. It focused on two sections: background information and SILL.*

LEA 1

[6] *In-depth interviews were firstly conducted as a major source of data collection because this method provides in-depth and specific data. At this stage,* ***the participants were*** *individually interviewed at a time and place convenient to them.*

LEA 3

[7] *Upon the final revision and improvement of the piloted questionnaire (see 3.3),* ***the questionnaire was*** *administered to the participants for a period of one week, in the middle of the second semester of the 2012 academic year.*

JES 2

The strings above were commonly used when writers give the information about the research samples and instruments used in the study. The use of demonstrative (*this*) allows the writers to frame and pinpoint specific information of the research methodology of the present study being reported, featuring how the methodology of the present study is different from previous research with regard to setting, participants or instruments used in the study to serve the specific objective of the study. The function of these strings is therefore seen to be related to the function of the section in offering a description of participants and research instruments used in the study being reported. According to Biber et al. (2004) and Hyland (2008a; 2008b), these strings were classified as a location marker. Although the case of singular and plural verbs (*was, were*) was found in the analysis, the verb cases and forms here are not a great deal of attention as they depend on the number of research tools used in the study referred to and mentioned in the text.

[8] ***To determine the*** *reliability of part II of the survey questionnaire, the researcher conducted a try-out of the survey. The tryout-revised items were conducted for improving the instruments' wording and language.*

SCOJ 3

[9] *The first questionnaire consisting of 20 statements was designed* ***to find out*** *what factors the students perceived as affecting their ability to select appropriate meanings of homonyms and homographs.*

JLA 2

As observed, *to determine the* can occur either at the beginning or in the middle of the sentence. In relation to their form, the strings *to determine the* and *to find out* are regarded as infinitives. As Biber (1995) points out, infinitives can be used with four specific functions: 1) to frame points in a discussion when *to*-clauses are used as predicates, 2) to introduce an aim, objective, plan, goal, purpose, strategy, task, or idea, 3) to introduce a methodology, and 4) to introduce a complement and as an adverbial purpose clause. These observations closely correspond to the instances above generated from concordance lines, demonstrating that *to determine the* and *to find out* are used to express specific and definite purpose of using research tools to accomplish the stage of analysis of the study and to explain the research methodology.

[10] *Chi-Square* ***was used to*** *analyze for fitted correspondence between the model and the empirical data.*

VEJ 1

[11] *The two tests were administered to the two groups of participants after the regular class. They* ***were asked to*** *complete the multiple-choice test and the translation test without any interaction with their classmates.*

LEA 8

The strings *was used to, were used* to and *were asked to*, have the functions of expressing purposes of the use of statistics for data analysis, and of the methodology used in the study. The instances above also evidence the importance of the past tense verbs with passive construction in the Methods section. The form of '*be+verb+to* infinitive' is the typical and effective feature used when the emphasis is put on the action, the description of research instruments used and procedure performed. The function of the co-occurrence of passives and past tense verbs (e.g. *was/were used to* and *were asked to*) is thus regarded to be associated with dealing with the research instrument and data analyses.

Hyland (2008a) states that bundles in the procedure sub-category clearly puts the writers "under some pressure to showcase their ability to handle research methods appropriately and to demonstrate the familiarity with the subject content of the discipline" (p. 55). As presented above, we would argue that a certain set of strings (e.g. *the participants were, the questionnaire was, to determine the, to find out, was used to, were asked to*) strongly associated with the function of the Methods section is parallel with what Hyland (2008a; 2008b) would call procedure bundles in the research-oriented function category because they have the main function of showing the ways that research is conducted, and to explain why something is done.

Results section

Major findings are reported in the Results section. Sometimes, most experienced writers not only report, but also comment on the results and compare them with those of previous studies. The following text examples illustrate the use of some recurrent multiword units in their context in the Results section.

[12] *The* ***above table showed*** *the gender of sample ABAC students by their nationality. The majority of them were Thai Male 73.3% (178) and 4.9% (12) was from other country.*

SCOJ 4

[13] *Table 2.1* ***below illustrates the*** *results of the oral proficiency score (out of 25) of low-proficiency students performed in three information gap tasks.*

NET 2

The multiword units *above table showed* and *below illustrates the* are used to report findings. These strings, based upon Hyland's (2008a; 2008b) functional classification, are called structuring signals in the text-oriented bundle category, whilst text deixis bundles in Biber et al. (2004). The main function of these strings is to help organize stretches of discourse, pointing to data presented in tables and figure in the text. These strings usually tend to co-occur with present and past tense verbs, with pointers (*Table 2.1*). Pointers or visual representations of data can be an efficient way of presenting information clearly and concisely, often allowing the readers to get an at-a-glance picture or sense of data before going through the illustration followed. The writers, therefore, used pointers together with prepositions such as *above* and *below* to facilitate readers to find the location where the information is being presented in the text.

[14] *The triangulation of the data* ***revealed that the*** *students' perceptions of coherence and the teaching were, to a large extent, related. Interestingly, the term `coherence' was mentioned neither in the class nor in the documents, but the activities and the exercises addressed four main components of coherence.*

LEA 4

[15] *The scores gained for each group* ***showed that the*** *Thai version favored the low-score group the most, followed by the mid-score group, with the high-score group not benefitting at all.*

JES 1

[16] *The* ***results of the*** *analysis show significant differences in five out of nine speaking factors and one out of six listening factors (see Table 6).*

LEA 7

The instances demonstrate that reporting verbs (*reveal, show*) were commonly used when the findings are reported in the Results section. These strings can denote an integration of reporting verbs and past tense when research findings of the study are presented, and no claim is made in these contexts of use. Definite articles (*the*) in the text indicate that the shared knowledge between the writers and the readers is established based on the preceding context (Biber et al., 1999). These strings *c*ould be called resultative signals in the text-oriented function of Hyland's (2008a; 2008b) functional classification. These strings mark inferential or causative reflation between elements, which is a key function in the rhetorical presentation of research findings (Hyland, 2008a). As expected, these strings show writers' interpretations and understandings or research processes and findings, which coincides with the primary function of the Results section.

[17] *Such elements of 'small talk' in conversation seem to be supported by* ***the findings from*** *the interviews with the cabin crews. 85% of the interviewees still commented that correct grammar and structures were important in conversation with the passengers.*

NET 4

The findings from is another string generally used to present the results of the study being reported. This string allows writers to frame claims based on the findings of the study when used in the context of '*seems to be supported by the findings from*'. This co-occurring feature illustrates the main function of the Results section, which the writer can make comments on the basis of data. This typical practice can be found in this particular section before the writers can go beyond the results to situate the findings again in the Discussion section.

[18] *This was explained later in the interviews in which he acknowledged that the strategy instruction helped him know what strategies to use and how to use them;* ***as a result****, it improved his reading comprehension.*

SPPJ 1

[19] *The causes of these limitations appear to be due to linguistic and processing differences, unsupportive L2 learning environments (covering individual and experiential differences, and socio-cultural institutional differences), and poor reading skills* ***as a result*** *of not reading enough (Ref).*

JES 1

A fixed-form or grammatical phrase *as a result* functions a conjunctive adverbial phrase to indicate cause-and-effect relationship. As in [18], this string is used as a logical connection to the preceding sentence. However, [19] reveals that this string is originally from *as a result of* which grammatically must be followed by a noun or noun phrase. The writers actually use these two forms of string simply to indicate that the subsequent text describes a finding of the study, and thus reflecting that the writers can objectively present the findings, and then interpret them based on the further details from the results obtained as in [18], or by using references or citations *(Ref)* as in [19]. The use of this string may be seen as a convincing approach to support the findings presented in the Results section.

[20] *The findings related to the specific motivation of participants shows that the extrinsic motivation-identified regulation* ***seemed to be*** *the most predominant motivation of all participants in learning to speak English in CLT classroom.*

LEA 3

[21] *The outcome of strategies report could lead to the assumption that the use of e mail writing strategies was somewhat ineffective. The ineffectiveness* ***seems to be*** *affected from factors involving linguistic and background knowledge.*

NET 6

With the likelihood verb (*seem*), either in present tense or past tense, it indicates the writers' expression of probability and interpretation of the findings of the study. Looking more closely at [20], the string *seemed to be* was tied with attitudinal adjectives (*the most predominant*) expressing evaluation, the meaning of this string can show the writers' expression of degree of certainty or commitment when the research results or activities are reported. Consequently, this string can be employed to convey a level of their agreement, opposition, evaluation, and interpretation of particular entities when interpreting the results. According to Hyland (2008a), verbs expressing probability and modality are called 'downtoners' which help qualify the status of knowledge as speculative and help mitigate tone to the statement. Through the use of downtoners, the writer's counter-argument is expressed and modulated.

[22] *Noticeably, although the participants' perceptions of achievement were highly* ***related to the*** *social context, the participants did not reveal any positive attitudes towards the English community or the local people.*

LEA 3

[23] *However, it didn't score well in the reading rubric was that most of them didn't connect their personal experience in their reading responses. In their conversational interviews, they revealed that it was* ***due to the*** *time constraint given in class.*

SPPJ 1

The writers use the strings *related to the,* and *due to the* when they not only wish to present the results of the study, but also comment upon them. The string *related to the* is usually used when the writers interpret or evaluate the results by mentioning related results found in the study, while syntactically, 'due to' is a prepositional phrase used to give a reason for why something is true. Concerning Hyland's (2008a; 2008b) taxonomy, we would argue that the functions of the strings *as a result, seems to be, related to the,* and *due to the* could be considered stance features in the participant-oriented function category because they refer to the writer-focused bundles that the writers convey epistemic and affective judgment, evaluation and degrees of commitment to their claims. Therefore, these strings again underline the pragmatic function of the Results section, which not only presents the findings or discoveries, but sometime with a particular evaluative connotation to the findings.

Discussion section

In the Discussion section, writers can express their own evaluation of the study, acknowledging that their own study is not perfect. Future studies are also suggested as they might be worth further investigation. The following text examples illustrate the use of recurrent word combinations (*of the present/of the study/ of this study, the findings of, and for further research*) in contexts, performing the pragmatic functions associated with the purposes and functions of the section.

[24] *Second, and more importantly, the results* ***of the present*** *study elucidated understanding of coherence and, at the same time, causes of incoherence from the students' points of view.*

LEA 4

[25] *Regarding assertiveness, the results* ***of the study*** *confirm (Ref) and (Ref) explorations on the expediency of assertiveness in successful SLA.*

LEA 5

[26] *The findings* ***of this study*** *support the evidence from previous research that showed students wanted to do more service learning activity.*

SCOJ 3

The strings above are frequently used, especially when the results of the study are being discussed. Considering from the above instances, given the grammatical function of articles (*the*) and demonstrative adjectives (*this*), the writers used these multiword combinations as prepositional phrases to emphasize that they are discussing the results generated by the current study to draw readers' attention to the issue discussed. In written academic discourse, demonstrative adjectives mark referential cohesion directly referring to the immediate preceding text or the immediate textual context as a referent (Biber et al., 1999). This device allows shared knowledge between readers and the writers to be established as referring to the present study being reported. The function of these strings is in line with what Hyland (2008a; 2008b) would call the research oriented function of location, while referential bundles based on Biber et al.'s (2004) taxonomy.

This group of phraseological patterns often tend to co-occur with the past tense in this particular section because the past tense is principally used to report completed actions at the particular time frame, and to express newly achieved evidentiality or knowledge in the field, reflecting limited degree of certainty and reliability of the new information. Since the major results are already reported in the Results section, the past tense used in this context in the Discussion section is appropriate.

[27] *To wrap up the discussion, on the whole, **the findings of** the current study demonstrated L2 upper-intermediate learners with higher levels of L2 metaphorical competence possessed more assertiveness, intrapersonal, self-actualization, and independence and contrariwise.*

LEA 5

[28] *Although **the findings of** this study have shed some light on the role of the training, some limitations yield suggestions for future research.*

JLA 2

The string *the findings of* is also prevalently used in the Discussion section. This cluster can co-occur with common nouns (*study*), and thus contributes to the longer string *the findings of the current study* or *the findings of this study*, which were usually used at the initial position of the clause. The sting can occur when writers summarizes the study [27], and indicating some limitations of the study [28] which is quite similar to the pragmatic function of the string *in this study* as previously discussed.

[29] *The recommendations **for further research** are presented as follows: 1. As this study was undertaken at two universities in Banteay Meanchey Province, Cambodia, generalizations can be made if more universities from other settings are included in future studies.*

LEA 1

The above represents some suggestions for further research which commonly occurs at the very end of the Discussion section. The string may be used after some of the limitations of the study are expressed in the text, indicating that the statements of findings remain to be substantiated or validated by future studies. According to Hyland (2008a; 2008b), this string is performing as a text framing signal in the text-oriented function category.

Implication and Conclusions

This study has looked at applied linguistics research articles through the lens provided by repeated frequent three-word sequences. The overall goal of this research was to create a pedagogically useful list of the phraseological patterns. Using the corpus-based approach, qualitative approach, and with assistance from five instructors, a list of 289 three-word multiword combinations for teaching research article writing in English could be generated. We also assessed the extent to which phraseology contributes to article writing by investigating the structural types and pragmatic functions of the lexical clusters identified. Based on Biber et al.'s structural taxonomy (Biber et al., 1999; 2004), the findings reveal that three-word multiword combinations frequently used by the article writers identified could be structurally classified into four structures. Moreover, four new categories, including other noun phrase, noun or pronoun phrase with *be*, other prepositional phrase expressions, and other verbal fragments were added to the original taxonomy. The corpus-based approach also showed that the greatest range of content words can be seen in the corpus, but excluded from the final list concerning their pedagogic purposes. Based on the context dependency, some strings appeared to have multi-functionality because a section of an article contained several move types performing different communicative purposes. However, a set of multiword combinations could be identified as their pragmatic functions were closely associated with communicative functions of certain sections of the articles. This bottom-up perspective is seen to be an insightful account of identifying and matching the functional types in context and the occurrence in the text.

Regarding the pragmatic functions of the phraseological patterns, based on Hyland's (2008a; 2008b) and Biber et al.'s (1999; 2004) classification, the multiword units found were grouped into functional categories. The findings also confirmed results of previous studies such as Hyland (2008a; 2008b), Wei (2007), and Durrant (2015), in that passive structures were used and anticipatory it structures and participant-oriented bundles were rarely employed. This may be due to the writers' preference for the impersonality in their article writing (Grabowski, 2015). However, it should be noted that some phraseological patterns appeared in more than one section of the article.

Taking the pedagogical perspective, Csomay (2013) suggests that students would seldom think in terms of grammatical patterns and multiword items can indicate changes in text types within discourse. Hence, students and novice writers should be aware of types of lexical items and how they relate to the structuring of information and/or function of discourse. The findings and the list generated from the present study can be seen particularly as the skeleton of proficient academic writing. In this respect, when designing a course for academic writing for publication, instructors could make full use of the list and integrate a description of this study to their instruction. As suggested by Hyland (2008b), writers are expected to both abide by the linguistic rules of language and comply with the intended readers' expectations by implementing the potential lexical clusters of the discourse in question. Students and novice article writers, thus, should be aware of knowledge of the use and pragmatic functions of multiword combinations frequently used in a given section when preparing their research manuscript. Instructors could apply the knowledge and the list of multiword items of this study by implementing some activities that are replete with different types of lexical clusters with an emphasis on fostering students' expressive skills and how to use the clusters to serve their communicative purposes. Practically, instructors may draw students' attention to the words covered in the list and encourage them to use these words in their writing assignments. It is also believed that introducing different lexical clusters that serve various pragmatic functions and raising students' awareness of the importance of this language phenomenon in academic contexts can be advantageous for them to meet an acceptable level in academic communities (Coxhead & Byrd, 2007; Martinez & Schmitt, 2012).

Caution is needed, however, in the application of the findings and the list to pedagogy as the corpus of this study was taken from a single discipline: applied linguistics. The results and the list obtained from this study should be considered only illustrative and have some limitations because they applied only to the applied linguistics research articles published in English indexed in the TCI database, rather than to the English in different disciplines. Other multiword combinations may be inconclusive and have not been included in the pedagogically useful list in this study. Furthermore, methodology and scope of this study should be also taken into account. First, the number of articles analyzed in this study is considered relatively small and specific. In order to generalize the findings of this study, we acknowledge that a bigger size of the corpus could yield and represent a better global picture of multiword combinations used in the article in this field. Second, it is possible to consider taking other eminent statistic criteria such as MI-score and formula teaching worth (Simpson-Vlach and Ellis (2010), rather than careful selection from EAP instructors to support an identification task of multiword units useful for pedagogic purposes, and to obtain a more refined of pedagogically-useful list of three-word n-grams (Salazar, 2011). Next, this study sought to find out high-frequency words, leaving those low-frequency items. It is important to encourage and teach students to consult other reliable resources when they encounter such multiword items and experience difficulty in their reading and writing. Despite the possibilities for further research, to some extent, the descriptive results presented here is still of crucial importance for EAP instructors in developing instructional materials in teaching writing for scholarly publication. They may facilitate novice writers and graduate students the task of preparing manuscripts for publication.

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Appendix A: Corpus of research articles included in the study

JES Journal of English Studies

JLA Journal of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University

SPPJ Sripatum Review of Humanities and Social Sciences

NET The New English Teacher

LEA Language Education and Acquisition Research Network (LEARN) Journal

VEJ Veridian E-Journal

SJSH Silpakorn University Journal of Social Sciences, Humanities, and Arts

SCOJ Scholar

MNY MANUSYA: Journal of Humanities

Appendix B: Pedagogically useful list of multiword combinations in applied linguistics research articles

No.	Multiword combinations	Freq. of occurrence in a particular section	Sections associated with	Structural types	Pragmatic function
1	a corpus of	5	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
2	a lot of	9	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
3	a number of	5	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	a number of	8	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
4	a part of	7	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
5	a result of	5	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
6	a sense of	5	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
7	A total of	6	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
8	a variety of	5	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	a variety of	5	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
9	above table showed	5	Results	other expressions	Structuring
10	according to the*	9	Methods	Other prepositional phrase	Structuring
	according to the	21	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Structuring
	According to the	11	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Structuring
	According to the	7	Discussion	Other prepositional phrase	Structuring
11	agreed that the*	5	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
	agreed that they	5	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
12	all of the	8	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
13	an analysis of	7	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
14	an important role	5	Introduction	Other noun phrase	Intangible framing
15	an investigation of	18	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
16	analysis of the	17	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
17	are expected to	5	Introduction	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Procedure
18	are likely to	6	Discussion	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Stance feature
19	are more likely	5	Results	Copula be + noun/ adjective phrases	Stance feature
20	are presented in	5	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring

21	are shown in	7	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
22	as a means	5	Introduction	Prepositional phrase expressions	Procedure
23	as a part	5	Discussion	other expressions	Quantification
24	as a result*	5	Results	Adverbial-clause fragment	Transition signal
	As a result	6	Discussion	Adverbial-clause fragment	Transition signal
	as a result	5	Discussion	Adverbial-clause fragment	Transition signal
25	As can be	15	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Structuring
26	As for the	7	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Framing signal
27	As shown in*	15	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Structuring
	as shown in	8	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Structuring
28	as well as	16	Introduction	other expressions	Transition signal
	as well as	20	Methods	other expressions	Transition signal
	as well as	15	Results	other expressions	Transition signal
	as well as	22	Discussion	other expressions	Transition signal
29	at the beginning	6	Methods	Other prepositional phrase	Location
	at the beginning	5	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Location
30	At this stage	6	Methods	Other prepositional phrase	Location
31	aware of the	12	Results	other expressions	Intangible framing
	aware of the	18	Discussion	other expressions	Intangible framing
32	based on an*	7	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
	based on the	6	Introduction	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
	based on the	26	Methods	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
	based on the	21	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
	Based on the	14	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
	based on the	6	Discussion	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
	Based on the	5	Discussion	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
33	be able to	8	Introduction	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Resultative signal
	be able to	9	Results	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Resultative signal
	be able to	20	Discussion	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Resultative signal
34	be aware of	11	Discussion	Copula be + noun/ adjective phrases	Stance feature
35	be concluded that	6	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Stance feature
36	be noted that	12	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Engagement feature
37	be related to	6	Results	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Stance feature
38	be said that	5	Discussion	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Stance feature

39	be seen from*	5	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
	be seen in	12	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
40	be seen that	6	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
41	because of the*	6	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Stance feature
	because of their	5	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Stance feature
42	below illustrates the	8	Results	other expressions	Structuring
43	by means of	6	Methods	Prepostitional phrase with embedded of-phrase fragment	Procedure
44	by the participants	5	Results	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
45	can also be	5	Results	Other verbal fragment	Stance feature
46	can be seen	25	Results	Other verbal fragment	Stance feature
	can be seen	5	Discussion	Other verbal fragment	Stance feature
47	can be used	6	Discussion	Other verbal fragment	Procedure
48	compared to the*	9	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Stance feature
	compared to those	7	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Stance feature
49	considered as a	5	Introduction	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Stance feature
50	considered to be	5	Results	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Stance feature
51	consistent with that*	6	Discussion	other expressions	Resultative signal
	consistent with the	5	Discussion	other expressions	Resultative signal
52	contribute to the	6	Introduction	Other verbal fragment	Stance feature
53	criteria based on	6	Results	noun phrase with other post-modifier fragment	Description
54	data from the	5	Results	noun phrase with other post-modifier fragment	Resultative signal
55	data were analyzed	6	Methods	verb phrase with noun/pronoun	Procedure
56	Data were collected	5	Methods	verb phrase with noun/pronoun	Procedure
57	developed by the	6	Methods	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Other
58	development of the	5	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
59	differed from the	5	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Resultative signal
60	due to the*	12	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Stance feature
	due to their	5	Discussion	Other prepositional phrase	Stance feature
61	each of the	11	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
62	employed by the	7	Discussion	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Resultative signal
63	exist at the	7	Results	Other verbal fragment	Other
64	fact that the	6	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Other

65	finding is also	5	Discussion	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Resultative signal
66	findings of the*	8	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
	findings of this	14	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
67	findings show that	5	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
68	focus on the*	5	Discussion	Other verbal fragment	Structuring
	focused on the	5	Introduction	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
69	followed by the*	12	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Resultative signal
	followed by them	6	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Resultative signal
70	for further research	7	Discussion	Prepositional phrase expressions	Framing signal
71	found in the	14	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
	found in the	6	Discussion	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
72	found that the*	6	Introduction	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
	found that the	7	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
	found that the	6	Discussion	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
	found that these	5	Discussion	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
73	found to be	7	Results	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Resultative signal
	found to be	5	Discussion	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Resultative signal
74	found to exist	9	Results	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Resultative signal
75	frequencies of the*	7	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	frequency of the	9	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
76	from the context	7	Discussion	Prepositional phrase expressions	Framing signal
77	from this study	7	Discussion	Prepositional phrase expressions	Location
78	given by the	8	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Resultative signal
79	good level of	7	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
80	have shown that	5	Discussion	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
81	highly related to	5	Discussion	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Stance feature
82	identified according to	7	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Other
83	illustrates the results	7	Results	Other verbal fragment	Structuring
84	in a text	6	Methods	Prepositional phrase expressions	Location
85	In addition to	5	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Transition signal

86	in agreement with	7	Discussion	Other prepositional phrase	Transition signal
87	in line with	6	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Transition signal
	in line with	6	Discussion	Other prepositional phrase	Transition signal
88	in order to*	27	Introduction	Other prepositional phrase	Procedure
	in order to	21	Methods	Other prepositional phrase	Procedure
	in order to	18	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Procedure
	In order to	7	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Procedure
	in order to	21	Discussion	Other prepositional phrase	Procedure
89	In other words	9	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Transition signal
	In other words	15	Discussion	Other prepositional phrase	Transition signal
90	in relation to	7	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Framing signal
	in relation to	5	Discussion	Other prepositional phrase	Framing signal
91	in terms of*	18	Introduction	Prepostitional phrase with embedded of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
	In terms of	6	Introduction	Prepostitional phrase with embedded of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
	in terms of	16	Methods	Prepostitional phrase with embedded of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
	in terms of	38	Results	Prepostitional phrase with embedded of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
	In terms of	17	Results	Prepostitional phrase with embedded of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
	in terms of	24	Discussion	Prepostitional phrase with embedded of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
	In terms of	10	Discussion	Prepostitional phrase with embedded of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
92	in the following	12	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Structuring
93	in the future	6	Discussion	Prepositional phrase expressions	Framing signal
94	in the process	5	Results	Prepositional phrase expressions	Framing signal
95	in the study	5	Methods	Prepositional phrase expressions	Location
	in the study	7	Results	Prepositional phrase expressions	Location
96	in the target	6	Introduction	Prepositional phrase expressions	Location
97	in the text	6	Introduction	Prepositional phrase expressions	Location
	in the text	7	Results	Prepositional phrase expressions	Location
98	in the use	6	Results	Prepositional phrase expressions	Framing signal
99	in this group	5	Results	Prepositional phrase expressions	Location

100	in this study*	39	Methods	Prepositional phrase expressions	Location
	In this study	10	Methods	Prepositional phrase expressions	Location
	in this study	19	Results	Prepositional phrase expressions	Location
	In this study	7	Results	Prepositional phrase expressions	Location
	in this study	35	Discussion	Prepositional phrase expressions	Location
	In this study	14	Discussion	Prepositional phrase expressions	Location
101	indicate that the*	6	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
	indicated that the	10	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
	indicates that the	10	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
102	interview questions were	5	Methods	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Procedure
103	investigation of each*	12	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
	investigation of the	6	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
104	is consistent with	9	Discussion	Copula be + noun/ adjective phrases	Resultative signal
105	is important to	6	Discussion	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Stance feature
106	is in line	5	Discussion	Other verbal fragment	Other
107	is not only	6	Introduction	Copula be + noun/ adjective phrases	Other
108	is obtained for	5	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Procedure
109	is one of	5	Results	Copula be + noun/ adjective phrases	Quantification
110	is possible that	6	Results	Copula be + noun/ adjective phrases	Stance feature
111	is similar to	5	Results	Copula be + noun/ adjective phrases	Resultative signal
112	is suggested that	6	Discussion	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Stance feature
113	is used as	7	Introduction	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Procedure
114	is used to	5	Results	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Procedure
115	it can be*	13	Results	Anticipatory it + verb/ adjective phrase	Stance feature
	It can be	10	Discussion	Anticipatory it + verb/ adjective phrase	Stance feature
	it could be	5	Discussion	Anticipatory it + verb/ adjective phrase	Stance feature
116	It is also	5	Discussion	Anticipatory it + verb/ adjective phrase	Stance feature
117	it is necessary	5	Discussion	Anticipatory it + verb/ adjective phrase	Stance feature
118	it is possible	5	Results	Anticipatory it + verb/ adjective phrase	Stance feature

119	It must be	5	Results	Anticipatory it + verb/ adjective phrase	Stance feature
120	It should be	7	Results	Anticipatory it + verb/ adjective phrase	Stance feature
121	it was found	7	Results	Anticipatory it + verb/ adjective phrase	Resultative signal
	it was found	7	Discussion	Anticipatory it + verb/ adjective phrase	Resultative signal
122	it would be	5	Results	Anticipatory it + verb/ adjective phrase	Stance feature
123	knowledge of the	5	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
	knowledge of the	13	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
124	large number of	5	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
125	likely to be	6	Discussion	other expressions	Stance feature
126	majority of the*	5	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	majority of them	6	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
127	mean value of	5	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
128	meaning of the	34	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Description
	meaning of the	8	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Description
129	might not be	6	Discussion	other expressions	Stance feature
130	more likely to	6	Results	other expressions	Stance feature
131	most of the	5	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	most of the	19	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	most of the	7	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
132	need to be	5	Discussion	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Stance feature
133	not be able	6	Discussion	Copula be + noun/ adjective phrases	Resultative signal
134	number of the	7	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
135	of data collection	11	Methods	Prepositional phrase expressions	Procedure
136	of each interviewee	12	Methods	Prepositional phrase expressions	Procedure
137	of the findings	5	Discussion	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
138	of the participants	13	Methods	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
	of the participants	12	Results	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
	of the participants	20	Discussion	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
139	of the questionnaire	11	Methods	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
140	of the respondents	16	Results	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal

141	of the student	11	Discussion	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
	of the students	11	Methods	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
	of the students	28	Results	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
142	of the Study*	8	Introduction	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
	of the study	6	Introduction	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
	of the study	17	Methods	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
	of the study	21	Discussion	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
	of this study	14	Introduction	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
	of this study	10	Methods	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
	of this study	7	Results	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
	of this study	37	Discussion	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
143	On the other	6	Introduction	Other prepositional phrase	Transition signal
	On the other	15	Discussion	Other prepositional phrase	Transition signal
	On the other	6	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Transition signal
144	On the whole	5	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Transition signal
145	one of the*	22	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	One of the	7	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	one of the	7	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	one of the	10	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
146	out of the	7	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Quantification
147	part of the	10	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
	part of the	14	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
	part of the	7	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
148	participants in the*	8	Methods	noun phrase with other post-modifier fragment	Description
	participants in the	11	Discussion	noun phrase with other post-modifier fragment	Description
	participants in this	5	Methods	noun phrase with other post-modifier fragment	Description
149	participants were able	6	Discussion	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Resultative signal
150	pattern of the	6	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
151	point out that*	5	Discussion	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
	points out that	6	Introduction	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal

152	presented in Table	7	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
153	purpose of the*	5	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
	purpose of this	6	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
154	related to a*	9	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Stance feature
	related to the	6	Introduction	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Stance feature
	related to the	12	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Stance feature
155	reliability of the	5	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
156	research has been	6	Introduction	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Other
157	result of this	5	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
158	result shows that	5	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
159	results from the	8	Results	noun phrase with other post-modifier fragment	Resultative signal
160	results of the*	24	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
	results of the	17	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
	results of this	11	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
161	results show that	7	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
162	revealed that in	6	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
163	revealed that the	10	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
164	schematic knowledge of	11	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
165	seemed to be*	8	Results	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Stance feature
	seems to be	5	Introduction	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Stance feature
	seems to be	6	Results	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Stance feature
166	seen from the	6	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
167	seen in Table	14	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
168	should be conducted	9	Discussion	Other verbal fragment	Stance feature
169	should be noted	9	Results	Other verbal fragment	Stance feature
170	show that the*	8	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
	showed that the	10	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
	showed that the	6	Discussion	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
171	shown in Table	27	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring

172	shown in the	11	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
173	shows that the	17	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
174	similar to that	5	Results	other expressions	Stance feature
175	so that they	5	Results	other expressions	Stance feature
176	some of the	6	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
177	stated that the	5	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
178	students should be	5	Discussion	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Stance feature
179	study aims to	5	Introduction	Other noun phrase	Other
180	study demonstrated that	5	Discussion	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
181	study found that	6	Discussion	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
182	such as the	5	Results	other expressions	Transition signal
	such as the	6	Discussion	other expressions	Transition signal
183	suggests that the	6	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
184	terms of the	7	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
	terms of the	7	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
185	The above table	5	Results	Other noun phrase	Structuring
186	the acquisition of	13	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
187	the basis of	5	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
188	the beginning of	6	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Location
	the beginning of	7	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Location
189	the case of	6	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Structuring
190	the characteristics of	12	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
	the characteristics of	6	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
	the characteristics of	12	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
	the characteristics of	5	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
191	the concept of	5	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
192	the context of	5	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
193	the current study	5	Results	Other noun phrase	Location
194	the data from	5	Results	noun phrase with other post-modifier fragment	Resultative signal
195	the data were*	7	Methods	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Procedure
	The data were	7	Methods	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Procedure

196	the degree of	7	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
197	the development of	8	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
	the development of	7	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
	the development of	8	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
198	the effectiveness of	7	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
199	the effects of	8	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
200	the fact that	6	Introduction	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Other
	the fact that	19	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Other
	the fact that	9	Discussion	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Other
201	the findings from*	5	Results	noun phrase with other post-modifier fragment	Resultative signal
	the findings of	6	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
	the findings of	15	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
	The findings of	13	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
202	the form of	6	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
203	the frequency of*	26	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	The frequency of	5	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	the frequency of	10	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
204	the importance of	16	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
	the importance of	10	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
205	the influence of	2	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
206	the kind of	10	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
207	the level of	6	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	the level of	6	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	the levels of	5	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
208	the majority of*	12	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	The majority of	5	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
209	the meaning of*	9	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Description
	the meaning of	47	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Description
	the meaning of	6	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Description

	the meanings of	7	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Description
	the meanings of	5	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Description
210	the medium of	5	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
211	the nature of	7	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
212	the number of*	8	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	the number of	30	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
	The number of	7	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
213	the other hand	17	Results	other expressions	Framing signal
214	the part of	6	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
	the part of	5	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
215	the participants had	6	Discussion	verb phrase with noun/pronoun	Resultative signal
216	the participants in	7	Methods	noun phrase with other post-modifier fragment	Procedure
	the participants in	15	Discussion	noun phrase with other post-modifier fragment	Procedure
217	the participants were	18	Methods	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Procedure
	The participants were	6	Methods	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Procedure
	the participants were	6	Results	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Procedure
	the participants were	8	Discussion	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Procedure
218	the pattern of*	10	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Description
	the patterns of	6	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Description
219	the percentage of	9	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
220	the present study	13	Methods	Other noun phrase	Location
	the present study	17	Results	Other noun phrase	Location
	the present study	22	Discussion	Other noun phrase	Location
221	the process of	6	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
	the process of	7	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
222	the proportion of	5	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
223	the purpose of	5	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
	the purpose of	9	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Framing signal
224	the questionnaire was*	7	Methods	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Procedure

	The questionnaire was	6	Methods	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Procedure
225	the respondents had	6	Results	verb phrase with noun/pronoun	Resultative signal
226	the result of*	5	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
	The result of	5	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
	the result of	5	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
	The result of	5	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
	The results from	6	Results	noun phrase with other post-modifier fragment	Resultative signal
	the results of	16	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
	The results of	9	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
	the results of	22	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
	The results of	8	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Resultative signal
227	The results show	5	Results	verb phrase with noun/pronoun	Resultative signal
228	the role of	11	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
	the role of	13	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
229	the scores of	5	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Quantification
230	the sense that	5	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	other
231	the strategy of	5	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
232	the students were*	7	Methods	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Procedure
	The students were	5	Methods	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Procedure
	the students were	8	Results	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Procedure
233	the study of	6	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Description
	the study of	7	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Description
234	The subjects were	5	Methods	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Procedure
235	the success of	5	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
236	the type of*	6	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
	the types of	8	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
237	the use of*	33	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
	the use of	9	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure

	the use of	56	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
	the use of	43	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
	The use of	6	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
	their use of	10	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
238	there is a	17	Results	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Stance feature
	there was a	15	Results	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Stance feature
	there was a	15	Results	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Stance feature
239	There should be	7	Discussion	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Stance feature
240	there is no*	5	Results	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Stance feature
	there was no	5	Results	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Stance feature
241	This can be	8	Results	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Stance feature
242	This finding is	9	Discussion	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Resultative signal
243	This indicates that	7	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
244	This is because	5	Introduction	other expressions	Stance feature
245	This is in	5	Discussion	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	other
246	This means that	5	Discussion	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
247	this statement is	7	Results	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Intangible framing
248	this study is*	5	Discussion	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Location
	this study was	11	Methods	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Location
	this study was	11	Discussion	Noun/pronoun phrase+be	Location
249	This suggests that	6	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
250	to answer the	6	Introduction	other expressions	Procedure
251	to be a*	8	Introduction	other expressions	Procedure
	to be a	9	Results	other expressions	Procedure
	to be an	5	Introduction	other expressions	Procedure
	to be the	7	Results	other expressions	Procedure
	to be the	8	Discussion	other expressions	Procedure
	to be the	8	Discussion	other expressions	Procedure
252	to be able	7	Discussion	other expressions	Stance feature
253	to be aware	7	Discussion	other expressions	Stance feature
254	to complete the	7	Methods	other expressions	Procedure
255	to determine the	8	Methods	other expressions	Procedure
256	to find out	6	Methods	other expressions	Procedure
	to find out	7	Discussion	other expressions	Procedure
257	to identify the	7	Results	other expressions	Procedure
	to identify the	6	Results	other expressions	Procedure
258	to investigate the	7	Introduction	other expressions	Procedure
259	to participate in	5	Methods	other expressions	Procedure
260	to retain the	7	Results	other expressions	Procedure

261	to the participants	7	Results	Prepositional phrase expressions	Resultative signal
262	to use a*	8	Discussion	other expressions	Procedure
	to use a	8	Discussion	other expressions	Procedure
	to use the	6	Introduction	other expressions	Procedure
	to use the	6	Results	other expressions	Procedure
	to use the	7	Discussion	other expressions	Procedure
263	understanding of the	7	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
264	use of a*	8	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
	use of the	10	Introduction	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
	use of the	13	Results	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
	use of the	7	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
	use of the	7	Discussion	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Procedure
265	used as a	10	Introduction	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Procedure
266	used by a*	12	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Resultative signal
	used by children	6	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Resultative signal
267	used in the*	17	Methods	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Procedure
	used in the	15	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Procedure
	used in the	8	Introduction	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Procedure
	used in this	10	Methods	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Procedure
	used in this	5	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Procedure
268	used to analyze	8	Methods	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Procedure
269	used to determine	5	Methods	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Procedure
270	validity of the	6	Methods	noun phase with of-phrase fragment	Intangible framing
271	was able to*	10	Discussion	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Stance feature
	were able to	8	Results	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Stance feature
	were able to	16	Discussion	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Stance feature
272	was based on	6	Methods	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Structuring
273	was carried out	7	Methods	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Procedure
274	was divided into	8	Methods	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Procedure
275	was employed to	5	Methods	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Procedure

276	was found that	5	Introduction	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
	was found that	9	Results	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
	was found that	11	Discussion	verb phrase or noun phrase+that-clause fragment	Resultative signal
277	was found to	13	Results	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Resultative signal
	was found to	6	Discussion	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Resultative signal
278	was identified according	7	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Procedure
279	was used to	6	Methods	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Procedure
280	were administered to	7	Methods	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Procedure
281	were asked to	17	Methods	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Procedure
	were asked to	10	Results	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Procedure
282	were consistent with	5	Discussion	Copula be + noun/ adjective phrases	Resultative signal
283	were divided into	8	Methods	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Procedure
284	were found to	6	Discussion	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Resultative signal
285	were reported to	6	Discussion	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Resultative signal
286	were required to	5	Methods	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Procedure
287	were used in	6	Methods	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Procedure
	were used in	7	Results	Passive+prepositional phrase fragment	Procedure
288	were used to	11	Methods	verb or adjective to-clause fragment	Procedure
289	with regard to	5	Results	Other prepositional phrase	Framing signal
	with regard to	5	Discussion	Other prepositional phrase	Framing signal
	With regard to	5	Discussion	Other prepositional phrase	Framing signal

Characteristics of Slang Terms in Online Discussion among Thai Stock Investors

Daranee Choomthong

Abstract

Slang is actively used in society as a whole and it is more commonly used in spoken language. This study examines a context for such commonality by investigating the characteristics of slang terms used by Thai stock investors when they are communicating via social networking media: pantip.com (*Sindhorn café)* and facebook.com (closed group: เล่นหุ้นเก็งกำไรแบบรายวัน) during the timescale of August to October 2015. This study employed a mixed-methods methodology by using a quantitative approach methodology by counting the frequency of slang terms and a qualitative approach by analyzing metaphorical expressions, nativization and the categorizations of puns. The collected words were transcribed phonetically, using International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). The findings highlight 55 slang words used in online discussion forums among Thai stock investors. The most noticeable features of slang words used by Thai stock investors in online stock discussions were the use of metaphorical expressions as they form the largest group with 31 words. The findings also highlight 15 slang words which undergo a nativatization process. In addition, there were nine paronymic puns that emerged from the data. Most of the slang terms used by Thai stock investors when discussing stocks have a humorous and sarcastic tone.

Keywords: Slang terms, online discussion, Thai stock investors, metaphors, nativization, puns

บทคัดย่อ

สแลงเป็นภาษาที่ใช้อย่างกว้างขวางในสังคมทั่วไป และมักพบการใช้ภาษาสแลงในภาษาพูด งานวิจัยฉบับนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาลักษณะของคำสแลงในการสนทนาออนไลน์ของนักเล่นหุ้นชาวไทยในการสนทนาออนไลน์ผ่านทางเครือข่ายสังคม ได้แก่ เฟซบุ๊ค (เล่นหุ้นเก็งกำไรแบบรายวัน) และเว็บบอร์ดพันทิป (ห้องสินธร) ระหว่างเดือนสิงหาคม – ตุลาคม พ.ศ. 2558 งานวิจัยนี้การเก็บข้อมูลแบบเชิงปริมาณ โดยนับความถี่ของการใช้คำสแลง และการวิจัยเชิงคุณภาพ โดยการตีความการวิเคราะห์จากการสำรวจวรรณกรรมเกี่ยวกับอุปลักษณ์ การปรับตามภาษาแม่ และชนิดของการเล่นคำ คำสแลงที่เก็บได้ถูกถอดเสียงตามหลักสัทศาสตร์ โดยใช้สัทอักษรสากลในการถอดเสียงคำสแลงที่ได้จากการเก็บข้อมูล งานวิจัยนี้พบคำสแลงที่ใช้ในการสนทนาออนไลน์เกี่ยวกับหุ้นของนักเล่นหุ้นชาวไทยทั้งหมด 55 คำ ลักษณะเด่นของคำสแลงที่ใช้ในการพูด

เกี่ยวกับหุ้นคืออุปลักษณ์ โดยพบคำสแลงที่มีลักษณะของอุปลักษณ์มากที่สุดถึง 31 คำ การปรับตามภาษาแม่ 15 คำ และการเล่นคำ 9 คำ ทั้งนี้พบว่าการใช้คำสแลงในกลุ่มนักเล่นหุ้นชาวไทยให้ความหมายตลกขบขันและมีเนื้อหาเชิงเสียดสี

คำสำคัญ: คำสแลง, การสนทนาออนไลน์, นักเล่นหุ้นชาวไทย, อุปลักษณ์, การปรับตามภาษาแม่, การเล่นคำ

Introduction

Stock investment is a type of investment where people invest their money in exchange for shares of particular public companies. Investors then receive dividends and profits from “buy low” and/or “sell high” investing strategies. Many people talk more about stock investment in conversation, yet what interests this researcher most is the way that Thai people use social networking sites, such as Facebook (closed group) and pantip.com (Sindhorn café), as the channels through which to discuss topics concerning stocks. The language and expressions used when Thai people discuss topics about stocks in online discussions, are unique, containing a great deal of slang words. Thus, the characteristics of Thai slang words used in online discussions among Thai stock traders or stock investors should be investigated.

However, the stock market is in a constant state of fluctuation, and with emergence of real-time trading online, there has also emerged new terminology, such as “day trader” or “day trading,” which refers to speculating in stocks, especially the buying and selling of stocks within the same trading day or holding the stock for a short period of time, and later selling the stock if he/she is satisfied with the profits gained. The term day trader or day trading is opposed to “value investors” who see value and make fundamental analysis of a company, then gradually invest their money in the form of stocks and hold the investment for a long time, believing that profit is gained gradually. In this paper, the term, Thai stock investors, is used to refer to both day traders and value investors. It is my intention to investigate informal language use and slang terms used by Thai stock investors when they are discussing stocks online.

According to Zhou and Fan (2013), slang is an informal speech style which can consist of a single word or phrase. Slang is often regarded as informal and a low prestige use of language. Although slang is considered by many people as having lower accountability in society, slang is noticeably increasing in society in terms of use as emergent in: everyday conversation, movies, media and magazines. Young people are active in creating slang. They use slang terms in their conversation to show their attitude against society, or to personalize their language to their own way of thinking. It can be said that slang is a product of society because it is created by people living in the society. It is one of the linguistic varieties which can reflect social trends of a society at that time and also reflect how the world is seen by its people.

As slang is actively used in society as a whole, commonly it is used in the form of spoken language, and it is my interest to investigate the characteristics of slang terms used by Thai stock investors when they communicate using social networking sites such as pantip.com: Sindhorn café and facebook.com (closed group: เล่นหุ้นเก็งกำไรแบบรายวัน). The two websites for data collection are asynchronous. Based on Hadziahmetovi-Jurida (2007), the interaction between users is stored in a particular format, and made available to other users on their request. Users can hence catch up with the discussion in the postponed time (asynchronous), adding their comments to any given topic and are not limited by time.

As asynchronous online discussions are a way in which people can hold conversation in the form of posted messages on a website, many Internet users log onto websites and post as well as leave comments. Interaction in the form of "writing" seems to play a part in the online discussion. Communication is primarily typing and usually a non-standard form of writing is shown on computer screens and smart phones. Crystal (2001) stated that from the sociolinguists' point of view, non-standard forms of writing such as using clipping and creating new words in online discussions are considered a new language variety. Language online is a system of linguistic expression whose use is governed by situational factors.

I visited many online discussion forums and web boards where stock investing was discussed in the Thai netscape. I noticed and encountered the use of slang terms in online discussion about stock investments. The language used among stock investors is difficult to understand by people outside the group, because new words are created and used by members in the discussion forums. I noticed that an important aspect of this online language variety was the use of slang, and other linguistics features are used in online discussion about stocks. Therefore, I decided to pursue an investigation into the characteristics of slang used in online discussions among Thai stock investors.

Scope of the study and limitation of the study

Usually, research results must be analyzed and interpreted bearing in mind the study's limitations. Consequently, readers should be cautious about making generalizations from the findings. The limitation of the study is that the data was collected from two popular websites: pantip.com (Sindhorn café) and facebook.com (closed group: เล่นหุ้นเก็งกำไรรายวัน). The data was collected from these websites over three months: August to October 2015.

Pantip is a popular Thai language website and web board. One of the features of Pantip is that it provides a "café" which consists of 20 various topics of discussion such as politics, music, movies, dramas, education and celebrities. The topics, or cafés, are named after famous places in Thailand which include Ratchadumnern café (discussions and topics about politics), Silom café (discussions and topics about health), Sindhorn café (discussions and topics about economy and stock market). The focus of this study is Sindhorn café because there are active posts, discussions, comments about stock investments and mutual funds.

Facebook, which is considered the largest and most popular social network in Thailand, is also the focus of this study. I collected data from a "closed group" because posts and comments of the members in a closed group do not show in the newsfeed as opposed to a public group or fanpage. I chose to collect data from a closed group because I believe that the members feel free to post and comment about stocks. The closed group selected for this study is เล่นหุ้นเก็งกำไรรายวัน as there are more than 30,000 members, making the posts and comments that are regularly updated.

Literature review and conceptual framework

In this section, analytical concepts relevant to this study are reviewed, specifically: slang, metaphor, nativization, and puns. After reviewing the concepts of slang used from many dictionaries and scholars who note that slang is regarded as informal words and expressions used among a particular group of people which bristles with humor and is often characterized by lexical innovation through creation of new words (Crystal 2004); Hamaida 2007; Yule 2010; McCrindle 2011; Zhou & Fan 2013), I have devised metaphorical concepts relevant to the present analysis, nativization process, as well as categorization of puns which share some characteristics to slang use. In so doing, I emphasize the relevance of these concepts to my analysis of Thai stock investor's online discussions.

Slang use

Slang is a term which has a long history especially in folk linguistics but for the purposes of this discussion I am using the definition of slang as outlined in Yule (2010) which suggests that slang refers to words or phrases that are used instead of more everyday terms among younger speakers and other groups with special interests. In what follows here is an outline of some of the many definitions of slang, and discussion of the emphasis on Yule's definition. The common features of slang offered by many dictionaries are that slang is: informal, humorous, used by a special group of people and short-lived. The *Oxford Modern Dictionary of Slang* (2008) states that slang is a colorful alternative vocabulary bristling with humor, prejudice and informality. Crystal (2004) also defines slang as informal, non-standard vocabulary and the jargon of a special group.

Hamaida (2007) summarized that slang refers to the non-standard use of words in a language and it is associated with informal and colloquial spoken language. Slang often originates in the subcultures of a society. It is characterized by lexical innovation through the creation of new words. Particular forms of slang by teenagers are used as a means of expressing identity between members of a group.

According to Yule (2010), slang or colloquial speech, describes words or phrases that are used instead of more everyday terms among younger speakers, and other groups, with special interests. Slang is an aspect of social life that is subject to fashion especially among adolescents. It can be used by those inside a group to share ideas and attitudes as a way of distinguishing themselves from others. As a marker of group identity during a limited stage of life such as early adolescence, slang expressions can grow old quite quickly.

However, Eckert (cited in Yule 2010) commented that the use of slang varies within the younger social group, for example in the use of obscenities, or taboo terms (words and phrases that people avoid for reasons related to religion, politeness and prohibited behavior). Eckert found that the regular use of taboo words among both males and females in the lower-status group yet their usage behavior differed among the higher-status group, where males used taboo words only with males whereas females did not appear to use them at all.

According to McCrindle (2011), youth slang refers to a young person's choice of speech, and it is an extension of the particular youth subculture he/she belongs to, or identifies with. Slang is created by young people by adopting old words, then mixing them up or changing their meaning and personalizing them. Although slang is short-lived, the life cycle of a slang word depends on whether or not it is adopted by the mainstream or a dominant culture. The common shared characteristics of youth slang are: blended words (single words made from two words, e.g., crunk = crazy + drunk), virtual words (computer terminology, e.g., cyberslacking, blogosphere, cyberloafing), analogous words (something that bears some resemblance to the thing or action it denotes, e.g., ice = jewel, diamond), onomatopoeic words (imitations of sound associated with the thing or action they denote, e.g., cha-ching = money, bling-bling = jewel) and gender-specific words (words used by members of only one sex or for addressing only one gender).

Zhou and Fan (2013) offered some interesting characteristics of American slang and through their discussion I noticed some shared characteristics of slang use by Thai stock investors. To them, the characteristic of humor can be shown through the lexicon. For example, the acronym NATO is used to describe somebody or something that only says something but does not put their plan into practice. American slang is used to show self-identity for dividing professional groups in society, and to show that they are qualified members among a certain distinct group. Also, an emotive function is shown in American slang as it reveals the speaker's attitude toward the subject. This is considered one of the most powerful uses of language because it is important in changing the emotional status of an audience for or against someone or something.

Metaphor and slang

The term metaphor is derived in this study from Lakoff's (1992) discussion in cognitive linguistics where he emphasizes that metaphor involves a mapping of two conceptual domains, where one conceptual domain (the source domain) is mapped onto another (the target domain). Here, I will highlight some academic work on metaphor of importance to the present discussion. Lakoff and Johnson (1980), the pioneers of the cognitive approach to metaphor, stated that metaphor is not only textual decoration but reflects the way humans think, act and speak. Conceptual metaphor is the process of viewing one thing in terms of another, which results in metaphorical expressions. It is a mapping of two conceptual domains: the source domain onto the target domain at the cognitive level (Lakoff, 1992). Metaphor is regarded as ubiquitous and that human's conceptual metaphors make sense of the world and their experience. As a result, it is a reflection of how humans view the world. However, the proposed theory received criticism as it focused on cognition and the data come from decontextualized introspection; therefore empirical evidence is needed and should be based on a corpus of naturally occurring data. In addition, there should also be an analysis of the pragmatic function of metaphor in discourse because metaphor is also a tool for communication. Metaphor is used to communicate ideas in a vivid manner and has pragmatic force in the context it is used in.

Of more specific relevance to the present discussion is how metaphor is related to slang. Lederer (2009) stated that all slang is metaphor and all metaphor is poetry. He commented that American slang abounds in fresh figures of speech that evoke arresting word pictures in the mind's eye. Slang is a prominent part of the American wordscape. In fact, the *Dictionary of American Slang* estimates that metaphor makes up perhaps a fifth of slang words we use.

Bartel (1983) talked about metaphor in slang and that various motives have been ascribed to the makers and users of slang deviance, secrecy, peer loyalty, economy, self-assertion and creativity. In slang, comparisons are often so strained and so remote that they are hardly noticeable as comparisons, a fact that gives slang its most distinctive quality. Although the comparison may be obscure, their vitality is conspicuous. The makers of slang are free to use words in any way they choose. Since they can ignore the dictionary meaning of words, the rules of grammar, ordinary logic and common sense, they are able to produce a unique vocabulary that has little connection with Standard English. Depending on their motives and their resourcefulness, they can invent words that are mysterious or self-explanatory, colorful or drab, shocking or soothing, humorous or dull.

Nativization process

To reflect the importance and the power of English as the language of modernity and globalization emerging in the money market, I hypothesized that the nativization process is one of the features used in online stock discussion. Nativization of English is a linguistic process where an aspect of English linguistic structure (lexicon, syntax, and other aspects of grammar) is borrowed into a speaker's native language (Sankoff & Laberge, 1974). The English language is adapted to new uses and undergoes the process of nativization in new contexts and thus nativization can refer to the change of characteristics or linguistic features of some foreign words when they are used in the dominant language, including the process of the localization of English words (Pandharipande, 1987).

In addition, Kachru and Nelson (2006) stated that in the outer and expanding circles, nativization of English can be found in various artistic expressions such as fiction, poetry and performance with the mixing of English items. This makes nativization bring about a new variety of English and causes change in native languages. Kachru and Smith (2008) said that the grammatical structure demonstrated in sounds, rhythm, words, processes of word formation, phrases, sentence patterns, idioms and the use of English in various contexts shown in genres and literacy creativity are effects of nativization and acculturation. The classifications of nativized characteristics of English words proposed by Kannaovakun and Gunther (2003) are truncation, hybridization, reduplication, conversion, semantic shift, and word order.

Many studies that seek to reflect upon the importance of English as a language of modernity have noticed that the nativization process is present. Janhom (2011) found that in Thai health magazines hybridization was at the highest level, followed by truncation, conversion, word-order shift and reduplication respectively. Papijit (2013) investigated Hormones the series and revealed the process of truncation, hybridization, conversion, semantic shift and reduplication respectively. Reduplication was frequently used in Thai pop songs as revealed by Likhitphongsathorn and Sappapan (2013).

Pun as for intended humorous and rhetorical effect

Puns, as noted by Giorgadze (2014), are a form of word play which can be expressed with ambiguity verbally and/or with orthographic peculiarities, sounds and forms of words, in breaking grammar rules. Pragmatically speaking, the role of puns tends to be humorous, satirical and sarcastic. According to Redfern (1985), a pun is to treat homonyms as synonyms. Puns are a figure of speech which consists of a deliberate confusion of similar words or phrases for rhetorical effect, whether humorous or serious. It is a way of using the characteristics of the languages to cause a word, a sentence or a discourse to involve two or more different meanings. Thus humorous or other effects created by puns depend upon the ambiguities that the words entail (Kjerkegaard, 2011). The humorous or rhetorical effects of puns are also supported in *Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary and Thesaurus* that pun (“pun”, n.d.) is the exploitation of multiple meanings of words or of similar sounding words for an intended humorous or rhetorical effect. To some extent, the definition of pun fits the nature of slang in that the makers of slang are free to use words in any way they choose to make the communication humorous, shocking or dull.

Delabastita (1996) classified pun into four categories including: homonymic pun (identical sounds and spelling), homophonic pun (identical sounds but different spellings), homographic pun (different sounds but identical spelling) and paronymy pun (slight differences in both spelling and sound).

Most studies concerning pun found issues of pun and translation where pun creates linguistic problems of translatability because different languages have different meaning-form distributions. There are comparative case studies of subtitled puns in television series (Jing, 2010; Pedersen, 2010; Ushurova, 2012). However, the focus of the current study is to investigate the characteristics of Thai slang terms used in online discussion among Thai stock investors, and to discover if pun plays a part in creating

Thai slang terms by Thai stock investors. A review of literature found that at the moment there has been no empirical studies about the use of pun in Thai slang terms.

Data collection and analysis

The data were collected from asynchronous online discussion from Facebook (closed group: เล่นหุ้นแบบเก็งกำไรรายวัน) and pantip.com (Sindhorn café) from August to October 2015 (63 days). The words that appeared in the web board, posts and comments were collected. Thirty-two Thai stock investors, found by convenience sampling, were asked if they thought that the words in the survey were slang terms that were familiar to them. Also the meanings of the collected words were checked with Banks' *Financial Lexicon* (2005). The words were then transcribed phonetically by using International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). Lists of phonetic notation in Thai language can be found in an appendix. After that, the collected words were grouped and analyzed from the interpretation based on a review of literature about metaphor, nativization process, and categorization of pun as for intended humorous and rhetorical effect.

Findings

The analysis found 55 slang words used in online discussion among Thai stock investors. The most noticeable features of slang words used by Thai stock investors in online discussions was the use of metaphors as they form the largest group with 31 words. There were 15 slang words that underwent the nativatization process. The classifications of nativized characteristics of English words found in this study are hybridization and truncation. There were nine paronymic puns, meaning that there are slight differences in both spelling and sound. Table 1 is a summary of the numerical findings in terms of metaphorical expressions, nativization processes, and puns.

Table 1: Summary of characteristics of slang words used by Thai stock investors in online discussion

Language Features	**Number of slang words**
1. Metaphorical expressions	31
2. Nativization - Hybridization - Truncation	9 6
3. Pun	9
Total	55

Metaphorical Expression

It was very interesting to discover that the use of metaphorical expressions form the largest group of language features in slang words used among Thai stock investors. The collected words from Facebook (closed group: เล่นหุ้นแบบเก็งกำไรรายวัน) and pantip.com (Sindhorn café) were grouped under "metaphorical expression" by seeing if the words attempted to show comparison, or identify hidden similarities between ideas, as well as mapping of two conceptual domains: the source domain onto the target domain at the cognitive level (Lakoff 1992). It was found that 31 slang words were characterized as metaphorical expressions. Here I identify the Thai term in IPA, its frequency of occurrence, its English equivalent, and its definition of use among Thai stock investors.

/dɔːj/ ดอย was found 483 times and it has the highest frequency. /dɔːj/ is equivalent to "summit" in English. It means the loss of profits caused by the current stock price being significantly lower than the purchased price.

/tìt.dɔːj/ ติดดอย was found 471 times and its closest meaning is to be caught on the summit. The term is used when Thai investors want to identify a situation of purchasing stocks at high prices while the market value of the stock is lower than the purchased price.

/lùt.dɔːj/ หลุดดอย was found 425 times and its closest meaning is to come down from the summit. The term is used for expressing feelings of having freedom when the stock prices are finally higher than the original purchased price after holding the stock for a significant length of time.

/mâw/ เม่า was found 421 times and is equivalent to "fireflies" in English. It refers to individuals who are easily attracted by red and green colors on screens when their stock prices move.

/khǎːj. mǔː/ ขายหมู was found 419 times and its closest meaning is to "selling a pig." The term is used for a situation when after one sells a stock the stock price begins soaring.

/tɕâːw. mɯː/ or /tɕâːw/ เจ้า was found 417 times and it is equivalent to the house (of trading stock). The term is used for addressing large investors who have the power to control stock prices.

/pùː/ ปู่ was found 412 times and it is equivalent to "grandpa" in English. The term is used by Thai stock investors when they want to refer to the Stock Exchange of Thailand (SET) as it is weak and declining quickly, as if kicking an old weak grandfather down a flight of stairs.

/lâːk/ ลาก was found 256 times and means "to drag up." The term can be identified with an act of purchasing stocks, with the intention of driving up the price and the stock index.

/thûp/ ทุบ was found 244 times and is equivalent to "pump and dump" in English. It refers to a situation of dumping or selling a large number of stocks until their prices drop.

/ʔɔ̀ːk. rót/ ออกรถ was found 212 times and its closest meaning is "the bus is leaving." The term is used to refer to a situation when the stock market is increasing daily.

/tòk. rót/ ตกรถ was found 211 times and it has its closest meaning to "miss the bus" in English. It refers to a situation while the stock market is rising, some investors gain profits while other portfolios remain empty.

/rót. faj. hɔʔ/ รถไฟเหาะ was found 195 times and is equivalent to "a roller coaster" in English. The term can be identified with the daily fluctuation of the stock market which is going up and down very quickly.

/sùk.sà.yɔ̌ːŋ/ ศุกร์สยอง was found 193 times and is equivalent to "frightful Friday" in English. This refers to the end of the workweek when investors dump their stocks before leaving for holidays and weekends, causing a decline in a stock market.

/kèp. khɔ̌ːŋ/ เก็บของ was found 187 times and has its closest meaning to "collect/pick things up" in English. The term can be identified with a situation of purchasing stock at a price lower than the market value.

/kràʔ. sǔn/ กระสุน was found 142 times and is equivalent to "bullet" in English. It refers to left over money in the portfolio that can be used to buy more stocks.

/dêŋ/ เด้ง was found 133 times and has its closest meaning to "bounce." It refers to gaining 100% profit.

/rɔː. loŋ. pâːj. nâː/ รอลงป้ายหน้า was found 131 times and its closest meaning is to "get off the bus at the next stop." This refers to a situation of the selling of stocks in anticipation of receiving a high index yield.

/khɯ̂n. rót/ ขึ้นรถ was found 130 times and its closest meaning is to "get on the bus." It refers to a situation of purchasing stocks which investors believe will be profitable (the prices will rise).

/lúk. tɕʰàː. tɕàːj. rɔ̂ːp. woŋ/ลุกช้าจ่ายรอบวง was found 131 times and its closest meaning is "grasp all, lose all." It refers to a situation of holding stocks which are under the manipulation of someone. The investor may gain some profits at the beginning but if the investor is greedy, he/she may lose the profit.

/thɔ̌ːj. rót. maː. ráp/ ถอยรถมารับ was found 102 times and its closest meaning is "to backup the car to pick up someone." This term is used to refer to the small decline within the stock in anticipation of those investors who have not yet purchased the stock.

/pha.yaː.plùək/ พญาปลวก was found 51 times and is equivalent to "the king/queen of termite" in English. It refers to local investors who win the market, always earning profits.

/khɔ̌ːŋ. thùːk/ ของถูก was found 44 times and has its closest meaning to "inexpensive stock." It refers to a situation when stock prices are declining, while their actual value price is high.

/thɔ̌ːj. rót. maː. tháp/ ถอยรถมาทับ was found 42 times and its closest meaning is "to backup the car to run over." It refers to the decline of the stock market, resulting in a number of investors buying the stocks believing that they will receive a good price but then the stock market goes down even more, causing a loss of profit.

/sɯ́ː. khwaːj/ ซื้อควาย was found 39 times and its closest meaning is to "buy a buffalo." It refers to purchasing stocks at low prices while prices are continually declining.

/bàk. kròːk/ บักโกรก was found 31 times and its closest meaning is to "be very skinny." It refers to the loss of profit.

/tìt. khúk/ ติดคุก was found 21 times and its closest meaning is to "be in jail." It refers to stocks in which the Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) has announced that some stocks are required to be traded in cash balance.

/plák.lùt/ ปลั๊กหลุด was found 16 times and its English equivalence is to "unplug." It refers to a circuit breaker (Measures taken to halt trading on an exchange in the event of predefined price levels are reached. Circuit breakers are intended to allow market participants to rebalance their positions in an orderly manner without contributing to further price pressures. Common breakers include temporary trading halts, curbs or bans on automated trading programs, and/or hourly/daily price limits.).

/mɔ̂ːp.tua/ มอบตัว was found 15 times and its closest meaning is to "surrender." It refers to ATC (at closing time) an order to buy or sell a stock at the closing price. An ATC order is allowed during the pre-close session only.

/sòŋ. kaːn. bâːn/ ส่งการบ้าน was found 13 times and its English equivalence is to "submit the homework." It means to show a financial statement (a document that a company must prepare regularly, showing its financial performance during a particular period of time. It usually includes profits and loss accounting, the balance sheet and other information).

/sâj. tὲːk/ ไส้แตก was found 11 times and its literal meaning is to "breaking intestine." It refers to the decline of the stock market, resulting in the loss of profits.

/hèp. tɕʰà. lǎːm/ เห็บฉลาม was found 8 times and its closest meaning is to "the shark's flea." The term can be identified with a situation of riding on someone else's coattails (buying stocks today in the hopes that it will be profitable in the future).

Nativization

According to Sankoff and Laberge (1974), nativization in the context of English refers to the process by which characteristics of English are applied to one's L1. To Pandharipande (1987), this includes the process of the localization of English words or English in a localized context in this case Thai stock investor's on-line discussions. The classifications of nativized characteristics of English words found in slang words in online discussions among Thai stock investors are truncation and hybridization. Other characteristics of nativization processes such as conversion, semantic shift, reduplication and word order were not found.

Truncation

Truncationis a short form of English words made by either deleting the first or last syllable. However, this study found that most slang words used by Thai stock investors are words made by cutting the last syllables or back-clipping. It was found that six slang words underwent the truncation process.

Deletion of the last syllables or back-clipping

/maː/ มาร์ or marketing officer was found 242 times. It refers to a person who watches stocks for the investors. He/she gets a percentage of the buying and selling of stocks from the investors.

/tɕʰɔ́t/ ช๊อต or short sale was found 124 times. It refers to a transaction by a person who believes a security will decline and sells it, though the person does not own the security.

/lɔːŋ/ ลอง or long position was found 114 times. It signifies ownership of securities and benefits from price appreciation.

/lĭŋ/ ลิ่ง or ceiling price was found 112 times. A boundary placed on certain exchange – traded assets that limits the amount of upward or downward price movement that can occur during a trading session.

/flɔː/ ฟลอร์ or floor price was found 104 times. It is the lowest legal price the stock can be sold.

/in.sái/ อินไซด์ or insider was found 84 times. It refers to any instance where non-public information is used to purchase or sell securities in order to generate a profit.

Hybridization

The findings show that there were nine slang words which can be classified as hybridized, the combination of an English word with a Thai word. Interestingly, it was found that these slang terms underwent truncation, the dropping of the last syllable, or back clipping, before undergoing hybridization as in the following list where the Thai words are placed before the cut syllables:

ADVANC /ʔǽt.wán/ → /ʔǽt/

INTUCH /ʔin.thât/ → /in/

Hang Seng /hàŋ.sɛ̌ŋ/ → /hàŋ/

DTAC /diː.thæ̀k/ → /diː/

Dow Jones /daw.tɕoːn/ → /daw/

Short sale /tɕʰɔ́t.sew/ → /tɕʰɔ́t/

Long position /lɔːŋ.po.siː.tɕʰán/ →/lɔːŋ/

Technical analysis /thɛ́k.nì.kɔ.an.na.li.sìt/ → /thɛ́k.nìk/

Commission /khɔːm.mì.tɕʰân/ → /khɔːm/

Insertion of kinship terms in Thai into a stock's name

/náː. ʔǽt/ น้าแอ๊ด was found 126 times and it is used for addressing ADVANC which is an abbreviation or stock symbol for Advanced Info Service Public Company Limited in the SET. It is an information and communication technology blue chip company, well-known and highly respected publicly traded company as well as financially sound. Uncle ad – the word /náː/ in Thai has its equivalent to uncle in English. This is to signal the feeling of respect toward something as in the word /náː/ which is a Thai kinship term used to address the mother's younger brothers or sisters. Thai stock investors insert the word /nàː/ to address ADVANC stock and instead of using its full name ADVANC /ʔǽt.wáːn/, they simply cut the last syllable as in /ʔæ̀t /.

/khǔn. ʔin/ขุนอิน was found 97 times and is used for addressing INTUCH, an abbreviation or the stock symbol for Intouch Holdings Public Company Limited in SET. It is an information and communication technology blue chip company. The word /khǔn/ in Thai is equivalent to prince or the king of a region before the integration of Thailand in English. This implies the feeling of security as the king, in the past, was the leader of an army who fought in the war to protect the people. Thai stock investors combine the word /khǔn/ to address INTUCH stock and instead of using its full name INTUCH /ɪn.thʌ́t/, they simply drop the last syllable as in /ɪn/.

/phîː.hàŋ/ พี่หั่ง was found 94 times and is used for addressing Hang Seng /hàŋ.sěŋ/ , which is an index indicating the changes of the largest public companies of the Hong Kong stock market. Bro/Brother Hang – the word /phîː/ in Thai has its equivalence to brother in English. Again, this implies a sense of respect as /phîː/ is a Thai kinship term to address the first son or sister in the family. Thai stock investors combine the word /phîː/ and simply cut the last syllable as in /hàŋ/.

/nǔː.diː/ หนูดี was found 93 times and is used for addressing DTAC /diː.tæ̀k/ , which is an abbreviation or stock symbol of the Total Access Communication Public Company Limited. It is an information and communication technology blue chip company, which is considered a lower than average risk and it has a long history of sustained earnings, growth and dividend yields. Younger sister, Dee – The word /nǔː/ in Thai is the second person pronoun used for calling a little girl (usually /nǔː/ + the child's name) and this implies the speaker's tender feeling toward the child. Thai stock investors combine the word /nǔː/ to address this stock and simply cut the last syllable as in /diː/.

/nɔ́ːŋ.daw/ น้องดาว was found 91 times and is used for addressing Dow Jones – a benchmark price-weighted index of the US stock market comprised of 30 large cap stocks representing the industrial sector. Younger sister, Dow – the word /nɔ́ːŋ/ is a Thai word which is used as a personal pronoun and is also used as a title before someone name to address someone who is younger and this also implies the speaker's tender feeling toward the person he/she is talking to. Thai stock investors combine the word /nɔ́ːŋ/ with the word Dow Jones in English and simply drop the last syllable as in /daw/.

Insertion of the word /khǎː/ as a body part to signal a collective noun in Thai

/khǎː.tɕʰɔ́t/ ขาช็อต was found 84 times and is used for addressing a group of people who short sale – the word /khǎː/ is a Thai word which means a group of people who prefer doing something together. Thai stock investors combine the word /khǎː/which is a collective noun with the word short sale in English, and they simply drop the last syllable as in /tɕʰɔ́t/. Short sale is a transaction by a person who believes a security will decline and they sell it, though the person does not own the security.

/khǎː.lɔːŋ/ ขาลอง was found 74 times and is used for addressing a group of people who have a long position – the word /khǎː/ is a collective noun in Thai, meaning a group of people who prefer something. Thai stock investors combine the word /khǎː/ with the word long securities and benefits from price appreciation.

Insertion of the Thai word /phûak, signaling a collective noun in Thai

/phûak.thɛ́k.nìk/ พวกเทคนิค was found 71 times. A standard term used in technical analysis – securities and market analysis techniques that are based on the concept that past price formations repeat in particular patterns, and can thus be used to forecast future movements. This means a group of investors who use technical analysis as a method to gain profits from stock. Thai stock investors combine the Thai word /phûak/, which is a collective noun (usually /phûak/ + name), meaning a group of people, to the English word and simply drop the last syllable as in /thɛ́k.nìk/.

Insertion of the Thai word /khâː/, equivalent to fee in English

/khâː.khɔːm ค่าคอม or commission fee – the broker's basic fee for purchasing or selling securities or property as an agent, was found 221 times. Thai stock investors combine the Thai word /khâː/ which is equivalent to "fee" in English and cut the rest of the following syllables as in /khɔːm/.

Pun

The classification of pun found in this study is paronymy, meaning that there are slight differences in spelling, vowels and tones. Based on Partington (2009), this refers to a pun as defined in a more phonetic way as the bisociative play between the two sound sequences.

Consonant play

/pɔ̀ːp/ ปอป, a type of ghost in Thai folklore, described as a malevolent female spirit that devours human entrails, has the highest frequency as it was used 324 times. The slang term /pɔ̀ːp/ was used for addressing "property trading" in English. It is a play with the consonant cluster as the first syllable of the English word "property" which sounds similar to the word /pɔ̀ːp/ in Thai language. This shows how Thai investors have negative attitudes toward property trading because it is supposed to help local individuals; however, usually it causes the SET to fluctuate.

/pɔ̀ːt/ ปอด which is equivalent to lungs in English, was found 285 times and refers to "portfolio." This is a play with the final consonant as the first syllable of the English word "portfolio" sounds similar to the word /pɔ̀ːt/ in Thai.

/dûn/ ดุ้น was found 55 times and refers to "stock." In fact, the standard term is /hûn/ หุ้น. However, the slang term /dûn/ which means “dick” and it is an obscene word in Thai and thus is meant to have a humorous effect.

/lam. jaj/ ลำไย – a kind of Thai fruit – was found 52 times and refers to " profit." The standard term is actually /kam. raɪ/ กำไร. However, the term /lam.jaj/ which means a kind of Thai fruit, is used to have a humorous effect. The word /lam.jaɪ/ and /kam.raɪ/ have similar sounding with the change of the initial consonant from the first syllable /l/ and /k/ and the second syllable /j/ and /r/.

/diː. tæ̀k/ ดีแตก was found 36 times and refers to DTAC which is a blue chip stock. It is speculated that when its price drastically drops, it is called /diː. tæ̀k/. /diː/ is equivalent to "good." However, /tæ̀k/ is equivalent to broken which signals negative meaning or an unpleasant situation.

/tàʔ.lók/ ตลก was found 21 times and is a funny way for addressing the SEC or /kɔː.lɔː.tɔː/ กลต in Thai. When the standard term /kɔː.lɔː.tɔː/ is switched to /tɔː.lɔː.kɔː/ ตลก, it can be read as /tàʔ.lòk/ in Thai causing the term to have a humorous and satirical effect.

Shift in vowel sound

/raːj. jûj/ รายยุ่ย was found 247 times and is used for addressing local individuals who lose some profits. This is a play with similar Thai vowel sounds. The standard term is actually /raːj. jɔ̂j/ รายย่อย. It is a shift of the vowel /ɔ/ in /raːj. jɔ̂j/ to the vowel /u/ in /raːj. jûj/. The slang term /jûj/ is used to make the term sound more powerful and have satirical and sarcastic effect. The term, /jûj/, is equivalent to "being torn apart" in English, implying that local Thai individual investors lose the market.

/hûn.klùm.sù.săn/ หุ้นกลุ่มสุสาน was found 12 times and is used to refer to information and communication technology stocks. /hûn.klùm.sù.săn/ is equivalent to graveyard stocks in English. This is a play with similar vowel sounds in Thai language. The general term is actually /hûn.klùm.sɯ̀ː.săn/ หุ้นกลุ่มสื่อสาร. The vowel /ɯː/ in the word /sɯ̀ː.săn/ สื่อสาร is switched to the vowel /u/ in the word /sù.săn/ สุสาน, which means "a graveyard" in English to make the term have a satirical effect when their prices drop drastically.

Change in tone

/bɔː. rîʔ. sàt. lák. sáp/บริษัทลักทรัพย์ was found 74 times and is used to refer to a securities company that profits from commissions gained from buying and selling stocks from the traders. /bɔː. rîʔ. sàt. lák. sáp/ is equivalent to stealing a company. The word /lák/ carries a high tone and it means "to steal" in English. The standard term /bɔː. rîʔ. sàt. làk. sáp/ บริษัทหลักทรัพย์ /làk/ carries a low tone. The change of the tone implies a satirical tone of the speakers because /bɔː. rîʔ. sàt. làk. sáp/, or securities company, is supposed to help and give advice to its clients about stock trends, instead of taking money and gaining profits from them as in /bɔː. rîʔ. sàt. lák. sáp/บริษัทลักทรัพย์.

Discussion

Of all 55 slang words found in online discussion among Thai stock investors, the most noticeable feature of slang words used was the use of metaphorical expressions as they form the largest group with 31 words. Moreover, there are 15 slang words which underwent the process of nativization. The classifications of nativized characteristics of English words found in this study are hybridization and truncation. There were nine patronymic puns, meaning that there are slight differences in both spelling and sound.

Metaphorical expressions as an outstanding feature in online stock discussion

As this study seeks to investigate the characteristics of slang terms used by Thai stock investors, among 55 slang words obtained in data collection, it was found that metaphorical expressions formed the largest group with 31 words. Lederer (2009) commented that American slang abounds in fresh figures of speech, that evoke an arresting word picture in the mind's eye, and it is estimated, that metaphor makes up perhaps a fifth of slangs word in use, a comment that is in accordance with the findings of this study.

The examples of novel figures of speech characterized as metaphorical expressions were found to have the highest frequency are the words associated with "summit" in English, /dɔːj/ /tît.dɔːj/ in Thai language, signifying the loss of profits caused by the current stock price being lower than the purchased price. The findings confirm what Lakoff and Johnson (1980) proposed, that metaphor is not only a textual decoration but reflects that way humans think, act and speak. Metaphorical expression is a mapping of two conceptual domains: the source domain onto the target domain at the cognitive level (Lakoff, 1992). For this study, stock trading is the source domain and the target domain is "summit," /dɔːj/ or /tît.dɔːj/. This concept makes sense of the experience regarding stock trading by Thai investors such that it can lead to a loss of profits when buying high (being caught on the summit or /tît.dɔːj/) but the actual market price declines after the purchase. This is a metaphorical expression for communicating ideas in a vivid manner and has pragmatic force in the context it is used. To that end, more analysis of the conceptual metaphors of stock investing used by Thai stock investors in asynchronous online discussion should be further explored.

Reflection of Thai culture and lifestyles as portrayed in hybridization: placing the kinship terms before the stock names and indexes

The study found 15 slang words used in online discussion among Thai stock investors, which underwent the process of nativization, the integration of English linguistic structure borrowed into one's native language. Based on the notion of nativization, the English language used by Thai people contains features reflecting Thai culture and lifestyles. To illustrate hybridization, the combination of an English word with a Thai word, was found in the nativization process. It is very interesting to find the use of kinship terms such as /náː/ /phîː/ /nǔː/ /nɔ́ːŋ/ which are equivalent to uncle, elder siblings, the second person pronoun used for calling a little girl, and younger sister respectively are placed before the stock names and indexes. These kinship terms in Thai are used to address the blue chip stocks as in /náː. ʔǽt/ /phîː. hàŋ/ /nǔː. diː/ /nɔ́ːŋ. daw/. These kinship terms are placed before the stock names and indexes.

According to Vongvipanond (1994), in Thai culture, kinship terms are used to refer to anybody who is closely, or remotely, related to them by blood, by marriage or just by association, and has no formal kinship relation. Also, the kinship system is extended to include newcomers and strangers. When addressing someone who is not known before, Thai people will try to locate oneself in a kinship position arrangement such as using the term /phîː/ or /nɔ́ːŋ/ and following it by the name of the person. I believe that the nature of Thai kinship principles as the way to address someone is transferred and applicable to the creation of slang terms used by Thai stock investors, because these kinship terms are also placed before addressing the stock names and indexes, similar to the way Thai people address someone they know.

Thongpyayoon and Hill (1996), Kuwinpant (2002), and Sattayanurak (2005) commented that Thai society is a hierarchical society. Each person may occupy a certain position in the hierarchy due to age, sex and power. It can be inferred from the data that kinship terms such as /náː/ uncle or aunt, /pʰîː/ elder siblings are placed before the blue chip stock, ADVANC and the index such as Hang Seng, to signify importance of superiority, because ADVANC is regarded as one of the blue chip stocks as it is a well-known and highly respected publicly traded company not to mention the fact that it tends to give high dividends. As a result many Thai stock investors agree that the company is financially sound and relatively low risk. The kinship term, /náː/ is then placed before ADVANC as to imply that ADVANC is respected and has power to make Thai stock investors to gain profits. The kinship term, /pʰîː/, which is placed before the index, Hang Seng, also signifies the importance of superiority and wealth because it is a powerful index indicating changes of the largest public companies in Hong Kong.

Although the kinship terms in Thai, /nǔː/ and /nɔ̂ːŋ/ signify the inferiority of the addressee because they are inferior, /nɔ́ːŋ/ and /nǔː/ will have to pay respect to the superior /pʰîː/, these terms also imply tender feelings toward the addressee. The terms, /nǔː/ and /nɔ̂ːŋ/ imply positive feeling as when they are used with DTAC and the Dow Jones industrial average, because DTAC is a blue chip stock which is financially sound, similar to ADVANC and the Dow Jones industrial average is a benchmark price weighted index of the US stock market which is comprised of 30 large cap stocks representing the industrial sector. Therefore, it can be said that although the kinship terms used with DTAC and the Dow Jones industrial average may imply inferiority, a tender and positive feeling are portrayed through the kinship choices created by Thai stock investors.

Mixing of English words in Thai slang terms as a reflection of the power of English in globalization

Language mixing is a phenomenon occurring in bilingual talk with another bilingual in the same language and changes from one language to another automatically in the course of communication (Crystal, 1997). It was hypothesized that there are a great deal of English words mixed and used as slang terms in asynchronous online stock discussion in Thailand due to the importance and power of English as the language of modernity and globalization emerging in the money market. However, the study found only six slang words derived from English words, and these slang words were found to undergo a truncation process, a short form of English word made by dropping the first or the last syllable. For example, the word, "marketing officer" which was found to have the highest frequency, was reduced to /māː/ and this term was understood among the users in the group.

All of the six words /maː/ /tɕʰɔ́ːt/ /lɔːŋ/ /lǐŋ/ /flɔː/ /ɪn.sáɪ/ which were found in online discussion about trading stocks have undergone a truncation process, indicating a non-standard use of English. This reflects Internet interaction features as explained by Danet and Herring (2007) that although Internet interaction mainly deals with written forms, it shares several features with face-to-face communication such as lack of accuracy, complexity, coherence and standard. And as these words are used as slang, which is an informal speech style and low language, it stands to reason that non-standard English words were found in this study.

Although the data from this study found only six words which showed how English words were mixed and underwent a nativization process in asynchronous online discussion, this, to some extent, supports the increasing role of World Englishes in the modern day social network of Thailand. The mixing of English words found in this study reflects the increasing role of English as commented by Sanprasert (2014), who discussed the role of the widespread use of English among users in the expanding circle, including Thailand, where English is used as a foreign language and lingua franca, and about code mixing in World Englishes where English is used among people who share a common language, other than English, for their intranational and international communication.

Satirical and humorous effect in paronymic pun

Redfern (1985) concluded that puns are a figure of speech which consist of a deliberate confusion of similar words or phrases for rhetorical effect, whether humorous or serious. It is a way of using the characteristics of languages to cause a word or sentence or stretch of discourse to involve two or more meanings. Thus, puns create humorous and other effects based upon the ambiguities of the words that they entail. According to Delabatista (1996), the humor of a pun depends very much on the expectations shared by the framer of the message and the addressee, and on the way the addressee is taken by surprise and plunged into something entirely different from what she/he has been prepared for. Punning should also be considered in relation to another important aspect of human nature such as the sense of humor and the desire to produce a humorous effect on the people we communicate with.

This study found puns being used as one of the characteristics of slang use in asynchronous online discussions about trading stocks to show both the humorous and satirical emotion of its users. The slight differences in both spelling and sound, known as paronymy, found in this study is the play of tones, similar vowel sounds in Thai language and aspiration in Thai language versus English. The findings support the characteristics of slang that it is creatively used by a special group and it provides a colorful alternative vocabulary. It also bristles with humor, prejudice and informality.

Conclusion

The study found three characteristics of slang use among Thai stock investors in asynchronous online discussion which are: metaphorical expressions, nativization process by means of hybridization and truncation, and patronymic puns as found in word play. It was found that Thai stock investors actively create slang words used among online group discussions which show humorous and sarcastic tone as can be seen in patronymic puns. This finding corresponds to Zhou and Fan (2013) who found that slang is the product of society because it is created by people living in the society, reflecting social trends and how the world is seen by its people. This study also showed that the slang terms found have a humorous tone which corresponds to the findings of Yule (2010), McCrindle (2011), Zhou and Fan (2013) who found that affective meaning such as humor is one of the most outstanding features of slang use. The study also supports the definition of slang proposed by many scholars that slang is a figure of speech which is informal, non-standard, humorous, satirical and is considered as a low language.

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Appendix

Lists of Phonetic Notation in Thai Language

Consonants	Bilabial	Labiodental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive voiceless unaspirated	p		t	tɕ	k	ʔ
Plosive voiceless aspirated	ph		th	tɕʰ	kh	
Plosive voiced unaspirated	b		d			
Nasal	m	n	n		ŋ	
Lateral			l			
Trill			r			
Fricative			s			h
Semi-Vowel	w		□	j		
Simple vowels	□	□	□	□		
	□	Front	Central	Back		
High	□	i iː	ɯ ɯː	u uː		
Mid high	□	e eː	ɤ ɤː	o oː		
Mid low	□	ɛ ɛː	□	ɔ ɔː		
Low			a aː			
Diphthongs						
		ia	ɯa	ua		
Tone						
	low tone /ˋ/	Mid tone / /	High tone /ˊ/	Falling tone /^/	Rising tone /ˇ/	

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A Genre Analysis of English and Korean Research Paper Abstracts in Electronic Resource Management in Library and Information Science

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Abstract

This study aims to answer how the journal article abstract currently represents the main text of the journal article and what role the abstract plays. It also attempts to clarify how the structure of abstracts in Korean and English is different in the same academic area. In order to address this issue systematically, this study examines the textual organization of selected journal article abstracts in library and information science. Specifically, it focuses on the investigation of rhetorical structures and linguistic realizations based on the theoretical framework of "move analysis" as originally proposed by Swales (1990) and Hyland (2000). The results of this study clearly point out that there are differences in the frequency of the occurrence and distribution of five structural moves (introduction-purpose-method-results-conclusion). An abstract in English predominantly uses the introduction move, resulting in the preferred structure of "introduction-purpose-method," while in Korean there is a predilection toward the results move means a likely "introduction-purpose-method-results" structure. Furthermore, whereas most journal articles allocate a small portion to the method part in the abstract, this research found that English language abstracts in library and information science allocate the longest portion to the method move part, which consists of 46 words on average. In contrast, in Korean language abstracts, the results move is the longest move, with an average of 40 words.

Key words: Genre Analysis, Journal Abstract, Move Analysis

บทคัดย่อ

จุดประสงค์ของการวิจัยในครั้งนี้คือการหาคำตอบที่ว่า ทฤษฎีของงานเขียนเชิงวารสารในปัจจุบันมีบทบาทและความสำคัญอย่างไรกับใจความหลัก รวมถึงความพยายามในการทำความเข้าใจความแตกต่างระหว่างโครงสร้างของบทคัดย่อหรือทฤษฎีงานวิจัย ที่เขียนด้วยภาษาอังกฤษและภาษาเกาหลีในขอบข่ายวิชาการเดียวกัน และเพื่อเป็นการหาคำตอบอย่างเป็นระบบงานวิจัยครั้งนี้จึงเลือกพิจารณาตัวอย่างองค์ประกอบการเขียนบทคัดย่อ ในบทความวารสารด้านบรรณารักษศาสตร์และสารนิเทศศาสตร์จำนวนหนึ่งซึ่งจะมุ่งเน้นการ

ตรวจสอบโครงสร้างเชิงสำนวนและความเข้าใจด้านภาษา โดยอ้างอิงจากงานวิจัยของ Swales (1990) และ Hyland (2000)

เรื่องการวิเคราะห์กระบวนการทางภาษาศาสตร์ หรือ “move analysis” โดยการวิจัยนี้พบว่า มีความแตกต่างอย่างชัดเจนของกระบวนการทั้ง 5 แบบในโครงสร้างระหว่าง 2 ภาษา (กล่าวคือ บทนำ จุดประสงค์ แนวทาง ผลลัพธ์ และข้อสรุป) ซึ่งเป็นที่ชัดเจนว่า ในการเขียนบทคัดย่อด้วยภาษาอังกฤษส่วนใหญ่จะเป็นเชิงกระบวนการกล่าวนำซึ่งจะส่งผลทำให้เกิดโครงสร้างแบบ “บทนำ-จุดประสงค์-แนวทาง” ในขณะที่บทคัดย่อที่เป็นภาษาเกาหลีจะมีแนวโน้มเป็นแบบเน้นผลลัพธ์ ซึ่งก่อให้เกิดโครงสร้างแบบ “บทนำ-จุดประสงค์-แนวทาง-ผลลัพธ์” การวิจัยนี้ยังพบอีกว่าบทความเชิงวารสารส่วนมากจะให้ความสำคัญเพียงเล็กน้อยเท่านั้นกับกระบวนการเชิงแนวทางภายในบทคัดย่อ แต่บทคัดย่อที่เป็นภาษาอังกฤษโดยเฉพาะด้านบรรณารักษศาสตร์และสารนิเทศศาสตร์ จะประกอบไปด้วยกระบวนการนี้เป็นส่วนใหญ่ โดยคิดเป็นจำนวน 46 คำโดยประมาณจากบทคัดย่อทั้งหมด ในขณะเดียวกันบทคัดย่อที่เป็นภาษาเกาหลีกลับเน้นกระบวนการด้านผลลัพธ์ซึ่งมีความยาวถึง 40 คำโดยประมาณ

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1. Introduction

How do scholars that write journal articles utilize journal article abstracts that represent the entire article? Journal article abstract began to be used in order to help search journal articles. If true, in the current era of full text searching, and in order to discover how the journal article abstract is used and what role it plays, a systematic research on journal article abstracts needs to be performed.

Especially, the area of electronic resource management in library information science illustrates the different structures of abstracts written in Korean and English. From my research, it is found that Korean abstracts have a tendency to put the results of the research first, while English abstracts tend to describe the research methodology in a long and detailed way in order to share the authors' experience. In this sense, it is necessary to conduct research on the differences between the two types of abstracts and how those changes are structurally depicted.

1.1 Scope of the Study

This study examines the textual organization of journal article abstracts in the field of library and information science. Since Gibson's (1993) study in the area of information and library science, the discipline has not been involved in genre analysis. Hence, the present research was conducted in order to investigate the rhetorical structure of research article abstracts in the library management field written in English and

Korean. It focuses on the investigation of rhetorical structures and variations based on the theoretical framework of the move analysis as proposed by Swales (1990) and Hyland (2000). The classification of rhetorical moves in article abstracts was employed as a method for the identification of moves. In particular, the move of introduction in abstracts was also analyzed using the Create A Research Space (CARS) Model which is an attempt to define and clarify the organizational patterns of the introduction that take the role to diffuse the significance of research to readers (Hyland, 2000).

1.2 Research Questions

This study aims to explore two specific research questions:

1) What is the rhetorical structure of research article abstracts in electronic resource management in the field of library and information science, written in English and Korean?

2) What is the linguistic realization of each move in electronic resource management in the field of library and information science written in English and Korean?

1.3 Definitions of Key Terms

Journal abstract. “A term that signifies an abbreviated, accurate representation of the contents of a document” (The American National Standard Institute, 1979)

Discourse community. “A term that refers to a group of individuals bound by common interests, who communicate through approved channels and whose discourse is regulated” (Porter, 1986)

Discourse analysis. “A term that entails a more cognitive and social perspective on language use and communication exchanges and which includes spoken as well as written discourse” (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000)

Genre. “A use of language that conforms to certain schematic and textual conventions, as agreed by a particular discourse community” (Widdowson, 2007)

Genre analysis. “A term that refers to a branch of discourse analysis that explores specific uses of language” (Hyland, 2004)

Move. “A word or expression as the logic maneuver adopted by the communicators in written or spoken discourse” (Mirador, 2000)

Schema. “A mental construct of taken-for-granted assumptions about how reality is ordered(ideational schemata) and how communication is managed (interpersonal schemata)” (Widdowson, 2007)

Step. "A word that is a lower text unit than the move, which provides a detailed perspective on the options to the writer in organizing the moves of a text" (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998)

2. Literature Review

2.1 The Abstract as a Genre

According to Martín (2003), scientists communicate new knowledge with other members of the academic community through publications. Therefore, the essential knowledge that scholars should have concerns the discourse conventions of scientific writing. This norm is also applicable to the abstract of a research paper. Journal article abstracts have to reflect the discourse conventions in their well-structured abstracts for successful communication with the discourse community to which it belongs.

In addition to being a means of communication, a journal article can also be defined as "a codification of disciplinary knowledge, where writers seek to persuade their communities to accept their claims and certify them as recognized and legitimate knowledge." Abstracts are regarded to "have both a more modest and more urgent purpose: to persuade readers that the article is worth reading. It is therefore a selective representation rather than an attempt to give the reader exact knowledge of an article's content" (Hyland, 2000: 64). In sum, a journal article abstract has an important role in providing the information that will lead the reader to read the research article.

The American National Standard Institute's (1979: 7) definition of a journal abstract is that it "signifies an abbreviated, accurate representation of the contents of a document. Such an abstract does not contain added interpretation or criticism." Accuracy is the first element of the classical journal article abstract definition. Cross and Oppenheim (2006) undertook a study on whether their abstract samples followed such generally agreed abstracting guidelines of a journal abstract with reference to the following: brevity, exhaustivity, accuracy, density, clarity, and content.

There are different abstracts for other purposes. Most books have abstracts and their characteristics can be divided into three types: critical, indicative and information or journal abstracts (Maizell, Smith & Singer, 1971; Borko & Bernier, 1975; Rowley, 1988; Cleveland & Cleveland, 1990; Lancaster, 1991, as cited in Stein, 1997). Swales (1997) added a fourth type of abstract, a stand-alone abstract such as conference abstracts, which do not accompany the primary text. Stein (1997) argued that indicative abstracts are more regarded as previews than as objective summaries. Stein's (1997) study also pointed out that the journal abstract provides more details and is more analytical than the indicative abstracts.

Beyond these definitions, from the perspective of linguists, what is an abstract and what kind of research focusing on abstracts has been studied? This question echoes the importance of the way in which abstracts are written and the function of abstracts, but not the definition of an abstract itself. Bazerman (1984) proposed that the article's abstract enables the article to become an object as a preview step, so that the abstract can make a representation of the whole article. The author explained the mechanism of correlation between the abstract and the article. The growing perception and command of the text, which can be obtained from reading the abstract help to understand the gradual creation of the text.

Meanwhile, Salager-Meyer (1990: 367) has argued that abstracts "represent an elaboration of the title and a crystallization of the whole article." The author also suggested that the functions of abstracts serve as a time saving device, in the pre-reading phase. First, abstracts arouse readers' interest in the topic, and consequently indicate whether the text has merit. Second, abstracts provide key words and key concepts. Third, abstracts present the macropropositions of the article. Fourth, abstracts help the reader understand the purpose and structure of the article. Furthermore, abstracts help to consolidate what has been read during the post-reading phase. Interestingly, the author pointed out the difficulties when novice readers have to read scholarly paper abstracts as follows:

> - Because abstracts represent the highest level of conceptual sophistication at which writers and readers communicate, viz., peer group writing at specialist level.
>
> - Because of their communicative function, they strive for economy, avoid redundancy, show a high level of propositional density (a factor of difficulty which affects reading comprehension, cf. Kintsch & Keenan, 1973), and condense their informative content to the strict minimum (Graetz, 1985: 131).
>
> - Because of space constraints, abstracts lack explicit structuring.

A highly sophisticated concept, a high-density proposition, and a lack of explicit structuring are barriers to non-experts. The author suggested the following qualifications in order for an abstract to be considered well-structured: 1) move selection, 2) move organization, and 3) paragraph structuring. A well-structured abstract should include four moves: purpose, methods, results, and conclusions. These moves should follow their logical or sequential order. The abstract should unify the research study coherently.

Swales (1990) indicated that the abstract is a kind of genre. The author introduced Huckin's (1987) study first. Huckin assumed that some readers will read the title, only some of them will read the abstract, and few will read the article itself. In this respect, abstracts perform as independent discourses (Van Dijk, 1980). Swales (1990: 179) defined the abstract and the essence of the genre as a distillation; its distilled quality makes the abstract easy to recognize.

Kaplan et al. (1994: 405) pointed out "the published abstracts serves really as a summary of the ensuing article, not a surrogate for it. The purpose of the published abstract is to draw the reader into the article, rather like the lead paragraph in a newspaper story." The authors not only argued for the summary role of abstracts, but also emphasized the important function of abstracts as a genre in the world of scientific writing.

2.2 Previous Studies Related to the Genre Analysis of Abstracts

Gibson (1993) investigated what relates the success of different abstracts as perceived by judges to the linguistic features present in the texts in information and library science. For this, 42 abstracts were collected from 29 second-year library and information science students. Twenty-five abstracts obtained from general knowledge source texts, and 17 abstracts from information science (IS) source texts. The author found that the reasons for the judges' preferences were many and varied. Three linguistic phenomena perceived by the judges were investigated: lexical texture, grammatical intricacy and choice of theme. Counter-intuitively, the more successful abstracts exhibited lower levels of lexical density and clarity. The author hypothesized that the abstracts with more informational themes will be preferred, and analyzed three different types of topical themes: informational themes, discoursal themes, and interactional themes, which serve different functions.

Martín (2003) claimed that the study of the textual organization and linguistic features of scientific genres is a recent phenomenon. Scholars have conducted research on writing that has a specific objective in academic and research situations. This began with Swales' (1981, 1990) study on the introduction of research articles and other sections, such as discussions and results as investigated by researchers. Most of all, the author shed light on the abstract of journal articles, which should be effective texts, constituting textual organization and other key linguistic features. There have also been a few cross-cultural contrastive studies related to the textual features of the research paper genre. Studies of this genre tend to emphasize that English writing is at the very heart of the English-speaking background. However, Martín (2003) argued that the existence of different writing conventions might be recognized. The study investigated the rhetorical variation between the research article abstracts written in English and those written in Spanish. Martín (2003) revealed that Spanish abstracts have a strong tendency to omit the results section and to establish a niche move in the abstract interlocution.

Samraj (2005) studied systematically the relationships among articles' abstracts and introductions, which form a genre set, in different disciplines such as conservation biology and wildlife behavior. The author revealed that disciplinary variation in academic writing did not appear clearly in the usual structure or in the relationship between genres. However, the conservation biology abstracts generally had a problem-solution framework, with the introduction usually performing the persuasive function, whereas this was not the case with the abstracts from wildlife behavior.

In sum, there have been many studies on academic abstracts since the initial work of Graetz (1985): studies to analyze how well abstracts are structured in certain academic fields; comparative studies on abstracts of different academic fields;

comparative studies on abstracts in the same field but written in different languages; studies on the correlation between the abstract and introduction as a genre set; cross-cultural study of doctoral dissertations; and studies of the abstract, not about its general organization but certain specific rhetorical features.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Data Collection

The selected journal article abstracts were gathered from aggregator e-journal databases and individual online databases related to the library and information science field. For finding relevant article abstracts, “electronic resource(s) management” key word searches were performed in terms of title and subject on the databases. However, according to the limited scope for research topics in electronic resource management in library and information science, consideration was given to increasing the number of related Korean journals. The time range was limited to 10 years (2005-2014). The list of e-journal databases and journals, from which the articles were selected, is as follows:

1) Web databases: Academic Search Complete, Business Source Complete, Education Research Complete, Emerald, Science Direct, Electronic Journals Service (EJS), National Digital Science Library (NDSL), ProQuest, Research Information Sharing Service (RISS), Sage Journals, Taylor & Francis Social Science and Humanities Online

2) Korean Journals: Archival Science Studies, Computer Aided Publishing Studies, Digital Library, Journal of information management, The Journal of the Korea Contents Association, Journal of the Korean BIBLIA Society for Library and Information Science, Journal of Korean Library and Information Science Society, Journal of Korean Society of Archives and Records Management, Journal of the Korean Society for Information Management, Journal of the Korean Society for Library and Information Science (total of 10 journals)

3) English Journals: The Acquisitions Librarian, The Journal of Academic Librarianship, Journal of Electronic Resources Librarianship, Journal of Librarianship and Information Science, Journal of Library Administration (total of five journals)

3.2 Research Corpus

A total of 100 research article abstracts written in English and Korean were used in this study. The corpus in English comprised 50 abstracts. The other corpus in Korean consisted of 50 abstracts. There were more than 50 abstracts in English, but I chose only 50 of them to constitute the corpus. This study used the word count in Microsoft Word to compare the length of the move by counting the number of words.

3.3 Theoretical Framework

3.3.1 A Classification of Rhetorical Moves in Article Abstracts

Hyland's (2000) classification from the analysis of 800 abstracts of 10 journals in each of eight disciplines was designed to be adapted to the universal disciplinary field.

Table 3.1 Classification of Rhetorical Moves in Article Abstracts

Move	Function
Introduction	Establishes the context of the paper and motivates the research or discussion
Purpose	Indicates the purpose or hypothesis, outlines the intention behind the paper
Method	Provides information on design, procedures, assumptions, approach, data, etc.
Results	States the main findings, the argument, or what was accomplished
Conclusion	Interprets or extends the results, draws inferences, points to wider implications

Source: Hyland, 2004, p. 204.

3.3.2 Create a Research Space (CARS) Model

According to Martín (2003: 31), the introduction unit of the abstracts is "the most complex unit in terms of rhetorical options". He applied Swales's (1990) CARS model for the analysis of his comparative research article abstract study and found that all the samples analyzed were within the parameters of the CARS model. In the same vein, the present research adopted Swales' (1990) CARS model for the analysis of the introduction move of this study's corpus and described the classified move steps of the introduction move as well.

Move 1 Establishing a territory	
Step 1 Claiming centrality (and/or)	
Step 2 Making topic generalizations(s) (and/or)	
Step 3 Reviewing items of previous research	Declining rhetorical effort
Move 2 Establishing a niche	
Step 1A Counter-claiming (or)	
Step 1B Indicating a gap (or)	
Step 1C Question-raising (or)	
Step 1D Continuing a tradition	
	Weakening knowledge claims
Move 3 Occupying the niche	
Step 1A Outlining purposes (or)	
Step 1B Announcing present research	
Step 2 Announcing principal findings	Increasing
Step 3 Indication RA structure	explicitness

Figure 3.1 Create A Research Space (CARS) Model

Source: Swales, 1990, p.141.

Swales (1981) found that the structure used by the authors follows a series of moves that consist of several steps in a predictable order within the research article introduction. Swales (1981 as cited in Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998) defines a “move” as a unit that relates to both the writer’s purpose and the content that they wish to communicate. A “step” refers to a lower text level, which offers options to a writer in the moves of the introduction. In 1990, Swales modified his original model, called the CARS model.

3.4 Procedures

The analysis of the data was conducted in two phases. First, the move analyses of the abstracts were conducted following Hyland’s (2000) move-structure classification of abstracts. Each abstract was coded on the coding sheet for identifying the moves. If it was difficult to determine the author’s purpose with the presented abstract, reading of the full text of the article was accompanied as well. In some Korean abstracts, an identical verb was determined using a different move. The decision depended on the meaning within the context rather than the linguistic features. After completion of the preliminary analysis, a cross-check was undertaken by two coders in order to validate the move analysis. The second phase was a linguistic realization analysis of the same move groups in both languages.

4. Data Analysis and Findings

4.1 Overall Results of the Macrostructure of Research Articles Abstracts

There are five rhetorical moves realized linguistically in the abstracts of both published English research articles and Korean research articles. However, it was found that there are differences in the way in which the moves are employed in English and Korean abstracts.

The results in Table 4.1 show that the method move was the most frequent and was an obligatory element in both groups of abstracts; also, the frequency of occurrence was quite similar in the two groups of abstracts analyzed. Apart from the introduction move, all of the other moves tended to be of a higher occurrence in the Korean abstracts. The analysis also revealed a strong tendency to omit the results move and the conclusion move in the English abstracts.

Table 4.1 Frequency of Occurrence and Distributions of Structural Moves in the Abstracts

	English (*n*=50)	**Korean (*n*=50)**
	Frequency/50 (%)	**Frequency/50 (%)**
Move 1: Introduction	33 (66%)	27 (54%)
Step 1: Claiming centrality	5	10
Step 2: Indicating a gap	19	11
Step 3: Making topic generalizations	5	5
Step 4: Question-raising	1	1
Step 5: Reviewing items of previous research	1	-
Step 6: Counter-claiming	1	-
Step 7: Announcing present research	3	-
Move 2: Purpose	31 (62%)	43 (86%)
Move 3: Method	41 (82%)	43 (86%)
Move 4: Results	21 (42%)	32 (64%)
Move 5: Conclusion	17 (34%)	24 (48%)

The results in Table 4.2 show that 42% of the Korean abstracts presented four moves, in contrast to 50% of the English abstracts presenting three moves, due mainly to the high incidence of omitting the results and conclusion moves.

Table 4.2 Number of Structural Moves in the Abstracts

	English (*n*=50)	Korean (*n*=50)
	Frequency/50 (%)	**Frequency/50 (%)**
5 units	1 (2%)	3 (6%)
4 units	8 (16%)	21 (42%)
3 units	25 (50%)	18 (36%)
2 units	15 (30%)	8 (16%)
1 unit	1 (2%)	0 (0%)

Note: The unit(s) means realized move(s) in the abstracts.

4.2 Linguistic Realization of Each Move

This part discusses the linguistic realization shown in each move. In order to do this, the vocabulary, which presented the distinguishing features of each move of abstracts in English and Korean, was extracted and listed below.

Table 4.3 Linguistically-realized words of English Abstracts

English abstract	Linguistically-realized word
Move 1 Introduction	challenge, changing, critical, develop, in a rapid, need(s), rapidly
Move 2: Purpose	addresses, describes, discusses, examines, explores, is about how, presents, proposes, recounts, reports, seeks to
Move 3: Method	checklists, criteria, evaluating, investigation, is presented, observations, observed, polled, progress, provided, reviewed, survey, task force, were tracked, were used
Move 4: Results	addresses, assessment, concludes, confirmed, demonstrated, describes, documents, examined, examines, exhibited, exists, found, highlights, observed, offers, outcome, provides, reported, results, shows, was used
Move 5: Conclusion	benefits, can be, can do, consider, could be used, further, helped, highlights, importance, learn, other, prompted, recommendations, still, stresses, suggestions, ultimately

Table 4.4 Linguistically-realized words of Korean Abstracts

Korean abstract	Linguistically-realized word (*translation from Korean*)
Move 1 Introduction	문제점 (problem), 변화(change), 새로운(new), 어려움(difficulty), 오늘날(nowadays), 요구(demand), 제기(raise), 중요성(importance), 증가(increase), 최근(lately), 필요성(need), 필요하다(need)
Move 2: Purpose	구현(realization), 도출(draw), 모색(groping), 목적(purpose), 문제점(problem), 수행(performance), 전망(prospect), 제공(offer), 제시(suggestion), 제안(proposal)
Move 3: Method	개발(development), 검증(investigation), 대상(subject), 대응방안(countermeasure), 면담(interview), 문제점(problem), 분석(analysis), 비교연구(comparative study), 선정(selection), 설문(survey), 수행(performance), 실시(implementation), 실태(actual condition), 이를 위하여(to this), 자료(data), 적용(application), 정리(arrangement), 정의(definition), 조사(investigation), 차이점(difference), 취합(gathering), 파악(grasp), 평가(assessment), 현황(current state)
Move 4: Results	결과(result), 결론(conclusion), 구현(realization), 나타났다(appeared), 다루다(deal with), 도출(draw), 모형제시(model present), 발견(discovery), 분석(analysis), 분석되었다(was analyzed), 설계(plan), 시스템구현(system implementation), 쟁점(issue), 제안(suggestion), 종합(synthesize), 파악(grasp)
Move 5: Conclusion	고민해야 한다(must think), 고찰(consideration), 기대(expectation), 기여(contribution), 대응방안(counterplan), 도출(draw), 모색(groping), 반영(reflection), 방안(way), 새로운(new), 앞으로(in the future), 제안(suggestion), 제언(proposal), 향후(henceforth), 활용(application)

In general, the recurring vocabulary used in each move of abstracts in English and Korean was mostly similar: "changing, need(s) were found in move 1 (introduction);" "purpose in move 2 (purpose);" "survey, investigation in move 3 (method);" "concludes, results in move 4 (results);" "recommendations, consider in move 5 (conclusion)."

However, the difference in move 1 (introduction) was as follows. The English abstracts attempted to draw out some large changes from a different perspective by using vocabulary items such as "challenge" and "develop." In the case of the Korean abstracts, it was observed that the authors utilized vocabulary items such as "problem" and "difficulty" in order to highlight the problems that motivated their study.

It was often observed in the English abstracts that lexicon such as "addresses," "explores," and "presents" was utilized in move 2 (purpose) in order to underline the purpose of the research. Korean abstracts utilize vocabulary of "draw(도출)" and "offer(제공)" to present a solution through research and such vocabulary was used frequently in the purpose move.

The words that were identified in move 3 (method) of the English abstracts were expressions with more specifics and a variety of research methods. Vocabulary such as "checklists," "criteria," "evaluating," "polled," and "survey" exemplified such types of expressions. The Korean abstracts used words depicting the process of the research such as "performance(수행)," "arrangement(정리)," and "assessment(평가)," and vocabulary designating the research subjects of the "actual condition(실태)" and "current state(현황)."

In move 4 (results), vocabulary items such as "confirmed," "demonstrated," "examined," "exists," and "observed" were frequently seen in the English abstracts to describe facts, whereas Korean abstracts used many more abstract expressions such as the words "analysis(분석)," "synthesize(종합)." Vocabulary items such as "draw(도출)" and "offer(제공)," which were utilized in move 2 (purpose), were also seen in move 4 (results). This fact implies the association between move 2 (purpose) and move 4 (results).

The difference in move 5 (conclusion) is that the English abstracts stated the usefulness of the research by using words such as "benefits," while the Korean abstracts made use of words such as "utilization(활용)" to emphasize the direct promotion of the research results.

4.3 Description of Move 1: The Introduction Move

Hyland (2000) identified the introduction move that "establishes the context of the paper and motivates the research or discussion". In this analysis, the introduction move was presented in 66% of the total of the English abstracts, while in 54% of the Korean abstracts.

4.3.1 Move 1 Step 1: Claiming Centrality

Swales (1990: 144) suggested that claiming centrality "is appeal to the discourse community whereby members are asked to accept that the research about to be reported is part of a lively, significant or well-established research area." Martin (2003: 33) argues that the authors opt for a claiming centrality strategy to highlight the importance and interest of their work. In the English texts, 19 cases of this step were found, as opposed to 10 cases in the Korean texts.

4.3.2 Move 1 Step 2: Indicating a Gap

The most frequently realized step in the introduction move was "indicating a gap" in both groups of abstracts. Fifty-eight percent of the introduction in the English abstracts used this rhetorical option, whereas 41% of the introduction of Korean abstracts opted for this move in order to "point out the possible topic or areas that still need research in relation to previous work" (Martin, 2003 : 34).

The prominent signals of "indicating a gap" in an abstract were with the use of an adversative sentence-connector.

Many writers began their abstract with mentioning a problem which was caused by a changing environment, often digital layer-driven. They informed readers of a situation of contemporary libraries, and suggested their own proposal or solution. While the authors pointed out the critical point, they usually used adversative conjunctions. However, in some English abstracts, the authors only mentioned a changing circumstance, directly touching upon their contention, or specifying only a drawback.

4.3.3 Move 1 Step 3: Making Topic Generalization

The "making topic generalization" step was found in 19% of the total abstracts in Korean and 15% of the English abstracts. According to Swales (1990: 146), the authors write their knowledge in the "making topic generalization" step. This step was made in all of the English abstracts, whereas the Korean authors tended to express their knowledge in this way with only one exception.

Korean abstracts usually use the four major move steps of: claiming centrality, making topic generalizations, indicating a gap, and question-raising. In contrast, English abstracts use more varied steps than Korean abstracts. As illustrated in Table 4.5, after reviewing the items in previous research, the counter-claiming and announcing present research steps were seen less frequently than the three major steps (claiming centrality, making topic generalizations, and indicating a gap) in English abstracts, but they could not even be found in Korean abstracts. Thus, English authors may well have a good command of using the various communicative strategies.

Table 4.5 Frequency of Occurrence and Distributions of Realized Step in the Introduction Move of Abstracts

Steps	**English (33 abstracts)**	**Korean (27 abstracts)**
Move 1 Step 1 Claiming centrality	5 (15%)	10 (37%)
Move 1 Step 2 Indicating a gap	19 (58%)	11 (41%)
Move 1 Step 3 Making topic generalization	5 (15%)	5 (19%)
Move 1 Step 4 Question-raising	1 (3%)	1 (4%)
Move 1 Step 5 Reviewing items of previous research	1 (3%)	-
Move 1 Step 6 Counter-claiming	1 (3%)	-
Move 1 Step 7 Announcing present research	3 (9%)	-

Note: The total number was not 33 but 35 because there was a case where two steps were simultaneously generated from one move.

4.4 Description of Move 2: The Purpose Move

The purpose move was the shortest move, which used 16 words on average in both the English and Korean abstracts. Hyland (2000: 67) described the function of a purpose move as follows in his "A Classification of Rhetorical Moves in Article Abstracts": "it indicates the purpose or hypothesis, outlines the intention behind the paper." Swales (1990: 161) also defined the "outlining purposes" step as a "summary announcement of the principal findings."

Actually, an obligatory move in Korean abstracts was found in the purpose move (86%) and the method move (86%), but not in the introduction move (54%). Moreover, a conspicuous feature of the purpose move in the Korean abstracts was the repetition of the research article's title. With three exceptional cases, the 19 purpose move cases in the Korean abstracts contained the content of the title in its purpose move. Otherwise, the authors might have picked up their article's title in the purpose move sentences so as to emphasize the necessity of the research.

However, only 5 out of 17 purpose move instances in the English abstracts matched the title. Instead of a restatement, the authors of the English abstracts seemed to prefer to tell the readers the purpose of the research using specific verbs such as *explores, presents, recounts, proposes, describes, seeks to, addresses, reports, is about how, examines, discusses, and purpose was to determine*.

4.4.1 Coalescence with Method Move

Swales (2004: 229) noted that "the word 'move' in genre analysis is better seen as flexible in terms of its linguistic realization. It can be realized by a clause; at the other by several sentences. It is a functional unit, not a formal one." The author (2004: 228) also argued that "move is a discoursal or rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse."

In this sense, many move coalescences in the same sentence were found due to space constraints. Particularly, most coalescences occurred between the purpose move and the method move, as revealed in 22 cases of the Korean abstracts and 14 cases of the English abstracts.

4.5 Description of Move 3: The Method Move

As seen in the method move, 3 to 104 words of word distribution were used in the English abstracts with an average of 46 words, while between 2 to 28 words with an average of 26 words were used in the Korean abstracts. The most compelling finding of this study was probably that the majority of the authors of both abstracts included the long method move in their abstract structure. Indeed, the longest move in the 22 English abstracts was the method move. Above all, the topics that related to the electronic resource management of library management were mainly based on the library's and the librarian's experience. In other words, the library and information science discourse community members would expect to see how the study was conducted rather than discuss or define an issue (Hyland, 2000: 72).

On the other hand, the length of the Method move merely refers to the ways that show that the method move was rather shorter than the other moves. While the English writers focused more on establishing their experience with the method move, the Korean writers sought to suggest an ideal national policy model, analyzed the patron's use behavior, studied for improving efficient workflow, reported the present condition, and designed a new electronic resource management policy model, etc. as in the method move.

4.5.1 Coalescence with the Results Move

Some of the method moves coalesced with the results move (three cases in the Korean abstracts, one case in the English abstracts). The authors showed the method move in advance and then immediately described the outcome of the method. Especially in one example this rhetorical variation was used. It was used as if it was making use of a causal-relationship rhetorical pattern and then again in the same abstract.

4.6 Description of Move 4: The Results Move

In the results move, the English abstracts used 34 words on average, with a word range of 2 to 82 words; in the Korean abstracts, the average was 40 words, ranging from 5 to 138. Swales (2004: 226) indicated that researchers are prone not to allow their results "to speak for themselves" in an abstract. Brett (1994: 55) concluded that instead of merely presenting numbers in the results move, sociologists prefer to establish meaningful statements in the abstract.

Interestingly, this analysis showed that the Korean authors had a strong tendency to expose the research results in the abstract. The Korean authors tended to show an outline of the output clearly, so the longest move in 36% of the abstracts in Korean was the results move. In the sample, it was found that some writers only touched the skeleton of outputs, while others mentioned all of the elements of a newly designed system, yet other writers reported the detailed findings of a survey, etc.

The Results move had an occurrence in 64% of all Korean abstracts and 42% of all English abstracts.

4.7 Description of Move 5: The Conclusion Move

The implications derived from the main findings of the present study may be an important function of this move. The findings indicated that the frequency of occurrence of this move was somewhat different in both languages. It was found in 48% of the Korean abstracts and in 34% of the English abstracts. However, these were the smallest proportions in both cases.

The most conspicuous function of this move might be to "draw the readers into the article rather than informing them about its actual content. The writers discuss the implications of the results or suggest for future research" (Martín, 2003: 40).

In sum, this data analysis and findings chapter compares the overall results of the macrostructure both in the English and Korean abstract in journal articles. Specifically, comparison was made between the English and Korean abstracts in order to show how differently each move looks, the extent to which each group followed the five moves, and this chapter was reviewed in practice in terms of the move structure. The opening move of abstract was also reviewed. After that, the examples of the five moves, which included linguistically realized words, were illustrated.

5. Discussion and conclusion

5.1 Summary of the Findings and Implications

The introduction-purpose-method, most frequently appeared in the abstracts written in English, where it was found in nine cases; the introduction-method pattern was found in four abstracts; and the purpose-method-results pattern in four. Regarding the abstracts written in Korean, the introduction-purpose-method-results pattern was found in six cases; the purpose-method-results-conclusion pattern in four; while the introduction-purpose-method-results-conclusion pattern, introduction-purpose-method pattern, and purpose-method-results pattern were found in three cases.

The introduction move can be further divided according to steps. Indicating a gap step was adopted in 58% of the English abstracts and 41% of the Korean abstracts, as the most preferred step of all. The claiming centrality step was the second most frequently used in 37% of the Korean abstracts, followed by making topic generalizations with 19% of the Korean abstracts. Meanwhile, a variety of steps were found in the abstracts written in English: claiming centrality, making topic generalizations, question-raising, reviewing items of previous research, counter-claiming, and announcing present research step.

Moreover, the longest move used in the Korean abstracts was the results move with an average of 40 words in 18 abstracts. It can be interpreted that this result was affected by the nature of the selected topics. The Korean abstracts had a tendency to use the results move as the longest move because the topic itself is one related to the idea of enlightenment and guiding someone/something in the right path such as a university library policy model on electronic resource management, research on building an electronic resource management system, and developing a reference model of a Korean record keeping system for integrated information resources management.

As illustrated in Figure 5.1, the method move, which emerged as the most frequently used in the abstracts written in English, was used in 82% of the time. Also, the second most frequently used selection was the introduction move, which was used in 66% of English abstracts; and the third one was the purpose move, which was used in 62% of the English abstracts. On the other hand, in the case of the abstracts written in Korean, the purpose move and the method move were used in 86% of the abstracts. Next was the results move, which showed a 64% usage in the Korean abstracts. In sum, the order of preferred moves used in the English abstracts was the introduction move (66%), the purpose move (62%), and the method move (82%). That of the Korean abstracts was the purpose move (86%), the method move (86%), and the results move (64%).

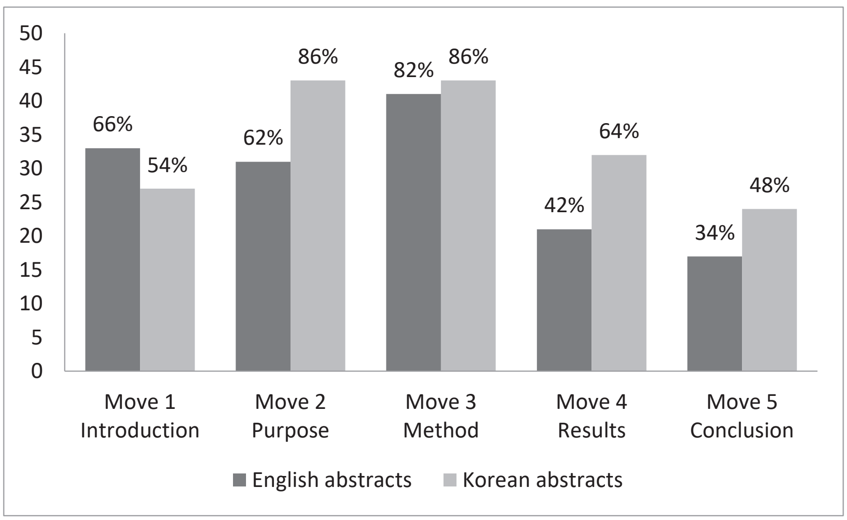

Figure 5.1 Frequency of Structural Moves and Steps in the Abstracts

The results of this research are in accord with those of Hyland (2000), which were used as an analyzing tool of this research. Hyland (2000) analyzed 800 article abstracts and interviewed authors in order to determine how the writers situated themselves and their research in certain ways in their disciplines through the genre of the article abstract, and to reveal how they displayed credibility and membership. According to the results of the research analysis, disciplinary variations were found in the move structuring of the abstracts. In other words, the purpose-method-product pattern was the most commonly used in the abstracts written by physicists and engineers (60% of all cases), while the introduction-purpose-product model accounted for 75% of the abstracts written by the humanities and social science writers (Hyland, 2000).

This study analyzed abstracts, selecting similar topics in the same discipline. In short, the English abstract authors preferred the introduction-purpose-method model, while the Korean abstract authors preferred the purpose-method-results model. This is because the English scholars in the library and information science regard it as a soft field, but a unique feature of the soft field abstract is that it skips the method move, allowing it to be considered as a hard field, whereas the Korean scholars in the same discipline consider it as a hard field.

Compared with previous studies on how to organize research paper abstracts in different disciplines and different languages, the results of this research add a cross-cultural factor to the research of Hyland (2000), demonstrating that the different perceptions between Korean and English writing authors in abstracts can lead to different patterns. Furthermore, this study may be of great use to Korean scholars in the library and information science field in terms of understanding the expectations of the international scientific community and applying this in writing effective English abstracts. For native English speaking scholars, this research can be used in order to comprehend the structure of abstracts written by Korean scholars.

5.2 Discussion of the Research Questions

First, what is the rhetorical structure of research article abstracts written in English and Korean in the electronic resource management in the field of library and information science? As discussed in 5.1 Summary of the Findings and Implications, the order of preferred moves in English abstracts was the introduction move, the purpose move, and the method move, and this study discovered that nine abstracts followed that exact sequence of composition. The order of preferred moves in the Korean abstract was the purpose move, the method move, and the results move, and this study indicated that the most frequent move structure sequence was the introduction, purpose, method, and results move structure (six cases), followed by the purpose, method, results, and conclusion (five cases).

The analysis of the abstracts of the English and Korean journal articles has shown the similarities and differences in the moves in both the English and Korean abstracts. A comparison of the English abstracts and Korean abstracts showed differences in the frequency of structural units, which was employed to articulate this genre. The introduction-purpose-method (I-P-M) move sequence was preferred in the

English abstracts, and the introduction-purpose-method-results (I-P-M-R) move sequence was preferred in the Korean abstracts. The finding that the most frequent and obligatory element was the method move in both groups of abstracts should be highlighted. In addition, more than half of the abstracts kept the assigned order (introduction-purpose-method-results-conclusion) in both groups. This means that following the sequential order was universal.

Second, what is the linguistic realization of each move in the research article abstracts in the electronic resource management in the field of library and information science written in English and Korean? The most prominent linguistic characteristic in categorizing the phases of the abstract was the repetition of specific vocabulary. In other words, the vocabulary commonly used in each category of moves could be observed. Some of those vocabulary was shown in common, while some other vocabulary stem from the uniqueness of the language. However, the vocabulary commonly found did not always form the move. This was just a necessary condition, not a necessary and sufficient condition to form the move.

5.3 Limitations of the Research

Due to the vastness of the field of library and information science, the scope of this research was limited to the topic of electronic resource management in 100 research abstracts (50 in English and 50 in Korean) during the period of 2005-2014. However, this result may not make an exact comparison in terms of pool size, given the fact that English abstracts were chosen from a larger pool of abstracts whereas the Korean abstracts were collected from all the relevant abstracts. Mainly, this research conducted a documentation analysis in this way due to time and resource limitations.

5.4 Recommendations for Future Research

In terms of research subjects, this study touched on electronic resource management, which can represent unique features of the journal abstract discipline in library and information science. However, future work can extend the scope of the corpus to library management and a comparative study can be undertaken on English abstracts written by English native speakers and Korean native speakers. In this way, the closest results regarding the representativeness of journal article abstracts can be found.

Studies in the past were performed on one specific area or comparative studies were conducted between two close disciplines. Considering the interdisciplinary trend today, the focus of abstracts should be also on interdisciplinary areas. It would be also interesting if a move structure of research results of abstract based on different studies were analyzed to see what kind of move structures they have.

Lastly, future study can conduct interviews with authors or surveys when analyzing the phases of abstracts in order to directly check the intention of authors. It is believed that this option could reduce a certain level of ambiguity in the phase analysis. Second, is the socio-cultural factor, which might underlie the rhetorical structure and variation and could be developed further in follow-up research. In addition, the study of lexical features such as the verb tense used in the moves is also expected to make research much more synthetic.

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Using e-Mapping to Improve Reading Comprehension and Summary Skills of EFL Students

Chalermchai Chaichompoo

Abstract

The objective of this investigation was to enhance reading comprehension and summary skills of EFL students through electronic mind mapping for the purpose of analyzing and summarizing reading passages. The purposive sampling method was applied by selecting 50 second-year English major students. The instrument used was 14 reading passages which the students analyzed for the entire second semester of 2015 and each passage was intended for use in a three-hour period in one week. The students were required to read and analyze the text before each lesson, both in groups and individually for classroom presentation and discussion. Suggested answers were given by the teacher at the end of each class. The data were collected by using pre- and posttests, as well as a questionnaire, and interviews. The test scores were then analyzed statistically for mean and standard deviation whereas the data from the questionnaire and interview were analyzed for percentage and also descriptively. The analysis results revealed that, for comprehension skills, the mean of the pre-test was 5.86 with a standard deviation of 1.51, whereas the posttest exhibited a mean of 7.32 with a standard deviation of 1.04. For summary skills, the mean of the pre-test was 4.70 with a standard deviation of 1.42, while the posttest results showed a mean of 6.38 with a standard deviation of 1.07. The data from the questionnaire and interview indicated that this approach enabled the students to analyze and summarize the contents of the reading passages better, faster and more accurately. The majority of the students perceived the technique to be beneficial for analyzing the gist of a reading passage.

Keywords: reading, electronic mind mapping, comprehension, summary skills

บทคัดย่อ

การศึกษาครั้งนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อพัฒนาทักษะการอ่านเพื่อความเข้าใจและการสรุปความของนักศึกษาที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศโดยใช้แผนภูมิมโนทัศน์อิเล็คทรอนิคในการวิเคราะห์และสรุปเนื้อเรื่องที่อ่าน กลุ่มตัวอย่างคือนักศึกษาชั้นปีที่ 2 วิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษจำนวน 50 คน โดยการใช้การสุ่มตัวอย่างแบบเจาะจง เครื่องมือวิจัยประกอบด้วยเรื่องอ่านจำนวน 14 เรื่องสำหรับนักศึกษาใช้ในการวิเคราะห์ตลอดภาคเรียนที่ 2 ปีการศึกษา 2558 โดยเรื่องอ่านแต่ละเรื่องใช้เวลา 3 ชั่วโมง ซึ่งนักศึกษาจะต้องอ่านมาก่อน

ล่วงหน้าแล้วนำมาปรึกษาและนำเสนอในชั้นเรียนเป็นกลุ่มและเป็นรายบุคคล พร้อมกันนี้ครูผู้สอนเฉลยคำตอบท้ายชั่วโมง มีการเก็บข้อมูลโดยใช้การทอสอบก่อนและหลังเรียน แบบสอบถามและการสัมภาษณ์ ผลการทดสอบนำมาวิเคราะห์เชิงสถิติเพื่อหาค่าเฉลี่ยและค่าเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐาน ส่วนข้อมูลที่ได้จากแบบสอบถามและการสัมภาษณ์นำมาวิเคราะห์เพื่อหาค่าร้อยละและการบรรยาย

ผลการศึกษาพบว่าค่าเฉลี่ยผลสอบก่อนเรียนทักษะการอ่านเพื่อความเข้าใจเท่ากับ 5.86 และค่าเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐานเท่ากับ 1.51 ในขณะที่ค่าเฉลี่ยผลสอบหลังเรียนเท่ากับ 7.32 และค่าเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐานเท่ากับ 1.04 ค่าเฉลี่ยผลการทดสอบก่อนเรียนทักษะการการสรุปความเท่ากับ 4.70 และค่าเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐานเท่ากับ 1.42 ในขณะที่ค่าเฉลี่ยผลการทดสอบหลังเรียนเท่ากับ 6.38 และค่าเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐานเท่ากับ 1.07 ผลการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลจากแบบสอบถามและการสัมภาษณ์พบว่าวิธีการดังกล่าวช่วยให้นักศึกษาวิเคราะห์และสรุปเรื่องที่อ่านได้ดีขึ้น รวดเร็วขึ้นและถูกต้องมากขึ้น กลุ่มตัวอย่างส่วนใหญ่พบว่าเทคนิคดังกล่าวมีประโยชน์มากในการวิเคราะห์แก่นของเรื่องที่อ่าน

คำสำคัญ: การอ่าน, แผนภูมิมโนทัศน์อิเล็คทรอนิค, ความเข้าใจ, ทักษะการสรุปความ

Introduction

Reading is defined as a message-taking and problem-solving activity. In message-taking, the readers attempt to interpret meanings of the message in their brain while interacting with the written texts in order to understand what they read. At the same time they have to solve problems regarding new and unfamiliar words or sentence structures by relating them to their prior or existing knowledge, so that their reading activities can be meaningful and understandable (Scharer, 2012: 1-2). Reading is also an interaction between a reader and a printed text. While we read, we make an attempt to translate, interpret and analyze what is explicitly and implicitly presented in the text in order to understand what the writer means and the messages he/she attempts to put across. Of all the four language skills, reading is the last competence that language learners acquire, because they have to accumulate sufficient lexical, semantic and syntactic knowledge in order to comprehend written messages.

Reading is an essential skill in this globalized age, where knowledge and information are free flowing regardless of geopolitical boundaries. It is a proven fact that those who read more will become more knowledgeable, competent, skilled and well-rounded, because reading can truly open one’s mind to the world. Reading is thus encouraged as a lifelong learning activity for literate people of all ages, whether it is in one’s native language or is through international languages such as English.

The Thai language is a monosyllabic, tonal and non-inflectional language, the official language of Thailand and thus, the language for classroom instruction. In order for Thai students who study and learn English as a foreign language to become proficient, it is important that they read materials printed in English as a means to expose themselves to this language even more. Therefore, intensive reading is one of the most efficient and effective ways for non-native speakers to master the language (Erfapour, 2013). Such reading activities enable learners to accumulate more lexical items, expressions, as well as grammatical competency in an authentic context, resulting in better understanding and faster reading speed of texts in the long term.

When reading, students should learn how to separate main ideas from supporting details, since the latter only elaborates the former. This skill should help them to focus mainly on the gist of the reading passage. Moreover, this competency enables them to summarize the passage more effectively, a crucial skill for effective reading and learning at higher education levels. Nevertheless, a large majority of Thai students have not been equipped with effective reading comprehension and summary skills, and thus they are not well prepared for intensive higher education study. The situation is even worse for those in the English program as they are expected to have a fairly solid background in English gained during high school years. As English majors, they are required to study and practice English skills at a much deeper level than those in high school. In reality, however, they are not as qualified as the program expects them to be, at least in our particular institution. A large portion of them are students from ethnic minority backgrounds who study English as a third language.

As a means to prepare and equip students with more effective comprehension and summary skills, an electronic mind mapping (e-mapping) method was implemented in the English Reading 2 Course for the second-year English major students in the first semester of the 2015 academic year. Since the students are familiar with the conventional teaching methods, where teachers provide them the necessary knowledge, using the e-mapping approach would require them to read more critically and analytically in order to create better mapping and summaries. This approach required them to read the passages prior to classroom, both in groups and individually. Group work was then assigned in the first half of the semester, and was carried out with an aim to encourage and inspire them to learn cooperatively, as well as to develop teamwork skills and constructive discussions.

A concept map is a graphical tool for organizing and representing knowledge in a hierarchical manner with relationships or links between concepts in different segments or domains (Novak & Canas, 2008: 1-2). A number of studies have indicated that mind or concept mapping is an effective tool to analyze reading texts and to help learners grasp essential skills to summarize what they have read. The mappings have positive effects on reading comprehension of subjects, as it is a meaningful learning method by reorganizing the relationships between various concepts in a reading passage (Villalon & Calvo, 2011). Furthermore, concept mapping can enhance text comprehension, summarization abilities and critical thinking skills of students (Chang, Sung, & Chen, 2002; Ellozy & Mostafa, 2010). It also provides greater achievements in reading comprehension and self-efficacy of learners (Khajavi & Kebati, 2012).

This approach has been implemented nationally in Thai classrooms. Study results have indicated that concept maps enable students to understand English reading better and therefore, this is a useful technique that can be applied to other non-English subjects (Phantharakpong & Pothitha, 2014; Sriphanich & Laohawiriyanon, 2010). This instructional technique is also proven to be an effective tool in teaching English grammar since it helps students visualizing and remembering grammar rules (Hongthong & Modehiran, 2015).

Objective of the study

The objective of this investigation was to attempt to enhance reading comprehension and summary skills of English major students at Chiang Mai Rajabhat University, Thailand, by utilizing the electronic mind mapping method to enable them to read, analyze and summarize reading passages both critically and effectively.

Research question

Would this instructional approach enhance reading comprehension and summary skills of the students?

Research hypothesis

It is hypothesized that implementing the electronic mind mapping technique could improve reading comprehension and summary skills of the students.

Methodology

1 Participants

The participants involved in this classroom research were 50 sophomore English major students, four males and 46 females, who had enrolled in the English Reading 2 Course in the first semester of the 2015 academic year. Their overall English proficiencies were relatively low as they came from rural schools, where English subjects were either electives or were not part of the main academic focus. Other students were ethnic minority students who studied English as their third language. All students were accustomed to passive learning styles, where teachers are regarded as the center of knowledge. Therefore, teaching English to this group is often a daunting task, as it requires a drastic change in their mindset, from knowledge receivers to knowledge generators and seekers. Considering the unique background of students in this group and the fact that only one class was offered to demonstrate the efficiency of this approach, this teaching method was indeed an experiment in its own virtue.

2 Research instruments

There were three research instruments used for this investigation. The first one was the pre- and posttests of the same reading passage with 20 questions to assess students' reading comprehension abilities. The pre-test was administered in the first week and the post-test was administered in the last week so as to determine whether there had been any improvements in the students' levels of comprehension and summary skills. The second instrument was 14 reading passages, assigned each week for a three-hour session, where students analyzed the content, drafted an electronic mind map based on the reading passage, and prepared a short but precise summary about their findings for classroom discussion and presentation. The last instrument was a questionnaire on students' opinions to assess the benefits of using this teaching technique, their accomplishments, the accuracy of their reading comprehension and summary skills as well as the utilization and effectiveness of the technique in general.

To ensure the reliability of these research instruments, the pre- and posttests were tried out on 20 English major students, who were not in the sample group and whose levels of English proficiency were diverse. The purpose of this trial was to determine the tests' discrimination, difficulty and reliability values of the question alternatives. The concept map and summary of each reading passage were graded separately by another two English language teachers and their average scores were then calculated.

3 Intervention

This classroom research took place from mid-August to mid-December in 2015, totaling 14 weeks of classroom sessions and two weeks of midterm and final examinations. The first week was dedicated to orientation and pre-test administration. The students were also assigned to sign on for the free online mind mapping website, *mindomo.com*, within the "students" category. This web-based software is user-friendly and there is no need for installation. Asides from the features such as formatting, curved lines, relationships, and editing, relevant pictures and hyperlinks can be added from popular web browsers such as Google. The orientation session also provided instructions regarding the use of the website and ways to create an electronic mind map, to save a file in the PDF format, and finally to submit the file to the teacher's email for further marking and providing comments. In order to promote collaborative learning, constructive discussions and teamwork, the students were asked to form into groups of five during the pre-midterm period. Group formation was meant to encourage learners' autonomy by discussing and sharing ideas and opinions amongst group members, which would ultimately generate new knowledge by themselves. Group members were assigned responsibilities as leader, secretary and members. Each group was required to read, analyze and to complete comprehension questions, as well as draw an electronic mind map, and to summarize an assigned passage for the following week in advance, which had to be ready for classroom presentation and discussions. During the post-midterm period, individual work was assigned based on the assumption that participants were familiar with this type of learning approach and thus, presentations were randomly selected due to time constraints. At the end of each session, correct answers for comprehension questions and suggested answers for the e-mapping and summary were provided. The final week was mostly concerned with informal interviews regarding this instructional technique and the questionnaire, as well as to administer the posttest processes.

The rubric for grading the e-mapping included primary and secondary branches, relevance of concepts, major relationships and concept mapping skills. The rubric for grading a summary was the inclusion of main ideas, relevant details, appropriate additions and paraphrasing, as well as grammatical structures.

4 Data collection and analysis

The quantitative data were collected from the pre- and posttests and analyzed statistically for mean and standard deviation. The qualitative data were derived from the informal interviews and the questionnaires and were analyzed descriptively.

Analysis results

As mentioned earlier, this investigation attempted to enhance reading comprehension and summary skills of the participants through the use of electronic mind mapping as a tool to analyze the reading passages. The data were collected from the pre- and posttests and were analyzed to obtain the mean and standard deviation. The analysis results are shown in the following tables:

Table 1 Dependent sample test of reading comprehension skill

score	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	t	Sig.
Pre-test	50	5.86	1.512	7.865	.000**
Posttest	50	7.32	1.039		

When the dependent sample test was statistically conducted, it was found that the mean of the pre-test was 5.86 with a standard deviation of 1.512. When the posttest was administered after the implementation of the e-mapping approach, the mean was 7.32 with the standard deviation of 1.039. The students' posttest scores were more clustered, implicitly indicating that their comprehension abilities were more similar after implementing the approach. The t-test indicates that there is a significant difference between the pre- and posttest mean scores at a 0.01 level.

Table 2 Dependent sample test of summary skill

score	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	t	Sig.
Pre-test	50	4.70	1.418	10.487	.000**
Posttest	50	6.38	1.067		

When the dependent sample test was statistically conducted, it was found that the mean of the pre-test was 4.70 with a standard deviation of 1.418. When the posttest was administered after the implementation of the e-mapping approach, the mean was 6.38 with a standard deviation of 1.067. The students' posttest scores were more clustered, implicitly indicating that their comprehension abilities were more similar after implementing the approach. The t-test indicates that there is a significant difference between the pre- and posttest mean scores at a 0.01 level.

The data from the questionnaire were analyzed for percentage points and the topics included the benefits of using e-mapping, achievements in using the approach in analyzing reading texts, and opinions on the overall use of the approach. Regarding the benefits of e-mapping for analyzing the texts, it was found that over 90% of the respondents found that the technique enabled them to understand, analyze and summarize the reading passages better and faster. After learning how to search for main ideas by reading analytically, they were able to identify which information was relevant to main ideas, resulting in an improved ability to answer the questions more correctly, drawing up more orderly and more precise mapping, and summarizing the passages more accurately. As for their achievements in creating the e-mapping and summary, over 85% confirmed that their electronic mind maps and summaries were correct or similar to the ones provided by the teacher. Additionally, they thought that the e-mapping technique was beneficial to them in helping to analyze reading passages systematically and correctly.

The data from the informal interviews of the students revealed that the e-mapping technique required them to read more critically and analytically in order to create better mind maps and summaries, so they were required to read carefully and more than once. This technique could also be transferred to other subjects, such as writing, by incorporating similar steps into their work so as to create coherent and clearly defined pieces. The technique also promotes creative abilities by systematically transforming abstract ideas in printed texts to concrete and visual representations of ideas, resulting in more accurate and better summaries. Furthermore, the e-mapping technique is easy and convenient to use and more aesthetic by using relevant pictures or icons from the Internet. It is also paperless, which is friendly to the environment and reduces personal expenses on buying stationery materials. Moreover, it promotes computer skills in students, which is one of the important competencies of learners in the twenty-first century. Finally, group work encourages cooperative learning, promoting knowledge sharing and constructive discourse, as well as productive discussions and debates among group members.

Discussion and conclusion

The analysis results clearly indicate that the e-mapping technique can enhance reading comprehension and summary skills of students, as shown in the significant difference demonstrated by the posttest scores. The findings confirm the research hypothesis that this instructional technique enables the students to improve and better their reading comprehension and summary skills. The same findings were confirmed by the studies of Salehi et al. (2013), Ellozy and Mostafa (2010), Chang, Sung, and Chen (2002), Khajavi and Kebati (2012), Shaul (2011), Sahin ((2013), and Chiou (2008). This is due to the fact that the mapping is a graphic representation of main ideas of a reading passage that students can relate to and perceive visually. The links of the ideas also help facilitate them to write better and more accurate summaries of the passages. This technique also requires students to read carefully, critically and analytically in order to construct the mapping and the summary. Before the construction could be carried out, they have to understand the whole text thoroughly, so that they are able to visualize the entire mapping construction and summary. Furthermore, the approach promoted a collaborative learning environment, where constructive discussions and debates could occur.

Some pedagogical implications from these findings are that the technique should be incorporated into other reading and writing courses so as to enhance EFL students' abilities in mastering their English skills. To achieve this goal, students are required to read as much and as often as possible in an attempt to expose themselves to the language. Implementing this particular technique can assist them to analyze reading passages more systematically, which would ultimately result in becoming proficient English language learners and users. This improved proficiency is a value-added factor in a fiercely competitive labor market and in the age of globalization, where labor movements have no geopolitical boundaries.

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The Influences of Facebook on Romantic Relationship Development: Facebook Activities and Perception of the Person of interest

Nuchada Dumrongsiri

Abstract

Social networking sites (SNSs) have become a significant medium for communicating with others interpersonally and socially. Facebook usage has grown rapidly worldwide with estimated 1,679 million users (Internet World Stats, 2016). An extensive use of Facebook plays a crucial role in daily interactions between people globally and, definitely, in relationship enactment and development. Previous studies indicated a significant impact of Facebook on romantic relationships, both in positive and negative ways. Facebook usage fosters jealousy and suspicion (Fox, Osborn, & Warber, 2014; Ruedar, Lindsay, & Williams, 2015) and is a threat to romantic relationships (Cohen, Bowman, & Borchert, 2014). However, some reported that Facebook increases partners' self-expansion (Carpenter & Spottswood, 2013) and level of commitment through Facebook Official (FBO) (Fox, Warber, & Makstaller, 2013). The main purposes of this study were to investigate (1) how people used Facebook to access information of and learned about the person of interest, and (2) how this information affected perception of the person they were dating during relationship enactment. Participants were 154 undergraduate students who completed a self-administered questionnaire. The results showed that people were more likely to use passive activities to learn more about the person of interest. Passive activities were the strongest predictors of relationship development. However, Facebook use did not predict trust in the person. Thematic analysis also revealed Facebook activities of the person of interest that made the other feel good and worst. Feeling-good activities were responsiveness and positive self-expression; feeling-worst activities were unresponsiveness and negative self-expression.

Keywords: Social networking sites, dating, romantic relationship development, Facebook

บทคัดย่อ

เครือข่ายสังคมออนไลน์ได้กลายเป็นสื่อสำคัญยิ่งในการสื่อสารกับบุคคลอื่นทั้งในเชิงระหว่างบุคคล และเชิงสังคม การใช้เฟซบุ๊กได้แพร่หลายอย่างรวดเร็วไปทั่วโลก โดยมีจำนวนผู้ใช้ต่อวันประมาณ 1,679 ล้าน

คน (Internet World Stats, 2016) การใช้เฟซบุ๊กอย่างกว้างขวางนี้จึงมีบทบาทสำคัญในการปฏิสัมพันธ์ระหว่างคนในแต่ละวันทั่วโลก รวมถึงการริเริ่มและพัฒนาความสัมพันธ์ งานวิจัยที่ผ่านมาได้ระบุถึงผลกระทบที่สำคัญของเฟซบุ๊กต่อความสัมพันธ์ฉันท์คนรักทั้งในเชิงบวกและเชิงลบ การใช้เฟซบุ๊กทำให้เกิดความหึงหวงและความหวาดระแวง (Fox, Osborn, & Warber, 2014; Ruedar, Lindsay, & Williams, 2015) และเป็นผลร้ายต่อความสัมพันธ์ฉันท์คู่รัก (Cohen, Bowman, & Borchert, 2014) อย่างไรก็ตาม งานวิจัยยังได้รายงานว่าเฟซบุ๊กช่วยเพิ่มการเปิดตัวเองของคนรัก (Carpenter & Spottswood, 2013) และเพิ่มระดับความยึดมั่นต่อกันโดยการระบุสถานะความสัมพันธ์บนเฟซบุ๊ก (*Facebook Official* (FBO)) (Fox, Warber, & Makstaller, 2013) งานวิจัยนี้มีจุดประสงค์หลัก คือ (1) เพื่อศึกษาการใช้เฟซบุ๊กเพื่อเข้าถึงข้อมูล และเรียนรู้เกี่ยวกับบุคคลที่ชื่นชอบ และ (2) เพื่อศึกษาผลกระทบของการรับรู้ข้อมูลต่อทัศนคติที่มีกับบุคคลที่ชื่นชอบในช่วงที่ริเริ่มความสัมพันธ์ ผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัยคือ นักศึกษาระดับชั้นปริญญาตรี จำนวน 154 คน โดยการตอบแบบสอบถามด้วยตนเอง ผลการวิจัยได้แสดงว่าคนนิยมใช้เฟซบุ๊กในรูปแบบกิจกรรมที่ไม่แสดงตน (passive activities) ในการเรียนรู้เกี่ยวกับบุคคลที่ตนชื่นชอบ ทั้งนี้ กิจกรรมที่ไม่แสดงตนยังเป็นตัวทำนายการพัฒนาความสัมพันธ์ที่เด่นชัดกว่ากิจกรรมอื่นๆ อย่างไรก็ตาม การใช้เฟซบุ๊กไม่สามารถทำนายความไว้วางใจในบุคคลที่ชื่นชอบได้ นอกจากนี้ ผลการวิเคราะห์เนื้อหาเชิงคุณภาพยังสามารถจำแนกประเภทกิจกรรมการใช้เฟซบุ๊กได้ โดยกิจกรรมที่บุคคลที่ชื่นชอบทำแล้วทำให้อีกฝ่ายรู้สึกดี คือ การแสดงความสนใจและตอบสนองกลับ (responsiveness) และการแสดงตัวตนเชิงบวก (positive self-expression) ส่วนกิจกรรมที่บุคคลที่ชื่นชอบทำแล้วทำให้อีกฝ่ายเสียความรู้สึก คือ การไม่ตอบสนองกลับ (unresponsiveness) และการแสดงตัวตนเชิงลบ (negative self-expression)

คำสำคัญ: เครือข่ายสังคมออนไลน์, การคบหาดูใจ, การสร้างความสัมพันธ์ฉันท์คนรัก, เฟซบุ๊ก

The Influences of Facebook on Romantic Relationship Development: Facebook Activities and Perception of the Person of interest

Social networking sites (SNSs) have become a significant medium for communicating with others interpersonally and socially. As one of the most popular SNSs, Facebook has grown rapidly worldwide with estimated 1,679 million users, representing 22.9% of the world population (Internet World Stats, 2016). In Thailand, Facebook subscribers are 41.0 million, which is 60.1% of the population (Internet World Stats, 2016), and Facebook active users are approximately 30 million per month, with 66% logging in daily and 63% at age between 18-34 years old (Vichienwanitchkul, 2015). An extensive use of Facebook plays a crucial role in daily interactions between people globally and, definitely, in relationship enactment and development.

Previous studies have reported a significant impact of Facebook on romantic relationships, both in positive and negative ways. Facebook usage fostered jealousy and suspicion (Fox, Osborn, & Warber, 2014; Ruedar, Lindsay, & Williams, 2015) and is a threat to romantic relationships (Cohen, Bowman, & Borchert, 2014). However, some indicated that Facebook increased partners' self-expansion (Carpenter & Spottswood, 2013) and level of commitment through Facebook Official (FBO) (Fox, Warber, & Makstaller, 2013).

Thus far, past research have shown inconsistent findings about the effects of Facebook use on romantic relationships in various contexts. Differently, this study was aimed to further examine the influences of Facebook use on romantic relationship, particularly during a stage of relationship development. The main purposes were to investigate (1) how people used Facebook to access information of and learned about the person of interest, and (2) how this information affected perception of the person they are dating during relationship enactment. Next, the following sections present a review of Knapp's (1978) staircase model as a theoretical framework and previous research related to Facebook and trust in romantic relationships.

Facebook and Romantic Relationship Development

As technology changes the way people connect, communicate, and interact with one another, Facebook has become a prominent channel to form, maintain, and determinate romantic relationships (Cohen et al., 2014; Fox et al., 2014; Fox et al., 2013). Facebook use, particularly through private messages and photography tags, predicted relationship escalation with a change in relational categories (Sosik & Bazarova, 2014). Knapp's (1978) model of interaction stages in relationships provides a theoretical framework for this study to investigate how people engaged in romantic relationship enactment and searched for information about the person of interest via online communication.

Knapp's (1978) staircase model suggests five stages of how relationships form, develop, and terminate as characterized by communication interactions. The five interaction stages are initiating, experimenting, intensifying, integrating, and bonding (Knapp & Vangelisti, 2005). *Initiating* is to attract attention of the other and to show a pleasant impression. At this stage, people try to open a channel for communication and observe the other for uncertainty reduction that they might have about the person. Initiative communication varies by time and situational constraints. *Experimenting* is to explore the unknown with a willingness to find common interest and to express a desirable self. The relationships at this stage is relaxed and limited in commitment. Then, *intensifying* is to unfold personal uniqueness and secrets and to validate intensification with physical and psychological favors. *Integrating* is to become united with the other but does not lose a distinct self. Couples seem to share identity and present the two persons as the oneness. Lastly, *bonding* is to announce the increased relationship commitment through various forms of public rituals such as engagement and religious ceremony. FBO, showing a relationship status as "in relationship," "engaged," or "married," was also the ritual to declare the formal commitment publicly (Fox et al., 2013; Orosz, Szekeres, Kiss, Farkas, & Roland-Levy 2015).

Unlike face-to-face communication, Facebook possesses the characteristics that make it unique as a tool for relationship development – an access to needed information beyond the time and situational constraints and to information about the person of interest and his/her society altogether. The relational stage model underlines interaction between two ends, but with the effects of social network of each party on the relationship (Knapp & Vangelisti, 2005). Facebook offers a forum where people have access to information of their friends and friends' social circle. Certain Facebook activities such as tagging one another and appearing together in pictures expanded the self to the other's network (Carpenter & Spottswood, 2013). In face-to-face interactions, the partners spend time to learn about each other and then about the other's social connections when the relationship is escalated to higher stages. Facebook serves as a shortcut to access this information.

This study focused on how Facebook was used to learn about the person of interest in a non-defined relationship status (Research Question 1). Thus, it was not expected at the relational stages to reach the status of having physical contact and being oneness in the intensifying and integrating levels, respectively. Precisely, the purposes were to explore a theoretical understanding of two relational stages of initiating and experimenting through communication activities on Facebook. Moreover, this study investigated if Facebook use affected relationship development overall (Research Question 3).

Facebook and Trust

Trust is developed based on interactions and is escalated when the romantic relationship progresses. Trust is a major component in a successful intimate relationship. Past research has defined trust differently as general trust, interpersonal trust, and dyadic trust (Gabbay, Lafontaine, & Bourque, 2012). This study explored how people perceived the person of interest through online information and activities during the beginning state of the relationship and how this perception was related to trust. Then, in this study, trust was defined as an individual trust in a particular person (Wheeless & Grotz, 1977). Specifically, trust is favorable perceptions toward the person of interest.

Loss of trust leads to negative inferences about people's behavior. During a relationship initiation, people pay special attention to the person of interest to learn more about him/her. With Facebook, they access information to observe the person's behavior and explore the unknown. However, information presentation on Facebook can be ambiguous and results in doubts about the person (Cohen et al., 2014; Muise, Christofides, & Desmarais, 2009). Also, an excessive use and surveillance on Facebook yield negative outcomes in intimate relationships such as jealousy (Rahaman, 2015) and conflict (Rueda et al., 2015). People with lower trust tended to have higher Facebook jealousy (Muise et al., 2009).

Using Facebook allows people to obtain more information about the person of interest and build trust in the person. On the other hand, the information on Facebook can be doubtful and trigger negative feelings. Possibly, people may learn more about the person and loose trust in him/her simultaneously. Therefore, this study was to investigate whether gaining more information about and interacting with the person of interest through Facebook influenced the perceived trust in him/her (Research Question 2).

In summary, to examine the relationships among Facebook use, trust, and relationship development, this study proposed three research questions:

RQ1: What were activities that people do to seek information on Facebook about the person of interest?

RQ2: Did Facebook use predict perceived trust in the person of interest?

RQ3: Did Facebook use predict relationship development?

Research Method

This study employed a cross-sectional design. Data collection was completed during a two-month period. The sampling and data collection procedure as well as measurement were explained in this section.

Sample and Procedure

Participants were Facebook users who had used Facebook for a certain purpose to develop a romantic relationship with the person of interest. The purposive sampling was used to recruit participants who were college students at a large state university in Pathumthani province, Thailand. A research assistant personally approached participants outside class and asked if they were willing to participate in this study.

Participants (N = 225) volunteered to participate in this study. They were provided with an informed consent and then answered a screening question asking if they had used Facebook during the past three months to learn more about the person of interest. In the screening question, the person of interest was defined as “someone whom participants liked or who they were learning about each other without a defined status in their relationship.” The self-administered questionnaire was divided into five parts: a screening question, personal information, Facebook use, perceived trust, and relationship development.

A total of 154 participants (n =154) were included in data analysis. They had known the person of interest for 1 month to 132 months (M = 24.55 months, SD = 25.83). Seventy-one participants (n =71) did not use Facebook to know about the person of interest and then were excluded from this study. Their reasons for not using Facebook were that they were not interested in anyone (47.9%); they were currently in a relationship (21.1%); they or their person of interest did not use Facebook (15.5%); they used other channels to develop the relationship (12.7%); and they already ended the relationship (2.8%).

Participants were 26 males (16.9%) and 128 females (83.1%) with age ranged from 18-30 years old (*M* = 20.46 years old, *SD* = 1.60). As expected, females outnumbered males. Consistent with prior study, females tended to use SNSs than did males to maintain relationships (Pornsakulvanich & Dumrongsiri, 2013). Most of them had used Facebook between 3 to 6 years (64.9%), followed by more than 6 years (29.9%), between 1 year to less than 3 years (4.5%), and less than 1 year (0.6%). Also, they reported their daily hours spent on Facebook with less than 2 hours (37.0%), between 2 hours to less than 4 hours (29.2%), between 4 hours to less than 6 hours (22.1%), between 6 hours to less than 8 hours (9.7%), between 8 hours to less than 10 hours (1.3%), and 10 hours and above (0.6%).

Measurement

Facebook use. Facebook use was operationalized as activities that people did on Facebook to seek information and learn more about the person of interest. The scale was adapted from Fox and Anderegg (2014) by listing activities that people normally did when they used Facebook to keep in touch with others and to know more about someone. The measure consisted of 13 items on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *Strongly disagree* (1) to *Strongly agree* (5) and was divided into three dimensions: passive activities (6 items, Cronbach's α = .80), active activities (four items, Cronbach's α = .71), and personal activities (three items, Cronbach's α = .81). For example, the items for passive activities were "*search for Facebook of the person of interest*," "*follow his/her Facebook activities*," and "*look through his/her information and pictures*." Some of the items for active activities were "*click like his/her pictures and posts regularly*," "*click like his/her comments regularly*," and "*comment on his/her posts regularly*." The three items for personal activities were "*write messages or send pictures via his/her wall directly*," "*tag messages or pictures to him/her directly*," and "*chat with him/her through inbox messenger*."

Individualized trust scale (Cronbach's α = .94; *M* = 3.57; *SD* = .74). Wheeless and Grotz (1977) defined individualized trust as favorable perception of a person which leads to dependent behavior on the person. Rubin, Palmgreen, and Sypher (1994) suggested the scale to measure trust in a particular person rather than in others in general. In this study, a particular person is operationalized as the person of interest. The scale has 15 items rated on a 5-point semantic differential scale.

Relationship development (Cronbach's α = .79; *M* = 3.32; *SD* = .94). Relationship development was operationalized as a person's feelings to continue the romantic relationship with the person of interest. The scale was developed for this study. Two items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale from *Strongly disagree* (1) to *Strongly* *agree* (5). The items were "*following Facebook of my person of interest makes me feel good about him/her*," and "*following Facebook of my person of interest makes me want to further continue the relationship with him/her*." Two open-ended questions also asked participants to list "*what are activities on Facebook that the person of interest makes you feel very good?*" and "*what are activities on Facebook that the person of interest makes you feel worst?*"

Results

Data analysis included both statistical and thematic analyses. Descriptive analysis was conducted to analyze Facebook use to access the information about the person of interest. Regression analyses were computed to examine the predictive relationships among Facebook activities, trust, and relationship development. Thematic analysis was used to explore the pattern of Facebook behavior leading to positive and negative feelings of the other.

Statistical Analyses

Research Question 1 asked what activities that people did on Facebook to learn more about their person of interest. Descriptive analysis was conducted to examine the activities on Facebook. The activities that participants tended to agree most were those in passive category (M = 3.62; SD = 0.74), whereas those in personal activities were rated the lowest overall (M = 2.25; SD = 1.06) (see Table 1).

Table 1 Descriptive Analysis of Facebook Activities for Romantic Relationship Development with the Person of Interest

	Mean	*SD*
Passive activities		
	3.62	0.74
Search for Facebook of the person of interest	4.01	0.89
Follow his/her Facebook activities	3.99	0.88
Look through his/her information and pictures	3.86	0.98
Read comments on his/her posts	3.64	1.11
Update his/her log-in status	3.38	1.09
Look at Facebook of his/her friends	2.85	1.24
Active activities	2.78	0.92
Click like his/her pictures and posts regularly	3.27	1.31

Add him/her as friend on Facebook	3.16	1.32
Click like his/her comments regularly	2.54	1.32
Comment on his/her posts regularly	2.13	1.10
Personal activities	2.25	1.06
Chat with him/her through inbox messenger	2.80	1.40
Write messages or send pictures via his/her wall directly	2.00	1.14
Tag messages or pictures to him/her directly	1.97	1.17

Note. $N = 154$.

In addition, the open-ended question was also provided for participants to write three additional activities that they did for the purpose of knowing more about the person of interest. Twelve participants (7.79%) reported that they looked what was shared by the person of interest on Facebook (e.g., pages, songs, VDO clips, news, information); looked at his/her profile picture; looked at his/her friends or mutual friends; looked at check-in places; called him/her via chat box; and added his/her family members as friends.

Research Question 2 asked whether Facebook use predicted perceived trust in the person of interest. A linear regression analysis was conducted to evaluate how each Facebook activity predicted the perceived trust. Only passive activities were significant predictors of trust ($R^2 = .03$, $F(1, 152) = 4.76$, $p < .05$), whereas active and personal activities were not significantly related to trust. However, a multiple regression analysis was computed to examine the relationships between passive, active, and personal activities on Facebook and perceived trust. The results indicated that Facebook activities did not predict trust ($R^2 = .04$, $F(3, 150) = 2.14$, $p = .09$).

Research Question 3 asked if Facebook use predicted relationship development. The predictors were three Facebook activities (i.e., passive, active, and personal use) while the dependent variable was relationship development. A multiple regression analysis revealed a significant relationship ($R^2 = .28$, adjusted $R^2 = .26$, $F(3, 148) = 18.74$, $p < .01$), indicating that approximately 28% of the variance of the relationship development was accounted for by a combination of the Facebook activities.

Table 2 presents the relative strength of the individual predictors. All bivariate relationships were positive, showing that high Facebook use increased possibility for relationship development. Passive activities were the strongest predictors of relationship development.

Table 2 Multiple Regression Analysis of Facebook Use Predicting Relationship Development

Dependent	Predictors	*B*	*SE B*	β
	$R^2 = .28$*			
	Passive activities	.50	.10	.40*
	Active activities	.06	.11	.06
	Personal activities	.17	.90	.19

Notes. $N = 154$, *$p < .01$

Thematic Analysis

Thematic analysis is a process that encodes qualitative information into quantitative data to interpret the observations about people, events, situations, and organizations (Boyatzis, 1998). This study used a thematic analysis to interpret Facebook activities that made the other feel good or bad. The unit of analysis was the dyad communicating through Facebook. The unit of coding was a response to the two open-ended questions asking "*what are activities on Facebook that the person of interest makes you feel very good?*" (feeling good) and "*what are activities on Facebook that the person of interest makes you feel worst?*" (feeling worst).

Among 154 participants, 90 of them (58.44%) provided answers for the two open-ended questions. Two coders separately analyzed the provided answers to categorize the theme or pattern of Facebook behavior of the person of interest. When analyzing the content of communication phenomenon, Berelson (1952) suggested two types of categories: "how is said" categories and "what is said" categories. To develop categories in this study, the coders discussed the indicators and description of the categories until they reached consensus of a final coding scheme. Representing the how-is-said category, the first indicator of coding categories was a degree to which each Facebook activity reflected an exchange of interactions between the dyad (i.e., responsiveness and unresponsiveness). Reflecting the-what-is-said category, another indicator was an expression of self (i.e., positive and negative).

Intercoder reliability assessed by Scott's (1955) *pi* was adequate with .81 for the feeling-good responses and .80 for the feeling-worst responses. The raw percentage of agreement was 93% and 90%, respectively.

Feeling-good activities. Activities on Facebook that the person of interest made the participants feel very good were classified into two categories: responsiveness and positive self-expression. About 98% of the responses were coded using the two classifications. Responsiveness (76%) referred to activities that the person of interest directly interacted with the participant such as initiating chat, greeting, clicking like, and making comment. Positive self-expression (22%) referred to information that generated a favorable impression such as updating daily activities (e.g., checking in at places, posting pictures), doing non-profit activities, and posting amusing clips/news (see Table 3).

Feeling-worst activities. Another two categories of the activities that the person of interest made the participants feel worst: unresponsiveness and negative self-expression. Approximately 98% of the responses were coded using the two categories. Unresponsiveness (58%) referred to activities that showed ignorance of the other such as not reading/answering chat, doing unfriend/blocking, not clicking like, not commenting, and not accepting a friend request. Negative self-expression (40%) referred to activities that generated undesirable feelings such as posting nonsense words, expressing political dilemmas, using impolite language, and over liking/commenting someone (see Table 3).

Table 3 Content Analysis of Feeling-Good and Feeling-Worst Facebook Activities

	Percentage Coded
Feeling-good activities	98
Responsiveness	76
Initiating personal chat	18
Clicking like on status post/picture	17
Answering chat without delay	15
Making comments on status post/picture	10
Posting on the other's wall	9
Tagging photo	5
Accepting a friend request	1
Positive self-expression	22
Updating daily activities	11
Doing good activities	6
Posting entertaining clips/information	5
Feeling-worst activities	98
Unresponsiveness	58
Not reading/answering chat	30
Doing unfriend/blocking	16
Lost in contact (e.g., not clicking like, no comments, and not accepting a friend request)	12
Negative self-expression	40
Posting related to the third person (e.g., tagging someone, over clicking like/ commenting someone)	21
Posting non-sense/ impolite contents	19

Note. n = 90.

Discussion and Future Directions

The results of this study provide theoretical and practical knowledge in interdisciplinary areas of media technology and interpersonal communication. The findings served the two purposes of this study to examine (1) how people used Facebook to learn more about the person of interest, and (2) how the Facebook information influenced perception of the person of interest and overall relationship development. Overall, participants rated passive activities on Facebook higher than active and personal behaviors. Also, passive Facebook activities were strongest predictor of relationship development. Learning more about the person of interest passively leads the participants to pursue the relationship with him/her.

Theoretically, the findings generate a further question whether information seeking truly reduces uncertainty when people develop relationships. Uncertainty reduction theory posits that people use passive, active, and interactive strategies to seek information when they have uncertainty during relationship development (Berger & Calabrese, 1975). In this study, in an online context where a relational status was not defined, passive strategies were common to observe and learn more about the person of interest's behavior on Facebook. However, unobtrusive observing behavior can be more questionable and uncertain about him/her. Facebook provides a platform to access information about the person, but this information can be ambiguous and lead to suspicion, misunderstanding, and jealousy. Liking and commenting on pictures or status updates of someone causes the other to wonder who this person is (Ouytsel, Gool, Walrave, Ponnet, & Peeters, 2016). Media technology offers convenient information, but the convenience may come with more questions about and doubts in people as well.

Passive observation is a common strategy while the relationship is not developed to the stage that allows the dyad to learn about each other personally, in both online and offline contexts. Meanwhile, people use passive activities to overcome time and situational constraints in order to discover the unknown about the person of interest as well as to avoid being noticed. Past research reported that people used Facebook active and personal activities – liking/commenting pictures and status updates of the person of interest and sending private messages – to be noticed by the other person (Ouytsel et al., 2016). Thus, this study suggests that people prefer to observe rather than to be noticed by the other. They tended to be more passive to learn about the person of interest during the two relational stages of *initiating* and *experimenting* – using active and personal means could be viewed as intimidating. Consistent with past research, passive strategies were used more on Facebook before and after face-to-face interactions with the potential partners, and tended to be declined during exclusive dating (Fox & Anderegg, 2014).

Nevertheless, participants in this study were outnumbered by females. Using a passive strategy could be influenced by gender role differences as females may prefer not to look too approachable. Future studies may include an in-depth analysis of cultural and gender differences in Facebook use for romantic relationship development.

According to prior studies, communication via personal means comes when relationship is escalated. Messages were considered to be more intimate if they were more exclusive and posted privately through Facebook's messaging system, as opposed to being posted as a status update or a public wall post (Cohen et al., 2014). Similarly, Facebook use through private messages and photography tags predicted relationship escalation with a change in relational categories (Sosik & Bazarova, 2014). Thus, when the relationship is beyond the *initiating* and *experimenting* stages, active and personal Facebook activities are more likely to happen. Future research may explore further how people use Facebook differently when relational stage changes.

Although people preferred to be passive on Facebook during relationship enactment, the thematic analysis results implies that they also expect the person of interest to be active and interactive with them. Approximately half of the participants felt good when their crushes were responsive and noticed them, especially when the person initiated a private chat, liked/commented their posts and pictures, and hastened chat responses. Thus, the next question arises for further investigation – to what extent to be passive, active, and interactive when people use Facebook to develop romantic relationships.

Moreover, another qualitative finding provided an observation of the "don'ts" activities when having a particular interest in someone on Facebook. People felt worst when the other person disappeared in any means, did activities showing attention to other males and females, rejected relationship, and posted unreasonable and impolite contents.

Also, the findings indicated that Facebook use did not affect perceived trust in the person of interest. Trust is generally developed based on interactions in the relationship and experiences of having the other being responsive to one's needs (Gabbay et al., 2012; Rampel, Holmes, & Zanna, 1985). In this study, participants preferred passive activities when learning about the person of interest. Then, being interactive and responsive between the dyad is limited. Perhaps, during the initiating and experimenting relational stages, trust may not be developed yet as the romantic relationship is not firmly established.

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Learning of Media Ethics via Participation in Television Series Production

Soraya Ngamsnit

Abstract

The objective of this qualitative research was to probe a learning by doing approach in teaching media students the required media ethical issues by tasking them to produce television series. At present, various media contents, such as, television dramas, news talk shows and advertisements, have often been criticized for their lack of ethical judgement. Aiming to design an effective approach for students to learn media ethics, the researcher confidently postulated that the learning by doing approach in which students take a full participation in producing television series would enable them to acquire the awareness of media ethical issues as well as make informed decisions on ethical issues.

The television series production processes were divided into three main steps (pre-production, production and post-production). Students participated in every step. In the first step, students were tasked with writing their preferred script of a television series highlighting media ethical problems. In the second step, students produced a television series. In the third step, students presented their television series to the public.

The project revealed that students' participation in the production of television series helped students develop an active response to the problems of media ethics. This approach was also found to offer students a sense of self-contentment of having develop their informed judgment and their sharp criticisms of the media contents violating media ethical issues. In conclusion, students' active learning and direct participation in producing television series can be a satisfactory teaching method of media ethics and an important opportunity for students to enjoy making their own television series.

Keywords: learning by doing, media ethics, participation, television series production.

บทคัดย่อ

การมีส่วนร่วมในกระบวนการผลิตสื่อละครโทรทัศน์ของนักศึกษา เนื่องจากปัจจุบันจะพบว่า ปัญหาด้านจริยธรรมในการนำเสนอรายการต่างๆผ่านสื่อมวลชนมีจำนวนมาก ทั้งละคร ข่าว และโฆษณา ผู้วิจัยต้องการให้นักศึกษาได้เรียนรู้จริยธรรมสื่อมวลชนอย่างมีประสิทธิภาพ ส่งผลต่อทักษะการวิพากษ์และการ

ตัดสินใจเชิงจริยธรรม ซึ่งกระบวนการเรียนรู้อย่างมีส่วนร่วมในการผลิตสื่อละครโทรทัศน์น่าจะช่วยให้นักศึกษาสามารถการเรียนรู้จริยธรรมสื่อสารมวลชนให้กับนักศึกษาได้

ผู้วิจัยออกแบบขั้นตอนของการเรียนรู้การผลิตสื่อละครโทรทัศน์ออกเป็นสามขั้นตอน ได้แก่ ขั้นตอนก่อนการผลิต ขั้นผลิต และขั้นหลังการผลิต โดยให้นักศึกษามีส่วนร่วมออกแบบการทำงานและวางเนื้อหาละครในทุกขั้นตอน โดยมีเงื่อนไขหลักคือนักศึกษาจะต้องร่วมกันเลือกปัญหาที่จะนำเสนอผ่านสื่อละครโทรทัศน์เพื่อรณรงค์จริยธรรมสื่อมวลชน จากนั้นจึงนำมาผลิตและนำเสนอเป็นละครสั้น

การวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลจากการมีส่วนร่วม ผู้วิจัยใช้เกณฑ์การตอบสนองของนักศึกษา พบว่า มีความกระตือรือร้นสูง มีความภาคภูมิใจในผลงานของตน มีการวิพากษ์วิจารณ์เกี่ยวกับการนำเสนอเนื้อหาผ่านสื่อและตัดสินใจเชิงจริยธรรมได้ชัดเจนขึ้น กล่าวโดยสรุปได้ว่า นักศึกษาได้เรียนรู้จริยธรรมสื่อสารมวลชนผ่านความสนุกในการผลิตละครโทรทัศน์ของตนนั่นเอง

คำสำคัญ: การเรียนรู้, จริยธรรมสื่อมวลชน, การมีส่วนร่วม, กระบวนการผลิตสื่อละครโทรทัศน์

Introduction

At present, media content producers have been widely criticized by audiences on social media platforms for their lack of ethical judgements. To compete for audience's popularity, media have been known to publicly display graphic images of dead bodies, uncensored pictures of the accused youth. Additionally, media report are notoriously employed "improper" descriptions, misleading readers or exaggerating stories ranging from headlines to core contents. In many cases, the news content violates the informants' right to privacy. Besides, television series are also known to contain socially improper sexual and/ or violent scenes, and forcefully insert countless brands of product placements. Advertisers and brand owners also flout media professional rules and regulations by over-exaggerating or hyping the properties of products, emphasizing the superstitious beliefs or reproducing social biases and discriminatory attitudes in relation to gender, race and social status.

Aiming to create an effective and relative approach to learning media ethics, the researcher came up with a concept of students' active learning approach which allowed students to participate in every step of the television series making process. Students were divided into two groups: actors and administrators. Each group had different participatory levels. The administrators had a higher level of participation because they partook in every step of the production from planning to post-production processes.

The reason influencing the researcher's choice of television series production as a means to achieve the desired learning outcome was the complicated process in making television series requiring an active participation of production crew in all three steps.

Since television series are often believed to reflect real life situations, they are suitable materials for inserting real life facts and ethical issues. Unlike live performance or plays, television series can be widely distributed, particularly through free online platforms and social networking sites, such as YouTube.

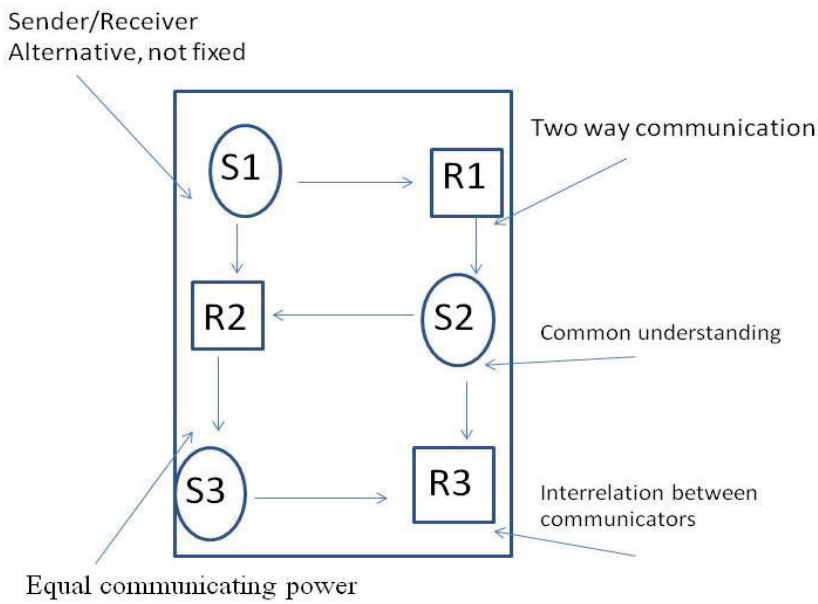
Literature Review

This pilot study showed that television series, demanding active participation from those involved in the production processes, provided an ample opportunity to gauge the effectiveness of this learning by doing approach in teaching media ethical concerns to students. This activity also enable the two-way communication approach between instructor and students as the desirable model for this learning by doing approach strategy.

These are the concepts that researcher applied for research design

Concept of Communication Model

The communication model employed in this research followed the Ritualistic Model or the two-step communication process enabling the changing role from being a receiver to being a sender (Kanjana Kaewthep, 2006, p. 5)



The objective of this ritual communication model was to create a common understanding and an inter-relationship between the sender and receiver. The drama process involved using a production approach that changed the audience's role to the producer's role to sharpen knowledge, understanding, emotional sensitivity and behavioral adjustments including polishing the taste of esthetics of the youth (Kanjana Kaewthep, 2009).

Three steps of participation were as follows:

1. Self study was the step to study students. In this step the students were the audience.
2. The practical training step was to train students to have necessary production skills so that they could produce a television series by themselves.
3. Learning from lessons was the step that returned knowledge to students by organizing seminar sessions allowing students to discuss and to criticize the series they had produced. At this step students assumed the roles of production managers.

Upon completing the three steps, students' participation in the television series production could be a preferred method in developing communication arts students' learning enthusiasm and critical thinking when making informed decisions regarding media ethical concerns in students' daily lives.

Concepts of Media Ethics

The researcher followed the rules of "Do" and "Don't" for media practitioners described in the media ethics handbook commissioned by the Office of National Broadcasting and Telecommunications Commission (2014). Some of these rules are:

"Do not use personal opinions to judge persons in the news or distribute or extend the news with personal opinions"

"Do not use improper pictures, pictures that are related to the products or not real pictures in the advertisements that may lead to consumer's misunderstanding"

"Promote television drama representing positive models or television drama promoting efforts for achievement of a righteous livelihood"

"Use polite, proper words that do not constitute discriminatory attitudes based on race, nationality or skin color when presenting products"

"There should be no product placements in the news programs and the news programs should not be presented in commercially promotional styles"

Concept of Community Participation

The Social and Environmental Research Institute of Chulalongkorn University (2002, cited in Parichart Sthapitanon - Sarobol, 2000) mentioned five participation activities: participation in planning, activity performance, benefit uses, benefit receiving and evaluation.

Kanjana Kaewthep (2006) indicated that ordinary people participated in the community radio operation as being media receivers, re-tellers, program public relations monitoring local problems or a participation in special activities of community radios. Participation in the radio programs included phoning in to share ideas, requesting songs and reporting news. Participation as the program producers in all 3 phases include the pre-production, the production and the post production. Participation as the resource person, is the role of informers who give information to the community radio program producers. Participation in the decision making of community radio operation are volunteers whose offer free service the broadcast. Other types of participation activities include participation as various committee of community radio and participation in special activities for community radio such as working as public relations officers and fund raising officers.

Concept of Drama

Tisana Khemmani (2009, p. 353) explained that using drama with its lively contents was an effective method helping learners acquire the learning objectives and understand the subject matter with long retention. The important aspects of drama in relative learning approach include script writing, acting, and viewing, and discussing and concluding what learners gain from participating in the drama making processes.

Analogous to Pornrat Dumrung (2014)'s emphasis, the two types of drama employed for this research as well as for other human development projects were:

1. Drama in Education (DIE) - the process in which the teachers and the drama producer trained participants in the activities or children in classrooms. The activity did not emphasize the outcome of production but the development of participants in the drama production activities. When participating in the activity, participants would learn and gain direct experiences from the designed topics. At the same time, the participants would learn the concept of communication processes and work together as a team. DIE would display the assumed roles of those in history.

2. Theater in Education (TIE) - a mixed form of drama requiring audience participation, audience interaction and post-viewing discussion. The drama script was developed partly by a group-brain storming and partly by the discussion with the teachers. The content was often related to the lessons, social

problems and the audiences' age, for example, drug problems and teenage pregnancy.

Concept of Edutainment

Edutainment is a process of integrating with academic and entertainment contents to enhance desirable knowledge and attitudes, and to change the audience's behaviors by using different forms of mass media, including drama, rock music, movies and cartoons, to convey the designed knowledge and information to the target groups (Singhal & Rogers, 1999, p. XII).

Edutainment, the use of media materials with entertaining content: drama, cartoons or songs, is useful in enhancing audiences' quality of life without forcing them to learn necessary information and knowledge, such as, safety protection measures, health care tips, precautions about mental health (Lull, 1992, cited in Singhal & Rogers, 1999, p.108).

Chaianant Samutvanit (cited in Tisana Khemmani, 2009) explained that *pluen* (Thai. play and learn) theory is a mixture of mindfulness and fun to trigger an eagerness to learn. The use of television drama as a learning material is one way to promote learning with happiness.

The researcher used Parichart Sthapitanon - Sarobol's (2000, pp. 353-354) concept of edutainment in the communication process. Parichart proposed that people involving in the edutainment should have understood the following concepts:

- Systematic thinking - overall thinking, instead of partial thinking - all concerned parties should have some things to support the effects of the core of edutainment.

- Participatory thinking – avoiding the imposition of ideas onto the target audiences, rather encouraging all parties to achieve collective thinking or having equal participation in edutainment content design and learning creative presentation techniques.

- Ethical thinking - all concerned parties should think of ethical principles and the greater benefit of society. Creating edutainment materials should not be based on personal nor corporate benefits.

Gagne's Learning Theory

To entail students' relative learning of media ethics by producing television series, the researcher also used Gagne's learning theory in communication processes.

For the mass media ethical practice, Gagne's learning theory was often popularly used to design the communication processes with students, the researcher's target group.

Gagne (cited in Tisana Khemmani, 2009, pp. 75-76) proposed that the learning processes consisted of 9 steps:

1. Gaining attention - this step encourages learners to pay attention to the lesson. The attention can be triggered by external and internal motives. This step is often accompanied by various teaching methods motivating learner's interest in the lesson: class discussion, question and answer sessions, quizzes or use of teaching aids.

2. Informing the learning objectives - this step informs learners the objectives or results the learners are expected to gain from this learning process. This step is said to help learners design and plan their own lessons. This method is also known to help learners meet learning objectives effectively.

3. Stimulating the recall of pre-requisite capabilities - this is the stage that learners recall previous sets of knowledge in order to produce new sets of knowledge. Learning is therefore a process of knowledge integration between the older sets of knowledge and the newer sets of knowledge.

4. Presenting the stimulus - this step is aimed to help learners start the new project with teaching aids appropriate for learning activities.

5. Providing a learning guidance -this step helps learners do activities by themselves following teachers' guidance.

6. Eliciting the performance - this step helps students perform learning and behavioral expressions according to the designed learning objectives.

7. Feedback – in this step, teachers evaluate the students' performance or students' expressions to find out whether their behavioral expressions are correct or not.

8. Assessing the performance - this step assesses the learners regarding how much they have learned according to the learning objectives. The assessment is done by questions, observation, examination or interview depending on the learning objectives. The only important thing was that the measurement tools must be qualified, reliable and valid.

9. Enhancing the retention and transferring knowledge - this step is the conclusion which the past lessons are repeated and re-examined to generate a new set of knowledge. This step is often accompanied by various means such as work assignment, report or additional classroom activities

Related Literature

Following the community action approach and lessons learned from her study of the effects of alcohol consumption among youths, Wongphuek (2006) asserted that youths' direct participation in the drama production was considered a positive solution allowing participating youths to take parts in one or many roles of the production team, including audiences, actors, data providers, supporters and observers. This multi-tasking participation resulted in behavioral changes among youths in relation to alcohol problems and other behavioral problems. Community members were also offered an active role in public campaigns for raising community awareness of social issues such as excessive alcohol consumption.

Working with the Makhampom drama group, Duangkhae Buaprakhon et al (2004) conducted a research on the use of drama as an essential strategy for community development. This project assessed the effects of this developing approach on individual and collective levels. Buaprakhon found that drama can explicitly change knowledge, understanding, attitudes and behavior at personal and community levels.

Yada Wittayapanpracha (2009) studied the effects of drama on the ethical development of youth using mixed research methods in analyzing data from documents and experimental research with a pre-test and post-test designs. The samples were collected from 350 secondary school students, year 1-3, in the Bangkok area. The objectives were to study ethical concepts and how to include ethics and morality into the drama named "*Thong Lon Lang*" (Thai. Gold overflown on your back) and to study ethical knowledge, attitudes and behaviors of students from secondary schools in the Bangkok area after seeing the drama "*Thong Lon Lang*" and to compare the level of ethical knowledge, attitudes and behavior of secondary school students in Bangkok area before and after seeing the dram "Thong Lon Lang". Findings were that students gained more ethical knowledge, attitude and behaviors after seeing the drama.

Methodology

Research Question

Following the learning by doing approach teaching model, this research was designed to assess whether students' participation in television series production processes would facilitate students' learning of mass media ethics. Attention was also made on the production activities that entailed the learning process.

Methods

One hundred eighteen students enrolling in the course "Mass Media Ethics and Laws" under the Department of Communication Arts at a Phranakhon Rajabhat

University took part in this research. They were divided into 2 groups: the production crew (actors and production technicians) and the administrative crew.

To monitor and observe students' active involvement in the designed learning process, the following research tools were employed:

1. Evaluation forms were used to collect students' feedbacks and comments regarding the conjectured understanding of media ethical issues and their decision making on media ethical problems.

2. Observation forms were used to record students' roles in their production of television series.

3. Students' drama scripts and students' notes were thoroughly examined for explicit and implicit evidence of their understanding of ethical issues.

4. Interview forms were used to collect students' subjective reflection of their experiences in the production processes.

5. List of discussion topics for focus group was also used in collecting students' collective reflection on this learning by doing activity.

Data Collection

Data for analysis were collected by the following steps:

- Students' knowledge, understanding and their ethical decision making skills were recorded by using students' evaluation forms.
- Students were divided into smaller groups for focus group discussions about the current ethical problems in mass media. Prior to the discussion, the researcher briefed students on mass media ethics. Students, then, selected ethical problems to present in their television series production as part of a campaign for raising public awareness of mass media ethics.
- Students engaged in all steps of the television series production. They took turns acting for the series, working as production crew and providing necessary information as resource persons. They also took turns teaching their acting crew acting and instructing the production crew the use of studio equipment. Students constructively wrote their scripts and worked independently on scenes and props design.
- After the production of their television series was completed, the series were disseminated on social media sites.

Findings

After completing this learning by doing experiment, the researcher found that there were seven steps necessary for engaging students in the learning of media ethics:

Step 1: Evaluation forms were used to assess students' critical thinking and their ethical decision making before participating in the television series production. Six picture depicting stories of mass media ethical concerns were given to students. Students were then instructed to write their opinions about the provided pictures.

Picture 1. After reviewing the media presentation of dead bodies, most students did not express their critical thinking and ethical decision making.

Picture 2. Most students did not demonstrate critical thinking or ethical decision making regarding product placements in television series.

Picture 3. Some students displayed their critical thinking and ethical decision making in relation to about racial discrimination.

Picture 4. Some students exhibited their critical thinking and ethical decision making when being shown pictures of violent scenes, dead bodies, or accused persons.

Picture 5. Most students demonstrated their critical thinking and ethical decision making when being shown the depiction of rape in the television series.

Picture 6. Most students revealed their critical thinking and ethical decision making when being shown advertisements with warning descriptions or implicitly misleading advertisements.

Step 2: Students were pretested about their knowledge, understanding and ethical decision making.

After briefing students on mass media ethics, the researcher organized a focus group discussion about current mass media ethics. Students then selected the "Do" and "Don't" media ethical rules which were publicized by the NCBT to insert into stories of the television series. The "Do" and "Don't" media ethical rules that were included in the campaign for raising the public awareness of mass media ethics were:

1. Do not present images of people smoking cigarette, consuming alcoholic drink and using other narcotic substances. Do not present these products in such a commercial way as this might have been interpreted as inviting viewers to act accordingly, or misinterpreting that such action is a good conduct.
2. Do not use inappropriate pictures, pictures unrelated to the product, or inauthentic pictures that can mislead consumers about the product.
3. Do promote dramas containing the positive representation of diverse groups of people, or dramas optimizing efforts for success in a politically correct manner.

4. Do not present pointless, nonsensical, or false stories potentially leading to unintelligent beliefs.
5. Do not include personal opinion when criticizing persons involving in the news stories, or to fabricate the news content with personal opinions.
6. Do not use scenes that are considered satirical, disrespectful, or offendable to specific groups of people, races, ethnicities, sexes, classes, religions, beliefs. If such scenes are used, other scenes revealing true stories must be accompanied at the earliest opportunity.
7. Do produce dramas containing social constructive engagement issues which are appropriate to the current Situation. The dramas should also provide solutions to social problems by using positive role models for the public.
8. Do not present advertisements misleading the actual properties of the products and services. Using celebrity brand endorsement must not include the exaggerated claim of the actual properties of the products.
9. Do use polite and contextually appropriate language. Do use language that do not constitute explicit and implicit insults on race, nationality, or ethnicities when presenting the concerned products and services.
10. Do not employ product placements in the news programs or news talk shows.

Step 3: The production of television series as a learning step – students performing resource persons roles provided acting instructions to acting crew and technical assistance to production crew.

Step 4: Students selected their group representatives to form a research team tasked with providing research questions. Then, all groups worked together and designed the research process. Every student volunteered for his/her preferred jobs, such as, script writers, make-up artists, stage managers, props masters, and actors. Everybody was responsible for their selected work. Some students performed more than one duties. For example, some students worked as producer, script writer and director. Other roles in the production were: assistant director, three principal actors, four supporting actors, make-up artist, hair stylist, time keeper, slate marker, custodian, two still photographers, one camera operator, and one switcher.

Step 5: Students all participated in the planning process to produce a television series for a mass media ethics campaign in consultation with the research team. Students then agreed on research tools and sample selections, as well as produced follow-up schedules to monitor their work progress and assessment. As a facilitator, the researcher offered advice and guidance only when needed. Each group wrote their own scripts and edited them before proceeding to the production stage.

Step 6: Students participated in the television series production as demonstrated in the following pictures:

Step 7: The representative from each group conducted a focus group discussion to verify the appropriateness of the research content. This activity was designed to find out if television series can influence students' perception of mass media ethical issues. The focus group results from all groups had almost the same answer. Almost all students revealed that the produced television series were "fun", "practical" enabling them to have first-hand experience in the production of television programs and to comprehend the mass media ethics. The following excerpts from focus groups discussions exemplified the above points.

Student 1:

The knowledge gained from studio: I learned about the production equipment in studio.

The knowledge gained from this subject: I learned about ethics and laws.

Feelings after viewing their own clip and the clips of other groups: I'm not quite happy with the clip my group produced but happy with what we have done.

Student 2:

The knowledge gained from studio: I gained good feelings from studio. It's such an impression because I've never learned or practised in the studio. Most course are theories. But here learning by practising or the hand-on learning allowed me touch and see the real things. This activity helped me gain more experiences and various skills.

Knowledge gained from this subject: Many things, experiences, skills, knowledge that I've never known before. I'm sure the experience from this class will be useful in the future.

Feelings after viewing their own clip and the clips of other groups: It is clear that my group and other groups have creativity. We expressed our creativity in different ways. I'm impressed with new ideas and techniques, not the old things.

Student 3:

The knowledge gained from studio: I had a lot of fun learning many kinds of production equipment in the studio.

Knowledge gained from this subject: skills and knowledge and how to use many kinds of equipment in the studio. This knowledge will be useful in the future. Also, learning the mass media ethics and laws, rules and regulations are certainly applicable for my future career.

Feelings after viewing their own clip and the clips of other groups: It was fun. I was pleased to learn. The drama with ethical issue can be applicable to our daily life issues.

Student 4:

The knowledge gained from studio: It was fun. It was such a challenge when learning in the studio.

Knowledge gained from this subject: I gained a lot of experiences that could be used in the daily life, the life skills.

Feelings after viewing their own clip and the clips of other groups: It was quite funny and entertaining.

Student 5:

The knowledge gained from studio: I've learned many things about drama production and television production.

Knowledge gained from this subject: I think what we learned about the ethics could be used in our daily life.

Feelings after viewing their own clip and the clips of other groups: I'm very happy to have the chance to learn with friends. This activity helped us gain group unity. The drama could be used in daily life.

Discussion and Conclusion

This study focused on the participatory process of making television drama series to promote the relative learning of mass media ethics. All steps used in this research were designed for students to have active participation in all the steps including

Pre-production - It was the necessary step preparing students for the activity. Students were first briefed about basic knowledge assessment methods. They were then given additional knowledge of the mass media ethics, and subsequently trained in acting and operating television production equipment. After that, students were offered sessions on the advanced techniques in to script writing, actor selection, stage, props and wardrobe allocation, budget planning, time frame scheduling and necessary appointments.

Production - Students produced the series at the university's media studio according to the date and time pre-scheduled for the production. Students were reminded about the importance of punctuality and the run-through-technique using three cameras without editing between the takes by using the switcher to switch pictures from each camera upon the director's order.

Post-production - Students needed not to edit the videos because of the run-through technique using three cameras. Student then uploaded their videos onto YouTube for presentation and dissemination.

From these three steps of television series production, the researcher collected data from face-to-face-discussion and from individual students' Facebook statuses. The researcher found that students were eager to learn and to participate in every step of the television series production. The researcher also offered advice to students how to interpret and encode the concerning ethics into the actual scripts. Before the shooting began, rehearsals were also organized by students. Pictures of behind the scene were taken and uploaded onto Facebook. Captions were added in the series. The production clips were also shared among students themselves. This indicated their sense of pride and unity in the collective learning activity as being pointed out in the interview.

Students who were representatives of their respective groups revealed that watching television series or dramas was no longer pleasurable because after getting through this class activity students were confronted with questions regarding production techniques such as, "why the series producer used such pictures?", or "why the series producers inserted this kind of advertisements?". Students all agreed that current television dramas were full of many "inappropriate" scenes possibly violating the media ethical guidelines. Students performing the administrative roles demonstrated their higher level of learning than students in the acting group. The researcher therefore argued that the more participation the students take, the more issues regarding media ethical the students are likely to learn.

In conclusion, the students' overwhelming responses in the research indicated that the learning by doing approach had enabled students to energetically engage in their actively relative learning of media ethics. Students also voiced that their participation in the television series production had given them a sense of achievement, enabling them to criticize television programs with ethical dilemma, and to make an ethically informed decision. Students' active participation in the television series production can then be used as an effective means to constructively teach media ethical concerns to students.

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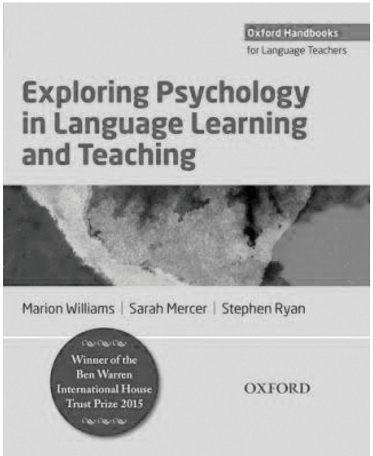
Book Review: Exploring Psychology in Language Learning and Teaching



(Written by Marion Williams, Sarah Mercer and Stephen Ryan)

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184 Pages

By Sureepong Phothongsunan

Teachers of foreign languages play a key role in shaping students' language learning experience and are in a challenging position, especially in this 21st century, to help students develop their potential to become successful language learners. One of the areas that language teachers as well as learners should pay attention to is psychological knowledge in language learning and teaching. Teachers and students who have an understanding of psychological features are likely to see how the process of language learning and teaching occurs, evolves and accomplishes. From a glance at the book title, Exploring Psychology in Language Learning and Teaching, it strikes my awareness of the importance of psychology these days in particular as a language teacher myself. This book overall is clearly written, using an uncomplicated but powerful choice of words to enable the reader with slight or even no background in psychology to grasp almost effortlessly. From my viewpoint, I would honestly recommend this book to anyone involved in language teaching and learning, be it language practitioners, teachers and students alike.

Exploring Psychology in Language Learning and Teaching, authored by Marion Williams, Sarah Mercer, and Stephen Ryan, comes in eight chapters. Each of the chapters focuses on different psychological notions necessary for real-life application. In the first chapter, important approaches of psychology, including behaviorism and cognitivism, are highlighted. Properly sequenced, other more current psychological approaches are also introduced after which the writer's views in relation to general psychology and language learning in particular for second and foreign language teachers are shared and contemplated.

According to Holliday (1994), what goes on within the classroom viewed as a community of practice is not only influenced by social factors within the wider educational institution but also by social, wider educational, political and economic factors that exist in a society. This can be directly related to the focus of the second chapter, grouping. What language teachers can achieve from having learners do group work is proposed along with a discussion on the practicality and challenges of various forms of group structures.

The notion of 'self' becomes the core of the next chapter which shows how individuals create a form of self and a sense of self. The writers are able to tease out the intricacy embedded in the development of a sense of self and most importantly they provide recommendations on what teachers can do to create an environment useful for learners to build and sustain a positive sense of self.

Following is a keen explanation of beliefs in language learning and teaching as the authors point out their importance to language learning in the fourth chapter. A clear difference is made between belief and knowledge. Here beliefs are factors that appear to have an influence on learners' behaviors and actions. According to the writers, beliefs are flexible and can change over time. There are also other factors which affect beliefs including contextual situations, and interactions with others. In fact, beliefs contain an emotional state and some people are emotionally attached to the beliefs. To support learning, it is advised that teachers should try to understand beliefs which learners have as well as the emotional importance of such beliefs. Certain characteristics of language beliefs in classrooms are also delineated for language learners and teachers.

The next chapter draws attention to affect, emotions, feelings and moods. All of these are considered important for learning a language. How emotion and affect are associated with language learning and teaching are also examined. Interestingly, the writers indicate that the most dominant affects in language learning are Krashen's (1985) affective filter and anxiety commonly known as foreign language anxiety in connection with foreign language learning. Other less known features of emotions and feelings are further investigated.

In chapter six, motivation in language learning is discussed, clarifying behavioral views on motivation and cognitive theories of motivation with ample cases in point. The writers attempt to give advice to teachers regarding how to put these into practice in the language classrooms. The writers suggest that emotions should play a role in motivation as well since cognitive and behavioral theories are either incomplete or mutually exclusive. This chapter is very well-structured and easy to follow as it introduces the historical background of the major evolutions of motivation in the field of language learning. Moreover, both new and experienced teachers are given some useful ideas on motivation which they can use in their teaching practices.

The learner's agency and self-regulation are elucidated in chapter seven. In the writers' words, agency serves as a feeling that a person can act and control his/her action. Thus, it is important for learners to have a sense of agency to convince oneself that a language can be successfully learned. In relation to this, language learning strategies are discussed along with their attributes and categorization. Learning styles are further explained since they are related to learning strategies. What follows is a discussion of self-regulation, defined as taking charge and manipulating own learning. It appears that teachers play an important role in helping learners to have self-regulation, involving setting goals which are specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and timely. One aspect of self-regulation pinpointed by the writers is metacognition, which suggests a person's awareness of his/her cognitive developments in learning.

In the last chapter, an effort is made to analyze and put together various learning aspects presented earlier. It is a depiction of learning well-linked with psychological terms. How these factors come together to impact the learners and the teachers as a whole is offered. The writers also discuss some principles for effective classroom practice and aptly provide some suggestions to language teachers as to how they can reflect on and apply such concepts and knowledge to their pedagogy. This ending chapter in fact emphasizes a notion that learning varies from person to person and depends on a number of factors which come into play and that a universal format to make learners succeed in learning a second/foreign language does not exist. Thus, language teachers have to be aware of these psychological factors and their interplay.

Last but not least, not only did I find this book very beneficial, but I also had enjoyment in reading the texts using straightforward and lucid expressions. For pre-service language teachers, this book is highly advisable. For others interested in psychology of language teaching and learning, I am certain that their interests will be fulfilled. Personally, I would like to compliment the writers for their contribution to the fields of teacher education and language teaching. This award-winning book indeed shows the writers' proper analysis of psychological factors with specific, practical examples and constructive suggestions to language teachers.

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Call for Papers

NIDA Journal of Language and Communication is the official journal of the Graduate School of Language and Communication at the National Institute of Development Administration. Its purpose is to disseminate information of interest to language and communication scholars, and others interested in related interdisciplinary sciences. The journal presents information on theories, research, methods, and ideas related to language and communication as well as related interdisciplinary sciences. This journal publishes original scholarship for both local and international readership on all practice-oriented linguistic standpoints, and on communication as a theory, practice, technology, and discipline of power, especially in applied contexts.

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Manuscript Format Guidelines

- Manuscripts submitted to the journal must conform to the stylistic guidelines prescribed by the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA), 6th edition (2010).
- Submitted manuscripts must be typewritten, double-spaced, and in 12-point Time New Roman font with margins of 1.5 inch for top and 1 inch for bottom, left and right sides.

- Papers should not exceed 30 pages (A4 or letter size), exclusive of tables and references.
- All pages must be numbered except the title page.
- Page numbers must be placed at the top of the page in the upper right hand corner.
- The article title and headings must be printed in bold style and placed at the center of the page. Sub-headings should be italicized and positioned at the left margin.
- Manuscripts must be thoroughly checked for errors prior to submission.

Reference Format

All sources cited in the manuscripts must follow the American Psychological Association (APA) guidelines (*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 6th edition), and must be alphabetically ordered. Purdue University provides a comprehensive on-line source for APA guidelines which can be accessed through its website (https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/1).

In-text citation

Within the text, only brief author-date citations should be made, giving the author's surname, year of publication and page number(s) where relevant. With the exception of Thai language sources, only first name(s) or first name(s) and surname(s) can be cited.
According to Jones (1998), "manuscripts must be properly cited" (p. 199).

Long quotations

Direct quotations that are 40 words or longer should be placed in a free-standing block of typewritten lines. Start the quotation on a new line, indented 1/2 inch from the left margin without quotation marks.

Rather than simply being a set of relations between the oppressor and the oppressed, says Foucault (1980) in Power/Knowledge:

> Power must be analyzed as something which circulates, or as something which only functions in the form of a chain.... Power is employed and exercised through a net like organization.... Individuals are the vehicles of power, not its point of application. (p. 89).

Summary or paraphrase

Kojchakorn Sareechantalerk (2008) states in her study of Thailand's feminine beauty discourse that the traditional description of beauty (before 1868 A.D.) can be segregated by class and ethnic distinctions into different sets of rules governing the presentation of attractive bodies and postures that are said to indicate individual class and ethnic identities (p. 26).

Examples of References

Books

Butler, J. (1993). *Bodies that matter: On the discursive limits of sex.* London: Routledge.

Butler, J. (1999). *Gender trouble: Feminism and the subversion of identity* (10th anniversary ed.). London: Routledge. (Original work published 1990)

Articles in Periodicals

Lau, H. H. (2004). The structure of academic journal abstracts written by Taiwanese PhD students. *Taiwan Journal of TESOL*, *1*(1), 1-25.

Li, L.J., & Ge, G.C. (2009). Genre analysis: Structural and linguistic evolution of the English-medium medical research articles (1995-2004). *English for Specific Purposes*, *28*(2), 93-104.

Articles in Edited Books

Mulvey, L. (1985). Visual pleasure and narrative cinema. In B. Nichols (Ed.), *Movies and methods* (Vol. 2). Berkley: University of California Press.

Tonkiss, F. (1998). Analysing discourse. In C. Seale (Ed.), *Researching society and culture.* (pp. 245-260). London: Sage.

Unpublished Theses

Kojchakorn Sareechantalerk. (2008). *A discursive study of Thai female beauty: Multidimensional approach* (Unpublished master's thesis). Thammasat University, Bangkok, Thailand. [in Thai]

Notes on Thai Language References

- According to Thai convention, Thai scholars are listed and referred by their first names.
- The romanization of Thai words should follow the Royal Thai general system of Transcription (RTGS), published by the Royal Institute of Thailand (1999). The RTGS, however, does not include diacritics, which phonetically indicate the variation in vowels and tones.
- The transliteration of Thai names, preferentially adopted by Thai individuals, for example, Nidhi Auesriwongse, Chetta Puanghut, should not be altered.

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