NIDA

National Institute of Development Administration

GSLC
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

NIDA Journal of Language and Communication

Volume 21 • Issue 28 • May - August 2016

http://lc.nida.ac.th

ISSN : 1513-4164

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118 Serithai Road, Klongchan,
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Tel. 02-727-3152 http://lc.nida.ac.th
Printed by: Pimsuay Co.,Ltd.
5/5 Thetsaban Rangsarit Nuea Rd.,
Latyao, Chatuchak, Bangkok 10900

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.

Editor's Note

For over two decades, NIDA Journal of Language and Communication has strived to provide a platform for promoting an interdisciplinary recognition of the interplay between language and communication. The journal's publication of original scholarship by students and established scholars has gained reputation and visibility in the academic community: the journal's administrative committee constantly reassesses and revises the submission policy and reviewing processes to ensure that the published articles reflect 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.

This issue presents a diverse selection of stimulating articles from scholars and students. Particularly, we owe a debt of gratitude to Michael L. Kent, Adam J. Saffer and Erich J. Sommerfeldt, our invited authors, whose manuscript, *From Communication to Dialogue: Building Better Community Relationships*, offers a thought-provoking exploration of an intricate relationship between public relations and community building. The paper highlights the important role of dialogue in facilitating "the communitarian goals of community building" and negotiating "the rights and interest of individuals".

The second paper, *Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR): An Anecdotal Observation*, co-authored by Ketkanda Jaturongkachoke and Supamit Chanseawrassamee, investigates how CSR might be instilled in young adult learners of English. Observing students' oral presentations and activities about CSR, this research confirms its hypothetical expectation that pedagogy can raise students' awareness about the issue. However, the research also discovers that students may still choose not to include CSR as part of their presentations despite the fact that the overwhelming majority of students recognise the importance of CSR in business operations.

Sasithorn Limgomolvilas' paper, *Idea Sharing: Facilitating Presentation Skills through Integrated Face-to-Face Distance Learning, as well as Forum Instruction*, discusses her teaching involvement in the Lower Me Kong Initiative, Phase Two, aimed to help develop the English language presentation skills of government officials from countries in the Mae Khong region. The paper also highlights the advantages of using a co-teaching method in developing learners' competence in English speaking.

The fourth article, *Plagiarism Policies: Cross-Cultural Similarities and Differences*, co-written by Sasima Charubusp and John N. Sivell, raises an interesting question about the purpose of Thai and Canadian university polices on plagiarism published on their websites. Adopting Price (2002)'s four criteria for analysing university plagiarism policies: pedagogical viewpoint, rhetorical perspective, ethical standards and management outlook, the paper finds that plagiarism policies of Thai and Canadian universities contain similar features emphasising only institutional concerns over plagiaristic practices and disciplinary actions, but failing to provide insightful guidelines on how to avoid plagiarism and how to write a high-quality academic paper.

In the fifth paper, *Technicality of Noun-Noun Combinations in Sports Science Research Articles*, Ratchanee Singkhachan and Jeremy Ward examine 41 Exercise Physiology journal articles in an attempt to identify the significance of noun-noun combinations (NNCs) in academic discourse. The paper identifies 2,010 NNCs and finds that more than 75 per cent of NNCs are technical and important for sports science students.

In the sixth article, Natthicha Siangwan and Jirapa Abhakorn investigate the effect of contextualized and de-contextualized vocabulary teaching on learner's memorization and recognition of word meaning. Drawing on data collected from 39 sixth grade students in a gifted program in Petchaburi, they find that the de-contextualized technique is more effective than the contextualized technique in helping students memorize vocabulary, but the contextualized technique outperforms the de-contextualized technique in developing student's recognition of vocabulary.

Smith Boonchutima's article, *Do gay, bi and straight people use Facebook differently?*, examines the communication patterns in *Facebook* use among heterosexual, homosexual and bisexual male students at Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok. Employing self-administered questionnaires, the investigation reveals that the male students are less active on Facebook compared to their female counterparts. Collecting data from 400 participants, this research intriguingly finds that 25 per cent of the research informants have the same-sex preference or sexual experiences with men. Drawing on informants' sexual preferences, the research discovers that homosexual and bisexual students are more active on Facebook than their heterosexual counterparts.

Jaray Singhakowinta's paper, *New Lad: Re-Packaged Masculinity in Men's Lifestyle Magazines*, studies the representation of *new lad* identity found in UK men's lifestyle magazines. Using Nvivo, the qualitative data analytical software, to analyse focus group interview scripts of magazine readers, this paper contends that *new lad*'s successful displacement of the softer *new man* identity highlights the magazine readers' critical opinions against feminism emphasising gender essentialism.

Manatchai Amponpeerapan's article, *Perception of University Students and Lecturers toward the Use of British and American Literature for EFL Development*, examines EFL students and lecturers' beliefs toward literary reading, and studies the benefits of using such literary materials for EFL development. Drawing on data collected from questionnaire surveys and interviews, this research reveals that both EFL lecturers and students regard reading literary texts as "an important tool in improving English language, foreign cultural knowledge and 'department-exclusive' skills" and also a source of "entertainment".

This issue presents a review of a book offering guidelines and practical advice for researchers embarking upon their research projects. Saksit Saengboon contributes a resourceful review of the book "*Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation (Fourth Edition)*". This book is authored by Sharan B. Merriam and Elizabeth J. Tisdell (2016).

Last but not least, I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to all our contributors for enriching *NIDA Journal of Language and Communication*.

Jaray Singhakowinta, PhD
Editor in Chief

Contents

Ethical Guidelines on Journal Publication

- Authors must ensure that their submission is original, fully referenced and that all authors are represented accurately.
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- Authors must identify any third party material that they intend to include in their article, and obtain written permission for re-use in each instance from the relevant copyright holders.
- Authors failing to comply with the above suggestions risk accusations of plagiarism and can result in retraction of published articles.

From Communitarianism to Dialogue: Building Better Community Relationships

Michael L. Kent, Adam J. Saffer, Erich J. Sommerfeldt

Abstract

Community has long been a central analytic concept in public relations theory and praxis. This article continues the discussion of community building in public relations by arguing that (1) dialogue is an essential component of ethical community building and (2) public relations is uniquely situated within the organizational hierarchy to help build communities through dialogue. Drawing on insights from the communitarian movement, feminism, dialogue, and the social networks concept of *tertius iugens*, this article further develops a dialogic/communitarian model of public relations.

Keyword: community building, communitarian movement, dialogue, social networks, public relations

บทคัดย่อ

เนื่องจากประชาคมเป็นหนึ่งในแนวคิดหลักในการวิเคราะห์การประชาสัมพันธ์ในทั้งภาคทฤษฎีและปฏิบัติ ดังนั้นบทความวิชาการนี้จึงเสนอประเด็นเรื่องการสร้างประชาคม (Community building) ในการประชาสัมพันธ์ โดยระบุว่า (1) การสนทนาโต้ตอบ (Dialogue) เป็นองค์ประกอบสำคัญในการสร้างประชาคมที่ถูกต้องตามหลักจรรยาบรรณ และ (2) การประชาสัมพันธ์ได้ถูกวางตำแหน่งพิเศษภายในโครงสร้างตามช่วงชั้นขององค์การ (Organizational hierarchy) ที่เอื้อให้เกิดการสร้างชุมชนผ่านการมีปฏิสันฐาน นอกจากนี้ได้มีการนำมุมมองต่างๆ ได้แก่ ความเคลื่อนไหวแบบผลประโยชน์ประชาคมนิยม (Communitarian move ment) สตรีนิยม (Feminism) การสนทนาโต้ตอบ (Dialogue) และเครือข่ายสังคมที่ยอมให้มีบุคคลที่สามเข้ามาเสริมประโยชน์แก่อีกสองฝ่ายได้ (Social networks concept of *tertius iugens*) มาใช้ในการสร้างแบบจำลองแนวการสนทนาโต้ตอบ/ผลประโยชน์ประชาคมนิยมเพื่อการประชาสัมพันธ์
(Dialogic/communitarian model of public relations)

คำสำคัญ การสร้างประชาคม ความเคลื่อนไหวแบบผลประโยชน์ประชาคมนิยม การสนทนาโต้ตอบ เครือข่ายสังคม การประชาสัมพันธ์

Introduction

> *"[W]e have some duties that lay moral claim on us for which we derive no immediate benefit or even long-term payoff" (Etzioni, 1993, p. 10).*

Most people have never given much thought to how to build a community. We live in communities, just like we live in our houses, but rarely do we consider how our communities are formed. "Genuine community"—as opposed to what might pass for community online—has certain defining characteristics: proximity, longevity, responsibilities, and relationships. More importantly, community relationships are enduring, not ephemeral. An individual is not a member of a community because of where she or he lives. Rather, membership is determined by participation in the common life of the community (Hallahan, 2004). As Etzioni (1993) has suggested,

> When the term community is used, the first notion that typically comes to mind is a place in which people know and care about one another—the kind of place in which people do not merely ask "How are you?" as a formality but care about the answer. This we-ness . . . is indeed part of its essence. (p. 31)

But the question still remains, how is community built? Philosophers and scholars have described the features of communities, but how does one create community?

Our objective with this essay is to take up this notion of community as a "conceptual centerpiece" of public relations theory and praxis (Hallahan, 2004). A small, but vibrant, strain of research has interrogated the role of public relations in community building, advancing more socially harmonious frameworks for public relations theory and practice (e.g., Heath, 2006; Kruckeberg & Stark, 1988; Sommerfeldt, 2013a; Taylor, 2011; Valentini, Kruckeberg, & Starck, 2012). This essay argues that dialogue can be a part of the ethical foundation of community building within the complex networks of relationships that give structure to communities. Dialogue is based on relationships—and like community, dialogue does not just spontaneously occur. Dialogue and community are synergistic, or consubstantial, to use Burkes (1966) term, and can be part of a larger whole.

Drawing on insights from the communitarian movement (e.g., Etzioni, 1993), feminism, and dialogue, we justify the concept of *tertius iugens* (or the third who joins others) in community building, and further develop the dialogic/communitarian model of public relations in an attempt to foster better community and better relationships. The first section of the essay briefly outlines public relations' normative role in community building and in social harmony theories and approaches. The second section takes up a review and critique of communitarian philosophy, including feminist communitarianism. The third section describes the social network concept of *tertius iugens* as a new orientation through which to build community and relationships in public relations. The final section develops a dialogic model of public relations as a tool to enact *tertius iugens* in community building and advance social harmony.

Public Relations and Community Relationships

Scholars have taken great interest in community building as a normative framework for the ethical and socially responsible practice of public relations (e.g., Sommerfeldt, 2013a; Taylor, 2011; Valentini, Kruckeberg, & Starck, 2012). Originally, community building emerged as a topical focus in public relations scholarship as a response to positivistic managerial research that defined public relations as an organizational tool used to influence publics and individuals to the benefit of organizations (Culbertson & Chen, 1997). Kruckeberg and Starck (1988), influenced by the Chicago School and Dewey's (1927) conception of publics, took issue with the disciplines' dominant—and arguably narrow-minded—focus on organizational effectiveness and responded by exploring ways public relations could build communities. Starck and Kruckeberg (2001) argued:

> [P]ublic relations is best defined and practiced as the active attempt to restore and maintain a sense of community . . . lost because of the development of modern means of communication/transportation . . . Community building can be proactively encouraged and nurtured by corporations with the guidance and primary leadership of these organizations' public relations practitioners. (pp. 58–59)

Stark and Kruckeberg (2001), among others, argued that public relations practitioners can nudge organizations toward engaging in activities that foster a sense of community. Indeed, Sommerfeldt (2013) argued that public relations scholars and practitioners should rethink public relations as a community building function that enables a more participative democracy.

However, some have questioned whether public relations, as a function considerably influenced by Western, neo-liberal value systems, can actually contribute to the advancement of social harmony. Postmodernists have accused applied communication fields like public relations of helping maintain social systems of domination and competition (Holtzhausen, 2012). Moloney (2006) similarly asserted that public relations "reflects and generates social competition, not harmony" (p. 14). Moloney characterizes public relations as an organizational function that fosters arguments among competing ideas and interests in the marketplace—a notion echoed by many, including Heath (2000) who described public relations as part of the ongoing "wrangle in the marketplace" (p. 75).

A competitive metaphor for public relations' existence is also prevalent throughout the public relations literature. Take the organization–public relationship literature, wherein relationships are described as providing organizations with a "competitive advantage" over others (Bruning, DeMiglio, & Embry, 2006, p. 38; also, Ni, 2006, p. 276). Or, in the corporate social responsibility literature, for instance, in which organizations are obliged to comply with the demands of a competitive environment to achieve "organizational survival" (Atakan-Duman & Ozdora-Aksak, 2014, p. 862).

For Marsh (2012, 2013), the subtle (sometimes explicit) references, assumptions, and metaphors of competition found throughout the public relations scholarship run parallel to claims in Darwin's (1998/1871) evolutionary theory, which, of course, argued that organisms must compete for survival in a crowded and dangerous ecosystem. Marsh's inquiries into the parallels between Darwin's evolutionary theory and existing public relations theories introduces the writings of Peter Kropotkin (1989/1902), who provided a stark contrast to Darwin's popular evolutionary theory by arguing that humans are more likely to survive through cooperation, not competition. As Marsh (2012) noted:

> Within public relations scholarship, challenges to social harmony frameworks often, consciously or otherwise, evoke natural selection to describe the inevitability of competitive, inharmonious views of relationships . . . If we are to pursue such important injections of evolutionary biology into public relations, we should pursue it fully, casting wide the net to include the belief of Charles Darwin and Peter Kropotkin that, in terms of sustainable human cultures, natural selection favors harmonious, not competitive, instincts and relationships. Indeed, a broader application of evolutionary biology within public relations research would seem to offer a scientific foundation for a goal of social harmony within public relations frameworks. (p. 330)

Marsh eloquently argues that metaphors of mutual aid and social harmony, rather than those of competition must be employed to advance public relations research and praxis. From this perspective, if organizations are to survive and thrive, public relations—as a "boundary spanning" function and organizational representative to stakeholders and publics—must adopt more collaborative and symbiotic approaches to interacting with their environments. Thus, in the pursuit of constructing more socially harmonious frameworks for public relations, we review the philosophy of communitarianism.

A Communitarianism Approach to Community Building

The community building literature in public relations has often drawn on communitarianism philosophy and communitarianism has long had implications in "publics, corporate social responsibility and ethics" (Hallahan, 2004, p. 238; see also Leeper, 1996). Communitarianism took root in public relations scholarship in the 1990s following the compelling articulation of communitarian principles by Amati Etzioni (1988, 1993), one of the founders of the modern "Communitarian Movement." In his 1993 book, *The Spirit of Community: The Reinvention of American Society*, Etzioni outlines the dominant features of communitarianism. According to Etzioni, the communitarian movement:

> . . . is an environmental movement dedicated to the betterment of our moral, social, and political environment . . . And communitarians are dedicated to working with their fellow citizens to bring about the changes in values, habits, and public policies that will allow us to do for society what the environmental movement seeks to do for nature: to safeguard and enhance our lives. (1993, pp. 2–3)

The communitarian emphasis on community arose in direct response to liberalism and libertarianism—rival philosophical traditions that both emphasize the rights and autonomy of the individual, rather than the common good. As Weiss (1993) explains, communitarianism refers to the "rejection of the liberal notion of an isolated self with rights, interests, values, and ends independent of social context" (p. 125). Communitarians thus argue for increased focus on communal responsibilities.

The notion of communities of responsibility—as presented by Etzioni (1993) and other advocates of communitarianism—is appealing and seductive. Critics of communitarianism, however, have accused the philosophy of being "utopian" and unrealistic (Marsh, 2012, 2013). One problem with Etzioni's construction of community, along with many public relations conceptualizations of community (cf. Hallahan, 2004), is that his construction is still a liberal democratic one in that "rational citizens" have the ability to make choices for the good of their communities. In liberal democratic theory, the good of the individual must sometimes take a backseat for the good of the collective—but the willingness to give up individual rights or positions for communal goals is done only when people feel safe in the knowledge that they will not lose their rights, safety, or security, and will continue to participate in public life regardless of losing a particular argument.

But who knows any "rational citizens" anymore? Moreover, as Held (1987) pointed out in her critique of Western, liberal-democratic thought, the notion of the individual who can assert rights, enter into contracts with other entities, and vote, is not consistent with the experience of most women and many minorities (1987, p. 124; cf. also, Weiss, 1993, p. 132).

Regardless of such criticisms, we believe that public relations scholarship should not dismiss the social harmony goals advanced by communitarian philosophy simply because there are critiques. Indeed, every theory privileges one position over another. Social harmony is a worthy goal for public relations and can better inform practitioner's roles in building relationships within communities. In the next section, we briefly outline a feminist-communitarianism approach—a perspective that helps to address some of the criticisms of mainstream communitarian philosophy.

A Feminist-Communitarianism Approach to Community Building

Another more liberal form of communitarianism is the feminist branch of the philosophy. As Weiss (1993) explains it: ". . . [non-feminist] communitarians are concerned with the *loss* of 'traditional boundaries,' while feminists are concerned with the *cost* of these boundaries, especially for women" (p. 129, author's emphasis). Although the feminist communitarian recognizes that public space, communal interaction, and social responsibility are important concepts, s/he is not willing to sacrifice individual rights in the process.

A good example might be the way that bribery is accepted in some countries as a necessary part of doing business (e.g., Tsetsura, 2015). Bribery is often called "institutionalized corruption" (14iacc.org/social/tag/bribe), giving it an innocuous slant. The non-feminist communitarian might accept bribery as a necessary part of doing business, as long as no one is harmed and the larger community is served in the process. While the feminist communitarian might ask "who benefits from such practices and what happens to the poor or disadvantaged who cannot afford to pay extra for government services or to avoid police harassment?" We, of course, know the answer to this question. Feminist communitarianism clearly seems to be a step beyond the "good of the *many*" outweighing "the good of the *few*" approach seen in mainstream communitarianism—especially when the few are often minorities, women and others in society without power or resources, and the "few" are often "quite a few" who go unseen by the privileged and elites.

Communitarian Obstacles to Overcome

We believe that communitarianism holds significant promise to position dialogue as an ethical communication model within a more socially harmonious framework of public relations. That said, the community building literature in public relations, as well as communitarianism philosophy itself, has significant weaknesses that we believe can be corrected by adding the notion of *tertius iungens* to the public relations scholarship.

First, we are faced with the problem that the "community"—arguably once a fairly identifiable and concrete construct— no longer exists in its previous form

(Hallahan, 2004). We now live in a time where communities can transcend geographic spaces and time. Individuals can now "belong" to communities online or enact relationships with their immediate or extended communities through mediated, rather than interpersonal, forms. Citizens, and the communities to which they belong, are now extremely mobile. Moreover, when we take a feminist approach to the definition of community, we are faced with the question of who gets to decide which people belong in the community? Who gets to be in the community and who is excluded? We believe that a network metaphor can work to address some of the deficiencies in the prior definitions of community.

A second flaw we see in existing communitarian models is the assumption that individual(s) make rational choices for the good of the collective. Communitarianism disregards the liberal belief of individual rights, values, and self-determination. Although the feminist communitarian model is more compelling and perhaps more "humane" than liberal communitarianism, it ultimately rests on choices being made on behalf of others and individuals sacrificing their autonomy and personal gain. The question then becomes: how do we account for individual autonomy while also considering the collective's interests?

Social capital theorists suggest that, in certain conditions, individuals' autonomy and the collective good can coincide. As Coleman (1988) explained, in well-connected, dense networks (or communities), members can impose sanctions on members for not behaving in a manner that advances the collective good. For example, when an individual belongs to a dense network, other members know the individual and can monitor his/her behavior. Should the person behave negatively, members can collectively impose sanctions to correct the individual's behaviors or set a social norm within the network (or community).

Third, the issue of building community relationships is complex, yet public relations scholarship is primarily organization-centric and often focuses on the characteristics of an organization's dyadic relationship (cf. Sommerfeldt & Kent, 2015). While organizations are mentioned in the literature as members of communities, researchers have focused their attention on organizations, rather than the community and relationships (cf., Kent, 2010). Such a narrow focus does not adequately account for the complexity of relationships that exist within a community (Heath, 2013; Kent, Sommerfeldt, & Saffer, 2015). Community members have relationships with many other community members that may include other organizations, activist groups, and individuals. To account for the complexities of community building and turn the focus toward the multitude of community *relationships*, we introduce the social network perspective in the next section.

A Social Network Perspective on Community Relationships

Social network theories, and the associated network methods, have recently been introduced to the public relations literature as an approach that has the ability to holistically examine relationships (Yang & Taylor, 2015). Social network perspectives assume that social relations are the building blocks of society (van Dijk, 2012). A network is formed by relationships among network members, which may include individuals, groups, or organizations (Marin & Wellman, 2011). Generally speaking, network theories and methods study three general elements: (1) identifying the relationships among individuals, groups, organizations and communities; (2) explaining how relationships influence individuals, groups, organizations and communities; (3) describing how individuals, groups, organizations and communities construct, sustain and alter their networks (Knoke & Yang, 2008).

There are three primary insights from social network theory that may assist in expanding a dialogic, communitarian framework for community building in public relations. First, network perspectives take a contrary position to the organization-centric and dyadic focus of the organization–public research. Network theories recognize that all actors are interconnected and influenced those connections. By focusing on the multitude of relationships in community networks, we can see the opportunities and tensions that exist among networks of relationships. Individuals and organizations do not have one relationship with one individual or public at a time (Heath, 2013). For our purposes here, network perspectives can help to answer the question of what is a community and who can be in a community through the concepts of structural holes and *tertius iungens*.

Structural holes exist in networks when there are gaps or a lack of relationships among network members. The network members who connect the otherwise unconnected members in a network are called brokers (Burt, 1992). Burt (1992, 2001) characterized brokers as powerful actors within a network who have relationships and access to non-redundant information and resources. According to Burt (1992), brokers are powerful because of their ability to filter and color the flow of information and resources among unconnected groups. The concept of brokerage in structural holes theory comes from *tertius gauden*—the Latin term for the “third who benefits.” Burt (1992) explained that a network broker is the *tertius* who benefits by brokering the information and resources between two unconnected groups. The theory assumes a competitive environment with limited resources and information, much like has been described of Darwinian organizational thinking.

Organizations can be a *tertius* when engaging in community relations by brokering relationships between groups within the community. In theory, an organization can “benefit” (i.e. be the *tertius gauden*) when it is able to broker the information or communication among other network members. Some public relations researchers have recommended that organizations strategically position themselves as brokers within networks to better meet their goals (Sommerfeldt, 2013b; Taylor & Doerfel, 2005).

Yet, structural holes theory and the notion of *tertius gaudens* run counter to social harmony frameworks and implicitly adopt a competitive metaphor for public relations. Recently, Kent et al. (2015) illustrated how the assumptions within structural holes theory are antithetical to contemporary public relations values. The scholars' critique also introduced the network term *tertius iugens* as an orientation that aligns with public relations values.

Tertius Iugens and Community Building

Tertius iungens, like *tertius gauden,* recognizes that structural holes occur in networks and that influence arises when a member is able to connect otherwise unconnected members of a network. However, *tertius iugens* challenges the assumptions and orientations embedded in structural holes theory. First, *tertius iungens* approaches networks with a cooperative and collaborative orientation instead of a competitive orientation (Obstfeld, 2005). This aligns with other social harmony frameworks as well with a community model of public relations. Second, *tertius iungens* recasts the broker role as an arbiter. Instead of being the third who benefits by separating others—*tertius iungens* is a third who benefits the network by joining others and acting as an arbiter. As Garriga (2009) explained, "'iungo' implies join, unite or connect. The *tertius iungens* strategy implies the uniting of disconnected parties" (p. 633). We believe that *tertius iungens,* through its orientation toward cooperation, provides an ethical framework for discussing public relations roles in community building.

A Dialogic Approach to Community Relationship Building

In the previous sections we outlined communitarian philosophy, its potential benefits for a community-oriented framework of public relations, weaknesses of a communitarian orientation for public relations, and how network perspectives help to address those shortcomings. However, missing from this discussion is a communication framework for enacting community building, communitarianism and *tertius iungens*. Like others, we believe dialogue can serve a key role in community building (cf. Anderson, Cissna, & Arnett, 1994; Buber, 1970; Freire, 1970; Kent & Taylor, 2002). Through dialogue, organizations, activist groups, and individuals can engage in ethical communication that builds mutually beneficial relationships across communities and networks.

First and foremost, dialogue is concerned with the confirmation and acknowledgement of others, and the attempt to treat others with "unconditional positive regard" (Rogers, 1994). As Kent and Taylor (2002) explained:

> Dialogue as an orientation includes five features: *mutuality*, or the recognition of . . . relationships; *propinquity*, or the temporality and spontaneity of

> interactions . . . ; *empathy*, or the supportiveness and confirmation of . . . goals and interests; *risk*, or the willingness to interact with individuals . . . on their own terms; and finally, *commitment*, or the extent to which an [individual] . . . gives [him/herself] . . . over to dialogue, interpretation, and understanding. (pp. 24–25)

Because genuine dialogue is comprised by the above principles, dialogue is not akin to mere conversation or debate. Dialogue is a communicative orientation that requires participants to relinquish control over the outcomes of communication, and create structures and rules to facilitate open and supportive interactions.

The dialogic approach is considered by many scholars and professionals to be an especially ethical approach to interactions with others and for creating mutually beneficial and rewarding solutions to problems. However, dialogue has some drawbacks and limitations. First, engaging in dialogue is time consuming for members and requires a commitment to "continue the conversation." Second, dialogue requires the training of participants in the rules of the conversational exchange, what counts as a turn, and when the rules themselves can be questioned. Third, dialogue must *not* be used to manipulate others or to create individual gains rather than collective benefits.

If we envision public relations as an organizational function that enacts *tertius iungens* (the third who joins) it becomes apparent that dialogue can be the communicative means through which public relations can fulfill the promise of the "iungo." Dialogue is an orientation to others. Dialogue privileges mutual understanding, engagement, and respect. We believe these elements to be the communicative building blocks of efficacious communities. Recognizing that many people in a network may not know one another, public relations practitioners can use their positions in resource-rich and well-connected organizations to bring together disparate parts of a network and facilitate a dialogue among them. Indeed, organizations can serve as arbiters of such dialogues, bringing together dissimilar parts of a network, thereby facilitating the creation of the "cross-cutting ties" that are necessary for social capital to form and societies to thrive (Sommerfeldt, 2013a).

There is *potential* to create community through dialogic communication; it is not a given. Engaging in genuine dialogue that works to build genuine, long-lasting communities requires constant vigilance. As Anderson, Cissna, and Arnett (1994) explain:

> Human dialogue does not just happen, as if sunshine suddenly replaces a thunderstorm. But neither can dialogue be planned, pronounced, or willed. Where we find dialogue, we find people who are open to it . . . . Dialogue is a dimension of communication quality that keeps communicators more focused on mutuality and relationship than on self-interest, more concerned with discovering than disclosing, more interested in access than in domination. (p. 2)

Dialogue can work to facilitate the communitarian goals of community building and privileging the "greater good" while still respecting the rights and interest of individuals. But only when public relations practitioners discard competitive metaphors and instead adopt collaboration and mutual aid as their goal can genuine dialogue between organizations and their publics become possible.

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Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR): An Anecdotal Observation

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Abstract

An increasing number of environmentalists are becoming more concerned about global warming, air/water/etc. pollution, imbalanced earth systems, to mention a few issues, and encouraging more public awareness and participation. Climate change impacts have become issues for all, not only for ecologists, as previously. At this critical time, many foreign language teachers not only impart vocational wisdom and knowledge on a daily basis, but have been adding more values to their classroom experience. This observatory study is thus aimed at examining oral presentation activities undertaken in an intensive English course at a leading postgraduate school in Thailand. It represents the endeavor of two instructors to inculcate corporate social responsibility (CSR) in their Master of Business Administration (MBA) students; the students' attitudes towards CSR and their oral presentations were observed, analyzed, and compared. The data was elicited from two sources: oral presentations and a questionnaire. (The frequency CSR was mentioned by 154 students in their oral presentations was tallied and converted into percentage.) Despite explicit pedagogy on CSR, only 64.7% stated the importance of CSR after learning about it. This number is deemed high when being revealed alone, but a striking contrast is uncovered when it is compared to the high percentage of respondents who overwhelmingly expressed appreciation for the nature of CSR in the questionnaire—99.35%. An obvious contradiction between theory and practice was revealed. Attitude and knowledge may not be good indicators of standard practices.

Keywords: Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR), MBA students, presentation skills, Thailand

บทคัดย่อ

นักอนุรักษ์สิ่งแวดล้อมจำนวนมากรู้สึกวิตกกังวลเกี่ยวกับปัญหาสภาวะแวดล้อม เช่นโลกร้อน มลพิษทางน้ำ อากาศ และอื่น ๆ เพิ่มขึ้นมากเรื่อย ๆ เขาเหล่านี้กระตุ้นเตือนให้ผู้คนตระหนักถึงปัญหาต่าง ๆ และเข้ามามีส่วนร่วมในการแก้ไขมากขึ้น ปัญหาสภาวะอากาศที่เปลี่ยนแปลงเป็นประเด็นที่ทุกแวดวงกล่าวถึงไม่เฉพาะ

แต่นักนิเวศวิทยาอย่างแต่ก่อน ผู้สอนภาษาต่างประเทศมากมายในปัจจุบันมิได้มุ่งแต่จะถ่ายทอดความรู้และทักษะด้านภาษาเท่านั้น แต่ยังได้แฝงประเด็นปัญหาค่านิยมต่างๆ ไว้ในบทเรียนเพิ่มมากขึ้นด้วย งานวิจัยชิ้นนี้จึงมุ่งหมายที่สังเกตพฤติกรรมและทัศนคติของนักศึกษาบริหารธุรกิจมหาบัณฑิตของสถาบันชั้นนำแห่งหนึ่งในประเทศไทย โดยเน้นเรื่องความรับผิดชอบขององค์กรต่อสังคม (CSR) ของนักศึกษาจำนวน 154 คน ได้มีการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูลจากการนำเสนองานในห้องเรียนและแบบสอบถาม ข้อมูลได้รับการทอนเป็นร้อยละ แม้จะมีการเน้นย้ำเรื่อง ความรับผิดชอบขององค์กรต่อสังคม (CSR) ในชั้นเรียนอย่างต่อเนื่อง เมื่อมีการนำเสนอด้วยวาจา ปรากฏว่ามีนักศึกษาเพียงร้อยละ 64.7 เท่านั้นที่กล่าวถึงประเด็นนี้ในการนำเสนอ จำนวนดังกล่าวดูเหมือนสูง แต่เมื่อเทียบกับข้อมูลที่ได้จากแบบสอบถามแล้วต้องสื่อว่าต่ำ ข้อมูลจากแบบสอบถามสรุปได้ว่ามีผู้เรียนถึงร้อยละ 99.35 ตอบว่าให้ความสนใจเรื่องสภาวะแวดล้อมอันเป็นความรับผิดชอบต่อสังคม อันแสดงให้เห็นความขัดแย้งกันอย่างชัดเจนระหว่างทฤษฎีและการปฏิบัติ ทัศนคติและความรู้อาจจะไม่ใช่เครื่องบ่งชี้ที่ดีของการปฏิบัติตามมาตรฐานที่กำหนด

คำสำคัญ: ความรับผิดชอบขององค์กรต่อสังคม (CSR), นักศึกษาบริหารธุรกิจมหาบัณฑิต, ทักษะการนำเสนอ, ประเทศไทย

Introduction

Erratic climate has become a dire predicament for all. Countless examples of climate change impact can be subsumed under three broad categories: (1) severe climate and weather extremes, (2) altered ecosystems and habitats, and (3) risks to human health and society (Environmental Defense Fund, 2015). To date, many countries—China, Nepal, India, the United States, Thailand, and Japan—have suffered natural disasters. Heavier snow and unpredicted tornadoes in the United Sates as well as tsunami in Japan and along the west coast of Thailand can also best exemplify such climatic extremes. Likewise, the most recent earthquake on Kyushu Island in the south of Japan, on April 2016, as well as the Aso volcanic eruption and land slide prediction led to many instances of injury and death. In Thailand, improper agricultural zones also led to mega flooding, soil erosion, and land slide all over the country.

This year, Thailand has been combating drought and all kinds of pollution. Environment-related causes include climate change, economic growth, an increase in population, and national unbalanced development. These bases altogether made natural resources and the environment in Thailand prone to further depletion and deterioration. The Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board (2013) thus put guidelines into the Eleventh National Economic and Social Development Plan B.E. 2555–2559 (A.D. 2012–2016) to promote “coexistence of industries with communities" (p. 120). The insight into advantages of eco-industrial development and the idea of corporate social responsibility (CSR) must be strongly developed and fully shared among the local, government and private sectors (Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board, 2013). In other words, everyone should cooperative on environmental issues! Every sector—be it public, private, governmental, agricultural, political, educational, etc.—should assume complete responsibility for their own part. As educational agents, the co-authors accordingly present a recommendation for the whole population, even if not all 100%, to collaborate in such task.

Hence, the present study investigates how CSR might be instilled in young adult learners. While their course content reflects the two instructors' pedagogical methods, it also reveals how students responded to the knowledge they gained. Their attitudes towards green issues were deliberately explored and, surprisingly, were found contradictory to the value given to CSR in their presentations.

Learning Language and Beyond

Conventional wisdom often misrepresents that the language classroom is a place where only language is taught. Consequently, some language teachers will emphasize only their students' language skill proficiency. Indeed, textbooks containing only topics pertaining to daily activities such as getting to know people, shopping, and ordering food, etc. are widely found. With such special prominence, some adult learners could not help feeling that they were being treated like children. In contrast, as contemporary world citizens become more keenly aware of environmental and social issues, language textbooks which cover topics such as the environment, gender equality, culture, etc. can be found on bookstore shelves. By embracing these topics, acceptance has grown that language can be taught around them. Being a place where language skills are taught, classrooms can simultaneously be the place where values are instilled into students. Over the years, scholars and practitioners of second language pedagogy have advocated that the content of language textbooks do not have to deal only with daily activities but can also embrace topics which are of current social concern. Many salient research studies on additional values discernable within the English classroom will be presented.

Believing that the English classroom should not concentrate only on language, Hurlbert and Totten (1992) account that the English classroom should be more than a place where students learn the literacies of work or the critical, and rhetorical skills of research. To these two scholars and many other teachers, "the English classroom is a good place for students and teachers to explore, through whole language philosophies and pedagogies, in cooperative and socially responsible ways, the issues and conditions affecting this time and the public lives we lead in it" (Hurlbert & Totten, 1992, p. 2). William-Toussaint (2013) asserted that teachers are obviously role models for their students. What they do their students will pattern and will accordingly guide their students' thoughts, actions, and future. When teachers realize such implications, their classroom practice will be further enriched, student achievement will be extraordinary, and productive communities will be established. If teachers create "a harmonious classroom environment," students can correspondingly build up "a harmonious working environment" where mutual growth and productivity can emerge, exist, and sustain (William-Toussaint, 2013, p. 38).

In her study on how values can be incorporated into the English lesson, Contreras (2007) highlights that language forms can be deployed to contribute to the fostering of values in a given society when they are taught within a learner-centered curriculum approach and a cross-curriculum view. Bringing values into her English class in Colombia, Contreras (2007) indicates that the content of the lesson becomes relevant to everyday life (p. 12). Simon, Howe, and Kirschenbaum (1995), working on the importance of class content, affirm that "learners and adults face problems and decisions in everyday life; students ponder over what and how to think, believe, behave. So often what goes on in the classroom is irrelevant and remote from the real things that are going on in students' lives. This states a reason why teachers need to find the way to connect their classes to their students' interests" (p. 25). As a result, according to Contreras (2007), the role of the teacher should be that of a facilitator who leads the students to the construction of that atmosphere by means of teaching and learning strategies that make them feel that the class is about them.

Fessler and Ungaretti (1994) contend that teachers—as curriculum developers—have to encompass their experiences and expertise at different settings such as school, home, and society at large. They may need to create and include new materials for their classroom as well as the lesson contents. They have to engage themselves in social inquiry which can direct and develop their curriculum to cope with social changes and new requirements (Fessler & Ungaretti, 1994). For instance, the current issue of the environment requires teachers to include environmental topics to raise their students' awareness thereof. With such leadership activities, teachers should incorporate certain needs of the society into their teaching (Fessler & Ungaretti, 1994).

Furthermore, exploring the contributions of alternative views of literacy as social practice to health literacy research, Santos, Handley, Omark, and Schillinger (2014) examine teacher survey data and learner outcomes data collected as part of a multiyear collaboration involving the California Diabetes Program, university researchers, and adult ESL teachers. In this study, Santos et al. (2014) report success in incorporating health care content in an ESL classroom. In this study, the majority of learners reported they had learned, together with language skills, about diabetes risk factors and prevention strategies, which affirmed existent healthy behaviors or prompted revision of unhealthy ones. Santos et al. see that an ESL context can facilitate health care literacy. They conclude, "This study represents a first step in research efforts to account more fully for the mechanisms by which social interaction and social support facilitate health literacy outcomes in ESL contexts, which should complement what is already known about the development of health literacy as functional skill" (p. 89).

Focusing on teachers' preferences, Özbaşa and Güryay (2014) aim at investigating the perception of English language teachers regarding integrated social studies and English lessons via global education. They find that most teachers in their survey are willing to integrate social studies and English. The social topics mentioned in their survey are, for example, earthquakes, floods, poverty, and AIDS (p. 1132). Similarly, Poupore (2014) investigates the influence of content-related conditions on adult second language learners' task motivation. In this survey, Poupore finds that content associated with immediate personal life themes such as personal growth, human relationships, and life challenges is perceived to be more intrinsically interesting than that associated with more remote and abstract topics such as those related to global issues and current affairs. Consequently, incorporating life themes into adult-based courses, especially through story-based texts, may act as an important springboard for active motivational engagement during task-based interaction (p. 69).

Cates (cited in Nkwetisama, 2011, p. 110) insists that English teaching is successful only not only when students become fluent, but also when they become aware of world problems. Sharing Cates' idea, Nkwetisama (2011) states that language classrooms can be used to implant social ideas, specifically environmental issues, in students. Nkwetisama indicates that "environmental education is necessary for the EFL/ESL instructor because successful language learning equally involves a successful combination of the micro and macro skills acquired into appropriate expressions of communication; and, environmental issues are rich subject matters of communication" (p. 110).

Focusing also on environmental issues, Tang (2009) proposes that the incorporation of environmental education into the EFL/ESL classroom is to raise students' awareness of global environmental crises. According to Tang (2009), knowledge of environmental protection is at the core of environmental education and should be done with any age group, with any linguistic rules and language specifics like vocabulary, grammatical rules, syntax, semantics and discourse of the target language. Thus, teaching English as a second or foreign language can emphasize the language skills and environmental issues in the school context in order to raise awareness about global issues like environmental degradation.

Connections between English pedagogy and the environment are not new. Tracing back into the 1990s, books on English learning with a focal point on the nature, e.g., *Focus on the Environment* by Susan Stempleski (1993), are easily found. Each pack contains a book and accompanying DVD. The book contents comprise topics such as plants, animal habitats, air, land, water, energy, resources, and recycling. At the end of the book, some ideas and applications are offered for further investigation and practice. Moreover, the ecological issue may be considered as a concept or even a dimension of life and work. Various activities can be used to encourage learners to think more deeply about business practices in conjunction with ecological involvement. Introducing specific content like the environment into an English classroom for MBA students, Frendo (2005) thus suggests pertinent presentation activities. Each presentation includes the presenters' attitudes, awareness, and experience. The audience will enjoy the issue raised, the solutions, and advantages of particular solutions.

Methodology

Research Design

As 190 was considered too large a number of students for effective classroom management, two sections were created, comprising 100 students for section 1 and 90 students for section 2. Within each section, team groups of 10–11 students were formed, making nine groups in section 1 and eight groups in section 2. Since the participants in the current study belong to the younger generations of the country who will become the key business people in the future, it was felt that an emphasis on corporate social responsibility (CSR) should be instilled from the very beginning of the program.

At the initial stage (before the class really started), the co-authors planned to conduct a competitive experiment between the two sections. To be exact, the second section will learn CSR right from the start of the very first class while the first one will not. Then the results from the control and experiment sections will then be compared. However, in the first week, there was some confusion and 30 students from the first section joined the second group. Thus, the initial plan design had to be cancelled. To adjust the design, the co-researchers determined to look into the pre- and post- performance tests for attendance at the CSR lessons. In detail, that meant for the first presentation, CSR was not mentioned at all. The presentation titles were also chosen by each particular group. After that, CSR was taught to both groups. The number of times CSR was mentioned in the first and second presentations would then be compared and contrasted, uncovering the subsequent similarities or differences, as the case may be.

The Nature of an Intensive English Course at a Postgraduate School

The Intensive English Course is a non-credit course lasting 30 hours. The class meets once a week on Sundays for 6 hours per day (from 9:00 to 16:00 hours), over a total of 5 weeks. The course is regularly provided at an outstanding postgraduate institute in Bangkok and is primarily aimed to prepare MBA students for reading textbooks, writing reports, and presenting projects, most of which are in English. Because the global environment has become a more and more critical issue, calling for more attention from the business sector, the course puts more emphasis on this key topic. The particular course under investigation ran from November 23 to December 20, 2014.

Throughout the program, students read *English for Business Studies: A course for business studies and economics student, Student's Book* (3rd Ed., 2010). The book contains concepts and practices relating to business careers, production, products and product quality, marketing, logistics, advertising and CSR, among many others. Moreover, as the course period is relatively short, the two instructors usually cover no more than 10 units. The presentation topics evolve around these business-related issues, but vary from one batch to another. For this batch, students were asked to give presentations twice: in the second and fifth weeks. For the first presentation (November 29, 2014), each group was directed to select their own company - before the program gets underway in August, students are to familiarize themselves with leading local companies in Thailand, such as Mc Donald's, the Nation Group, S&P, or MK Restaurant. For the second presentation (December 20, 2014), topics were assigned to each group by way of a draw. To be specific, each group's representative chose a topic by taking a sealed envelope without being able to see what was written inside.

Questionnaire

In the current study, both authors acted as the participatory co-researchers as they were the two instructors of the course. The co-authors' main purpose of placing paramount importance onto environmental issues was to encourage the MBA students who will work in the business to think greener. All 190 students were given the choice of completing the questionnaire in either Thai or English. In it they were asked to answer whether or not they realized the importance of the environment. The response to each option (yes/no) was then converted into a percentage of the total. An open-ended question for free expression of opinion was also provided for each student's open articulation. Questionnaires were distributed in the fifth week, which was the last day of class.

Participants

The group of MBA students was selected to be the subjects in this study because they are considered to be alert to new challenges, such as online learning and the environment (Leong & Koh, 2012) Examining the attitudes towards education or learning among the lecturers of higher education in 5 schools, including Schools of Business, Engineering, Computing & Information Technology, a Language Centre, and a Centre of Excellence for Pre-University Studies, Leong and Koh (2012) found that School of Business people were more active in learning than those from other schools. Looking into the attitude of MBA students towards the environment was thus deemed to be relevant and appropriate to this study.

The 190 questionnaires were distributed, and 154 (male: 62; female: 92) were filled out and returned. The response rate was 81%, which was deemed to be at a high level.

Table 3.1 Number and gender of MBA respondents of sections one and two

Section	No. of Students		Total
	Male	Female	
1	27	53	80
2	35	39	74
Total	62	92	154

The subjects ranged in age from 23 to 38 years. The average age was 26.7. The mode of this list was both 25 and 26 years. Their undergraduate study background included the fields of accounting, anthropology, aviation management, brand communication, business administration, business English, economics, engineering, English, finance, law, logistics management, marketing, mass communication, nursing, pharmacy, physical therapy, political science, production management, sociology & humanity, science and statistics. Before enrolling in this intensive course, all the students had passed a written examination and an interview at the famous postgraduate institute where this research was conducted. It was thus anticipated that the participants would be equipped with a medium to high degree of English proficiency.

Findings & Discussion

The findings came from two sources: in-class presentation activities and questionnaires. Each source offered the following results.

Presentation Activity

This portion illustrates the number of times CSR was mentioned during the presentations of each group. As previously indicated, the presentation activity was assigned to students for the second and the fifth weeks. To familiarize students with leading local businesses, they were assigned to select a company they preferred or were most interested in and present this company to the class. Before the first presentation, students were not educated about CSR at all.

Table 4.1 Number of CSR mentions in the first and second presentations of section 1

Group	1st Presentation Title	CSR Mention	2nd Presentation Title	CSR Mention
1	MK Restaurant	✓	Siam Macro Plc	-
2	Love Matching	-	Thai Preserved Food Factory Co., Ltd.	-
3	McDonald’s	-	Thai Royal Frozen Food Co., Ltd.	✓
4	MBK	-	Thai President Food Plc	✓

5	Ajinomoto	✓	S&P	-
6	Exxon Mobil	-	Charoen Pokphand Foods Plc	-
7	Guess what? (Government Savings Bank)	-	Thai Beverage Plc	✓
8	Nation Group	-	Taokaenoi	✓
9	BAFS[1]	-	Friendship Co. Ltd.	✓

Table 4.1 clearly outlines that before CSR was taught and highlighted, only 2/9 or 22.22% mentioned it in their presentation. Most groups stated the importance of and analyzed each company in terms of SWOT[2], expenses & revenues, business model, product lines, recruitment/ employment opportunities & fringe benefits, company profile/structure/history/vision/mission, logo, product, locations, 4Ps, slogan, key success factors, etc. After learning about CSR, the percentage of mentions significantly rose from 22.22 to 55.56. Table 4.1 reveals that the knowledge gained raised the students' awareness of CSR. Next, the results of the second section's presentations are presented.

Table 4.2 Number of CSR mentions in the first and second presentations of section 2

Group	1st Presentation Title	CSR Mention	2nd Presentation Title	CSR Mention
1	Google	-	Thai Beverage Plc	✓
2	IKEA on campus	-	Thai President Food Plc	✓
3	Thai Airways	-	Charoen Pokphand Foods Plc	✓
4	Toyota Motor Thailand	✓	Thai Royal Frozen Food Co., Ltd.	-
5	Nok Air	✓	Taokaenoi	-
6	Sri Panwa	✓	Friendship Co. Ltd.	✓
7	McDonald's	-	S&P	✓
8	Google	-	Siam Macro Plc	✓

Similar to the findings displayed in Table 4.1, before CSR was taught, only 3/8 or 37.5% mentioned it in their presentation. Again, similar to the first section's presentations, topics and areas such as product mixes, SWOT, business model, job opportunity & perks, company profile/structure/history/vision/mission, logo, product, locations, 4Ps, slogan, etc. were raised. After perceiving the importance of CSR, the percentage of mentions notably increased from 37.5 to 75. Tables 4.1 and 4.2 reveal that the knowledge gained raised the students' awareness of CSR. Combining the two sections' performance, the awareness of CSR rose from 29.4% to 64.7%.

[1] Bangkok Aviation Fuel Service
[2] SWOT: strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats

It is relevant to mention here that section 2 students presented first in the morning session. The instructor thus allowed some room that some companies might not have CSR information on their websites. As a consequence, students did not include such information in their presentations. Initially, the results of CSR inclusion might not reflect the students' attitudes toward CSR or their recognition of its significance. However, this was not found to be the case later. In the afternoon session, the first section groups presented about the same companies which included CSR. Therefore, it can be inferred that the CSR inclusion truly depended on students' realization of or preference for CSR.

Questionnaire

Here, the results of the questionnaire will be displayed. When asked about the importance of CSR, 153 out of 154 or 99.35% agreed to its importance. Below are some salient reasons that CSR:

- appears to be one of the best ways to compensate for society along with social development
- helps to create positive image for the company and indirect public relations
- becomes vital to social and economic progress
- is a mutual benefit between the company and society
- builds up social relationship—as a giver and taker
- is a way to promote the company and gives more to its customers
- is good for sustainable growth
- passes on good things to others—this is a good deed
- refers to social survival. With social survival, the company can survive as well.
- strengthens the country. Companies, especially the large and successful ones, should think of their prosperity only because they also need public cooperation in return.
- is essential to social and the environment
- enables existent and prospective customers to recognize the brand or the product/service
- etc.

In fact, there was only one respondent who disagreed with CSR, making 0.65%. The reason for this opinion is worth stating. The male student said, "CSR was not as important as the 4Ps. However, it varies from a company to another. For small businesses, CSR is not essential at all. CSR is important to only large businesses." Despite the rare percentile, the student's given reasons were stimulating and direct to the point. In reality, the major target of any business is to make profits. Therefore, in accord with the student's view, for large corporations, image is really important to their prosperity and sustainability. For smaller ones, CSR may not be as essential. This point should be more delved into.

Conclusions, Limitations, & Recommendations

To summarize, this paper successfully achieved its goal to ascertain student levels of CSR awareness before and after taking the lesson introducing this topic. Parallel with the findings of previous studies, a language classroom does not necessarily encompass only grammar and conversation, but input content topics which are meaningful to society and its issues. This paper proposes an idea and the evidence of the research results which were produced through in-class learning activities. This experiment confirms that pedagogy definitely can raise students' awareness to some degree. However, sometimes, consciousness of particular issues, in this case—corporate social responsibility (CSR)—does not essentially lead to real-life practice. In other words, an attitude may be one thing and performance or self-expression may be another. Marketers have found that many times, the results of market research may not reflect or lead to a higher sales volume; e.g., the case of Big Coke. Similarly, positive attitudes towards CSR may not lead to real-life practices. Overall, in spite of the paramount emphasis on CSR, not all groups included the concept in their class presentations. As this study seems to indicate, the students may have recognized the importance of CSR, but they may not have embraced it in their presentations because they thought it not may be of interest to their audience. It is strongly recommended that further research after these students graduate be conducted.

Another significant finding of this paper is that the inclusion of social issues into an English classroom is valuable, but only to a certain degree. Significance seems to emerge when the classroom activities do not focus only correct grammatical use, as it generally does, but encompasses environmental awareness to be instilled in the learners' minds as well. This accords with Özbaşa & Güryay's (2014) endeavor to amalgamate social studies and language lessons via global education. Their English classroom not only embraced the English lesson but also included the social tribulations of modern life. To date, there have not been many studies undertaken in this field, but as the world shrinks, it is anticipated that the extraordinary and potential value of the English language classroom will soon become more evident and lead to greater international production and collaboration.

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Idea Sharing: Facilitating Presentation Skills through Integrated Face-to-Face and Distance Learning, as well as Forum Instruction

Sasithorn Limgomolvilas

Abstract

This paper mainly discusses presentation skill classes for officials and follows an opportunity given to the writer to play a part in classes planned for the Lower Mekong Initiative (LMI) Phase Two, sponsored by the U.S. Embassy and the Ministry of Education in Thailand. Details on how the program and the classes were conducted are discussed, including extensive face-to-face classes, a distance learning course and a forum. In addition, the advantages and disadvantages that the writer encountered and learned from acting as a co-teacher in the face-to-face courses and the forum, and as an instructor in distance learning courses using a webinar are outlined. Experience in co-teaching with the native speakers is also documented.

Keywords: co-teaching, distance learning, forum, integrated instruction, Lower Mekong, online learning, presentation skills, webinar

บทนำ

บทความนี้กล่าวถึงประสบการณ์การสอนทักษะการนำเสนอจากการที่ผู้เขียนได้มีโอกาสเข้าร่วมสอนโครงการการริเริ่มลุ่มแม่น้ำโขงระยะที่สอง ซึ่งเป็นโครงการที่ได้รับการสนับสนุนจากสถานทูตสหรัฐอเมริกาและกระทรวงศึกษาธิการของไทย โครงการนี้มีจุดประสงค์เพื่อพัฒนาทักษะการนำเสนอ แก่ข้าราชการในประเทศแถบลุ่มแม่น้ำโขง โดยมีรายละเอียดของโครงการ ระบบการเรียน เริ่มจากการเรียนต่อหน้า (ในห้องเรียน) การเรียนทางไกล และการจัดสัมมนา รวมไปถึงข้อดี ข้อด้อยในแง่มุมต่างๆ ที่ผู้เขียนได้ประสบและเรียนรู้จากการทำงานเป็นผู้สอนในชั้นเรียนทั้งสามแบบนอกเหนือไปจากนั้นโครงการดังกล่าวได้นำเสนอประสบการณ์การผสานวิธีการสอนทั้งสามรูปแบบเข้าด้วยกัน รวมไปถึงประสบการณ์การสอนร่วมกับเจ้าของภาษา

คำสำคัญ การสอนร่วม การเรียนทางไกล เวที การสอนแบบบูรณาการ แม่โขงล่าง การเรียนออนไลน์ ทักษะการนำเสนอ เว็บบีน่า

Introduction

The Lower Mekong Initiative (LMI) is a training program mainly supported by the U.S. Embassy. The project is aimed to establish an international bond among the Lower Mekong countries: Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar, Thailand and Vietnam. This program foresaw an improvement in the English communication skills for government officials when attending international meetings or conferences. In fact, such skills can lead these countries to negotiate and promote mutual relationships more efficiently among the countries. Phase One of the LMI was developed in 2012 (more information on Phase One can be found from Damrongmanee, 2013). Phase Two began in October 2013 and was completed in May 2014.

The goal of LMI was to equip government officials with effective presentation skills. It was designed to begin with the teaching of presentation skills to potential participants in a classroom situation, called face-to-face instruction. Then, the participants from five countries would continue the course by attending distance-learning classes. After that, the participants who demonstrated definite skill potential were invited to attend the forum and perform a real presentation.

LMI covers six “pillars” of interest: agricultural and food security, connectivity, education, energy security, environment and water, and health. For each pillar, candidates from fields relevant to the pillar are selected to join the face-to-face session. When the intensive course is concluded, the distance learning session follows which provides the participants with the opportunity to learn online with colleagues from the other four countries. At this stage, some participants who have completed both the face-to-face and distant learning courses are chosen, based on their performance, to join the forum in Bangkok. Thailand was chosen as the headquarters for this program as preparation before phase two began here and it was also as the place where the forum would be held for participants to join.

Selecting participants

As the specified goal for the program was to prepare officials with better English presentation skills, the selection was aimed at all government departments. Additionally, some requirements and processes were applied. First, when the program was opened for potential participants, the program coordinator sent out a letter to inform relevant government departments. Officials who could participate in this program would need to be selected firstly by their own department. Once listed, the participants were then called by the senior English language fellow for an interview. This was an important process for determining whether the participants had the potential to attend this intensive course. Conducted only in English, the class required learners to have at least an intermediate level of English proficiency. Not only was the learner's language ability needed, but also their time commitment was required. Some participants that passed the interview could not join the seven-day intensive program due to their tight work schedule. Thus, some potential officials had to forgo this opportunity, resulting in a small class size for some pillars. One final important consideration was whether the participants were planning to give a presentation in the near future. This factor was one of the main program concerns since it was designed to give the participants the opportunity to use these skills in real life. All requirements were taken into account when the selection interviews were conducted.

Face-to-face course

As mentioned above, the purpose of the face-to-face class was to provide the participants with basic presentation skills, which included language and manners, as well as to assist those preparing to give an international presentation in the near future. When thinking about a classroom situation, the picture of a teacher meeting students face-to-face is the image we may perceive. In LMI, however, there was not only one teacher but two or three provided per classroom, since a co-teaching method was applied in this intensive course.

Co-teaching

As defined by Friend, Cook, Hurley-Chamberlain and Shamberger (2010), co-teaching means having two teachers with different specializations, one in general education and the other in a specialized field. This team approach better assists learners, especially those with special needs. In the LMI case though, the program applied this co-teaching strategy to Thai students working in collaborative teamwork with an American teacher and Thai instructors. Although not many favorable studies were found regarding the use of collaboration between native and non-native speakers of English, the provision of more than one teacher to facilitate the classroom instruction can benefit students as an opportunity to recognize and interact with different personalities, teaching styles, and voices (Carless & Walker, 2006).

Apart from co-teaching, the lessons were also developed together through the availability of technology, for example email, Skype, Google Drive, and Dropbox. In addition, dividing roles and responsibilities is essential for successful teaching collaboration (Park, 2014). Once the teachers had agreed on the lesson plans, the schedule was to be discussed to ensure that at least two teachers would be present together in the class in order to retain the co-teaching concept. As seen in Park's (2014) study, one main advantage of co-teaching is that the non-native English teacher can fill in any comprehension gaps because of a lack of English competence. This co-teaching worked in the LMI situation as it provided students with the opportunity to seek advice from both the American teacher, who exemplified the seminar situation with samples and cultural notes, and the Thai teachers, who shared similar perspectives to the students.

Class information

Unlike Phase One (Damrongmanee, 2013) when all of the participants were flown from their countries for a class in Thailand, the classes in LMI Phase Two were conducted in the individual Lower Mekong countries. The U.S. Embassy assigned five native English speakers who were responsible for co-teaching with the teachers in the countries to which they were appointed. In Bangkok, the Chulalongkorn University Language Institute (CULI) was in charge of teaching the Thai participants during a class period of forty hours for each face-to-face pillar. Each American teacher was responsible for designing his or her course and materials with his or her co-teachers.

At first, the teaching plan was to have two instructors per course, an American and a Thai instructor. However, no Thai co-teacher at CULI could meet such a requirement due to their regular work load and because the intensive course's tight time frame stipulated that all needed to be completed within seven days. Therefore, two Thai co-teachers were assigned for each pillar. As a result, a total of three instructors facilitated the class for the whole face-to-face session. The author was given a chance to teach the Connectivity Pillar, which involved five participants, whose work deals with international land transportation, international trade law, highway departments, bridge construction, railway transport, and maritime transport.

The content of the class, as planned collaboratively according to the goals, focused on presentation skills and involved writing bio data, the processes of presenting, the language used in meetings, note-taking strategies, email guidelines, and writing an abstract. After these skills were taught, the participants were required to give an actual presentation regarding their work. This usually concerned a current or future planned project. Because such project presentations could often be quite lengthy, even as long as one hour, the participants were asked to present for only twenty minutes per person, including a five minute question and answer session. Everyone had to listen to the presentation, write comments for his or her peers, and ask at least one relevant question. A review of each presentation from the instructors and their peers was given at the end of the class.

Distance Learning

After the face-to-face class, the students who agreed to participate in the next phase of this integrated instruction undertook the distance-learning (DL) course. Online learning can serve as an access point for students to higher education from wherever they learn (Power & Vaughan, 2010). The aims of the distance learning were to continue the presentation skill course and to give participants an opportunity to communicate with other people who work in similar fields in other countries. Most importantly, the participants would learn, through the projects provided in the course, to be attentive presenters and active listeners by using the language and skills learnt to communicate with the participants from other Lower Mekong countries. Taking the

DL course would allow participants to think critically about a presentation both when they were presenting and also when they were listening, receiving information and asking questions.

Similar to the face-to-face course, the distance learning courses were offered according to the number of pillars. Establishing a DL system for participants was important since learning online through webinar software can be new for many people. First of all, to ensure a realistic schedule for everyone, a questionnaire asking for their preferred details was distributed in the face-to-face class for the participants to fill out. Next, in order to familiarize the Thai participants with distance learning, a sample online class was shown in the face-to-face class. Participants to registered for the online classes, which were held for 4 weeks, had to attend a 90-minute class two times a week, which accounted for a total of 12 hours of online learning.

Setting up a schedule

Before the DL class could begin, it was necessary to arrange the participants' schedule according to the requested timetable. This needed to be very open for the participants. In other words, the class time was selected based mainly on the learners' availability. The participants could choose a time slot beginning from as early as 8 am till as late as 10 pm. What they needed to do was to fill in as many time slots as they could from Monday to Friday. Saturday and Sunday were deselected as LMI Phase One had demonstrated that participants tended not to attend weekend classes.

Apart from grouping the participants according to their preferred schedule, another condition which needed to be taken into account concerned variations according to nationality. The head of distance learning, an American appointed by the U.S. embassy, was designated to manage this grouping process. In every pillar, the head would try to separate those that came from the same country in order to create a variety of nationalities in the online class. A perfectly diverse class included participants from all five countries, even though some may have become acquainted during the face-to-face session.

The number of the online instructors was counted as well as the number of participants registered for each pillar. Between three to five instructors were used throughout the distance learning courses. Except for the head of DL, all of the online instructors were a Thai CULI teacher. Some instructors could teach only one class, while others could carry as many as three classes, depending on their workload and availability.

Programs assisting online learning

Online learning when mixed with technology that successfully aids communication can be a pleasant experience (Power & Vaughan, 2010). Selecting the appropriate program to connect with the participants was a crucial decision to make for LMI. Since many programs were available for online learning and meetings, it was necessary to consider what options a particular program might offer would be the most beneficial to LMI learning. Various programs and their application to online courses were listed; for example, websites, chat rooms, email, webinars, blogs, and discussion boards. Despite the large number of possible programs, comparison and eventual choice were manageable, particularly as program features and most importantly, the LMI goals and purposes, to equip the participants with communication skills that could be used to further their professional development, were taken into account. Reflecting on that, the perfect choice was the webinar.

A webinar, which comes from the two terms "web" and "nar," coined from "seminar," is an interactive seminar program based on the World Wide Web with useful features for meetings such as a live presentation, lecture, or workshop. The user can participate in this real-time program through chatting, video chatting, or file sharing. As our selection was limited to the webinar, only two platforms were in the final list: Adobe Connect and WebEx. Furthermore, part of an instructor's responsibility was to find a tool that provided a best fit for the program's needs and to utilize it (Lamy & Hampel, 2007). Although both the Adobe Connect and WebEx platform websites are webinars, the layout of the two is different. Adobe Connect was arranged as pod-based, while WebEx was tab based. Adobe Connect was the first program employed. The pod, as shown in figure 1, is "the panel that makes up the layout for your meeting rooms." The meeting can be managed by pressing on the pod menu, which provides a choice of sharing, discussion, or collaboration. In this example, discussion was used since the class was talking about a topic that required the users to include Thailand in the response by referring to the note on the screen and typing in some key points.

Figure 1: Pod style of Adobe Connect – Discussion page

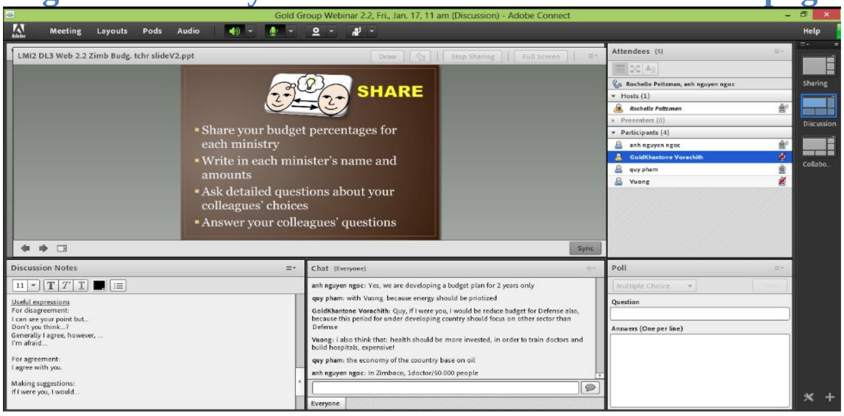
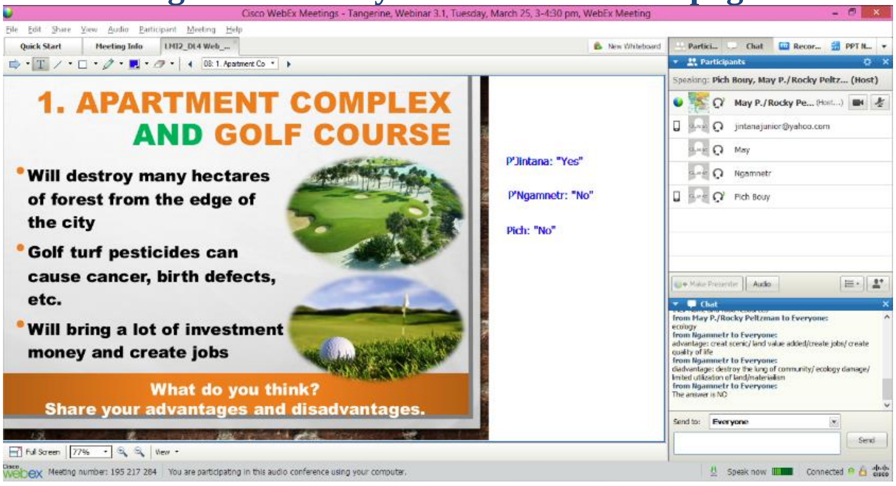
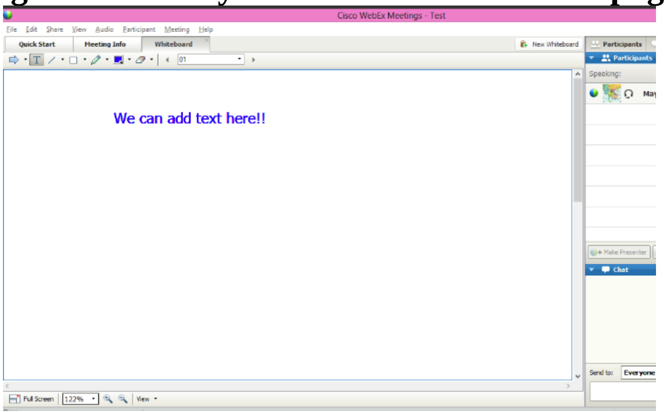


Figure 2: Tab style of WebEx – Slide page



The second program explored next was WebEx, which uses a tab style that allows the user to press on a tab to choose the panel they want. The slide and discussion notes on Adobe Connect are shown on the same page, while on WebEx they are shown on a separate page with the help of a tab, as shown in Figures 2 and 3.

Figure 3: Tab style of WebEx - Discussion page



WebEx was the eventual choice made after exploring Adobe Connect for three distance-learning courses. The different platforms did not affect the final decision. The program switch was made solely because of the quality of the Internet connection when doing video-conferencing. No Internet issue was found when the host, the instructor, was the only one streaming the video. However, WebEx was found to be more stable when the participants were sharing a video. In addition, the voice quality was found to be better on WebEx than Adobe Connect.

Participants

When first assigned, the number of participants in each online-learning class was limited to no more than 8 persons per session, excluding the instructor. A mix of different nationalities was a must because a fundamental aim of the program was to establish a network amongst the countries involved. However, the ratio and the number of participants from each country were never the equal because of two factors.

The first concerned the application process where only the participants who met the English proficiency and time availability requirements were accepted. The second factor was the registration for the online course. Not all of the participants knew how to register for online classes correctly. For example, no participant from Myanmar registered for the second online course as no instruction on online registration was given.

Class information

The online course met twice a week and all participants were required to check the program website and his or her email before attending each 90-minute class because for class preparation and homework submission. Usually, an email was sent to the participant’s registered email address at least three days before the class meeting as a reminder of the schedule together with a note regarding homework assignments. If the participants missed the email, they would not be able to join the session since details concerning access to each webinar session was included in the email. As a learning continuum from the face-to-face classes, the presentation skills were taught by providing sample situations (as homework) for the participants to practice; for example, skills such as introducing themselves, presenting a project or their ideas, and asking and answering questions during a meeting.

Not only did the participants have required preparation work to complete before the class, but the instructor too had to be prepared. For instance, the online instructor was required to log on at least fifteen minutes before the class started. This was done to ensure the participants would not be afraid of staying online if they came to class earlier than the schedule and found no one online. In addition to that, the instructor needed some time to upload the classroom notes and PowerPoint, which could sometimes take at least five minutes. Furthermore, if the participants’ homework presentations were due to be presented, the instructor had to upload these students’ documents. In short, this meant that the instructor needed to allow extra time to download them from the emails and to have them already uploaded on the particular class’s program so that when it was a participant’s turn to present, the presentations could flow smoothly from one participant to the next.

Skills taught and obtained

The interaction in the class could be between the instructor and the participants or a participant and the instructor or amongst everyone. Integrated skill use was obviously applied in this online course. The types of interaction that the participants produced could be either through speaking and/or writing, as long as they read the information and questions on the discussion board and produced a response using their background knowledge and cognitive skills. Although our preferred method of communication was listening and speaking, everyone could choose to type in a response together with or instead of a spoken response. The webinar provides a chat box where participants can type in order to interact with the whole group or privately with the instructor.

Furthermore, the course teacher would act as a facilitator, encouraging the participants to talk and type in their keywords at the same time in order to prevent conveying a wrong message due to the voice quality. Interestingly, typing and talking simultaneously was a skill that some of the participants learned from this online course. Since it was sometimes difficult for a participant to think about which keywords they needed to type in for their peers, the instructor occasionally needed to remind the participants to type in their keywords. On the other hand, some of the participants learned to automatically type in their keywords or sentences when talking about specific issues. As a result, amongst the feedback we obtained from the participants of the DL course was the comment that they learned to type faster.

Apart from using these integrated skills in class, the participants also learned to criticize constructively with the help of the notes provided on the topic. These included notes on issues concerning the language of meetings, such as how to interrupt another speaker and how to ask someone to clarify what he or she had said. As an illustration, one of the assignments before the class asked the participants to decide how a country's budget should be used, how they would allocate it to each department, and what reasons they would use to justify those decisions. The participants presented their ideas to the class, listened to the comments, and answered questions from the instructor and their peers. As a listener, everyone had to come up with at least one question about the presenter's project with a comment on what they considered to be positive or negative about the presentation. The purpose of such interactive procedures was to foster language use and each participant's critical thinking skills during each meeting so that the participants could become more active listeners.

Forum

The forum was an event that allowed the participants to make use of all of skills that had been learned from the face-to-face and DL courses and to experience what it would be like if they attended a seminar as a presenter. Two forums were held to include the selected participants from all six pillars. The first forum, which occurred in March 2014, focused on agricultural and food security, connectivity, and energy security. Approximately three months later, in May 2014, the second forum centered on the environment and water, education, and health. The forum, which lasted three days, was packed with a schedule that led the participants to create their final project, a poster presentation. During its first two days, each forum guided the participants through speed networking, making a poster for a presentation, writing a proposal, using Prezi [3] for a presentation, and Google Drive [4] as a collaborative tool,

[3] Prezi is presentation software that offers attractive displays and tools. More information on Prezi can be obtained from www.prezi.com.

[4] Google Drive is a file storage service offered by Google website. It allows users to save and edit files online and save them on the website.

and working in a team together with international participants from the other pillars. On the third and final day of the forum, a poster presentation was set up in a conference room and each participant had the chance to present and then take a turn walking around the room listening and commenting.

If they had been successful in the initial interview, each applicant received a chance to study in the face-to-face and distance learning course. Nonetheless, when it came to the forum, only some of the participants would proceed with this process. The reasons for deciding which participants would be offered the opportunity to attend the forum depended on their performance in class. This selection process was divided into two parts: the score received from the face-to-face instructor, which made up 70 percent of the total score, and the remaining 30 percent came from the online learning instructor. When the scores were combined, only the top two to four people from amongst ten to twenty participants would be invited to the forum. The notification was sent through email for confirmation. If any top-scoring participants could not make it, the slot would be turned to the next top-scoring participant.

Outcomes

Benefits

While it is accurate to assert that the goal of the LMI is to develop the officials' communication skills, it cannot be denied that the LMI courses were also beneficial to many other people, not only the target group. The direct contribution of holding the program was indeed to the participants and the instructors, however each of the governments and related organizations involved benefitted as well.

Participants

The first advantage that the participants attained from the LMI was improving their communication skills. Through the activities in the project, they learned to listen attentively for details. Then, by switching roles, they became competent in speaking with attention paid to the listeners' understanding. Additionally, they acquired the ability to question and answer with formative ideas. Apart from the effective communication skills that the participants gained, many new connections were established, nationally and internationally. The program provided a chance for the top performers to know each other from the face-to-face course, the DL course, and the forum. As they experienced networking, many participants came to appreciate its system and some even considered arranging such activity within their own countries, thus advancing their connection with other organizations. The participants not only learned to share professional information, but also gained a chance to explore each other's cultures.

Instructor

Even with the experience of being an instructor of some ESP courses, this researcher benefitted through the experience of teaching the LMI. First, helping learners who were specialists in their fields of work allowed the instructor the opportunity to listen to various types of language use in actual work situations. As an illustration, many unfamiliar positions were mentioned since they represented the special vocabulary of each work field; for instance, instructors may have learnt some new compound nouns used when the participants introduced themselves, such as operation and maintenance manager. The next advantage was the instructors being able to grow more familiar with the different accents of people from the Lower Mekong region. When the first distance-learning classes occurred, listening and responding to every participant was challenging since some of the participants' accents could be strong. However, after the completion of a couple of courses, the communication became smoother and faster since the instructors had become more familiar with their students' accents. As a result, breakdown in communication as a consequence of accents while talking with the participants in the forum was gradually lessened as the LMI instructors became more accustomed to these accents.

Government and organizations

Although the LMI dealt directly with the participants and the instructors, other groups received some benefit as well. After the program, the governments where these participants work will have gained officials that are more confident, professional, and knowledgeable. One example is that the program received some comments from the Thai participants that they had become more confident in speaking English with international officials. In addition to their better performance when presenting in English, the international networks that these participants established from the program may somehow be valuable for their organizations in the future. Having connections might save some time when the participants have questions or problems regarding their work field.

Drawbacks, Challenges, and Limitations

Drawbacks

No matter how well planned we were, some problems inevitably occurred. The different situations in each country could not always be accurately determined. The number of LMI registrations and qualified people requested to be sent for the course by the government organizations were fewer than what was expected. Because of the time constraints and Bangkok's political situation in 2014, some potential people could not join this crucial program. As a result, the number of learners in some of the face-to-face classes was as few as only five when the projected minimum figure was twelve. In addition, the problem concerning the number of participants occurred not only in Thailand, but also with other countries. This, in turn, had effects on the unequal ratio and unpredictable number of participants in the online learning course. Thus, some online instructors did not get a class when the number of online participants was low or they had to take extra courses when the number was high.

Challenges

Both American and Thai instructors faced many challenges conducting this program, as the following intentionally limited examples represent. In the DL class, matters such as different accents, online class management, and technical issues were challenging. First of all, listening to different accents through an Internet connection even with the help of a microphone and speaker can be difficult. Being a DL instructor, understanding what the participants were trying to communicate was extremely important in order to give them feedback and also to question them. The instructor also needed to make certain that the other participants could understand the speaker so as not to leave anyone behind. The second challenging issue was online class management. Though real-time conversation could occur, the DL instructor could not control the class as easily as a face-to-face class. When some of the participants talked without paying attention to the time or other participants, the instructor needed to step in to manage the class so that the time was equally divided among everyone. The last challenging issue was technical problems. Not only had some of the participants never used technology in an online conference before, but it was also the first time for some of the instructors. Although some of the instructors had practiced beforehand, they still needed to be brought up to speed with newer versions. Every instructor thus had to learn how to use each conferencing program as the technology seems to be continually changing.

Limitations

Two limitations can occur for this type of course: facilities and cooperation from the organization. For example, an organizer and an instructor can provide materials and facilities for everyone during a classroom meeting. However, this is not the situation for online distance learning. It was found that all participants needed to be equipped with their own computer and a stable Internet connection. The other discovered limitation concerned cooperation from the relevant organization in announcing the course to their potential staff. When interviewing people to join the program, we sometimes had to explain the program and its goals to the candidates. Though all of the basic information about the program was written in English and explained in the letter sent out to every organization, appropriate candidates were not always provided; for instance, candidates whose work required them to be prepared for presenting their organizations internationally.

Conclusion

Co-teaching is considered a valuable instruction method that can supply needed attention to participants. In fact, great improvement had been reported to be found in a team-teaching study for Thai high school students (Vega, 2010). In addition, learning presentation skills online offers students some flexibility (Csikosova, Senova & Culkova, 2012). Hence, after months of integrated instruction, one of the goals the LMI program began to form was to help the students weave networks through communities of learning, both within their own country and in the lower Mekhong area through the availability of the Internet. The next LMI phase adopted the three stages of learning and networking together with additional content. Some changes were made after particular challenges were faced, such as a training session for the online instructors. Ensuring that instructors had the necessary skill to facilitate an online class, which can be considered a new role and responsibility for teachers, was found to be crucial (Yang & Cornelious, 2006). Moreover, accepting that no course program can be designed perfectly the first few times, this program used its participants' comments to improve the course with collaborative goals in mind, expecting a better program course design and an increased rate of participants' performance so as to educate and assist the officials as much as possible. Further studies are recommended on this kind of integrated instruction pedagogy in order to enhance understanding of this mixed application in other contexts, apart from the current officials'' training context. The more frequently the course is taught, the more experience will surely be gained in order to cope with arising inevitable though unforeseen problems. Further research into this particular pedagogy may lead not only to solutions but also underscore more firmly the benefits to be found in applying integrated instruction which can support the teacher as well as the organization presenting the participants.

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Plagiarism Policies: Cross-Cultural Similarities and Differences

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Abstract

Certain key concerns regarding the challenge of academic writing often appear to be comparable across cultural settings; thus, similarities in plagiarism policies, as well, might seem unsurprising. Ironically, however, policy statements on university and comparable websites, representing Eastern and Western educational cultures, in Thailand and Canada, are consistent chiefly in terms of their unhelpfulness. They commonly endorse a narrow ethical perspective that oversimplifies the actual situation, and overall they convey the impression of aiming mainly to punish and disown students who use sources inappropriately rather than to guide them towards writing well. University and similar website statements deserve attention because they represent an institution's public face and are obvious first reference points for teachers and students. Above all, their terms become high-stakes criteria when academic dishonesty is alleged, and especially if reputationally crucial compliance with national research funders' regulations is also in question. In this paper, a representative sample of university and comparable websites from Thailand and Ontario (Canada) will be analyzed, encompassing large, prestigious universities and more modest institutions, and – in the case of Thailand – both state, private universities, and two research funding entities. In the general spirit of Price (2002), but adopting a broader framework, we seek evidence for institutional attention to four parts of the plagiarism puzzle: pedagogical viewpoint, rhetorical perspective, ethical standards, and management outlook. It emerges that – across both cultures – there is an urgent need for more enlightened policy leadership that eschews self-serving simplifications in favor of more constructive and better-informed responses.

Keywords: plagiarism, academic literacy, institutional policy, academic integrity, culture

บทคัดย่อ

การเขียนงานเชิงวิชาการโดยหลีกเลี่ยงการคัดลอกงานกำลังเป็นปัญหาที่ท้าทายของสถาบันการศึกษาต่างๆ ในระดับอุดมศึกษาทั้งประเทศตะวันตกและตะวันออก แต่ละสถาบันต่างกำหนดนโยบายเกี่ยวกับการป้องกันการคัดลอกงานที่มีลักษณะคล้ายคลึงกัน อย่างไรก็ตาม นโยบายดังกล่าวมักไม่สามารถช่วยให้ผู้เขียนงานเชิงวิชาการสามารถหลีกเลี่ยงการคัดลอกงานได้ เนื่องจากนโยบายมักมุ่งเน้นไปที่แนวคิดเชิงจริยธรรมและกำหนดบทลงโทษผู้เขียนที่มีการอ้างอิงข้อมูลอย่างไม่ถูกต้อง โดยไม่ตระหนักถึงความท้าทายของทักษะการเขียนเพื่อหลีกเลี่ยงการคัดลอกงาน ตลอดจนไม่มีการให้ข้อเสนอแนะเกี่ยวกับวิธีการเขียนงานที่ถูกต้อง บทความนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อเปรียบเทียบความเหมือนและความแตกต่างข้ามวัฒนธรรมของนโยบายของสถาบันการศึกษาเกี่ยวกับการป้องกันการคัดลอกงานเขียนเชิงวิชาการ โดยวิเคราะห์นโยบายที่เผยแพร่บนเว็บไซต์ของสถาบันการศึกษาระดับอุดมศึกษาทั้งของรัฐ เอกชนและองค์กรสนับสนุนทุนวิจัยในประเทศไทยและมหาวิทยาลัยในเขตออนทาริโอ ประเทศแคนาดา เนื่องจากเห็นว่าสื่อดังกล่าวเป็นการแสดงอัตลักษณ์และภาพลักษณ์ของสถาบัน ตลอดจนเป็นแหล่งข้อมูลที่เชื่อถือได้ที่คณาจารย์และนักศึกษาของสถาบันใช้อ้างอิง กรอบแนวคิดที่ใช้ในการวิเคราะห์มีองค์ประกอบ 4 ด้านได้แก่ แนวคิดด้านการเรียนการสอน แนวคิดด้านสำนวนการเขียนงานเชิงวิชาการ แนวคิดด้านจริยธรรมและแนวคิดด้านการบริหารจัดการ ผลการวิจัยพบว่านโยบายของสถาบันการศึกษาทั้งสองวัฒนธรรมมีความคล้ายกันในด้านการมุ่งเน้นแนวคิดด้านความผิดทางจริยธรรมของการคัดลอกงานตลอดจนการกำหนดบทลงโทษ โดยมิได้ให้ข้อมูลที่เป็นประโยชน์หรือให้ข้อเสนอแนะวิธีการเรียนการสอนที่ช่วยให้นักศึกษา คณาจารย์ และนักวิจัยเข้าใจวัตถุประสงค์ที่แท้จริงของการหลีกเลี่ยงการคัดลอกงานเขียนเชิงวิชาการและหลักการของการเขียนเชิงวิชาการเพื่อให้ได้บทความที่มีคุณภาพ ผลการวิจัยได้ให้ข้อสรุปและข้อเสนอแนะเกี่ยวกับการปรับปรุงนโยบายสถาบันของทั้งสองวัฒนธรรมโดยมุ่งเน้นแนวคิดด้านการเรียนการสอนมากกว่าด้านจริยธรรม

คำสำคัญ การคัดลอกงาน ความรู้ทางวิชาการ นโยบายสถาบัน จรรยาบรรณทางวิชาการ วัฒนธรรม

Introduction

Concern about plagiarism by university students is mounting (Gallant, 2008; Pecorari & Petrić, 2014), and there is little doubt that this issue is receiving more attention now than at any time in the recent past. Given that international contacts and exchanges have grown apace among universities around the world, it can be inferred that plagiarism will be of equal importance to all post-secondary institutions no matter their location. Still, there is also a lingering perception that values and expectations with respect to policies on student plagiarism may vary cross-culturally (see Pennycook, 1996, for a landmark early treatment of this theme, or Donahue, 2008, for a different and more recent discussion). There are also claims that plagiarism policies derive from Western cultures whereas Eastern cultures, such as in Thailand, view plagiarism – which is generally considered to be a form of cheating – as common and perhaps simply inevitable (Young, 2013). Cultural differences concerning plagiarism between Eastern and Western contexts are also presented in Wise et al. (2013), where there is evidence that students in Eastern and Western countries (Thailand, Taiwan and U.S.) differ in their knowledge, behavior, attitudes, and beliefs concerning academic integrity: this study concludes that U.S. students are better informed and more compliant in all respects. Such findings are important because of their possible suggestion that – in our own Thai/Canadian study – there might be parallel differences in perspectives, although in fact such a view could also be dismissed as a stereotypical oversimplification of the familiar native/non-native distinction.

Against that rather complex backdrop, it will be informative to examine actual similarities and differences in a systematic manner, with attention directed specifically towards the issue of unintentional plagiarism in the form of unsatisfactory paraphrasing (or *patchwriting* in the terminology of Howard, 1993): "copying from a source text and then deleting some words, altering grammatical structures, or plugging in one-for-one synonym substitutes" as an at least "entry-level manipulation of new ideas and vocabulary" in an unsuccessful but not dishonest effort to "assimilate the constructs of unfamiliar discourse" (p. 233). Our specific purpose is to address the skill-focused issue of university students' mastery (or not) of appropriate strategies for writing from academic sources, which we see as a primarily educational matter, rather than to focus on the quite different moral (or even legal) issue of calculated duplicity: e.g., deliberately copying from the Internet or other sources, using written material prepared by others, or accessing essay mills. Willful deceit can and indeed does occur, and we support efforts to prevent it. Moreover, we agree that even unintended plagiarism – stemming from inadequate skills – must be combatted, although by appropriately educational means. Our view is that distinguishing between error or incompetence on the one hand, and premeditated dishonesty on the other, is fundamental to concentrating attention on the linguistic, psychological and pedagogical factors that most concern writing instructors.

Interestingly, we found that a comparison between public documents in Thailand and in Ontario (Canada) revealed many features of policies on plagiarism that were in fact remarkably similar, although some differences also existed. As a framework for comparison, four parameters were identified:

- pedagogical viewpoint
- rhetorical perspective
- ethical standards
- management outlook

Our research focus was on university and comparable website statements of anti-plagiarism policies because they may be seen as publically reflecting an affirmation of values. Additionally, they may plausibly be identified as foundational to professors' and students' conceptualization of their responsibilities. Certainly, the principles and criteria that they announce are liable to be central to decision-making whenever charges of plagiarism are in question. Moreover, for the general public they embody the institution's commitment to academic quality and, for national research funders, its trustworthy insistence on scholarly integrity. Consequently, such openly announced policies will attract scrutiny from multiple perspectives. They must, therefore, embody a principled position that is resilient enough to withstand critical inspection but, as well, is able realistically to address the pedagogical, rhetorical and practical landscape of academic literacy as an element of student's and professors' day-to-day academic experience. This broad purpose justifies the similarly wide-ranging investigative framework that we employed: public statements of policies for encouraging acceptable academic writing and for dealing with cases of alleged plagiarism are unquestionably multi-faceted.

Objectives

The purpose of this study was to highlight tendencies and trends, and certainly not to set institutions in unproductive competition with each other or, even less, to subject particular institutions to criticisms to which they would have little opportunity to respond. Rather, the goal was to present an illustrative view of the range of publicly announced policies that seemed to be present, with two objectives in mind:

1. To facilitate reflection on policy options, with an eye to encouraging opinion leaders to ponder the best possible policy positions for their own institutions, which could well include a combination of retaining certain current elements alongside altering others.
2. To document policies and recommended practices that illustrate cross-cultural similarities and differences in a way that realistically captures contrasts where they do appear to exist, but that mitigates against the type of naïve over-generalization that is rightly discredited for unhelpfully reifying cultural differences (e.g., Mendoza, 2010, p. 100).

Methodology

A representative sample of university and comparable websites from Thailand and Ontario (Canada) was analyzed as of 2014 and 2015, encompassing both large, prestigious universities and more modest institutions, and – in the case of Thailand – both private, state and research funding entities. Apart from the broadly Eastern/Western comparison already noted above, Thailand and Ontario are logical foci because authorities in both jurisdictions have recently highlighted rising concern for maintaining the quality of university-level academic writing: for instance, in Thailand we see the academic collaboration on plagiarism detection led by a leading university in Thailand and other institutions in higher education, and in Ontario the Higher Education Quality Council's report on university-level writing instruction (Garabati et al., 2013), where "lack of time, TAs and resources" are implicated in the perceived "limited writing and academic skills" of undergraduate students (p. 26, & ff). Thus, in the general spirit of Price (2002) – who examined U.S. policies – but adopting a broader framework, we sought evidence for institutional attention to four parts of the plagiarism puzzle:

1. *Pedagogical viewpoint:* Does the policy recognize the inherent difficulty of paraphrasing as a style of source referencing, such that patchwriting (aka unintended "plagiarism") may be cautiously accepted as an insufficient but potentially constructive stage in the learning process (e.g., Howard, Serviss, & Rodrigue, 2010)? Evidence supporting this viewpoint has been found in a study which revealed that Thai students were aware that they would be able to avoid plagiarism effectively if they were properly taught (Charubusp, 2015). As potential evidence for integrating elements of this outlook, does the policy accommodate the possibility that, as noted above, students may in some cases simply not know how to produce an ideally purpose-adapted paraphrase? While of course legislating appropriate penalties for students who deliberately cheat, an effective anti-plagiarism policy must surely also recognize cases where the most appropriate remedy would be education rather than punishment.
2. *Rhetorical perspective:* Does the policy situate paraphrasing and related forms of reference to academic sources (e.g., summarizing) as crucial knowledge-creation opportunities through resourceful essay writing (e.g., the "knowledge-transforming" process, involving "a two-way interaction between continuously developing knowledge and continuously developing text", described by Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987, p. 12, p. 11), rather than merely as a set of perfunctory tactics for local, verbal-level alternations designed merely to avoid being reproached for plagiarism (e.g., Hirvela & Du, 2013), and does it therefore either include or point to instructional advice of a more than mechanical nature? This is important because, as Hirvela and Du note, without explicit guidance in the constructive use of academic source references, apprentice writers may legitimately ask the rather apposite question, "Why am I paraphrasing?" (p. 87).
3. *Ethical standards:* Does the policy advocate evaluating the appropriate use of academic sources on the basis of absolute, black-and-white values, or does it more subtly consider actual outcomes and intentions as well (e.g., Sivell, 2015b)? This question is important because, although an absolutist perspective is indeed one potential moral stance, others are also available. It is true that there is longstanding respect for absolute and universally applicable values (as propounded by Kant, 1785), but there is also a cogent argument to be made for the utilitarian view that contextualized outcomes should determine right or wrong (e.g., Bentham, 1789), and – longest established of all – there is the principle that moral responsibility is inconceivable in circumstances where an individual cannot freely choose to do what is right (e.g., Aquinas, 1265–1274). Thus, while aware of such morally absolute recommendations as those

advanced by Chace (2012), we are especially attuned to the potential for a principled but more flexibly pedagogical approach (Sivell, 2015a).

4. *Management outlook*: Does the policy recognize the possible benefit of viewing the inappropriate use of academic sources as an unwelcome but predictable hazard – a kind of impending "accident" (Reason, 1990, p. 199) within the educational context – that, on the basis of what we already know about effective accident prevention in other settings, can typically be averted only through a balance between student and instructor/institutional responsibility (e.g., Dekker, 2006, p. 47)? Or does it concentrate entirely on students' fallibility? In particular, does the policy assign equally strict and specific responsibilities for plagiarism avoidance not only to students but also to faculty? And does it thereby validate the need for system-level measures directed at reducing or eliminating the presence of what Reason (1990, p. 173) terms "latent errors": in our context, this would mean circumstances that are avoidable through concerted effort, but which otherwise may be expected to continue engendering instances of plagiarism?

Findings

Exhaustive data collection from every single webpage of every institution within the projected sample was clearly beyond reach, not least because webpages are living documents that evolve over time. Summary data[5] will be presented within the four analytical categories outlined above, and according to two broad origins: Thai universities and similar bodies, and Ontario universities. In no case will the name of any institution be reported in connection with the data. In each analytical category, the evidence cited will consist of representative examples drawn from our overall study of 19 institutions (11 state and 2 private universities, and 2 research organization) in Thailand, and 22 universities in Ontario (all state) (See Appendix 1).

Institutions' pedagogical viewpoint:

Thai Institutions	Ontario Institutions
1.1 Support for patchwriting as a stage in the development of mature scholarly writing ability	
In most cases, Thai institutions cited anti-plagiarism perspectives that seemed to originate from the least open-minded policies espoused in the West, where patchwriting is often characterized as a failure to avoid plagiarism, so that it is simply considered as plagiarism. None of the anti-plagiarism regulations appeared to countenance the possibility that patchwriting could be a developmental stage of L2 writing.	No direct support in any WWW statements was identified for the possibility that patchwriting might be recognized as a good-faith (if inadequate) effort in the direction of satisfactory academic writing. Despite occasional indications of understanding that the use of isolated register-specific expressions (similar or identical to the source) could be acceptable, the developmental aspect itself was not addressed.

[5] If actually quoted, the data could not be reported anonymously (i.e., without specific sources) because doing so would in effect verge on plagiarism; thus, summary overviews will be used instead. However, Appendix 1 offers a complete list of the Thai and Ontario entities included in our survey of WWW policies.

1.2 Negative reaction to patchwriting as a sign of either carelessness or dishonesty	
Most Thai universities provided some EAP courses in which work on paraphrasing, summarizing and quoting was specifically identified as a brief section in a course. However, we located no explicit or even implied recognition that patchwriting could be recognized as an unwitting error caused by lack of skills. Rather, it was consistently associated with either culpable carelessness or downright dishonesty.	Again, attribution to either carelessness or dishonesty was very common. Typical warnings stressed that acceptable paraphrases (or summaries) must express their content in the student's own words, which would be operationalized as displaying vocabulary and grammatical structures clearly different from the source. Recurrently, the basic concept was that careful, honest students could easily avoid plagiarism by effecting simple, surface-level transformations.

Figure 1: Pedagogical viewpoint

Institutions' rhetorical perspective

Thai Institutions	Ontario Institutions
2.1 Emphasis on the surface-level mechanics of rewording paraphrased material as a means to avoid criticism for plagiarizing	
Generally, we saw evidence that Thai students would indeed receive opportunities to master techniques for paraphrase or summary. However, there was never any clear statement that the main objective for acquiring these skills was their value in helping to establish a convincing and innovative argument. Thus, the implied or even stated goal was simply to learn how to escape blame for having plagiarized.	The most frequent advice – commonly based on superficial suggestions for using synonyms, modifying word order, or changing between active and passive voice, often illustrated by parallel acceptable/ unacceptable examples – was that the chief (or only) challenge was mechanical. Quite rarely, advice also suggested how to safely employ highly conventional register-specific phrases from the source.
2.2 Emphasis on the deeper-level comprehension and integration of paraphrased material as part of convincing and innovative essay writing	
In no case was a link established between paraphrasing and summarizing techniques, on the one hand, and the development of broader academic writing skills on the other. Students were told only that they must avoid plagiarism because it was an immoral action, without any appeal to the intellectual rewards of effective academic writing with a potential to present and share scholarly insights.	Although definitely not the norm, occasional very enlightened advice was found, explicitly stressing that correct paraphrasing was not designed merely as a defence against charges of plagiarism, and emphasizing instead the exercise of higher-order thinking skills and the construction of an argument that could position a student's own essay within the wider scholarly context.

Figure 2: Rhetorical perspective

Institutions' ethical standards

Thai Institutions	Ontario Institutions
3.1 Emphasis on an absolutist ethical position	
WWW policy statements tended consistently to endorse a very rigid code of conduct for academic honesty, integrity and dignity. Consequently, the uniform penalty for any	Absolutism was the most common view, with many variations on two themes: that ignorance of the required rules and procedures was no defence; and that although complex and/or unfamiliar

plagiarism detected was an automatic F grade either for the assignment or for the entire course. The clear implication was that such an absolute perspective not only was believed to be morally right, but also was perceived as a crucial deterrent to plagiarism.	academic demands might be very difficult for students, such circumstances would not reduce the severity of the offence because plagiarism was always intrinsically wrong.
3.2 Allowance for diminished freedom of choice as a mitigating ethical consideration	
Quite simply, no mitigating circumstances seemed to be contemplated in any of the online policies reviewed.	Occasionally, we saw modest recognition of possible limits on freedom of action, but only with respect to time-management issues, which students themselves were represented as alone being responsible for solving. Suggestions that extenuating circumstances might be grounds for reduced penalties were very rare.
3.3 Focus on damage to the institution as an ethical consideration	
Interestingly, no policies explicitly mentioned potential damage to the institution. In general, however, the researchers sensed a subtext to the effect that institutions perceived a reputational benefit from taking a hard line on plagiarism in any form, as a proxy for endorsement of admirably high ethical and academic standards.	Institutional interests were often very strongly present, in a variety of guises: institutional reputation, ability to attract top-level students or faculty, employability of graduates, and even negative implications for fund raising. Academic dishonesty was at times also associated with poor citizenship qualities, or with defective workplace habits.
3.4. Focus on damage to the learning experience of the individual student as an ethical consideration	
No policies that we reviewed made any reference whatsoever to potentially negative consequences that engaging in patchwriting or outright plagiarism (detected or not) might entail for the quality or rewards of students' learning experience.	Reference to the satisfaction or respect that students could achieve through mastery of admirable academic skills was present but infrequent. More common was expression of the duty to protect fellow students from unfair competition; there were even rare suggestions that wasting time on academic dishonesty cases could distract instructors from the more worthy activity of actually teaching.

Figure 3: Ethical standards

Institutions' management outlook

Thai Institutions	Ontario Institutions
4.1 Focus on individual students as primarily responsible	
WWW advice stressed that writers were individually responsible for following institutional regulations, but in most cases no detailed plagiarism definition was present in institutional mission statements to guide enactment of that responsibility. However, collaboration among multiple institutions to use anti-plagiarism software (programmed by a leading university) was announced as a way to monitor and enforce individual compliance.	Individual responsibility was a universal theme: even when (as in 4.2 or 4.3, below) others were allotted some degree of responsibility, the individual student was invariably identified as principally accountable, often reinforced by an injunction to make use of on-campus resources (cf. 4.4); occasionally, academic integrity pledges or contracts were also announced.
4.2 Allowance for joint student/instructor responsibility	
Commonly, there was a requirement for a	Mutual responsibility typically involved students

plagiarism-avoidance policy to be stated in course syllabuses, generally stressing sole responsibility by students: typically, such wording as *Plagiarism is not tolerated; the penalty is an F grade in the course*. Beyond that, no advice on any aspect of joint student/ instructor responsibility was noted.	being enjoined to follow the regulations, and instructors to enforce them, by formally announcing rules and expecta-tions, or by making plagiarism difficult: e.g., by changing essay or project topics, requiring oral as well as written submissions, or monitoring successive drafts of work.
4.3 Inclusion of responsibility specifically for instruction as part of instructors' duties	
Most Thai institutions expressed no policy on professors' instructional responsibility with respect to preventing plagiarism. Although one might infer that such responsibility therefore devolved to institutions' English departments, the potential instructional implications remained vague because of the omnipresent tendency to depict plagiarism in moral rather than educational terms.	Such instructional responsibility was barely discernable. Ironically, the classic strategy of process-writing was sometimes advised not as an instructional strategy to evoke improved writing skills, but simply as a means of increasing the difficulty of plagiarizing. Commonly, access to advice or instruction was represented as depending on student rather than teacher initiative.
4.4 Displacement of anti-plagiarism instructional responsibility to a separate, non-professorial student services unit	
Generally, no online policy referred to any institutional support service such as a writing center or academic skills center. Sometimes, reference was made to online resources (usually external to the institution) that students could consult for assistance in learning to write essays without plagiarism. Those resources were mostly posted by Western institutions; typically, when recommending them, no distinction was made between those offering simply mechanical exercises, and those directed towards higher-order thinking skills.	Displacement of instructional responsibility was universally present, often with very prominent foregrounding of an academic integrity office, writing center, or counseling center. In many cases, this was backed up by some provision of actual workshops or individual help, but very often by automated online tutoring instead: produced in-house or accessed via lists of WWW resources across the province, the country, or even the continent, most often indiscriminately mingling many with a more mechanical focus along with a few focusing on higher-order thinking skills.

Figure 4: Management outlook

Summary, Critical Issues, Recommendations, and Limitations

It is immediately apparent that, although usefully separable for analytical purposes, the above four foci actually cluster into two pairs. The ethical and managerial standpoints relate to each other because they both center on determining responsibilities, and the pedagogical and rhetorical angles are linked in the sense that they both touch on the issue of whether or not to consider plagiarism avoidance as a skills-development challenge. Thus, it is beneficial to discuss each pair as a group rather than treating the components individually.

Regarding the pedagogical and rhetorical themes, it was noteworthy that the Thai sites seemed to uncritically accept what might be identified as a rather conservative Western-style viewpoint on plagiarism. They identified patchwriting purely as an academic failure or as a lazy convenience in attempting to avoid being charged with plagiarism, rather than an even potentially valid step in the direction of developing acceptable L2 writing skills. Consistent with that narrow view, no rhetorical purpose was mentioned in connection with the rather minimal paraphrasing guidance that they provided to students. Turning to the Ontario sites, although they could perhaps be credited as very minimally more satisfactory, it was discouraging to observe their almost total lack of appreciation for the potentially developmental aspects of patchwriting. Even the very elementary concept of learning to use register-specific turns of phrase was far from uniformly present. By contrast, it was gratifying to note that at least a few Ontario statements did address the need to recognize the positive, knowledge-discovery dimension of writing well from sources, although the large majority of institutions did not foreground that perspective. Overall, it seems evident that WWW statements in neither setting offered consistently clear recognition of the developmental role of patchwriting, and they rarely recognized the rhetorical importance of paraphrasing. In particular, although patchwriting has frequently been discussed in the international literature (e.g., the voluminous work of Howard regarding the inherent difficulty of paraphrasing, as reviewed and contextualized in Howard & Watson, 2010), WWW sites in neither sample appeared to have been much influenced by that prominent trend.

Regarding the assignment of responsibilities (ethical standards, management outlook), it is remarkable that the Thai institutional sites placed all responsibility on students, despite the fact that their actual policies provided no clear guidance on specifically what was or was not permitted, simply requiring students to strictly follow the (ill-defined) regulations and then very commonly stressing the penalties for failure to do so. Very little more helpful were the Ontario sites. Despite their willingness to make modest gestures in the direction of taking student needs and expectations into account, they clearly demonstrated a view that responsibility for teaching students to write effectively, without plagiarizing, simply was not part of regular instructors' remit. It seemed to us very tempting to make a link between their pronounced fear of institutional damage resulting from rampant academic dishonesty, and their powerful emphasis on students' – not institutions' – primary if not sole responsibility not only for honest conduct but also for acquiring the necessary writing skills in order to enact that goal. Moreover, it was not reassuring to note the Ontario sites' widespread reliance on anti-plagiarism instructional services provided not by professors in their own courses, but by ancillary staff or even by online media. In that respect, both settings appeared broadly similar. No institutions, despite a fear of negative consequences for their academic reputations, seemed willing to invest in concrete, classroom-based solutions. In both settings, beyond minor variations, we documented what we interpreted as an unprofitable reliance on what Reason (2008) identifies as a "blame culture" for dealing with unwanted outcomes, which he comments has "severe" disadvantages and may be associated with a "failed system" (p. 255, p. 275).

Ironically, the policy statements on institutional websites from Thailand and Canada were consistent chiefly in terms of their unhelpfulness. They commonly endorsed a narrow ethical perspective that oversimplified the actual situation, and overall they gave the impression of aiming mainly to punish and disown students who used sources inappropriately rather than to guide them towards writing well. Thus, pedagogically and rhetorically, it was striking that – regarding the demonstrated difficulty of the paraphrasing process – in neither cultural context was there much if any awareness of the role of patchwriting as a potentially innocent approximation of acceptable rewording. Accordingly, although surface level, mechanical advice on recasting source material was often indicated, especially on the Ontario sites; Thai and Canadian policies alike very rarely showed awareness of original knowledge creation as a key motivator for students' appropriate use of academic sources.

With respect to ethics and management, in general there was a strong tendency for both Thai and Canadian institutions to characterize plagiarism in black-and-white terms, although a very small minority occasionally made some concession to the mitigating effect of circumstances. And with respect to allocating responsibility, sites from both contexts lamentably often reflected self-protective biases that closely echoed the least enlightened (and most ineffective) accident-prevention policies that not infrequently typify incompetent industrial, medical, and business management practices. Indeed, we observed a reflection of what Sutherland-Smith (2011) decries as the possibility that in many instances the subtleties of plagiarism investigations may be diminished to a dispute between "adversaries positioned to win or lose an academic misconduct case" (p. 136), a perspective surprisingly reflected in recent online advertising for a one-hour academic module trumpeted as offering solid "evidence that your students have received training in how to prevent intentional and unintentional plagiarism" that "may assist in defending legal claims from the consequences of plagiarism, minimise the risk of such claims and therefore minimise any associated reputational damage" (Epigeum, 2014).

Although some degree of culturally-associable variation could indeed be detected in the data, especially with respect to rare and modest levels of flexibility in a small minority of Ontario policies, far more noticeable was the regrettably substantial consistency across both the Thai and Canadian sites to miss opportunities in all four areas. Research in fact has revealed a great deal about the complexities of the educational, rhetorical, ethical, and broader management environment in which academic writing from sources takes place (powerfully documented quite recently by Pecorari & Petrić, 2014), but it appears that – across cultures – there is an urgent need for more enlightened policy leadership that eschews self-serving simplifications in favor of more constructive and better-informed responses. If policies do not develop towards a broader perspective, universities and comparable entities will be ill-positioned to take full advantage of the best that scholarship can provide in connection with an issue that all institutions seem to agree is crucial to their ethos, reputation, and academic success.

Thus, our analysis suggests that, although a number of potentially culture-specific nuances can be detected, three critical issues emerge for reflection among policy-makers from either location:

1. Developing a more broadly-informed understanding of patchwriting as a developmental component in the writing process.

2. Adopting an increased emphasis on the rhetorical value of paraphrasing, not only as an element in effective pedagogy but also as a more influential motivator for students than punishment or blame.
3. Incorporating and extending both of the above points in order to adjust institutional perceptions of plagiarism avoidance away from the punitive perspective, and towards the rehabilitation of instruction in excellent writing as an endeavour worthy of central attention in educational contexts.

When such further reflection is initiated, limitations of the current study that might be taken into account in the course of the discussion – and also with respect to future research – could include at the least the following two methodological dimensions. First, a focus specifically on a comparison between policies from Thailand and Canada, although highly relevant to the interests of the present researchers, is plainly not the only possibility. For example, a viable alternative model is demonstrated by Sutherland-Smith (2011), who instead examines the online policies of 20 institutions from around the world identified by the Times Higher Education Supplement as the "top five universities" in each of Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom and the U.S. (p. 130). Diverse insights, useful for different purposes, could plainly be derived from wider-ranging samples among institutions. Secondly, instead of a cross-national comparative focus – as in the current study, or that of Sutherland-Smith – it would be feasible to limit the scope to a single setting. An example of such an approach is Griffith (2013), who concentrates on academic integrity WWW sites hosted only by universities in Ontario. We would take issue with Griffith's (to us) vastly over-optimistic trust in what she appears to perceive as the inevitable benefits of "the dynamic medium of the internet" exemplified on those sites (p. 4) and would have preferred to see the putative appeal of interactivity more critically assessed in relation to such challenging criteria as treatment of the phenomenon of patchwriting or provision of activities tapping into higher-order thinking skills. Nonetheless, the possibility of a single-nation design – which among other things would avoid the risk of potentially distracting apples-to-oranges comparisons – is definitely worthy of attention.

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Appendix 1

Thai Institutions Surveyed (15 in total): 11 state universities, Chandrakasem Rajabhat University, Chiang Mai University, Chulalongkorn University, Kasetsart University, Kon Kaen University, Mahidol University, Mae Fah Luang University, Nakorn Rachasima Rajabhat University, Rajabhat University Ban Somdej, King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang, Thammasat University; 2 private universities, Dhurakij Pundit University, The Far Eastern University; and 2 research funding institutions, the Thailand Research Fund and the National Research Council of Thailand.

Ontario Institutions Surveyed (22 universities, all state): Algoma University, Brock University, Carleton University, Dominican College, Lakehead University, Laurentian University, McMaster University, Nipissing University, OCAD University, Queen's University, Royal Military College, Ryerson University, Trent University, University of Guelph, University of Ontario Institute of Technology, University of Ottawa, University of Toronto, University of Waterloo, University of Windsor , Western University, Wilfrid Laurier University, York University.

Technicality of Noun-Noun Combinations in Sports Science Research Articles

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Abstract

The authors of this paper aimed to study the role of Noun-Noun Combinations (NNCs) in academic discourse, in a particular branch of sports science, exercise physiology. It began with the creation of an Exercise Physiology Research Article Corpus (EPRAC). The corpus, which consisted of 41 journal research articles in the discipline giving a corpus size of approximately 134,029 running words, was compiled. Nouns occurring at least three times in the corpus were selected for investigation, and found that they have a strong tendency to combine in NNCs, a process central to the creation of technicality in the corpus. A total of 2,010 NNCs types were identified, comprising more than 22% of all the word types in the corpus. These NNCs were classified by experts in the field according to how closely or exclusively they are related to the field of exercise physiology (how technical they are). It was found that over 75% of the NNCs are technical. Technical NNCs occurring at least three times were included in the Exercise Physiology Research Article Corpus Noun-Noun Combination List (EPRACNL). The list consists of 417 technical NNCs. The NNCs in the list are vital to sports science learners for academic texts comprehension especially research articles. They are also an essential part of sports science course designed to teach graduate students how to understand published research in this field.

Keywords: Noun-Noun Combinations, Vocabulary Classification, Sports Science, Exercise Physiology, English for Academic Purposes

บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยนี้มีจุดมุ่งหมายเพื่อศึกษาความสำคัญของคำนามผสมในสัมพันธสารทางวิชาการของสาขาสรีรวิทยาการออกกำลังกายซึ่งเป็นหนึ่งในสาขาวิทยาศาสตร์การกีฬา ขั้นตอนการวิจัยเริ่มจากการจัดทำคลังคำศัพท์ ซึ่งคลังคำศัพท์นี้ประกอบ ด้วยบทความวิจัยทางสรีรวิทยาการออกกำลังกายจำนวน 41 บทความและมีคำจำนวน 134,029 คำ คำนามที่มีความถี่อย่างน้อย 3 ครั้งขึ้นไปถูกเลือกมาทำการศึกษาโดยนำมาหาคำนามผสม ผลการศึกษาพบว่า คำนามกลุ่มนี้เมื่อรวมกันเป็นคำนามผสมแล้วมักเป็นคำนามผสมเทคนิค มีคำนามผสม

ทั้งหมดจำนวน 2,010 คำ ซึ่งมีอัตราส่วนมากกว่าร้อยละ 22 ของคำทั้งหมดในคลังคำศัพท์ คำนามผสมทั้งหมดถูกนำมาแยกกลุ่มเป็นคำนามผสมที่เป็นคำเทคนิคและไม่ใช่คำเทคนิคทางสรีรวิทยาการออกกำลังกายโดยผู้เชี่ยวชาญด้านสรีรวิทยาการออกกำลังกาย โดยการหาว่าคำนามผสมใดบ้างที่มีความหมายสัมพันธ์และสัมพันธ์โดยตรงกับสรีรวิทยาการออกกำลังกายและมีจำนวนมากน้อยเพียงใด ผลการศึกษาพบว่า ในจำนวนคำผสมทั้งหมดนี้มีคำผสมเทคนิคคิดเป็นอัตราส่วนมากกว่าร้อยละ 75 คำนามเทคนิคที่เกิดขึ้น 3 ครั้งได้รับการรวบรวมเข้าไว้ในรายการคำศัพท์คำนามผสมจากคลังคำศัพท์บทความทางสรีรวิทยาการออกกำลังกาย ในรายการคำศัพท์นี้ประกอบไปด้วยคำนามผสมเทคนิคเป็นจำนวน 417 คำ นั่นแสดงให้เห็นว่าคำนามผสมที่เกิดขึ้นในเอกสารทางวิชาการเฉพาะด้านนี้มีความสำคัญและรายการคำศัพท์นี้มีความจำเป็นในการอ่านเอกสารทางวิชาการของนักศึกษาสาขาวิทยาศาสตร์การกีฬาและสามารถนำไปออกแบบการเรียนการสอนสำหรับนักศึกษาระดับบัณฑิตศึกษาในการอ่านบทความทางวิชาการในสาขาวิทยาวิทยาศาสตร์การกีฬาด้วย

คำสำคัญ: คำนามผสม การแยกหมวดหมู่คำศัพท์ วิทยาศาสตร์การกีฬา สรีรวิทยาการออกกำลังกาย ภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับจุดมุ่งหมายทางวิชาการ

Introduction

An important policy of the Thai government is to promote exercise for health and sports for excellence (www.most.go.th/main/files/sp61.pdf). In the modern world where people would hope to live longer and be healthier, exercise science is employed for the general public to improve their health. As to the popularity of sports and exercise in Thailand, there are many sports competitions held at different levels. Whenever a sport competition is held, sports science is used to prepare athletes both physically and mentally for effective sport performance. Sometimes, sports and exercise science are combined; sometimes, the terms are used interchangeably. Because of the policy and popularity of sports and/or exercise, sports and/or exercise science is studied at many educational levels in many universities in Thailand. Sports and/or exercise science contains three main sub-disciplines which are exercise physiology, exercise biomechanics, and exercise psychology. However, exercise physiology is the core sub-discipline of sports science and all students in this field have to study this core course. Sports science is a science that originates in the West, and English plays a role in academic texts. English texts are used mostly in graduate sports science. However, Thai students encounter difficulty in using English texts, especially reading research articles which are academic texts written in an academic genre with specialized content.

Vocabulary

There are three main factors related to learning language: background knowledge, grammar, and vocabulary (Nation, 2001). However, vocabulary seems to play a role above the others. When vocabulary is studied, both single words and multi-word units which have a single unit of meaning are included (Lewis, 1993). A multi-word lexical unit or multi-word unit or collocation or noun phrase or word combination is when two or more words occur together. One of the word combinations used frequently in academic genres is the noun-noun combination. Hence, noun-noun combinations in sports and/or exercise science are the focus in this study.

Noun-Noun Combinations (NNCs)

Fabb (2001) proposed that noun+noun compounds or noun-noun combinations consist of a head noun and a modifying noun. The head noun, which is the second word in the combination, shows the broad referential class of the combination, while the modifying noun, which is the first noun, acts as the class modifier with some additional semantic constraints. Examples of NNCs which occur frequently in technical English are *fossil fuel*, *steam turbine*, *clock pulse*, and *wave function* (Linh, 2010). Besides the syntactic definition of NNCs, the semantic perspective is considered.

Role of NNCs

NNCs are used in large numbers in any discourse (Schmitt & Carter, 2004; Arnaud & Savignon, 1997). They occur in both general texts (Martin, 2003), and academic texts (Biber & Barbieri, 2007; Biber & Gray, 2010; Hyland, 2008; Linh, 2010; Ward, 2007; Wasuntarasophit, 2008). Martin (2001) stated that noun phrases, or NNCs in this study, occur mostly in all texts, especially academic texts. NNCs in science and technology disciplines such as chemical engineering (Ward, 2007) have a high occurrence. Wasuntarasophit (2008) demonstrated that in the technical and academic vocabulary of electrical engineering textbooks, noun phrases comprised 20.80% of the running words in the corpus. Biber and Barbieri (2007) mentioned that word combinations appear in every part of academic texts because of the characteristics of academic writing.

The next characteristic most often mentioned is the special meaning conveyed by NNCs (Arnaud & Savignon, 1997; Laufer, 1990; Pueyo & Val, 1996; Ward, 2007). Laufer (1990) pointed out that whole lexical units have special meanings and have more significance than single units. NNCs convey specific meanings which are used as technical terms because, when two words are combined, they convey the compact meaning of nouns (Pueyo & Val, 1996). NNCs help readers to understand the meaning in a specific text more than only single words do (Hyland, 2008). Therefore, NNCs should be learned for the full form of their meaning (Arnaud & Savignon, 1997). However, for people who do not know the context well it is difficult to interpret the meaning. Master (2003) mentioned that the meanings of NNCs should be decoded as a whole and not just the components.

As NNCs are of considerable significance, they should be studied. Importantly, learning NNCs units is very efficient and more accurate than learning individual words (Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997). NNCs help learners to be fluent in language (Hyland, 2008), in all skills (Kazemia, Katiraeib, & Rasekh, 2014), and in all types of texts (Vincent, 2013). Kasahara (2011) found that combinations enhance vocabulary learning. All previous notions mentioned above signify that NNCs are vital in word learning.

Schmitt and McCarthy (1997) showed that NNCs can help learners use language naturally and reach native-like fluency. Lewis (2000) significantly mentioned in relation to fluency that word combinations help us think or communicate quickly and effectively, because when we memorize, we do them as a word combination, and when we want to produce fluency in language, we produce it as a whole collocation and not as a single word. This is faster and more natural, and it is the way that native speakers of English use language. Consequently, learners will use the language well by memorizing and producing it in units of language that are much larger than a word (Crystal, 2003).

Adel and Erman (2012) investigated the use of English language lexical bundles, which are words that come or occur together, in academic writing by native and non-native English advanced learners. The results showed that the native speakers of English used more word combinations and that they were more varied than those used by non-native English speakers. Adel and Erman postulated that native speakers rely more on word combinations than non-native speakers do. Arnauld and Savignon (1997) conducted research on rare words and complex lexical units used by advanced learners. They reported that advanced learners did not perform differently from native speakers in the rare word test, but they performed at a lower level than native speakers in complex lexical items. Therefore, from Arnauld and Savignon’s study, it can be said that complex lexical bundles are difficult for non-natives because they cannot reach native-like proficiency in complex lexical bundles or word combinations.

Schmitt and McCarthy (1997) identified that the importance of collocations is that learners can store collocations in the forms in which they learn them, and then produce them in forms. The result is faster and more natural words. This way of storing and producing, as Nation (2001) put it, can enhance fluency and the appropriateness of language use. Lewis (2000) asserted that collocation makes thinking easier, and collocation makes learners understand complex ideas quickly. Ward (2007) revealed that teaching students to learn words groups, which are words occurring together, can enhance their reading. Kasahara (2011) examined the effects of learning known and unknown word combinations and single words in terms of the retention and retrieval of meanings. The results indicated that word combinations make for better retention and retrieval of meanings than single words. He claimed that word combinations can be remembered for longer than single words.

Quirk (1985) mentioned that scientific writing has a high proportion of noun phrases, therefore "…dealing with collocations helps tackle the difficulty of technicality caused by compression" (Ward, 2007, p. 25). Hyland and Tse (2007) stated that learning the whole word unit is better than learning single words. Lewis (2000) suggested that it is difficult to explain complex ideas, so they are often expressed lexically. Hyland (2008) proposed that the differences in multi-word units can be seen in different texts and disciplines. Ward (2007) investigated collocation and technicality in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) engineering and reported that phrases represent technicalization more than single words do, and that there was a high proportion of nouns in scientific writing. He also recommended that complex noun phrases are appropriate for learning. Alexander (1985) and Irujo (1986) claimed that learning multi-word units is vital for advanced learners.

The significance of NNCs cannot be avoided. NNCs can be learned faster and more easily. When speakers or writers know more word combinations, they can produce language naturally like native speakers. Furthermore, NNCs convey a discipline's specific meaning in specialized texts.

The significance of NNCs led the researchers in this study to investigate the role of NNCs in sports science texts because NNCs in specialized texts are worth learning for learners in specialized areas. NNCs convey the technical meanings which are the main content of the texts. Knowing the main content of the research articles in sports science facilitates learners' comprehension of texts. Moreover, creation of a list of technical NNCs for exercise physiology learners is needed in the field of sports science as they convey the main content of the texts which helps learners in their text comprehension. The NNCs in the list shows course designers, teachers, and learners what vocabulary learners need, and how much has to be learned. It prepares EAP learners before studying, and facilitates them while studying the content in order to help them learn effectively and efficiently.

The purposes of this study are: 1) to see the proportions of NNCs in Exercise Physiology Research Article Corpus (EPRAC); 2) to determine the technical NNCs in EPRAC; and 3) to create a technical NNCs list for sports science learners.

Methodology

The research method started from the corpus creation. A corpus is "a large collection of authentic texts that have been gathered in electronic form according to a specific set of criteria, which helps us understand the real language used in the authentic world" (Bowker & Pearson, 2002, p. 9).

Text selection

Exercise physiology is a main sub-discipline and core course of sports science, and therefore it is the focus of this research. It is the study of the body responses and adaptation to physical activities. The research articles which are in the exercise physiology field were selected from journals recommended by sports science students and their lecturers. The researchers interviewed sports science students and their lecturers about the sub-disciplines of sports science, what the exercise physiology components are, what types of texts the students use, and what journals the students usually use. Research articles related to the field of exercise physiology were chosen by looking at the key words and the abstracts. Therefore, the research articles containing keywords and abstracts about nutrition, energy, energy delivery, energy utilization, enhancement of energy capacity, energy performance, body composition, sports, exercise, and disease prevention were taking into consideration. There are 41 research articles which were collected from: 1) *Journal of Exercise Physiologyonline*, 2) *Physiology and Behavior*, 3) *Exercise Science and Fitness*, 4) *Psychology of Sports and Exercise*, 5) *Science and Sports*, 6) *Clinical Nutrition*, 7) *Physical Medicine and Rehabilitation*, and 7) *Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport*.

Text conversion into electrical form for corpus building

When the research articles had been selected based on the criteria mentioned above, they were converted into text files. The files were merged into a single file which is called the EPRAC. There are 134,029 word tokens and 8,787 word types in the corpus. The term “word tokens” refers to the total number of word forms in a text. The term “word types” refers to the different individual words in a text. After that WordLister of Word Smith Tools was employed to list all the word tokens from the corpus into frequency order. The word types occurring at least three times were selected for this investigation. NNCs were identified manually by employing the nouns occurring at least three times to form NNCs in the corpus. There are 2,010 NNCs in the corpus. Then, these 2,010 NNCs were classified into categories by using an adapted rating scale.

The adapted three steps rating scale for Noun-Noun Combinations’ (NNCs’) classification

This adapted rating scale for the NNCs’ classification is adapted from the original rating scale of Chung and Nation (2004) as follows:

The adapted three steps rating scale to identify NNCs in the exercise physiology field.

Step1: NNCs are used inside and outside the field that meanings have no necessary

relationship with exercise physiology e.g. *sea level, standard deviation*

Step 2: NNCs are used inside and outside the field that have a meaning related to the field

of exercise physiology. They are NNCs in biology, chemistry, anatomy, physiology, sports/exercise, medical, and sports science. When they are used in exercise physiology, their meanings are related to exercise physiology e.g. *amino acid, blood cell,* and *plasma volume*.

Step3: NNCs have meanings specific to the field of exercise physiology, and they are used mostly in exercise physiology. They are not likely to be known in general language. They are about studying of functions of biological systems and how the body responds to exercise activities e.g. *endurance capacity,* and *exercise intensity*.

NNCs rated into steps 2-3 were classified as technical NNCs because their meanings are related or specific to the exercise physiology field, while NNCS rated into step 1 were classified as non-technical NNCs.

To ensure the reliability of the rating scale, inter-raters are needed to measure the consistency of the rating (Chung & Nation, 2004). Three specialists who are experienced in the exercise physiology field and have taught this course for more than 7 years rated 45 random NNCs (which is 15 NNCs from each step) by using the rating scales to check the rating reliability. When the inter-raters finished the rating, the reliability accuracy score of the rating was investigated and compared between the researchers and the three specialists to see the degree of agreement (Chung & Nation, 2003). Finally, the reliability was checked. The reliability value in each group was over 0.7 (Rosenthal, 1987); therefore, they are acceptable. This means that the researchers know the words well and can rate accurately and, hence, the researchers' rating is reliable.

Exercise Physiology Research Article Corpus Noun-Noun Combination List (EPRACNL) creation

When the reliability of the rating was confirmed, the NNCs falling into steps 2 and 3 were classified as technical NNCs because in step 2 their meanings related to exercise physiology, and in step 3 their meanings are specific to the field of exercise physiology which shows the technicality of the NNCs (Chung & Nation, 2004). The NNCs rated into step 1 were classified as non-technical NNCs. There are 1,523 technical NNCs and 487 non-technical NNCs. The technical NNCs occurring three times or more from the EPRAC are included in the EPRACNL.

Findings and Discussion

Proportions of NNCs in the corpus

There are 2,010 NNCs in the EPRAC which is 22.87% of all word types in the EPRAC. All NNCs were classified into the adapted three steps rating scale to identify the NNCs in the exercise physiology field. Details are shown below.

Table 1: Noun-Noun Combinations (NNCs) in the EPRAC

Step	Number of NNCs	Percentage	Classification
1	487	24.23%	Non-technical NNCs 24.23%
2	1,451	72.19%	Technical NNCs 75.77%
3	72	3.58%	
Total	**2,010**	**100%**	**100%**

There are 487 NNCs or 24.23% of all NNCs in the EPRAC which are classified into step 1. The examples of step 1 NNCs in the EPRAC are *control group* (55 times), *standard deviation* (47 times), *video game* (36 times), and *sample size* (21 times).

There are 1,451 NNCs or 72.19% of all NNCs in the EPRAC which are classified into step 2. The examples of NNCs in step 2 are *heart rate*, *body mass*, *blood pressure*, *body weight*, *muscle damage*, *and muscle soreness.* The numbers of times that these NNCs occur are 244, 116, 95, 80, 73, and 72, respectively.

There are 72 NNCs, which is 3.58% of all NNCs in the EPRAC, in step 3. The examples of step 3 NNCs in the EPRAC are *balance performance*, *endurance training*, *exercise performance*, and *intensity exercise.*

NNCs rated into steps 2–3 were classified as technical NNCs because their meanings are related to and are specific to the exercise physiology field, while NNCs rated into step 1 were classified as non-technical NNCs. Therefore, 1,523 technical NNCs are found which comprise 75.77% of all the NNCs in the EPRAC. There are 487 non-technical NNCs which are 24.23% of all the NNCs in the EPRAC. This means that the technical NNCs occur more often than the non-technical NNCs in the EPRAC.

Technical NNCs in the corpus

The technical NNCs in the EPRAC are 1523. The 20 highest occurrences of technical NNCs in the EPRAC are as shown in Table 2:

Table 2: The 20 highest occurrences of technical NNCs in the EPRAC

NNCs	**FREQUENCY**	**NNCs**	**FREQUENCY**
heart rate	244	energy expenditure	158
body mass	116	blood pressure	95
body weight	80	muscle damage	73
muscle soreness	72	exercise intensity	65
exercise training	58	intensity exercise	51
risk factors	50	oxygen uptake	49
trial performance	46	blood lactate	45
power output	45	body fat	41
beta cell	40	blood glucose	40
exercise group	40	body composition	39

All NNCs occurring in the EPRAC are classified into non-technical and technical NNCs by using the adapted three steps rating scale. An outstanding finding is the very high proportion of technical NNCs in exercise physiology texts. The findings found that there are 2,010 NNCs in the EPRAC which is a very high number and which means that NNCs occur very often and play an important role in all disciplines (Quirk, 1985).

The proportion of the technical NNCs in the EPRAC is very large. There are 1,523 technical NNCs in the EPRAC which is 75.77% of all NNCs occurring in the EPRAC. This shows that NNCs tend to show technicality by the combination of two nouns. Technical NNCs occur more often than non-technical NNCs in the EPRAC (three times more). Nearly half of the non-technical NNCs, or 224 out of 487 NNCs, in the EPRAC are words related to research such as those relating to statistics, research processes, and research article writing. The exemplifications of the NNCs related to statistics are *standard deviation*, *meta analysis*, *standard error*, *confidence interval*, *effect size*, *covariance analysis*, and *regression analysis*. The exemplifications of the NNCs related to research processes are *sample size*, *control group*, *treatment group*, *study design*, *future research*, and *data collection*. NNCs related to conducting research form a high proportion because the EPRAC comes from the research article genre. The same genre shares the same purposes, structure, and constraints (Bhatia, 1993). Therefore, the same words are used in the same genre.

These high proportions of technical NNCs in the EPRAC support the studies of Biber and Barbeiri (2007), Biber and Gray (2010), Hyland (2008), Linh (2010), Ward (2009), and Wasuntarasophit (2008), that NNCs are used highly in academic and specific texts. Exercise physiology research articles are not exceptional because they have specialized content in two different academic genres. Moreover, they are used technically (Master, 2003).

Role of Technical nouns in technical NNCs

Though NNCs convey a single unit of meaning, each noun is important to the combination. The NNCs occurring highly always come from nouns with high occurrence as well.

The 15 highest frequency nouns with their occurrences in the EPRAC are *exercise* (1,830), *study* (579), *performance* (515), *training* (463), *time* (430), *energy* (402), *intensity* (394), *body* (393), *rate* (380), *subjects* (370), *muscle* (350), *studies* (338), *group* (336), *test* (331), and *activity* (327). *Exercise* is the most common single noun in the EPRAC, occurring 1,830 times. Of these occurrences, 657 are in NNCs. These NNCs are all classified as technical. The high frequency of these NNCs reinforces the point about the centrality of NNCs to technical writing and the need for learners to master not just the individual words, but the combinations in which they occur.

This phenomenon with *exercise* is common among the most frequent nouns in the corpus. Table 3 below shows the percentage of each of these nouns which are found in NNCs.

Table 3: The 15 highest frequency nouns with their occurrences and NNCs examples in the EPRAC

	Frequency of noun	Total number of occurrences in NNCs	Total Percentage of occurrences in NNCs	Examples
exercise	1830	657	35.90	exercise intensity 65 exercise training 58 intensity exercise 51 exercise group 40
study	579	10	1.72	fatigue study 7 lifting study 1 training study 1 exercise study1
performance	515	254	49.32	trial performance 46 balance performance 34 endurance performance 24 agility performance18
training	463	339	73.21	exercise training 58 resistance training 34 training activities 28 training exercises 22
time	430	104	24.18	cycling time 23 contact time 15 exercise time 14 time interaction 9
energy	402	273	67.91	energy expenditure 158 energy intake 27 energy balance 16 energy demand 13
intensity	394	188	47.71	exercise intensity 65 intensity exercise 51 training intensity 14 intensity profile 7
body	393	326	82.95	body mass 116 body weight 80 body fat 41 body composition 39
rate	380	286	75.26	heart rate 244 work rate 18 flow rate 16 pulse rate 1
subjects	370	10	2.70	overweight subjects 3 athlete subjects 2 exercise subjects 1 sports subjects 1

muscle	350	293	83.71	muscle damage 73 muscle soreness 72 muscle strength 22 muscle glycogen 16
studies	338	8	2.36	training studies 3 dose studies 2 intervention studies 1 tennis studies 1
group	336	51	15.17	exercise group 40 fatigue group 5 intensity group 1 training group 1
test	331	77	23.26	exercise test 23 cycling test 6 treadmill test 5 stress test 2
activity	327	68	20.79	enzyme activity 9 activity levels 5 intensity activity 5 activity behaviour 3

Technical nouns such as *exercise*, *performance*, *training*, *energy*, *intensity*, *muscle*, and *activity*, form the technical NNCs in the EPRAC. *Exercise* which is a technical noun forms many technical NNCs such as *exercise intensity*, *exercise training*, *exercise intervention*, and *exercise performance*.

Non-technical nouns can form both non-technical and technical NNCs, such as *study*, *time*, *group*, *subject*, *test*, *and rate*. *Study* forms non-technical NNCs such as *study design*, *study quality*, *study control*, *study participants*, and *study protocol*. The non-technical NNCs are related to research methods and design. *Rate* is a non-technical noun when it is standing alone; however, it is part of combinations of technical NNCs in sports science, an example of which is *heart rate*. *Heart rate*, which means the number of heart contractions per minute, occurs 244 times in the EPRAC.

When non-technical nouns or technical nouns form technical NNCs, they occur frequently in the sports science discipline such as in *exercise intensity* (65 times), *trial performance* (46 times), *exercise training* (58 times), *cycling time* (23 times), *energy expenditure* (158 times), *body mass* (116 times), and *muscle damage* (73 times) in the EPRAC.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The EPRACNL includes 417 technical NNCs from the corpus. The list consists of the technical NNCs occurring at least three times and these are recommended for sports science students to study as this minimum repetition indicates their significance. Coxhead (2000), Chujo and Utiyama (2006), and Ward (2009) mentioned that words occurring one time out of approximately 50,000 running words from the corpus are considered important to study. In this study, the corpus size is approximately 130,000 running words, therefore NNCs occurring at least three times are considered worth learning. There are 1,523 technical NNCs in the corpus. The lowest occurrence of the technical NNCs is one time, and the highest occurrence of the technical NNCs is 244 times. There are 417 technical NNCs which are 20.74% of all the NNCs in the EPRAC. The high occurrence of NNCs in the EPRAC obviously shows the role of NNCs. Consequently, they should be focused on and taught. The technical NNCs in the EPRACNL which convey the meanings related and specific to the exercise physiology field should be studied. The first 417 technical NNCs should be prioritized to be taught to sports science learners.

The interviews with the sports science graduate students and their teachers show that sports science learners who study exercise physiology need to learn the EPRACNL because they are required to read research articles. They need to learn more English vocabulary to expand their vocabulary for text comprehension. As exercise physiology learners have to read texts specific to their field, technical vocabulary is a central focus. Technical vocabulary is useful for specific purpose learners (Nation, 2001, 2008) because meanings are specific to the area of study. The EPRACNL comes directly from the exercise physiology corpora. The NNCs in the EPRACNL should be prioritized for teaching because they form regularly occurring vocabulary (Moon, 1997; Nation, 2001; Sinclair & Renouf, 1988) and contain the subject area content of exercise physiology. Examples of NNCs are *endurance test* and *performance response*. These NNCs show the content of exercise physiology clearly and allow readers to understand what the discipline is about. NNCs should be studied as well as they occur very often and convey special meanings specific to exercise physiology. Learning NNCs is a practical way for learners to understand specialized meanings more easily and achieve native-like language use (Nation, 2001). NNCs from the lists which occur frequently should be taught explicitly to exercise physiology learners. A pre-sessional course could help exercise physiology graduate students before taking the exercise physiology course, or an in-sessional course could also support their course learning.

The tasks and activities for teaching the vocabulary (Richards, 2001) can be: 1) word matching, 2) identifying NNCs from the context, and 3) connecting the two halves of a sentence to make a true statement.

Instruction: Match the noun-noun combination and its meaning

Noun-noun Combinations	***Meanings***
1) oxygen consumption	*a) the volume of oxygen that a human body uses in a given period of time for metabolism*
2) exercise intensity	*b) how much energy is expended when*

doing exercise

3) energy expenditure — c) the energy cost of body activities (Kent, 1994: p149)

4) body mass — d) the mass of the human body measured to the tenth of a kg when the subject is nude, or with clothing of a known mass so that a correction to nude mass can be made (Kent, 1994: p.64)

5) heart rate — e) number of heart contracts per minute

Instruction: Identify NNCs from the context, and give the meanings of the NNCs

1) *Exercise*
   -Nutrition and exercise physiology share a natural linkage.
   -With this knowledge and perspective, the exercise specialist can critically evaluate claims about special nutritional supplements, including dietary modifications to enhance physical performance.
   -Endurance capacity during cycling exercise varied considerably, depending on what diet was consumed for 3 days before the exercise test.

2) *Performance*
   -Too often, individuals devote considerable time and effort striving to optimize exercise performance, only to fall short owing to inadequate, counterproductive, and sometimes harmful nutritional practices.
   -The high-carbohydrate diet improved endurance performance by more than three times that of the high-fat diet.
3) *Intensity*
   -Progressively increasing exercise intensity promotes continued bone deposition.
   -The magnitude of heart rate acceleration relates directly to physical activity intensity and duration.
4) *Damage*
   -Regular but excessive vitamin D consumption can cause kidney damage.
   -The addition of protein to the carbohydrate-containing beverage (4:1 ratio of carbohydrate to protein) may delay fatigue and reduce muscle damage compared with supplementation during exercise with carbohydrate only.
   -As discussed in Chapter 31, electrocardiography furnishes a vital diagnostic tool to uncover abnormalities in heart function, particularly abnormalities related to cardiac rhythm, electrical conduction, myocardial oxygenation, and tissue damage.
5) *Training*
   -Alterations in the bone's geometric configuration owing to long-term exercise training enhance its mechanical properties.
   -Successful nonpharmacologic treatment of athletic amenorrhea uses a four-phase behavioral approach plus diet and training interventions.
   - If additional research verifies these findings, and if changes in the hormonal milieu actually diminish training responsiveness and tissue synthesis, a low-fat intake may be contraindicated for optimal resistance training responses.

Instruction: Connect Part A and B to make 5 true statements

Part A

1) Carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen represent

2) Depleting carbohydrate reserves increases

3) Elite sport performance success requires

4) Type 2 diabetes results when the pancreas cannot

5). Patients with existing heart disease improve

Part B

a) the basic structural units for most of the body's bioactive substances.

b) protein catabolism during exercise

c) optimization of muscle fiber distribution

d) produce sufficient insulin to regulate blood glucose, causing it to rise
e) coronary blood flow (reducing myocardial ischemia during daily life) within 6 months by aggressively using drug and diet therapies that lower total blood cholesterol and LDL cholesterol.

These three types of tasks are recommended by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and are suitable for English for Specific Purposes learners because they need to read exercise physiology research articles for their exercise physiology course and conducting their research.

The NNCs in the EPRACNL can help the students in all educational levels to expand their vocabulary and improve their reading comprehension. The NNCs in the EPRACNL also can provide guidelines for an exercise physiology course or vocabulary syllabus and for those who teach.

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Appendix

The Exercise Physiology Research Article Corpus Noun-Noun Combination List (EPRACNL)

417 NNCs and theirs occurrence

1. heart rate/244
2. energy expenditure /158
3. body mass/116
4. blood pressure/95
5. body weight/80
6. muscle damage/73
7. muscle soreness/72
8. exercise intensity/65
9. exercise training/58
10. intensity exercise/51
11. risk factors/50
12. oxygen uptake/49
13. trial performance/46
14. blood lactate/45
15. power output/44
16. body fat/41
17. beta cell /40
18. blood glucose/40
19. exercise group/40
20. body composition/39
21. waist circumference/38
22. balance performance/34
23. resistance training/34
24. resistance exercise/32
25. treadmill exercise/30
26. exercise program/29
27. exercise session /29
28. training activities/28
29. basketball players/27
30. exercise protocol/27
31. energy intake/27
32. oxygen consumption/27
33. soccer players/26
34. creatine kinase/24
35. endurance performance/24
36. cycling time/23
37. exercise test/23
38. blood samples/22
39. insulin resistance/22
40. muscle strength/22
41. training exercises/22
42. weight loss/22
43. sports medicine/21
44. tennis match/21
45. fluid intake/20
46. risk factor/20
47. endurance training/20
48. sprint performance/20
49. blood sample/19
50. cycle ergometer/18
51. exercise intervention/18
52. heart failure/18
53. program duration/18
54. skinfold thickness/18
55. tennis tournament/18
56. work rate/18
57. agility performance/18
58. lactate threshold/17
59. exercise duration/16
60. fitness level/16
61. flow rate/16
62. muscle glycogen/16
63. protein intakes /16
64. energy balance /16
65. exercise performance/16
66. cell death/15

67. contact time/15
68. arm exercise/14
69. exercise time/14
70. muscle protein/ 14
71. recovery period/14
72. interval training/14
73. training intensity/14
74. beta power/13
75. exercise bout/13
76. training period/13
77. energy demand/13
78. carbohydrate oxidation/12
79. exercise sessions/12
80. glycogen stores/ 12
81. interval cycling /12
82. muscle recovery/12
83. training sessions/12
84. baseline levels/11
85. carbohydrate intake/11
86. exercise intensities/11
87. pace factor/11
88. serum cortisol/11
89. alcohol consumption/10
90. caffeine supplementation/10
91. carbon dioxide/ 10
92. exercise capacity/10
93. exercise programs/10
94. fat diet/10
95. intermittent exercise/10
96. lipid profile/10
97. pressor test/10
98. endurance cycling/10
99. adolescent girls /9
100. amino acid/9
101. baseline values /9
102. energy restriction/9
103. enzyme activity/9
104. exercise bouts/9
105. exercise groups/9
106. exercise period/9
107. exercise tests/ 9
108. fat diets/9
109. insulin secretion/9
110. knee extensors/9
111. muscle function/9
112. muscle mass/9
113. protein supplement/9
114. rest period/9
115. time interaction/9
116. cycling performance/9
117. motor performance/9
118. balance tests/8
119. blood cell/8
120. brain injury/8
121. cycling exercise/8
122. disease risk/8
123. exercise characteristics/8
124. exercise hypotension/8
125. exercise tolerance/8
126. fat oxidation/8
127. protein synthesis/8
128. run time/8
129. slalom canoeists/8
130. sport drink/8
131. sports shooters /8
132. sprint effort/8
133. training program/8
134. water intake/8
135. task adaptation /8
136. balance recovery/7
137. body height/7
138. carbohydrate supplement /7

139. countermovement jump/7

140. density lipoprotein/7

141. exchange ratio /7

142. exercise dose/7

143. exercise protocols/7

144. fat mass/7

145. fatigue study/7

146. fitness levels/7

147. food intake/7

148. heart disease/7

149. intensity profile /7

150. leg press/7

151. male cyclists/7

152. mood states/7

153. muscle fatigue/7

154. muscle groups/7

155 muscle injury/7

156. nutrition institute/7

157. rehabilitation program/7

158. saliva samples/7

159. sport shooters/7

160. sprint time/7

161. superoxide dismutase/7

162. training effects/7

163. training session/7

164. energy expenditures/7

165. amino acids/6

166. analysis system/ 6

167. assay kit/6

168. baseline appointment/6

169. bench press/6

170. blood collection /6

171. body strength/ 6

172. boxing condition/6

173. calorie restriction/6

174. cycling test/6

175. exercise conditions/6

176. exercise frequency/6

177. exercise measurements/6

178. handball players/6

179. insulin sensitivity/6

180. left arm/6

181. liver glycogen/6

182. motor behavior/6

183. protein intake/6

184. rest ratio/6

185. serum testosterone/6

186. slalom canoe/6

187. stability index/6

188. testosterone concentration /6

189. transition speed/ 6

190. endurance athletes/6

191. endurance exercise/6

192. exercise physiologist/6

193. performance power/6

194. acids consumption/5

195. activity levels/5

196. antioxidant enzymes/5

197. blood lipids/5

198. energy value/5

199. exclusion criteria/5

200. exercise interventions/5

201. exercise prescription/5

202. exercise results /5

203. exercise values /5

204. fat weight/5

205. fatigue group/5

206. fatigue index/5

207. glucose concentration/5

208. glucose homeostasis/5

209. hand grip/5

210. human saliva/5

211. lactate concentration/5
212. lactate dehydrogenase/5
213. leg extensor/5
214. macronutrient intakes/5
215. motor skills/5
216. muscle fibers/5
217. protein requirements/5
218. rest day/5
219. right hand/5
220. run times/5
221. speed strength /5
222. sports competitions/5
223. training load/5
224. treadmill run/5
225. treadmill speed/5
226. treadmill test/5
227. treatment effect /5
228. work output/5
229. force development/5
230. intensity activity /5
231. intensity exercises/5
232. muscle performance/5
233. performance time/5
234. acid concentration/4
235. adolescent boys /4
236. adult population/4
237. alanine aminotransferase/4
238. alcohol intake/4
239. aspartate aminotransferase/4
240. athlete men/4
241. average consumption/4
242. baseline value/4
243. blood pressures/4
244. body builders/4
245. body temperature/4
246. capillary blood/4
247. carbohydrate drink/4
248. carbohydrate meal/4
249. cardiolocomotor synchronization/4
250. cholesterol levels/4
251. coronary artery /4
252. cortisol concentration/4
253. creatine phosphokinase/4
254. cycle time/4
255. distance runners/4
256. ear lobe/4
257. energy supplementation/4
258. exercise condition/4
259. exercise effects/4
260. exercise measurement/4
261. exercise recovery/4
262. exercise transition/4
263. fitness parameters/4
264. fitness test/4
265. fluid volume/4
266. health survey/4
267. heart monitor/4
268. immune system/4
269. impedance analysis/4
270. insulin concentration/4
271. intensity profiles/4
272. intermittent model/4
273. intermittent protocol/4
274. knee angle/4
275. knee flexion/4
276. macronutrient requirements/4
277. maltodextrin solution/4
278. memory impairment/4
279. nitrogen balance/4
280. oxygen species/4
281. recovery measurements/4

282. recovery time/4

283. saliva sample/4

284. sample collection/4

285. sports performance/4

286. sports training /4

287. squat jump/4

288. strength loss/4

289. strength tests/4

290. strength training/4

291. stroke volume /4

292. task demands/4

293. training effect/4

294. training experience/4

295. training regime/4

296. training rigor/4

297. training status /4

298. treadmill velocity/4

299. velocity regression/4

300. balance measurements/4

301. balance system/4

302. energy requirement/4

303. gas exchange/4

304. intensity training/4

305. match performance/4

306. performance tests/4

307. performance times/4

308. performance variable/4

309. activity behaviour/3

310. activity participation/3

311. alkaline phosphatase/3

312. antioxidant capacity/3

313. antioxidant system/3

314. balance beam/3

315. balance test/3

316. baseline risk/3

317. basketball team/3

318. beta activity/3

319. blood flow/3

320. blood lipid/3

321. body fluid/3

322. body fluids/3

323. brain activity /3

324. breath system/3

325. carbohydrate supplements /3

326. cholesterol intake/3

327. cycle load/3

328. deoxynucleotidyl transferase/3

329. dismutase activity/3

330. dyspnea scores/3

331. elbow flexors/3

332. enzyme levels/3

333. exercise levels/3

334. exercise meals /3

335. exercise physiologists/3

336. fat intake /3

337. fatigue condition/3

338. female athletes/3

339. fitness characteristics/3

340. food consumption/3

341. foot position/3

342. frequency band/3

343. frequency bands/3

344. frequency domain/3

345. glucose levels/3

346. glucose tolerance/3

347. glutamyl transferase/3

348. glycogen synthesis/3

349. handball game/3

350. health benefits/3

351. health care/3

352. health history/3

353. health outcomes/3

354. heart association/3

355. heart level/3

356. hydrogen peroxide/3

357. immune responses/3

358. impact forces/3

359. insulin function/3

360. intensity intermittent/3

361. intensity levels/3

362. judo groups/3

363. kidney disease/3

364. knee joint/3

365. leg extension/3

366. leg fatigue/3

367. limb exercises /3

368. lipid peroxidation/3

369. locomotor activity/3

370. match players/3

371. moderator correlations/3

372. mood dimensions/3

373. muscle action/3

374. muscle contraction/3

375. night sweats/3

376. nutrient intake /3

377. overweight subjects/3

378. performance benefit/3

379. performance variables/3

380. placebo effect/3

381. placebo protein /3

382. plasma corticosterone/3

383. plasma glucose /3

384. practice effect/3

385. program appointment/3

386. protein diet/3

387. protein oxidation/3388. pulse pressure/3

389. quadriceps muscles/3

390. reaction time/3

391. recovery periods/3

392. recovery processes/3

393. rehabilitation patients/3

394. resistance exercises/3

395. serum hormones/3

396. serum samples/3

397. slalom canoeist/3

398. soccer match/3

399. soccer training/3

400. speed test/3

401. sport competence/3

402. sports performers/3

403. sprint times/3

404. stress adaptation/3

405. tennis players/3

406. tournament players/3

407. training run/3

408. training studies/3

409. treatment type /3

410. volleyball players/3

411. weight training/3

412. work load/3

413. endurance runners/3

414. energy production/3

415. gas exchanges/ 3

416. intensity run/ 3

417. soccer performance/3

The Effects of Contextualized and De-contextualized Vocabulary Teaching on Learners' Memorization and Recognition of Word Meanings

Natthicha Siangwan, Jirapa Abhakorn

Abstract

When learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL), learners are expected to broaden their lexical repertoire not only to learn and to be able to use unfamiliar words, but also to develop other language skills. This study investigates the effects of contextualized and de-contextualized vocabulary teaching on learners' memorization and recognition of word meanings, and to evaluate the learners' attitudes towards the two strategies for teaching vocabulary. Data were collected with two sets of instruments: a test and a delayed test, and an attitude questionnaire. The participants were 39 students, aged 12-13 years old who were studying at a local school in Phetchaburi province in Thailand. The results show that the de-contextualized technique is more effective than the contextualized technique in helping the learners to achieve vocabulary memorization. However, the contextualized technique outperforms the de-contextualized technique in developing vocabulary recognition. The research findings have implications for vocabulary teaching in that word meanings should be taught in isolation as well as in context to focus on both the language features and the appropriateness for use in daily life.

Keywords: contextualized vocabulary teaching, de-contextualized vocabulary teaching, English language teaching, word recognition, word memorization

บทคัดย่อ

ในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศนั้นผู้เรียนถูกคาดหวังว่าจะต้องมีความรู้คลังคำศัพท์ไม่ใช่แค่เพื่อใช้ในการเรียนและการใช้คำศัพท์ที่ไม่คุ้นเคยเป็นแต่เพื่อพัฒนาทักษะทางภาษาด้านอื่นๆ อีกด้วย งานวิจัยนี้ศึกษาผลจากการสอนคำศัพท์แบบใช้บริบทและไม่ใช้บริบทที่มีต่อการพัฒนานักเรียนในด้านการจำและการรู้ความหมายของคำศัพท์และประเมินความคิดเห็นของนักเรียนที่มีต่อกลยุทธ์การสอนทั้งสองแบบ ข้อมูลถูกเก็บจากเครื่องมือสองชนิดคือแบบทดสอบ (Test and Delayed Test) และแบบสอบถามความ

คิดเห็น ผู้ร่วมวิจัยเป็นนักเรียนจำนวน 39 คน อายุ 12-13 ปี ซึ่งกำลังศึกษาในโรงเรียนท้องถิ่นในจังหวัดเพชรบุรี ประเทศไทย ผลจากการวิจัยแสดงว่าการสอนแบบไม่ใช้บริบทมีประสิทธิภพมากกว่าการสอนแบบใช้บริบทในการช่วยให้นักเรียนจำคำศัพท์ อย่างไรก็ตามการสอนแบบใช้บริบทดีกว่าการสอนแบบไม่ใช้บริบทในการช่วยให้นักเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ ผลการวิจัยให้ความรู้ต่อการสอนคำศัพท์ภาษาต่างประเทศว่าคำศัพท์และความหมายควรจะสอนทั้งแบบมีและไม่มีบริบทเพื่อเน้นการเรียนรู้ทั้งลักษณะทางภาษา (language features) และการนำไปใช้ในชีวิตประจำวันให้เหมาะสม

คำสำคัญ การสอนคำศัพท์แบบใช้บริบท การสอนคำศัพท์แบบไม่ใช้บริบท การสอนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ การรู้คำศัพท์ การท่องจำคำศัพท์

Introduction

Learning a language involves various skills including pronunciation, writing, grammatical accuracy, register, reading and composition, and so on, but the most significant aspect is vocabulary (Folse, 2004). The focus of language teaching on lexis has often been neglected in both the older grammar, and the more recent communicative teaching approaches. Now many researchers have increasingly highlighted the importance of vocabulary and vocabulary teaching in English language teaching (ELT) research (Alhaysony, 2012; Alharthi, 2014). One of the innovative methods for vocabulary teaching based on the communicative approaches is to use context to help learners to guess the meaning of words. This method is in contrast to the de-contextualized vocabulary teaching technique which isolates the word from any communicative context. For example, learning vocabulary by using word lists and flashcards is considered a de-contextualized teaching technique. It is believed that without context, learners will focus more on the memorization of word meanings and pronunciation (Oxford & Crookall, 1990). However, which method is more effective for learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) is still a matter of controversy especially for young EFL learners since there have been only a few studies on vocabulary for this group of learners. In addition, there is a lack of study on the effects of contextualized and de-contextualized vocabulary teaching on learners' recognition and memorization of word meanings in the Thai EFL classroom context.

In Thailand, the goals of EFL teaching for primary school students, as stated in the National Curriculum, is to communicate and to make use of all four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) effectively. Furthermore, students should be able to learn from and exchange cultural knowledge with native speakers of English (The Ministry of Education, 2009). However, Thai students, especially young learners studying in local or public schools seem to have limited knowledge of vocabulary, which is basic knowledge to develop other language skills. According to a report by the National Institute of Educational Testing Service (NIETS, 2014), the mean score of the Ordinary National Education Test (O-NET) of English for students in the sixth grade of primary school in the academic year 2014 was 36.02 from 100. One of the main reasons was a lack of basic vocabulary.

Because of the interest in vocabulary teaching to young learners and to fill the research gap, this study aims to examine whether the de-contextualized or the contextualized technique is more effective in enhancing the recognition and memorization of word meanings for Thai primary school students in the sixth grade (12-13 years old). In addition, the students' attitude towards the de-contextualized and contextualized methods will be evaluated.

Literature Review

There have been various vocabulary teaching techniques proposed by scholars in the field of ELT. Among the various well-known vocabulary teaching methods are de-contextualized and contextualized vocabulary teaching techniques. Lists of activities for de-contextualized and contextualized vocabulary teaching techniques are presented in Figure 1.

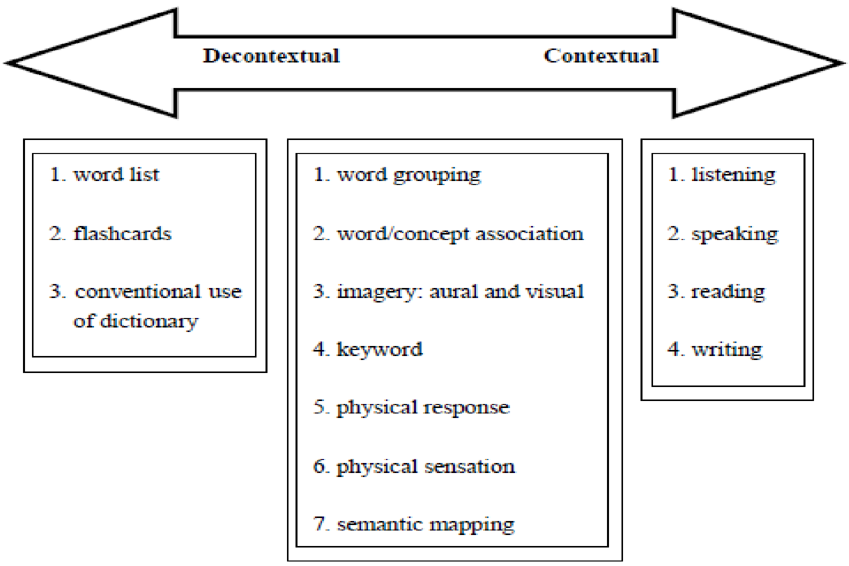

Figure 1 De-contextualized and contextualized vocabulary teaching activities (Shen 2003: 190)

For de-contextualized vocabulary teaching, learners learn words and meanings from word lists, flashcards, and dictionaries. Nielsen (n.d.) stated that the de-contextualized teaching technique should be employed with beginner learners to enhance vocabulary knowledge. Some evidence shows that the de-contextualized teaching technique helps learners to deal with words effectively in a limited time by using memorization (Fitzpatrick, 2008; Takahashi, 2011; Unaldi & Bardakci, 2013).However, there are contrasting beliefs from other researchers who found that using word lists, or looking up words in dictionaries, will lead students to encounter disadvantages in long-term vocabulary learning (Shen, 2003). Oxford and Crookall (1990) also argued that wordlists, especially with mother-tongue equivalents, are not very useful because learners "might not be able to use the new words in any communicative way."

As for contextualized vocabulary teaching, learners learn vocabulary in context which allows the learners to guess the meaning of words, for instance, in reading and listening practice and in speaking and writing practice (Oxford & Crookall, 1990). There are studies that support the contextualized techniques. Schouten-van Parreren (1989 as cited in Tricia, 2000) stated that the contextualized technique supports the learners' memory by surrounding clues to enhance vocabulary recognition. This technique also provides the usage of words in real linguistic structures. Similarly, Nuraisha et al. (n.d.) examined the effect of teaching vocabulary using inference contextual clues on vocabulary acquisition. The participants were 37 sixth grade students of a primary school in Indonesia. The findings revealed that using inference contextual clues can increase students' achievement and that inference contextual clues are an effective way to teach vocabulary. Shokouhi & Askari (2010) also revealed that the participants who employed a contextual guessing strategy performed better than with a non-contextual method. The result of examining the effect of guessing vocabulary in reading authentic texts by pre-university students also suggests that contextual guessing strategies enhance vocabulary growth. However, Shen (2003) stated "the uses of contexts in reading do not guarantee an increase in the quantitative size of the mental lexicon quickly, and they do not necessarily lead to immediate retention of items". Amirian & Momeni (2012) found that the de-contextualized technique is more effective in enhancing vocabulary knowledge than the contextualized technique when investigating two groups of grade one students in high school and pre-university.

The research mentioned above illustrates that there are mixed results for the use of both de-contextualized and contextualized techniques. Some researchers believe that de-contextualizing is an easy, effective way to enhance vocabulary knowledge and the memorization of words in a limited time. Others argue that contextualizing can enhance longer term memorization of words because of the deeper memory process. Since there are still conflicting opinions, research in this field is therefore useful.

Methodology

The study employed a quantitative method. The data were collected from experiments to compare the effects of de-contextualized and contextualized vocabulary teaching techniques on learners' memorization and recognition of word meanings. Learners' attitudes towards the two teaching techniques were collected through questionnaires. The participants were 39 sixth grade students in a gifted program at Tessaban 3 Wat Chan Thra Was School in Petchaburi, Thailand. They were purposively selected based on the fact that they were a homogenous sample in terms of their learning proficiency, which was higher than the students in other classes at the school.

For the data collection, the researcher first surveyed and listed the twenty most unknown words to the participants through a vocabulary test. Then two lesson plans, one using a de-contextualized technique and the other a contextualized technique for vocabulary teaching, were prepared for this study. Each teaching lesson was planned to teach ten different words obtained from the vocabulary surveys within two days. After each lesson, the students were asked to do a test (see Appendix) and the attitude questionnaire, and then the retention test the following day. Descriptive statistics (*Mean, S.D.*) were used to investigate the effect of the contextualized and de-contextualized vocabulary teaching on students' recognition and memorization of word meanings, and to evaluate the students' attitude towards the two teaching techniques. In addition, an independent sample *T-test* was used to find significant differences in the effect of the two teaching techniques on students' recognition and memorization of word meanings.

Results

In the first part, the results from the tests and the delayed test collected from the learners who had been taught using contextualized and de-contextualized vocabulary teaching are shown in the tables below.

Section	Test		Delayed test		Retention
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
Recognition (Total score = 5)	4.95	.320	4.95	.320	Equal
Memorization (Total score = 5)	1.87	1.750	1.36	1.581	Less

Table 1 The mean scores of the test and the delayed test collected after employing the contextualized vocabulary teaching technique

Table 1 shows the mean scores of the test and the delayed test after the learners had been taught with the contextualized vocabulary teaching technique. The results show that the

mean scores from the recognition section of the two tests are not different (Mean = 4.95, S.D. =.320), whereas the mean score of the memorization section of the test (Mean = 1.87,

S.D. =1.750) is a little higher than that of the delayed test (Mean = 1.36, S.D. =1.581).

Section	Test		Delayed test		Retention
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	
Recognition (Total score = 5)	4.9	.307	4.87	.339	Less
Memorization (Total score = 5)	2.28	1.376	1.97	1.530	Less

Table 2 The mean scores of the test and the delayed test collected after employing the de-contextualized vocabulary teaching technique

According to Table 2, for the recognition test, the mean score from the test was 4.9 (S.D. =.307), and the mean score from the delayed test was 4.87 (S.D. = .339). These results reveal that the retention of words in terms of recognition decreased. In the memorization tests, the mean score was 2.28 (S.D. =1.376), while the mean value from the delayed test was 1.97. These results reveal that the retention of words in terms of recognition also decreased. In the next section, the test and delayed test mean scores from the de-contextualized and the contextualized techniques are compared.

Section	Contextualizing		De-contextualizing		t	df	Sig.
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.			
Recognition (Total score = 5)	4.95	.320	4.9	.307	.721	76	.237
Memorization (Total score = 5)	1.87	1.750	2.28	1.376	1.151	72	.127

Table 3 Comparison of the mean test scores for the contextualized and de-contextualized vocabulary teaching techniques

Table 3 shows that there was not a significant difference in the effect of contextualized teaching and de-contextualized teaching on the test of word recognition, t (76) = .721, p > .05, or the test of word memorization, t (72) = 1.151, p > .05.

Section	Contextualizing		De-contextualizing		t	df	Sig.
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.			
Recognition	4.94	.320	4.87	.339	1.031	76	.154
Memorization	1.36	1.581	1.97	1.530	1.747	76	**.046**

Table 4 Comparison of the mean delayed test scores for the contextualized and de-contextualized vocabulary teaching techniques

Table 4 shows that there was not a significant difference in the effect of contextualized teaching and de-contextualized teaching on the delayed test of word recognition, t (76) = 1.031, p > .05. However, there was a significant difference between the mean score of the delayed memorization test for contextualized teaching and de-contextualized teaching, t (76) = 7.747, p <.05. This means that the de-contextualized teaching helps learners to retain word meanings better than with contextualized teaching. The following section reports the learners' attitudes towards contextualized and de-contextualized vocabulary teaching.

Questions	Yes	No
1. Does the student prefer the rote memorization of word meanings and spellings from word lists? Why?	46%	54%
2. Does the student think that the rote memorization of word meanings and spellings from word lists is an effective way to improve word memorization and spelling?	67%	33%
3. Does the student have better understanding and memorization of words after learning by rote memorization?	33%	67%
4. Does the student want to use rote memorization in future courses?	100%	0%

Table 5 The learners' attitude towards de-contextualized vocabulary teaching

As shown in Table 5, the percentage of learners who prefer rote memorization of word meanings and spellings from word lists (46%) is slightly lower than those who do not (54%). Most of them (67%) believed that the rote memorization of word meanings and spellings from word lists was an effective way to improve word memorization and spelling. Only 33% of the students believed that they had developed understanding and memorization of words after learning by rote memorization. Finally, all students said that they wanted rote memorization in future English courses. This means that they need to use English words correctly in daily life.

Questions	Yes	No
1. Do you like guessing words from the context clues namely sentences and pictures? Why?	56%	44%
2. Do you think guessing words from context clues, namely sentences and pictures, is an effective way to improve word memorization and spelling?	46%	54%
3. Do you have better understanding and memorization of words after learning by guessing words from the context clues, namely sentences and pictures?	38%	62%
4. Do you want to guess words from context clues, namely sentences and pictures, in future courses?	97%	3%

Table 6 The learners' attitudes towards contextualized vocabulary teaching

As shown in Table 6, the percentage of those who liked guessing words from the context clues, namely sentences and pictures, was 56%. Less than half of them believed that guessing words from the context clues and pictures is an effective way to improve word memorization and spelling (46%), and that they have developed understanding and memorization of words after learning by guessing words from the context clues and pictures(38%). Almost all of them (97%) wanted to guess words from context clues in future English courses.

Discussion and Conclusion

The results show that to develop recognition for young Thai learners who have limited knowledge of English, the contextualized technique outperformed the de-contextualized technique. This result was in line with Schouten-van Parreren (1989 as cited in Tricia, 2000) who suggested that the contextualized technique supports the learners' memory by surrounding clues to enhance vocabulary recognition. However, the de-contextualized technique outperformed the contextualized technique in helping the learners to develop and retain word meanings. This result supported Takahashi's (2011) study which found that the de-contextualized technique can help learners to memorize words in a limited time. It can be concluded that the de-contextualized technique may be useful in helping young learners who want to focus on memorizing vocabulary in a limited time. In contrast, the contextualized technique is also useful in helping them to recognize the words and further develop their vocabulary. It is certain that learners cannot learn formal features of language without its usage (Allen, 1986) but young learners need to be equipped with sufficient lexical knowledge before they can deal with communication effectively.

With regard to student attitudes, most of the participants believed that traditional rote learning could help them to memorize and to use the language correctly, and they all wanted to continue to learn English by using this technique. The reason could be that the participants are beginner learners who require vocabulary knowledge, memorization practice, and preparation for testing and further education, and de-contextualized teaching is the method that helps them to accomplish these things. As for learning vocabulary in context, the participants preferred this method to rote learning. However, there were some students who did not like to learn new words by guessing the meaning from context. Waring (1995) argued that learners may have difficulties guessing the meaning of words from context if they do not have sufficient vocabulary knowledge. However, when the learners' are capable of handling the difficulties, context-based learning should be promoted progressively in the classroom to develop both knowledge and the use of language.

The research findings have some important implications for vocabulary teaching and learning and for further research in this field. One of the main implications is that teachers should employ more than one teaching technique to teach vocabulary. Word meanings should be taught in isolation to enhance the understanding of their features and also taught in context to indicate use in daily life. However, the learners' current level of knowledge should also be continually assessed to provide appropriate teaching and tasks. Future research may consider effective methods of vocabulary teaching for different groups of learners, such as those with different educational backgrounds or levels of English proficiency. Attitudes and suggestions from teachers are also useful; therefore, interviews could be conducted to find out about appropriate vocabulary teaching methods for particular groups of learners from a teacher’s perspective.

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Appendix

Test (De-contextualizing technique) **จงเลือกคำแปลที่ถูกต้องของคำศัพท์ที่ขีดเส้นใต้**

1. Neil Armstrong was the first <u>astronaut</u>. He went to the moon by Apollo 11.

a.) ยานอวกาศ b.)นักบินอวกาศ c.) กระสวยอวกาศ d.) ดาวเทียม

2. I go to the sea. I like to <u>breathe</u> the fresh air.

a.) หายใจ b.)กังวล c.) มอง d.) เป่า

3. She wants a <u>bunch</u> of flowers. She doesn't want a flower.

a.) ช่อ b.)ก้าน c.) ใบ d.) กล่อง

4. She is good at singing. She goes to the singing <u>competition</u>.

a.) งานเลี้ยง b.)ประชุม c.) สอบ d.) การแข่งขัน

5. There are many buildings and many cars in big city. There are many trees and many rice fields in <u>countryside</u>.

a.) เมืองใหญ่ b.)ป่า c.) สวน d.) ชนบท

<u>Dictation.</u>

จงเขียนคำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษตามคำบอกให้ถูกต้องในตารางด้านซ้ายและเขียนคำแปลภาษาไทยในตารางด้านขวา

English words	Thai Translation
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

Test (Contextualizing technique) จงเลือกคำแปลที่ถูกต้องของคำศัพท์ที่ขีดเส้นใต้

1. A cat is on the bough of tree.

a.) ก้าน b.)ต้นไม้ c.) ตอไม้ d.) กิ่งไม้

2. You can't touch your feet if you don't bend down.

a.) ก้ม b.)ตรง c.) ตั้ง d.) มอง

3. I see this advertisement. I want to buy this doll.

a.) ประกาศ b.)โทรทัศน์ c.) ป้าย d.) โฆษณา

4. The duty of soldier is protecting our country.

a.) การบ้าน b.)หน้าตา c.) หน้าที่ d.) เวลา

5. The capital city of Malaysia is Kuala Lumpur

a.) จังหวัด b.)เมือง c.) เมืองหลวง d.) เมืองท่า

Dictation.

จงเขียนคำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษตามคำบอกให้ถูกต้องในตารางด้านซ้ายและเขียนคำแปลภาษาไทยในตารางด้านขวา

English words	Thai Translation
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

Do Gay, Bi, and Straight People Use Facebook Differently?

Smith Boonchutima,

Tanaphon Dangpheng,

Naruenun Mahaarnuntaputt

Abstract

The way in which people with different sexual orientations use certain types of media is an important topic of interest among communication scholars. Understanding the communication patterns in Facebook use among gay, bi, and straight people could shed light on differences in communication in this digital era. The objective of this study was to evaluate Facebook use among heterosexual and homosexual male students. Self-administered questionnaires were used to collect data from 400 undergraduate male students at Chulalongkorn University. Overall, male students were less actively engaged in conversations on Facebook compared to their female counterparts. Our results showed that approximately 1 out of 5 participants indicated that they liked to or used to have sex with men. Compared to straight men, gay and bisexual men are more active Facebook users. This group more frequently updated their status, commented on their friends' photos, posted photos and messages on their friends' pages, and showed support for others. We also found that gay and bisexual men gave advice to their friends on Facebook, as well as shared their personal problems. These results suggest that gay and bisexual men use Facebook to escape stress, entertain themselves, and cope with problems compared to straight men, who did not use Facebook to satisfy those needs and were found to be more reserved and less communicative.

Keyword: Chulalongkorn University; Facebook; gender; gratification; use

บทคัดย่อ

รูปแบบการใช้สื่อของบุคคลที่มีเพศวิถีที่แตกต่างกัน เป็นประเด็นสำคัญที่นักวิชาการด้านการสื่อสารให้ความสนใจ การทำความเข้าใจกับรูปแบบการใช้เฟสบุ๊คในกลุ่มเกย์ ไบ และชายแท้อาจจะทำให้เข้าใจถึงความแตกต่างด้านการสื่อสารในยุคดิจิทัลได้อย่างชัดเจนมากขึ้น การวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาการใช้เฟสบุ๊คในกลุ่มนิสิตชายระดับปริญญาตรีของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัยที่เป็นคนรักต่างเพศและคนรักเพศเดียวกัน เก็บข้อมูลโดยให้กลุ่มตัวอย่างกรอกข้อมูลในแบบสอบถามด้วยตนเอง มีกลุ่มตัวอย่างเข้าร่วม 400 คน โดยรวมแล้วพบว่า นิสิตชายมีแนวโน้มที่จะใช้เฟสบุ๊คเพื่อร่วมการสนทนาน้อยกว่านิสิตหญิง ผลการวิจัยยังพบว่าประมาณ 1

ใน 5 ของผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัยระบุว่าตนเองชอบหรือเคยมีเพศสัมพันธ์กับชาย และใช้เฟสบุ๊คมากกว่ากลุ่มชายแท้ โดยมักเป็นการอัพเดทสถานะ แสดงความเห็นกับรูปภาพของเพื่อน โพสต์ภาพและข้อความบนหน้าเพจของเพื่อน และมีการแสดงถึงการสนับสนุนให้กำลังใจเพื่อน นอกจากนี้ผู้วิจัยยังพบว่า กลุ่มเกย์และไบยังให้คำปรึกษาแก่เพื่อนบนเฟสบุ๊ค และบอกเล่าปัญหาส่วนตัวบนหน้าเฟสบุ๊คของตนเอง ผลการวิจัยชี้ให้เห็นว่ากลุ่มเกย์และไบ ใช้เฟสบุ๊คเพื่อหลีกหนีจากความเครียด เพื่อรับความบันเทิง และแก้ไขปัญหา ในขณะที่กลุ่มชายแท้ไม่ได้ใช้เฟสบุ๊คเพื่อตอบสนองความต้องการดังกล่าว กลุ่มชายแท้ไม่ค่อยสื่อสาร และไม่ค่อยแสดงรู้สึกนัก

คำสำคัญ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย เฟสบุ๊ค เพศวิถี ทฤษฎีการใช้และความพึงพอใจ

Introduction

Facebook is the number one social networking web site with a variety of users from every age and sex. In Thailand, Bangkok has the highest number of Facebook users (15.4 million people), accounting for 55% of total Thai Facebook users. In 2014, a social media analytics web site found that users feel that they can freely express themselves, their opinions, and their perspectives on a variety of issues on Facebook. In addition, a notable topic frequently discussed online is sexual orientation.

10% of the total world population consists of homosexuals, including gay men (6%), transgendered and bisexual people, and lesbians. There are both homosexuals and heterosexuals among the 31,542,000 males in Thailand. In this study, the participants included male bachelor degree students (18 to 23 years old) from Chulalongkorn University, Thailand's first higher education institution with 19 bachelor degree-level faculties. Since the university is located in the heart of Bangkok, where city-dwellers are generally more accepting of different sexual orientations, the chosen sample was expected to be a good representation of the population. Findings from this study are important for educational sectors in Thailand, such as the Ministry of Education, post-secondary educational institutions, and student affairs groups to help further develop communication among people with different sexual orientations.

Research Questions

1. How do male students use Facebook?
2. Are there differences in Facebook use between straight male and gay or bisexual male students? If so, what are the differences?

Literature Review

Societally, males are defined as “men” but gender can be defined in many ways, as its definition has evolved from various factors, such as historical context, geography, societal status, nationality, culture, age, marital status, sexual orientation, and individual differences. Thus, the definition of “male” has not always been a stable one, but one that has progressed through time and been determined according to set laws. Brannon and David and Lindsey [7]proposed that males can be categorized into five groups: (1) “No Sissy Stuff” – Masculine males who do not exhibit “weak” behavior, (2) “Big Wheel” – Males that exhibit their masculinity through their ability to earn income, (3) “The Sturdy Oak” – Enduring and strong males, (4) “Give ‘em Hell” – Males that are ready to defend themselves and fight back when attacked, and (5) “The Macho Man” – Men that are interested primarily in sex. This categorization is similar to Tuncay’s definition of “male”: (1) A person who is interested in physical attractiveness, (2) A person who values family, love, and children, (3) A person who has thoughts about being a leader and obtaining respect and power, (4) A person who values monetary and material success, and (5) A person who is interested in women and sex. In this study, the definition of “male” exclusively refers to “men who like women.”

“Queer” is a relatively new term that defines a different type of sexual orientation. Examples of different types of sexual orientations include lesbians, gay men, homosexuals, bisexuals, heterosexuals, abstinent people, undecided people, and people who have both male and female reproductive organs. A study by D'Augelli and Grossman 53% reported that they realized their homosexuality between the ages of 11 and 20 years; the most common age of sexual realization was 14. Moreover, 35% of participants reported that they realized their sexual orientation at 10 years of age or younger, 4% reported between 21 and 40 years of age, and 3% reported 40 years of age or older. In this study, “gay” refers to homosexuals.

Over the past decade, Facebook has played an important role as an online social platform for users worldwide. The use of other social networking websites has also increased; however, Facebook is still considered to be the most successful and widely used social networking website, which is largely due to the ability to use Facebook on mobile devices. Facebook’s mission is “to give people the power to share and make the world more open and connected.” Facebook connects friends and family and helps inform users on world news. It also enables users to share updates around the world. Currently, Facebook has an average of 890 million users per day (745 million in North America).

Kim, Sohn’s study reported that people use Facebook to find friends (36%), for convenience (13%), to gain support from others (9%), to find information (8%), and for entertainment (5%). Lin and Lu’s study on Facebook use between males and females revealed that females are more sensitive about expressing their opinions of other people compared to males. In decision-making, males use more reason and less emotion, as they seem to more highly value reason; online, males seem to be more interested in entertainment. Moreover, Shaw, Timpano reported that the amount of time spent using Facebook is correlated with social anxiety.

Quan-Haase and Young found that bachelor degree students frequently use Facebook. Among that sample, 82% of the students used Facebook multiple times per day, 5% updated their status at least once a day, 22% used Facebook at least once a week, and 42% used Facebook at least once a month; use ranged from five to fifteen minutes for each session. Students use Facebook to reply to messages, look at photos or friends' activities, follow up on other current updates or activities, or pass the time.

Joiner et al. revealed that women update their Facebook status two times more than men and post more emotional content; however, there were no differences in the number of "likes" used between men and women. Women also used their iPhone to update their status two times more than men. Leaper and Ayres's study found that men are more talkative than women and use more confident language. Furthermore, Thelwall, Willkinson, and Uppal's (2010) study on MySpace found that women express their opinions in more positive ways than men. Wang, Burke also showed that women share more personal stories and receive more feedback on posts than males, especially from other women. Men generally discuss more general issues instead of personal stories. Walton and Rice's (2013) analysis of 3571 tweets on Twitter reveal that women post more informational, positive, and open content compared to men. The researchers also concluded that women generally care more about other people's feelings than men.Walton and Rice Moore and McElroy found that women use Facebook for longer periods of time, have more friends, and post photos and status updates more often than men; however, although women generally use Facebook longer per time, they use it less frequently than men.

Facebook use not only differs between men and women, but also differs among homosexuals. Gudelunas found that social networking websites play a role in gay culture in helping them find and connect with friends and lovers and reveal their sexual identity, as well as create a space for popular gay movement leaders to set an example for "coming out of the closet." For gay men, Facebook provides a safer online platform, as they often face difficulties in the offline world. Younger gay men are more likely to use the Internet to support their culture, while older gay men are more likely to go online to find sexual partners.

Methods

A total of 400 surveys were distributed to male bachelor degree students from Chulalongkorn University in Thailand. The university was selected as the site of data collection because it is located in the Bangkok city center where one can expect to find a more open attitude towards homosexuality. This allowed the participants to feel more open in their response to questions about sexual orientation. Internet access is provided free of charge within the campus at all times; therefore, the cost of access to the internet had little effect on the participant's Facebook use.

Since the number of males that are gay and bisexual is unknown, surveys were given out to male students from 18 to 23 years old. The distribution method was random, since the surveys were given out to male students from different faculties within Chulalongkorn University. Participants completed the survey on their own. The first 200 surveys were distributed to different faculties within the universities, while the latter 200 were distributed at the student common area where a lot of male students from many different faculties use the facilities to study for exams.

Questionnaire components

1. Demographics
   a. Participants were asked to choose from an age range of 18 to 23 years
2. Facebook use
   a. Facebook use per week: none, less than 1 time, 1 to 3 times, 4 to 6 times, 7 or more times
3. Type of Facebook use
   a. Participants choose numbers according to how much they agreed with the statements on Facebook use: not at all true of me, slightly true of me, moderately true of me, very true of me, completely true of me
4. Sexual orientation
   a. The gender that participants prefer sexually
   b. The gender that participants have had sexual relationships with: Men=gay or bisexual; Both sexes=gay or bisexual; Women=straight men; Do not like sex=excluded from the study

Results

Participants in the study were males aged 18 to 23 years; 85% were 19 to 22 years old, 8.75% were 18 years old, and 5.75% were 23 years old. 325 participants (81.25%) identified as straight men and 75 people (18.75%) identified as gay or bisexual.

Table 1. Male students' Facebook use

Facebook Use	Facebook Use Per Week						$\bar{x}$	S.D.
	None	<1 time	1-3 times	3-6 times	>6 times or more	Total		
Chatting	22 (5.51)	41 (10.28)	101 (25.31)	81 (20.30)	154 (38.60)	399 (100)	4.09	1.59
Finding information on shopping, eating, and traveling	29 (7.30)	34 (8.56)	114 (28.72)	72 (18.14)	148 (37.28)	397 (100)	3.98	1.59

Facebook Use	Facebook Use Per Week						x̄	S.D.
	None	<1 time	1-3 times	3-6 times	>6 times or more	Total		
Commenting on friends' statuses or photos	39 (9.75)	74 (18.50)	133 (33.25)	75 (18.75)	79 (19.75)	400 (100)	3.36	1.48
Updating status	127 (31.83)	145 (36.34)	68 (17.04)	39 (9.77)	20 (5.02)	399 (100)	2.23	1.22
Posting photos on their own wall	96 (24.06)	180 (45.11)	87 (21.80)	22 (5.51)	14 (3.51)	399 (100)	2.22	1.05
Posting photos or messages on their friends' walls	104 (26.07)	166 (41.60)	91 (22.81)	24 (6.02)	14 (3.51)	399 (100)	2.21	1.07
Playing games	282 (70.50)	69 (17.25)	21 (5.25)	12 (3.00)	16 (4.00)	400 (100)	1.56	1.13

1) Although there were 400 participants in total, the total was adjusted to the number of participants who responded.
2) The mean scores are in the brackets if not in the x̄ column.

Table 1 shows that 80.87% of male students used Facebook more than 6 times per week. Many male students used Facebook to chat (38.60%) and to get information on shopping, eating, and traveling (37.28%); however, students only used Facebook to comment on their friends' status or pictures 1 to 3 times per week. Students also used Facebook to update their status (36.34%), post pictures on their own wall (45.11%), and post pictures or messages on their friends' walls (41.60%) less than 1 time per week. 70.50% of male students did not use Facebook for playing games. Only 1 in 10 (12.25%) of male students played Facebook games at least 1 or more times per week.

Table 2. Facebook use and gratification

Facebook Use and Gratification Levels	Level of Agreement						x̄	S.D.
	Strongl yagree (5)	Agree (4)	Neutral (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly disagree (1)	Total		
I use Facebook for entertainment.	134 (33.50)	175 (43.75)	75 (18.75)	13 (3.25)	3 (0.75)	400 (100)	4.06	0.85
I use Facebook for relaxation.	119 (29.75)	173 (43.25)	85 (21.25)	17 (4.25)	6 (1.50)	400 (100)	3.95	0.90
I use Facebook to relieve stress throughout the day.	61 (15.25)	131 (32.75)	120 (30.00)	65 (16.25)	23 (5.75)	400 (100)	3.36	1.10
I use Facebook to support and encourage other people.	42 (10.50)	110 (27.50)	147 (36.75)	64 (16.00)	37 (9.25)	400 (100)	3.14	1.10
I use Facebook to thank others in certain situations.	39 (9.75)	115 (28.75)	128 (32.00)	82 (20.50)	36 (9.00)	400 (100)	3.10	1.11
I use Facebook in order to participate in various situations/events in other people's lives.	35 (8.75)	117 (29.25)	134 (33.50)	73 (18.25)	41 (10.25)	400 (100)	3.08	1.11
I use Facebook as a means to use my free time productively.	23 (8.25)	87 (15.75)	194 (48.50)	63 (21.75)	33 (5.75)	400 (100)	3.01	0.97
I use Facebook to express my affection for those around me.	36 (9.00)	92 (23.00)	143 (35.75)	84 (21.00)	45 (11.25)	400 (100)	2.97	1.12
I use Facebook to find new trends for	31	97	127	83	62	400	2.88	1.17

myself.	(7.75)	(24.25)	(31.75)	(20.75)	(15.50)	(100)		
I use Facebook to meet people of the opposite sex.	39 (9.75)	70 (17.50)	128 (32.00)	83 (20.75)	80 (20.00)	400 (100)	2.76	1.23
I use Facebook to be seen as a modern, in-trend person.	21 (5.25)	81 (20.25)	111 (27.75)	91 (22.75)	96 (24.00)	400 (100)	2.60	1.20
I use Facebook to support other people	28 (7.00)	61 (15.25)	110 (27.50)	109 (27.25)	92 (23.00)	400 (100)	2.56	1.20
I use Facebook to inform others about my problems and to give advice to others.	18 (4.50)	68 (17.00)	100 (25.00)	107 (26.75)	107 (26.75)	400 (100)	2.46	1.18
I use Facebook to forget about my problems.	18 (4.50)	49 (12.25)	89 (22.25)	112 (28.00)	132 (33.00)	400 (100)	2.27	1.17
I use Facebook to meet people of the same sex.	20 (5.00)	35 (8.75)	112 (28.00)	87 (21.75)	146 (36.50)	400 (100)	2.24	1.18
Total							**2.96**	**0.70**

1) The mean scores are in brackets if they are not in the $\bar{x}$ column.

Table 2 shows that approximately 1 in 3 male Chulalongkorn University students used Facebook for entertainment (43.75%), relaxation (43.25%), and stress relief throughout the day (32.75%). Most male students used Facebook to support and encourage others (36.75%), thank others in certain situations (32%), to participate in situations/events in other people's lives (33.50%), to use free time productively (48.50%), to express affection to others around them (35.75%), to find new trends for themselves (31.75%), to meet others of the opposite sex (32%), to make themselves look modern and in-trend (27.75%), and to help others (27.50%). Some male students used Facebook to share their personal problems with others and give advice to others (26.75%), to forget their problems (33.00%), and to meet people of the same sex (36.5%).

Table 3. Facebook use according to sexual orientation.

Facebook Use	Sexual Orientation	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	n	t-test
Status updates	Straight	2.07	1.09	325	- 5.590***
	Gay or Bisexual	2.92	1.52	74	
Posting picture on their own wall	Straight	2.09	0.96	325	- 5.046***
	Gay or Bisexual	2.76	1.26	74	
Commenting on a friend's status or photo	Straight	3.19	1.42	325	- 4.802***
	Gay or Bisexual	4.08	1.57	75	
Posting picture or message on friends' walls	Straight	2.11	0.97	324	- 3.906***
	Gay or Bisexual	2.64	1.34	75	
Playing games	Straight	1.50	1.00	325	- 2.281*
	Gay or Bisexual	1.83	1.55	75	
Chatting	Straight	4.02	1.55	324	- 1.814
	Gay or Bisexual	4.39	1.73	75	
Finding information on shopping, eating, and traveling	Straight	3.92	1.58	322	- 1.544
	Gay or Bisexual	4.24	1.61	75	
Using Facebook	Straight	5.43	1.08	317	- 0.766
	Gay or Bisexual	5.53	1.10	75	

*$p \leq 0.05$; **$p \leq 0.01$; **$p \leq 0.001$

Note: 75 men that were categorized as gay or bisexual, while 325 were categorized as straight.

Table 3 shows that both straight and gay or bisexual male Chulalongkorn University students used Facebook differently. Gay or bisexual males used Facebook significantly more than straight males (*p*=0.001) for the following activities: expressing opinions on statuses and friends' pictures ($\bar{x}$ =4.08, 3.19; t=4.802, *p*=0.000), status updates ($\bar{x}$ = 2.92, 2.07; t=5.59, *p*=0.000), posting pictures on their own walls ($\bar{x}$ =2.76, 2.09; t=5.046, *p*=0.000), and posting pictures or messages on friends' walls ($\bar{x}$ =2.64, 2.11; t=3.906, *p*=0.000). In addition, gay and bisexual males used Facebook to play games significantly more than straight men ($\bar{x}$ =1.83, 1.50; t=2.281, *p*=0 . 0 23). Gays and bisexual men also use Facebook significantly more to chat and get information on shopping, eating, and traveling by a minor statistical value of 0.05.

Table 4 Facebook use among different sexual orientations.

Facebook Use	Sexual Orientation	$\bar{x}$	S.D.	n	t-test
To support and encourage others	Straight	3.03	1.10	325	- 4.339***
	Gay or bisexual	3.60	1.00	75	
To show care for others	Straight	2.87	1.10	325	- 4.118***
	Gay or bisexual	3.44	1.08	75	
To inform others of our own problems and	Straight	2.37	1.18	325	- 3.410***
to give advice	Gay or bisexual	2.85	1.10	75	
To meeting others of the same sex	Straight	2.14	1.15	325	- 3.390***
	Gay or bisexual	2.67	1.22	75	
To help others	Straight	2.47	1.21	325	- 3.246***
	Gay or bisexual	2.96	1.06	75	
To thank others in various occasions	Straight	3.02	1.10	325	- 3.068*
	Gay or bisexual	3.45	1.12	75	
To relieve stress throughout the day	Straight	3.29	1.11	325	- 2.535*
	Gay or bisexual	3.63	1.01	75	
For entertainment	Straight	4.02	0.85	325	- 2.096*
	Gay or bisexual	4.24	0.82	75	
To forget about problems	Straight	2.22	1.17	325	- 2.037*
	Gay or bisexual	2.52	1.17	75	
To have a part in some situation or event in	Straight	3.03	1.12	325	- 1.928
other people's lives	Gay or bisexual	3.29	1.05	75	
To find new trends for self	Straight	2.83	1.16	325	- 1.733
	Gay or bisexual	3.09	1.19	75	
To make oneself more trendy	Straight	2.55	1.23	325	- 1.710
	Gay or bisexual	2.81	1.07	75	
For relaxation	Straight	3.92	0.89	325	- 1.419
	Gay or bisexual	4.09	0.95	75	
To meet others of the opposite sex	Straight	2.80	1.24	325	1.391
	Gay or bisexual	2.59	1.21	75	
To use free time productively	Straight	2.99	1.00	325	- 1.105
	Gay or bisexual	3.11	0.80	75	

(*= p-value ≤ 0.05, ** p-value ≤ 0.01, *** p-value ≤ 0.001)

Table 4 shows that both straight and gay or bisexual male Chulalongkorn University students exhibited differences in Facebook use. Gay and bisexual males used Facebook significantly more often than straight males to support and encourage others ($\bar{x}$ =3.60, 3.03; t=4.339; *p*=0.001), show affection for others ($\bar{x}$ =3.44, 2.87; t=4.118, *p*=0.001), help others ($\bar{x}$ =2.96, 2.47; t=3.246, $p \leq 0.001$), inform others about personal problems and give advice ($\bar{x}$ =2.85, 2.37; t=3.410, $p \leq 0.001$), thank others in certain situations ($\bar{x}$ =3.45, 3.02; t=3.068, *p*=0.003). for entertainment ($\bar{x}$ =4.24, 4.02; t=2.096, *p*=0.038), to relieve stress throughout the day ($\bar{x}$ =3.63, 3.29; t=2.535, *p*=0.013), and to forget about problems ($\bar{x}$ =2.52, 2.22; t=2.037, *p*=0.044). Gay and bisexual males also used Facebook significantly more than straight males in order to use free time relax, to make themselves look modern and in-trend, to find new trends for themselves, and to take part in situations or events in other people's lives (*p*=0.05). Straight males used Facebook significantly more than gay and bisexual males to meet people of the opposite sex (*p*=0.05).

Discussion

This study focused on the differences in Facebook use between straight males and gay or bisexual males and was based on previous studies on the differences in Facebook use between men and women and between heterosexuals and bisexuals. Previous studies faced limitations since the number of participants available to compare with heterosexual men is usually quite small. This study both confirmed previous studies as well as raised other notable issues. We found that the percentage of gay and bisexual males to straight males is at 18.75% in this male population, indicating that gay and bisexual male Chulalongkorn University students are more open about their sexual orientation compared to the global population. Since Chulalongkorn University is a leading higher education institution situated in the center of Bangkok, we can assume that the students are more confident about expressing their true sexual orientation.

The average age of the participants in this study was 20.31 years. Most students were heavy Facebook users (more than 7 times per week) and used Facebook mainly to chat; only 58.9% of the participating students used Facebook 3 times a week or more. Most students used Facebook to gather information and update on news and societal happenings rather than chatting or building relationships with others. Male students are more likely to use other social tools to chat, such as Line or Whatsapp. This study found that Facebook use differs according to sexual orientation; thus, findings from this study are useful in order to further understand the differences in Facebook use between straight men and gay and bisexual men.

We found that gay and bisexual men use Facebook to update their status, post pictures on their own wall, express opinions a friend's status or wall, and post pictures or messages on a friend's wall significantly more often than straight males (*p*=0.05), indicating that gay and bisexual men use Facebook to express themselves and build relationships with others more than straight men. Facebook, being an online platform that connects many people, enables its users to better maintain relationships with others and is a convenient channel for users to meet others online. Straight men are more prone to isolating themselves, expressing themselves as leaders, or acting as though they are above others on Facebook. Straight men also often give more importance to their own stories over building relationships with others.

Gay and bisexual men use Facebook to support and encourage others, express affection for others, inform others about their problems and give advice, help others, relieve stress during the day, for entertainment, and to forget about a problem significantly more than straight men. It is difficult for gay and bisexual men to express their true identities publicly, often resulting in feelings of anxiety and stress. Consequently, many gay and bisexual men strive to gain social acceptance; they also need ways to entertain themselves and relax. Gay and bisexual men often exhibit behavior that is more similar to women than straight men, such as being more adept at understanding others, adapting to others, and advising others. Like females, they are more likely to use gentle language and encouragement in order to comfort others.

Conclusion

This study shows that gay and bisexual men use Facebook more similarly to women than straight men. These results align with the concept of femininity, which means having qualities that are typically associated with women, such as being better able to control actions and conduct than straight men. Bakan also defines "woman" with the word "communion," which is a state in which a person is in a relationship with others, having qualities of communication, openness, and cooperation. Like females, gay and bisexual men enjoy socializing and crave acceptance from society more than straight men. Thus, this group uses Facebook more frequently than straight men in order to meet their social acceptance needs.

Gay and bisexual men use Facebook more often than straight men to develop relationships with others; therefore, these findings suggest that communications be tailored to suit men with different sexual orientations. Similar to women, information for gay and bisexual men should contain elements of entertainment rather than just hard facts, as many gay and bisexual men use Facebook to avoid or relieve stress throughout the day.

Limitations

Participants for this study were chosen only from Chulalongkorn University, the nation's leading higher education institution in Bangkok; as such, these results may be skewed. Students in this sample were urbanites, meaning that they are likely more open about expressing their sexual orientation, as urbanites are generally more accepting of others with different sexual orientations. Furthermore, there is more technological access in Bangkok, which could possibly skew the results of Facebook use. Thus, a study of sample participants from other universities would be useful in further comparing and understanding the differences between straight men and gay and bisexual men.

1. Another limitation lies in the accidental sampling method used in this study. With this sampling method, inaccuracies in demographic information must be taken into account, as the sample is only drawn from part of the population. In subsequent studies, using other sampling methods, such as systematic or snowball sampling, is recommended.
2. Misunderstandings of the participants should to be taken into account with regards to the survey used to study gay and bisexual behavior. In the survey, the mention of the activity of “using Facebook to meet people of the opposite sex” may be misunderstood. Gay and bisexual men may have differing understandings of what “the opposite sex” refers to — some may understand this to mean women, while others, men. In future studies, “the opposite sex” should be clearly labeled as to specify male or female.

Author disclosure statement

No competing financial interests exist.

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New Lad: Re-Packaged Masculinity in Men's Lifestyle Magazines

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Abstract

This paper examines the representation of *new lad* in men's lifestyle magazines and the cultivation of the masculine identity among magazine readers, seeking to understand how this construction of *new lad* affects the way the masculine gender is performed and conceptualised in a broader social context. Four focus group interview scripts of magazine readers, sponsored by the ESRC and conducted by ESRC researchers in 1997, are analysed by using the qualitative data analytical software, *Nvivo*, to provide a systematic understanding of the cultural shift in the construction of masculinity and the proliferation of male consumerism, represented in men's magazines. This paper argues that the displacement of softer *new man* identity and the eager embrace of *new lad* archetype by UK men's lifestyle magazines is a reassertion of masculine power in a subtler format.

Keywords: masculine gender, men's lifestyle magazine, new lad, focus group, Nvivo

บทคัดย่อ

บทความนี้ศึกษาการสร้างภาพแทน*เด็กหนุ่มใหม่*ในวารสารไลฟ์สไตล์สำหรับผู้ชายและการประกอบสร้างอัตลักษณ์ความเป็นชายของผู้อ่านวารสารดังกล่าวเพื่อทำความเข้าใจว่าการประกอบสร้างอัตลักษณ์*เด็กหนุ่มใหม่*นั้นส่งผลต่อการนำเสนอเพศสภาพนั้นและการสร้างกรอบคิดทางสังคมอย่างไร บทความนี้ใช้โปรแกรมคอมพิวเตอร์สำหรับการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเชิงคุณภาพชื่อ เอ็นวีโว่ ในการวิเคราะห์บทสนทนากลุ่ม สี่กลุ่ม ซึ่งได้รับทุนวิจัยและวิจัยโดยนักวิจัยของสภาการวิจัยทางเศรษฐกิจและสังคมในปี พ.ศ. 2540 เพื่อสร้างความรู้อย่างเป็นระบบในเรื่องการเปลี่ยนแปลงทางวัฒนธรรม โดยเฉพาะประเด็นการประกอบสร้างความเป็นชาย และการส่งเสริมแนวคิดแบบบริโภคนิยมในผู้ชาย ซึ่งมีการนำเสนอไว้ในวารสารสำหรับผู้ชายดังกล่าว บทความนี้เสนอว่าการที่วารสารไลฟ์สไตล์สำหรับผู้ชายแทนที่อัตลักษณ์*ผู้ชายใหม่*ที่มีลักษณะอ่อนโยนด้วยอัตลักษณ์แบบ*เด็กหนุ่มใหม่*เป็นการตอกย้ำอำนาจของผู้ชายในแบบที่สุขุมขึ้น

คำสำคัญ: เพศสภาพชาย วารสารไลฟ์สไตล์สำหรับผู้ชาย เด็กหนุ่มใหม่ การสนทนากลุ่มเอ็นวีโว่

Introduction

Since its launch in 1994 *Loaded* has introduced a new articulated masculinity - *new lad* - to the public. Contrary to its predecessor - *new man*, *new lad* challenges the constructed images of *new man*'s sensitivity and narcissism by reclaiming its "authentic" masculinity. *Load*'s celebration of working class culture, male bonding and heterosexual masculinity is perpetually reproduced in the magazine's contents (Benwell, 2003, p.7).

The commercial success of *Loaded* to an extent influenced other UK men's lifestyle magazines, for example *FHM*, *Maxim*, to replace the "softer" and "caring" images of *new man* with "harder" and a more hedonistic masculine version of *new lad*. (Stevenson, Jackson & Brook, 2003, p. 121). The National Readership Surveys in 2000 confirms the popularity of these new men's lifestyle magazines as two of the five most popular monthly magazines read by men are *Loaded* and *FHM* (Matheson and Summerfield, 2001, p. 71).

This sensational phenomenon raises a question why and how the *new lad* identity might have caused such an impressive impact within a decade of its appearance. The emergence of *new lad* can also be said to offer a possibility for research on the interactive engagement between popular media consumers and the men's lifestyle magazine's construction of modern masculinities in the United Kingdom.

This paper aims to uncover the interconnected relationship between the representation of *new lad* in men's lifestyle magazines and the articulation of this new masculine identity among magazine readers, seeking to understand how this construction of new lad affects the way the masculine gender is performed and conceptualised in a broader social context.

The paper begins with the introspection of the conceptualisation of *new man* and *new lad*, respectively, to find out what social specifics might have constituted the displacement of *new man* by *new lad* in the 1990s and what have contributed to the success of these men's lifestyle magazines in terms of social and commercial capitals. Then, four focus group interview transcripts of men's lifestyle magazine readers are randomly chosen to analyse how the readers identify or relate themselves with the *new lad* ideology in the magazines. The 28 focus group interviews were originally conducted by Peter Jackson, Nick Stevenson and Kate Brooks in 1997 as part of an ESRC funded research, titled Cons*umption, lifestyle and identity: Reading the new men's lifestyle magazines, 1985-1997*. Seeking the systematic understanding of the data, the software *Nvivo* was employed in coding significant messages appeared in the transcripts of chosen focus group interviews.

The selected four focus groups are:

1) 18 year old male *FHM* readers (Sheffield);
2) Male art college students (London);
3) Male *Loaded* readers (Bristol),
4) Men's fashions shop (male) staff (Sheffield)

The analysis of the focus groups to some extent provides an understanding of how the construction of *new lad* in new men's lifestyle magazines is read by magazine readers and the ways in which *new lad* identity is implemented by young men. This paper argues that the men's lifestyle magazines' popular reinvention of masculine identity is a form of gender politics, making *new lad* a part of the hegemonic masculinity's self-repackaging project in order to negotiate and maintain men's supremacy.

Literature Review: Understanding New Man and New Lad

New Man

According to MacKinnon (2003, pp. 13-16), the construction of *new man* can be traced back to the 1970s. Particularly in men's lifestyle magazines, the *new man* is depicted as being a white, middle class, professional, heterosexual man, aged between mid-twenties and early forties. Unlike the traditional representation of masculinity in the media, the projection of *new man* by men's lifestyle magazines can be said to have been influenced by a feminist ideology on gender equality. *New man* is described as having a non-oppressive relationship with his female partner, not necessary his wife, and other subordinate men. *New man* is also said to have benefited from the 1970s obscured distinction between men's work and leisure enabling him to have more time for taking care of himself and his loved ones. Like the traditional macho masculine identity, *new man* is also being pressured to compete for his social dominance including being financially independent, consuming commodities often associated with masculinity, e.g., cars, watches, etc.

Commodity consumption was conventionally considered a woman's domain due to the European conventional practice of labour division since the 18th century industrial revolution. Men were regarded as marginal consumers since they were traditionally thought of being associated more closely with the "realm of production". Osgerby's research (2003, pp. 57-83) discovers that there was a commercial campaign to encourage men to consume more commodities as early as the 1920s. He points out that men's lifestyle magazines, such as *Esquire*, *Playboy*, *Men Only*, *Lilliput*, etc., painstakingly led a public campaign to dissociate consumerism from femininity so that men would not feel being socially stigmatised about their commodity consumption. He argues that these American and British men's lifestyle magazines played a crucial role in opening up the possibility for men to enter the realm of commodity consumption and to legitimately develop a hedonistic and narcissistic orientation of personal consumption. The success of men's lifestyle magazines in the United Kingdom and the United States in the 1980s shows the transformation of middle class values from the production-based "breadwinner" archetype to the "progressive" interaction between masculinity and consumerism.

Since the 1960s feminism and women's movements have provoked the transformation of gender relations, opening up the interrogation of taken for granted traditional masculinity. The feminists' critiques of pre-given, universal masculine attributes led to the construction of a new form of masculinity, the *new man*, which includes certain attributes, previously deemed as feminine, for example, emotionality, intimacy, caring, etc. The revision of traditional masculinity as *new man* was a result of feminists' initiated discussions on gender inequality and social movements, for example, peace movements, anti-racist organisations, environmental movements, sexual liberation movements, etc., during the 1970s – 80s. In other words, these social movements provided a suitable environment in which new masculine discourses could be conceptualised and disseminated (Gill, 2003, p. 42; MacKinnon, 2003, pp. 3-6).

The popularity of psychoanalysis both in the United Kingdom and the United States during the 1970s also led to the social recognition of men's hidden emotionality. Psychoanalysis can be argued to liberate men from their repressive psychic parts, allegedly causing men's physical and mental problems. This concern over "toxic masculinity" or men's patterns of behaviours paved the way for the formation of the new masculinity (Gill, 2003, p. 43; MacKinnon, 2003, p. 6-7).

Asserted by Gill (2003, pp. 43-45), the emergence of "style magazines" during the 1980s, e.g., *The Face*, *Arena*, *Esquire* engendered the visual imagination of *new man* as the magazines aimed to open up the exploration of male-aesthetic based on fashions. They targeted male readership and attempted to redefine how men's bodies are represented in advertisements. This phenomenon can be said to suggest the media's accommodation of the UK economic changes during the 1980s when there was a significant decline in manufacturing businesses but an increase of employment in retailing sectors, including the clothes retailing. As a result, *new man* was seen as a new potential target for the fashion and clothing businesses.

Gill (2003, p. 45) points out that the punk music and the punk style in the 1970s may have possibly presented a challenge to the traditional masculinity, especially in terms of masculine self-presentation as punk allowing men to break off the traditional masculine codes of dressing.

Gill (2003, p. 43-45) asserts that the attempt to play with a new masculine imagery in the "style" magazines was almost aborted. One of the reasons was the belief that men did not define themselves the same way women do since men likely thought of themselves as a norm. Although certain magazines aimed at "men's interests", such as cars, fishing, etc., were already circulated in the market, there was no such magazine that exclusively defined itself as a magazine for men's general interests (Stevenson, Jackson & Brooks, 2003, p. 117). Besides, the reading public are said to regard the magazines' adoption of intimate language addressing their readers analogous to the style employed by women's magazines and the presentation of male bodies as eliciting homoeroticism even though the eroticised masculine bodies were produced by the mainstream heterosexual media.

Gill (2003, pp. 45-46) regards the straight /heterosexual/ mainstream media and clothes retailing industry's appropriation of eroticised male bodies, regularly used in the gay porn and photography industries, as the shift in the heteronormative subject-object order of spectatorship. The growing visibility of eroticised male bodies outside the gay media suggests that men have become an *object of the gaze* (Mulvey, 1999). In other words, the success of the men's lifestyle magazines indicates the insecurity of monolithic traditional masculinity and opens up a space for the "multiple manifestation of masculinities" to be developed.

In addition, it is important to discern the influence of gay politics on the media's conceptualisation of *new man*. According to Edwards (1997, cited in Gill, 2003, p. 46), the fact that "gay men tend to have higher disposable income than their straight counterparts" may more or less influence the production of commodities. Moreover, the projection of alternative masculinity as "caring", "loving", and "nurturing", contradictory to the traditional masculinity, according to Gill (2003), can be illustrated by men who have taken care of their partners and friends who suffered from HIV/AIDS.

New Lad

As described by Benwell (2003, p. 6), *Loaded* was

> brash, funny and sometimes surreal; it was tongue-in-check sexist; it celebrated working class culture, male camaraderie and above all, masculinity. It deliberately presented itself as a challenge to the existing construction of the feminist-friendly, sensitive narcissist known as *new man* embodied in the fashion-based publications founded in the 1980s such as *Arena*, *Esquire* and *GQ*, which were (according to one of its founding editors) by the same editor as 'an anti-men's magazine' (Southwell, 1998, p. 17); its brand of masculinity was quickly dubbed 'new lad' by the media; it was called *Loaded*…

Crew (cited in Benwell, 2003, p. 91) asserts that *Loaded*'s rapid popularity underlines the success of the *new lad* in replacing the "dominant commercial representation" of *new man* and the media's pervasive construction of a new masculine imagery, publicised in the United Kingdom over the past decades.

MacKinnon (2003) sees the emergence of a more boisterous version of masculinity as part of men's movements in the 1990s, believingly inspired by the famous novel, *Iron John* (1991), written by Robert Bly campaigning a return to the concept of "pre-given", "eternal" masculinity, allegedly threatened by "industrialisation, nearly distinguished by at least four decades of feminism, but waiting hidden to reinvigorate itself and leap into life" (p. 21).

Drawing on the *new lad*'s "misogyny", it can be understood that *new lad* is a "backlash against feminism" aimed to defensively reassert the "nostalgic" patriarchal power over women. However, the "individualistic" and "hedonistic pleasure"-oriented perspectives of the *new lad* can also present a serious challenge to *new man*'s imagery of "breadwinner" and "family provider". In other words, *new lad* can be seen as an attempt to unlock the traditional masculinity's emphasis on committed marriage, men's responsibilities, and to open up a space for developing a new form of men's lifestyle, focusing on consumption, non-committed sexual relations (Jackson, Stevenson & Brooks, 2003; Gill, 2003, pp. 46-47; MacInnes, 1998, p. 1)

New lad's criticism of *new man* as inauthentic suggests that *new man* as well as *new lad* are invented and employed as a marketing strategy by the media and retail industry. Describing *new man* as an articulated position adopted by ordinary men to get women to their beds, *new lad*, according to Gill (2003, p. 47), is hypothetically constructed on grounds of masculine "honesty".

Drawing on Beck's *Risk society*, Benwell (2003, p.11; p.17) explains that the construction of new lad is more about a "psychic response" to the insecurity of patriarchal values, for example, family, marriage. In other words, the constructed laddism can be understood as men's attempt to reaffirm a "clearer" and more "unified" ideology by drawing on the biological essentialism of gender.

During the 1990s the mainstream media played a significant role in the construction and promotion of the *new lad* culture, particularly in men's lifestyle magazines, for example, *Loaded*, *FHM*, *Maxim* in which a considerable proliferation of sexualised representation of women and a more assertive, hedonistic, heterosexual masculine discourses were encouraged. At the same time, the rise of "Neo-Darwinism", seeking to explain allegedly pre-given masculine attributes, for example, men's promiscuity, oppressiveness, etc., also contributed to the return to essentialist concepts of gender. The popular increase of gender essentialism in books, e.g., *Men Are from Mars,; Women Are from Venus* (1993), *Bridget Jones' Diary* (1996) and the pervasive commercialisation of sports, especially football, can also be said to help strengthen the *new lad*'s project to reclaim its masculine authenticity and solidarity.

Moreover, the failure of adequate HIV/AIDS campaigns in the United Kingdom and the proliferation of explicitly eroticised male and female images produced by the mainstream media since the 80s are blamed for the rise of "risk-taking" and hedonistic pleasure discourses in laddism (Gill, 2003, pp. 48- 53; Benwell, 2003, p. 17).

Methodology: Examining New Lad in Men's Lifestyle Magazines

In the following section, the representation of the *new lad* in men's lifestyle magazines is discussed through the analysis of focus group interviews. As mentioned earlier, the interview data were conducted by Peter Jackson, Kate Brook & Nick Stevenson (1997). Four focus groups are chosen to analyse how magazine readers (focus group participants) understand the cultural shift in the construction of masculinity and the proliferation of male consumerism, represented in men's magazines. To borrow Edwards' analysis of men's lifestyle magazines as "cultural text" and "cultural phenomenon" (2003, pp. 134-136), the representation of *new lad* identity can be found in the production of men's lifestyle magazines in which the definition of *new lad* is also articulated and contested. These four focus groups are selected because all participants are regular readers of the magazines and they are the perfect magazines' target groups. That is, they are young men, aged between 18 and 23, single, presumably white and heterosexual.

Findings: New Lad Readership and Identification

Although all participants are *new lad* magazine readers, London's art college students initially rejected the idea that they were into lad culture. As one of the two participants gave his reason that: "No, I'm not really into the lad culture, I mean I have a quite mixed group of friends, mixed sex friendships. Really, we usually go out in a group, so no I'm more into clubs and bars than pub".

Due to his cultural training background, the other participant from the art college categorised the *new lad* magazines as downmarket and asserted that the magazines were not for people like him. As he put it:

> "I don't think it's really sort of aiming to a cultured intelligent person, I think and you know looking for people who are going to read it pure entertainment value rather than any kind of intellectual stimulation."

The former participant eventually admitted that he was into lad culture after discussing with the moderator. As he discussed his passion for adventurous sport and his activities with his male peers, he described his interest:

> It's like exactly what my friends would do and but no one of the things we do each year is have a fortnight's holiday in Cornwall and we just go down there

> and literally get stoned…we go down and always say we're going to do some surfing, go down there and never even get to see the sea most of the time… we usually end up getting barred from the local pubs.

When asked to characterise the *new lad*, the participants identified the characteristics of *new lad* as, for example, "young beer head football hooligan", "16-30", "Stone Island wearing", "someone who goes out at weekend and gets totally pissed", "single", "no plans has a laugh", "no cares in the worlds" (Sheffield's men's fashions shop (male) staff). Therefore, it can be said that the production of *new lad* imagery is discursively understood by the magazine readers.

Focusing on the representation of *new lad* in men's lifestyle magazines, it is interesting to note that certain *new lad* discourses or "constructed certitudes" can be found in the participants' responses. Benwell (2003), explains that "'constructed certitudes' is a means of shoring up a clear and unified sense of ideology partly by casting out or ignoring ambiguity or complexity" (pp. 17-20). That is, these discourses suggest how the representation of *new lad* in men's lifestyle magazines is interpreted by the participants.

-The Honesty of New Lad

Honesty is one of the features, participants found *new lad* distinctive from *new man*. According to Sheffield's men's fashions shop staff, *Loaded* is "just a young person's view on everything…we can relate to it a lot easier. It wrote in our language. It's not like an old man writing it. Whereas GQ or something like that…It's too formal, isn't it".

18 years old lads from Sheffield similarly found that they could "relate to some of the stuff, just like how can you be that stupid!" While being *Loaded* regular readers, Bristol students described *Loaded* as "just basic", and "blatant" due to its focus on "women", "drugs", "sport", and the "entertainment world". To Bristol students, *Loaded* was brave to report certain issues often ignored by the mainstream media, e.g., the scoop on "Howard Marks", the marihuana smuggle. The students put it:

> **E**: Everybody else would have shied away from that sort of thing, they'd have tackled it as a social crusade.
>
> **E**: The Howard Marks one might be an example. Instead of shying away from everything and doing a, doing a sort of tabloid piece about drugs or saying that drugs are good or drugs are bad, they make no qualms about, they're not hypocritical about getting pissed or smoking fags is socially acceptable but doing cocaine or smoking marijuana shouldn't be and because they do they've got no qualms about saying it.

-The Naturalisation of Heteronormative Masculinity of New Lad

To most participants, *new lad* represents a more "authentic" version of masculinity compared to the rather "contrived" version of *new man* (Stevenson, Jackson & Brooks, 2003, p. 124). Every participant in the four focus groups claimed that the exhibition of eroticised female bodies in *new lad* magazines represented a true nature of men. London's art college students shared their opinions that:

> **A**: I dunno, I think men just like women, they like to see naked women I think that adds a lot of it…
>
> **B**: I think men have always been interested in pretty women…

18 year old Sheffield lads analogously shared the notion of heteronormative masculinity that:

> "The fact is! The fact is that men want to look at those pictures!"

To the participants, the representation of *new lad* in men's lifestyle magazines is so "natural" that some of them defended that the way women were represented in the magazines was not sexist. This view was echoed among Bristol students:

> **Richard**: I don't think that it's sexist at all, well I mean the whole debate of sexism in life read into like this and you know like the only sexism bit would I personally say was the bit where women are revealing their breasts, but I mean, women reveal their breasts in numerous publications.
>
> **E**: I don't think it's sexist, the writing's not sexist at all…
>
> **Richard**: I know it sounds really crap, but it's more a celebration of it, they love it so…
>
> **E**: No, I don't...see in the writing they don't slag women off or something, a lot of the articles talk about their girlfriends and stuff and they never talk about them in a damning light or anything, they always sort of appreciate…

As pointed out by Benwell (2003, p. 20), the adoption of "new sexism" in men's lifestyle magazines is a "strategic accommodation" or "negotiation" with feminist discourses. These laddish magazines often employ "anti-sexism" and gender essentialism discourses, reinvent men confused by feminists' charge of unfair treatment as a new "oppressed category", and use ironic language, etc. These tactics, according to Benwell (2003, p. 20) are put in place to reassert male power. In this case, the participants rejected the charge of sexism in the magazines by claiming that the articles in the magazines in fact celebrated the feminine beauty, and the exhibition of women's breasts in the magazines is a natural response to (heterosexual) men's desire. On one hand, the participants resisted the identification with the notion of sexism. On the other hand, they ironically celebrated the essentialist notion of constructed heteronormativity.

-The Openness of New Lad Magazines

Most participants agreed that *new lad* magazines had opened up a space for men to explore certain issues, such as men's pursuit of hedonistic pleasures, sexual liberation, etc. In other words, *new lad* magazines legitimise the "lad" lifestyle by detaching certain social stigmas and claiming that the manifestation of *new lad* reclaims the lost masculinity of *new man*. A London art college student asserted that:

> Yeah I think it is a good thing, I think it …err… men have always been very cosy to talk about certain things and I think blokes are sort of starting to talk about like… I don't know… it's like about their sex lives and whatever and things like that as women have done for ages probably…It's bringing a lot of things out into the open I think. Because people are and one of the classic things like wanking all these people, virtually everybody does it and they'll have things like talks about that and it's always quite amusing always good to laugh about it some of the things…like ice breakers lots of different thing

Although *new lad* magazines are found to contain "bizarre" and "deviant" lifestyles, frank discussions about sex and men's predatory attitudes towards women, the participants recognised that these issues were constantly monitored by the magazines to accommodate certain discursive feminist discourses.

Conclusion

It is undeniable that men's lifestyle magazines, especially *Loaded* and other *new lad* magazines play an important part in installing a harder version of masculinity in the replacement of the softer version of *new man*. Regardless of the commercial success and the popularity of the magazines, the representation of *new lad* has been criticised for its emphasis on new sexism and hedonistic lifestyles, and has been condemned for its nostalgic yearning for the "authentic" masculinity.

The attempt to reconstruct "real" masculinity in men's lifestyle magazines can be understood as a backlash against feminism. For the almost four decades that feminists' and women's movements have challenged and deconstructed the patriarchal values, *new lad*'s rejection of caring, feminist-friendly, and narcissistic archetypes of *new man* also suggests the rise of "Neo-Darwinism" ideology, emphasising the certainty of biological essentialism of gender. However, *new lad*'s redefinition of masculinity indicates *new lad*'s contention against the traditional masculine discourse of responsibilities.

The representation of *new lad* is also contested and negotiated within men's lifestyle magazines, a site of production of *new lad* imagery. Discussing in the focus groups, participants demonstrated the understanding of the differences between *new lad* and *new man*. *New lad* was seen as "honest", "simple", "basic" and "open" by the participants as they agreed that the magazines provided a virtual and textual space for men to discuss certain issues, such as, relationships, sexuality. The presentation of eroticised female bodies in the magazines was understood by the participants as responding to the true nature of men. In other words, the magazines empower men to reassert male supremacy as a strategic negotiation.

In sum, a harder or softer version of masculinity is, according to MacKinnon (2003, p. 14), "a package of power that changes" in order to retain male supremacy despite having compromised on certain masculine attributes. However, unlike *new man, new lad* puts its negotiation more bluntly.

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Appendix

Node: new lad characteristics

Focus group 16: Men's clothes shop staff (Sheffield)

Document 'Focusg16', 7 passages, 214 characters.

Section 0, Paragraph 147, 33 characters.

A: Well Loaded's like the young beer head football hooligan

Section 0, Paragraph 149, 22 characters.

B: That's like 16-30…

Section 0, Paragraph 157, 36 characters.

B: A lad. Stone Island wearing lad.

Section 0, Paragraph 161, 61 characters.

B: Someone who goes out at weekends and gets totally pissed…

Section 0, Paragraph 169, 10 characters.

B: Single.

Section 0, Paragraph 171, 21 characters.

A: Single, no plans has a laugh,

Section 0, Paragraph 175, 31 characters.

A: Yeah, no cares in the world.

Node: rejecting the identification with new lad

Focus group 09: Art College students (London)

Document 'focusg09', 2 passages, 441 characters.

Section 0, Paragraph 12, 199 characters.

A: No, I'm not really into the lads culture, I mean I have a quite mixed group of friends, mixed sex friendships really we usually go out in a groups, so no I'm more into clubs and bars than pubs..

Section 0, Paragraph 92, 242 characters.

C: I don't think it's really sort of aiming to a cultured intelligent person, I think it's going a bit downmarket and you know looking for people who are going to read it pure entertainment value rather than any kind of intellectual stimulation

Node: Identification with laddism

Focus group 09: Art College students (London)

Document 'focusg09', 1 passages, 360 characters.

Section 0, Paragraph 158, 360 characters.

It's like exactly what my friends would do and but no one of the things we do each year is have a fortnight's holiday in Cornwall and we just go down there and literally get stoned …we go down and always say we're going to do some surfing, go down there and never even get to see the sea most of the time…we usually end up getting barred from the local pubs

Node: Honesty of New Lad

Focus Group 02: 18 year old 'lads' (Sheffield)

Document 'focusg02', 1 passages, 67 characters.

Section 0, Paragraph 143, 67 characters.

You can relate to some of the stuff, just like, HOW can you be that stupid!

Focus group 13: Bristol students (Loaded readers)

Document 'focusg13', 4 passages, 1059 characters.

Section 10, Paragraph 82, 78 characters.

B: It's blatantly, women, drugs, some sport, um and the entertainment world...

Section 10.7, Paragraph 120, 367 characters.

B: I think the funniest thing out of the whole thing which just basic… blatantly takes the piss is the League of Greed. Basically they just ask for stuff - it's brilliant. The league of Greed. They say what they want and the company sends it to them so they get free advertising. It's blatantly taking the piss out of all the other magazines. It's the best way.

Section 10.13, Paragraph 198, 201 characters.

B: Everybody else would have shied away from that sort of thing, they'd have tackled it as a social crusade.

Section 10.18, Paragraph 239, 413 characters.

B: The Howard Marks one might be an example. Instead of shying away from everything and doing a, doing a sort of tabloid piece about drugs or saying that drugs are good or drugs are bad, they make no qualms about, they're not hypocritical about getting pissed or smoking fags is socially acceptable but doing cocaine or smoking marijuana shouldn't be and because they do they've got no qualms about saying it.

Focus group 16: Men's clothes shop staff (Sheffield)

Document 'Focusg16', 2 passages, 217 characters.

Section 0, Paragraph 127, 149 characters.

A: It's just a young person's view on everything, on all their like articles, we can relate to it a lot easier, it's not like an old man writing it..

Section 0, Paragraphs 139-141, 68 characters.

A: Whereas GQ or something like that...

B: It's too formal, isn't it?

Node: The Naturalisation of Heteronormative Masculinity

Focus Group 02: 18 year old 'lads' (Sheffield)

Document 'focusg02', 1 passages, 74 characters.

Section 0, Paragraph 57, 74 characters.

[Loudly] The fact is! The fact is that men want to look at those pictures!

Focus group 09: Art College students (London)

Document 'focusg09', 2 passages, 95 characters.

Section 0, Paragraph 178, 38 characters.

I dunno, I think men just like women,

Section 0, Paragraph 184, 57 characters.

I think men have always been interested in pretty women

Node: The openness of New Lad magazines

Focus group 09: Art College students (London)

Document 'focusg09', 2 passages, 625 characters.

ection 0, Paragraph 68, 287 characters.

: Yeah I think it is a good thing, I think it err men have always been very coy to talk about certain things and I think blokes are sort of starting to talk about like, I don't know, it's like about their sex lives and whatever and things like that as women have done for ages probably..

Section 0, Paragraph 72, 338 characters.

: It's bringing a lot of things out into the open I think. Because people are and one of the classic things like wanking all these people, virtually everybody does it and they'll have things like talks about that and it's always quite amusing always good to laugh about it some of the things… like ice breakers lots of different things.

Perceptions of University Students and Lecturers toward the Use of British and American Literature for EFL Development*

Manatchai Amponpeerapan**

Abstract

This research was conducted to identify the perception of university students and lecturers toward British and American literary reading activities to enhance academic abilities related to English as a Foreign Language (EFL). The paper aimed to determine students and lecturers' beliefs toward literary reading such as purposes, factors, benefits, and problems in literary reading activities, and to assert that reading English-language literary works could be useful in EFL development. The research used a mixed methodology, administering quantitative questionnaire surveys and qualitative individual interviews to participants from four university departments related to EFL education and literary studies (English, World Languages, Literature, and Translation). The results showed that the participants had positive perceptions toward literary works, sharing 'common' perceptions that literary works could be used to improve language acquisition, imagination, readers' habits, and 'department-excusive' perceptions. Both categories indicated that British and American literary works could, and should, be applied for specific purposes and professions. The research also suggested that literary reading should be gradually promoted both inside and outside classroom for the maximum EFL development benefits.

Keywords: Perceptions, Cultural Awareness, Literature, Literary works, EFL Development

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* This research article was derived and modified from my thesis, entitled "Original or Translated Version: Perceptions and Preferences toward British and American Literature of University Students and Lecturers."

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บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยชิ้นนี้สรรสร้างขึ้นเพื่อแยกแยะการรับรู้ของนักศึกษาและอาจารย์มหาวิทยาลัยที่มีต่อการอ่านวรรณกรรมอังกฤษและอเมริกันเพื่อการพัฒนาความสามารถในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ (EFL) โดยงานวิชัยนี้เน้นกำหนดความเชื่อของผู้เข้าร่วมที่มีกับการอ่านวรรณกรรมเช่น จุดมุ่งหมาย ปัจจัยสำคัญ ประโยชน์ และปัญหาที่พบในการอ่านงานวรรณการรม และเน้นเชิญชวนว่าการอ่านวรรณกรรมภาษาอังกฤษสามารถนำไปใช้ประโยชน์ในการพัฒนาศึกษาภาษาอังกฤษ งานวิจัยนี้ระเบียบวิธีการวิจัยแบบผสมซึ่งใช้ทั้งการแจกแบบสอบถามเพื่อให้ได้มาซึ่งข้อมูลเชิงปริมาณและการสัมภาษณ์ตัวต่อตัวเพื่อให้ได้มาซึ่งข้อมูลเชิงคุณภาพกับผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยจากภาควิชามหาวิทยาลัยสี่ภาควิชาที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการเรียนการสอนภาษา อังกฤษ (ภาควิชาภาษาอังกฤษ ภาควิชานานาภาษาโลก ภาควิชาวรรณคดี และภาควิชาการแปล) ผลการวิจัยแสดงให้เห็นว่าผู้เข้าร่วมมีการรับรู้ไปในด้านบวกต่องานวรรณกรรม โดยผู้เข้าร่วมมี 'การรับรู้ร่วม' ที่ชี้ว่าวรรณกรรมอังกฤษและอเมริกันสามารถพัฒนาความรู้ภาษาอังกฤษ จินตนาการและนิสัยรักการอ่าน และยังมี 'การรับรู้เฉพาะภาควิชา' ที่แสดงว่างานวรรณกรรมสามารถนำและควรนำไปบูรณาการเข้ากับจุดประสงค์เฉพาะและสาขาวิชาเฉพาะ งานวิจัยนี้ยังแนะนำอีกว่าการอ่านวรรณกรรมควรค่อยๆได้รับการส่งเสริมไปทั้งในและนอกห้องเรียนเพื่อให้เกิดประโยชน์สูงสุดกับการพัฒนาภาษาอังกฤษ

คำสำคัญ: การรับรู้, การตระหนักในวัฒนธรรม, วรรณคดี, วรรณกรรม, การพัฒนาภาษาอังกฤษ

Introduction

1.1) Statement and Significance of Study

Thailand has been established as a country using English as a Foreign Language (EFL) as an additional language learned and used in education, business, and entertainment fields since the 1800s (Hengsadeekul, Hengsadeekul, Koul, & Kaewkuekool, 2010; Chanla, 2011). The year 2015 marked Thailand's official participation in the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), which heavily suggested that use of the English language would become more overtly encouraged and promoted. Ironically, Thai EFL education has always been deemed unsatisfactory in both linguistic and cultural senses (Noom-ura, 2013; Jaroenkitboworn, 2015). A common dilemma in the EFL development in Thailand was that EFL education should have provided more English instruction mediums that would allow students, lecturers, and curricula to become more active (Noom-ura, 2013; Kasemsap and Yu-Hsiu Lee, 2015). A recent movement in the field was an integration of British and American literary works in classrooms. The idea was that literary works would expand students' exposure toward English language and cultural texts, allowing them to train to use language in terms of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. However, applying literary works has been a difficult task because of a limited EFL abilities and a common believe that literary works are only serving as entertainment. In addition, a common problem for EFL development stems from the fact that EFL related research has tended to focus on theories, applications and practices for pedagogic purposes. Not many researchers have fully committed themselves to the study of the perceptions of readers, which is a problem because, apparently, literary readers, especially students, have not gotten a chance to voice their opinions toward the issue. While theories and applications are important for EFL development, it is as important to take readers' opinions into consideration because, their answers can at least provide a more concrete guideline on how literary reading is currently practiced in Thailand as well as showing 'how' and 'why' literary works should be applied in education, which is the primary reason for this research's existence.

1.2) Objectives of the Study

1) To pinpoint perceptions of the university students and lecturers regarding aspects of literary study such as reading frequency, advantages or disadvantages of British and American literary works.

2) To indicate how British and American literary works can be related to Thailand's EFL development.

1.3) Research Questions

1) What are the perceptions of the university respondents regarding the reading of British and American literary works?

2) How can the reading of British and American literary works be related to Thailand's EFL development?

1.4) The Benefits of the Study

1) Literary reading activities for educational purposes would be clarified. The research would identify and understand personal and cultural perceptions of the participants, including advantages, disadvantages, and problems of British and American literary works.

2) The reading of British and American literary works for EFL development would be promoted, which would inspire students to become effective readers, inspire lecturers to encourage foreign literary texts, and inspire researchers to expand research related to literary works and EFL development.

Literature Review

2.1) Defining Literary works

The term 'literature' is defined by Cambridge Dictionaries Online (2016) as "writing that has lasting value as art". Typically, literary works refer to fiction, prose, poems, short stories, and novels that are created for artistic purposes, though Sartre (1950) argued that literature was much more than entertainment, viewing literary works as a reflection of the author's experiences and opinions toward specific contexts and society. Long (2004) indicated three main qualities of literary works: artistic, suggestive, and permanent; classical literary works are known to gracefully use language, literary concepts, literary techniques, and morality to convey languages. Heiden (2007) suggested that literary works expressed both humanistic communications and features. Literary works are considered complex texts, having genre and styles that vary among writers, genre, and nationality, all which require readers to become more engaged in the reading and thinking critically. (Kern, 2000) In this regard, students might be required to utilize advanced reading strategies to understand the works. It was suggested that the more they read, the more they would learn (Kasemsap & Yu-Hsiu Lee, 2015), which is part of the reason literary reading has been proposed as a beneficial alternative for EFL education (Akyel & Yalçın, 1990).

2.2) Benefits of Literary Works

Literary works have been established as exterior sources that can improve EFL education in two aspects: linguistically and culturally. Linguistically, literary works allow students to become exposed to English words, phrases, and sentences that are more engaging than textbooks (Kern, 2000; Pegrum, 2000; Sell (2005). Culturally, literary works are comprised of various intercultural elements that are based on both real life and fantasy settings which allow EFL readers to become aware of individual and cultural pluralism (Long, 2004; Lütge, 2013). Baker (2008) suggests that Thai students have a tendency of performing well in EFL classrooms when they are exposed to enjoyable and relaxing intercultural texts. He adds that learning foreign culture was a critical issue in Thai EFL education that can be supplemented through external learning sources.

Several studies indicate that reading literary works is an interesting method for students learning English. Numbers of case studies of EFL in other countries such as Oman (Bussaidi & Sultana, 2015) or Israel (Baratz & Abuhatzira, 2014) indicate that EFL students had a positive attitude and improved performance in English language, suggesting that literary works could be an interesting addition to traditional EFL learning procedures. In Thailand, Khuankaew (2010) conducted a study which showed neutral and positive attitudes among participants, some of whom were reported having enjoyed reading the works, and some of whom were reported having improved EFL skills from doing so. Similarly, Yimwilai's study (2015) suggested that integrating literary works into the Thai EFL classroom improved students' attitudes toward English-language texts and enhanced EFL ability, cultural awareness, and critical thinking, providing that literary works were taught properly and effectively.

2.1) Limitations of Literary works

Two main concerns were addressed regarding literary reading activity: the quality of the students and the cultural implications. First, Thai students and lecturers were assessed as subpar because Thai English users were categorized as falling into the ‘external-circle’ by not regularly practicing and using the English language for survival. (Kachru, 1998; Baker, 2008). In this regard, Tasneen (2002) stated that English texts used in EFL classes were not be as effective as they should considering that traditional EFL education could not encourage students to become interested in the subject, and some of the students did not see a need to learn English beyond classrooms and examinations. Another common problem was that literary works in general were difficult and complex texts, which easily scare or bore not only Thai, but many EFL students. Mahammed (2014) conducted a study on students’ attitudes toward literary works and EFL in a similar vain to this study. His results were only slightly positive, and only less than half of the participants reported that they had not appreciated reading literary works. Meanwhile, Vural’s study (2013) indicated many of his participants initially had a negative attitude before engaging in EFL literary reading. Khuankaew’s study (2010) indicated that literary reading was effective, but extensive results were prevented because of restricted time, resources and students’ EFL abilities.

Culturally, there were concerns regarding the consumption of foreign cultures as the influence of English might dominate indigenous languages and cultures (Phillipson, 1997) In Thailand, the conflict is not oppressive or violent, but the constant obsession over foreign pop culture and cultures is a source of concern. Phaisit Boriboon (2011) has suggested that the active use and the encouragement to use the English language and English language materials could result in cultural domination in Thailand. Baker (2008), however, suggested that Thai EFL education has entered the age where students can no longer be ignorant of intercultural knowledge. Exposing Thai students to intercultural texts was mandatory; therefore, he suggested that foreign texts should be selected carefully by academics.

Methodology

3.1) Research Design

This research deployed a mixed methodology which consists of data (QUAN) and qualitative data (QUAL) in an attempt to triangulate the data. The qualitative method consisted of descriptive statistical analysis that showcased the participants’ perceptions whereas the qualitative data addressed different opinions between students and lecturers upon specific themes and concerns over literary reading activities in Thai EFL education.

3.2) Research Instruments

The two methods used in the study were as follows:

3.2.1) Questionnaire surveys with random participants within the departments of interest to attain high numbers of participants for a minor generalization. The questionnaires were multiple choice questions.

3.2.2) Structured interviews with representative students and lecturers of the university departments of interest to attain concrete answers from specific participants.

Both questionnaire and interview protocols were supervised by experts and took into account personal experiences. The questionnaire protocol tried to generalize the perceptions of students and lecturers whereas the interview was designed to administer more subjective and detailed answers toward the research issues.

3.3) Research Samplings

Four university departments, namely 1) 'Department A' (English), 2) 'Department B' (World Languages), 3) 'Department C' (Literature), and 4) 'Department D' (Translation) were chosen as participants due to their relationship to the EFL learning process in both direct and indirect ways. In addition, their unique traits would allow variants within the data. Descriptions of the departments are as follows:

3.3.1) Department A: English contained participants who specialized in practicing English language practices, having closest relation to EFL communication and linguistics.

3.3.2) Department B: World Languages contained participants who specialized in many foreign languages, including EFL. These participants were notable for having understood multiple cultures.

3.3.3) Department C: Literature contained participants who specialized in reading and interpreting literary works, understanding both the surface and sophisticated aspects of literary reading.

3.3.4) Department D: Translation contained participants who specialized in translation. These participants were naturally skilled at reading, indicating, and conducting linguistic and cultural transfers between English and Thai.

3.4) Research Procedures

The research was done as follows: the questionnaires were distributed to the random sampling within the four departments of interests and the researchers tried to get as many participants possible. Meanwhile, students and lecturers were recommended by the four departments to conduct individual interviews. Both processes were done simultaneously. The period of data covered the intended number of the participants selected from four university departments as reported in the following table:

Table 3.1 Participants Counts for the Questionnaire Sessions

Departments	**Total**
A: English	24
B: World Languages	60
C: Literature	22
D: Translation	29
Total	135

An accumulated participant count is 135, which consist of 24 persons from Department A, 60 participants form Department B, 22 participants from Department C, and 29 participants from Department D. The reason for a large number of participants from Department B was because of the department being a large campus which provided many more participants than anticipated, whereas it was difficult to attain equal amounts of participants from the other departments. The research advisor recommended that all of the data should be kept in the study.

Table 1: Participant Counts for the Interview Sessions

Departments	Occupation		**Total**
	Student	Lecturer	
A: English	1	1	**2**
B: World Languages	1	1	**2**
C: Literature	1	1	**2**
D: Translation	1	1	**2**
Total	4	4	**8**

Eight interviewees (four students and four lecturers) from four distinctive departments have been chosen; namely, 1) Department A: English, 2) Department B: World Languages, 3) Department C: Literature, and 4) Department D: Translation. The experts approved these participants because the participants' academic backgrounds were relative to EFL and literary studying fields.

Results

4.1) Quantitative Data

The quantitative data aimed to determine the percentages of participants' perceptions toward literary reading in multiple aspects, including reading purposes, reading factors, reading problems, benefits, and reading benefits. The comparison between the dominant answers was viewed upon the following table:

Table 4.1 Summarized Literary Perceptions

Department A English	**Purposes** - To improve language (62.5%) - To fulfill academic necessity (45.8%) - To enjoy the works (33.3%) - To study intercultural aspects (25%) - To study literary techniques (16.7%)	**Benefits** - Language acquisition (70.8%) - Improved imagination (41.7%) - Expanded worldviews (33.3%) - Became esthetic and poetic (25%) - Increased motivation (20.8%)
	Factors - Language skills (72.9%) - Background knowledge (18.6%) - Themes and characters (13.6%) - Lectures and researches (13.6%) - Understanding of styles (6.8%)	**Problems** - Unknown words (57.6%) - Lack of background knowledge (20.3%) - Inability to engage references (18.6%) - Grammatical problems (16.9%) - Problems with writers' styles (13.6%)
Department B World Languages	**Purposes** - To improve language (58.3%) - To fulfill academic necessity	**Benefits** - Language acquisition (54.2%) - Improved imagination (30.5%)

	(43.3%) - To enjoy the works (20%) - To study intercultural aspects (15%) - To study literary techniques (3%)	- Expanded worldviews (25.4%) - Became intellectually active (13.6%) - Became esthetic and poetic (10.2%)
	Factors - Language skills (72.9%) - Background knowledge (18.6%) - Themes and characters (13.6%) - Lectures and researches (13.6%) - Understanding of styles (6.8%)	**Problems** - Unknown words (57.6%) - Lack of background knowledge (20.3%) - Inability to engage references (18.6%) - Grammatical problems (16.9%) - Problems with writers' styles (13.6%)
Department C Literature	**Purposes** - To fulfill academic necessity (68.2%) - To improve language (36.4%) - To enjoy the works (36.4%) - To study intercultural aspects (27.3%) - To study literary techniques (22.7%)	**Benefits** - Language acquisition (59.1%) - Improved imagination (50%) - Became intellectually active (31.8%) - Expanded worldview (27.3%) - Became esthetic and poetic (27.3%)
	Factors - Language skills (50%) - Themes and characters (50%) - Understanding of styles (22.7%) - Background knowledge (18.2%) - Lectures and researches (18.2%)	**Problems** - Unknown words (54.5%) - Lack of background knowledge (36.4%) - Inability to engage references (22.7%) - Figurative interpretation (22.7%) - Problems with writers' styles (4.5%)
Department D Translation	**Purposes** - To enjoy the works (55.2%) - To improve language (44.8%) - To fulfill academic necessity (27.6%) - To study intercultural aspects	**Benefits** - Language acquisition (65.5%) - Expanded worldview (34.5%) - Improved imagination (20%) - Became intellectually active (17.2%) - Increased motivation (13.8%)

	(20.7%)	
	- To study literary techniques (6.9%)	
	Factors	**Problems**
	- Language skills (62.1%)	- Unknown words (55.2%)
	- Background knowledge (48.3%)	- Lack of background knowledge (31%)
	- Understanding of styles (27.6%)	- Inability to engage references (27.6%)
	- Themes and characters (17.2%)	- Figurative interpretation (20.7%)
	- Illustrations and descriptions (10.3%)	- Problems with writers’ styles (13.8%)

The overall perceptions indicated by the participants were quite similar. Participants in general stated that literary works could effectively be used to improve their English language ability as well as to provide them with entertainment. This is consistent with a common belief that language and imagination are the primary benefits of literature. The participants also believed that the most problematic aspects of the works were the unknown words and the lack of cultural background. Interestingly, each department indicated its own distinctive traits and priority toward specific choices. For examples, Department A and Department B, despite both being direct EFL learning departments, appeared to have totally different minor perceptions. While Department A appealed to grammatical and esthetic aspects of literary works, Department B was more concerned with literary aspects such as themes and characters. Meanwhile, departments with exclusive studying fields gave even more noteworthy answers. Department C considered the literary aspects within the works to be equal to the linguistic aspects, reflecting their nature as literary readers, whereas Department D emphasized the consideration of background knowledge, reflecting their students’ roles as translators.

4.2) Qualitative Data

The qualitative data aimed to determine specific opinions from students and lecturers regarding the four specific mentioned in the quantitative data to understand different standpoints between the two generations, which could help magnifying the values of literary reading in EFL education.

4.2.1) Literary Reading Purpose

Table 4.2 Purposes of Literary Reading

	Lecturer	Student
Department A: English	- To experience the originals	- To experience the originals
Department B: World Languages	- To entertain myself	- To improve English language skills
Department C: Literature	- To entertain myself - To gain literary knowledge	- To memorize stories and quotes
Department D: Translation	- To experience the originals - To study foreign cultures	- To experience the originals - To improve English language skills

Literary readers believed they were able to improve academic skills and enjoy the contents. The additional belief is that the original British and American literary works provide 'real' stories and authors' intentions compared to the translated versions of the same works, which greatly motivate their language or literary processes. Department A, B, and D showed that the students and lecturers had a similar tendency of reading English-language literary works to experience a 'genuine' narrative. Department C's lecturers elaborated on the needs of the students to gain 'literary knowledge' which can be separated into two forms: the general understanding toward the plots, characters, and events, and the advanced literary awareness toward figurative elements of fiction such as metaphors, symbols, foreshadowing, as well as linguistic, cultural, and personal implications and relationships between authors, contemporary cultures, and readers. The lecturer indicated that learning literary works was crucial for the students to be successful in British and American literary education.

4.2.2) Literary Reading Factors

Table 4.3 Factors of Literary Reading

	Lecturer	Student
Department A: English	- English language skills	- English language skills
Department B: World Languages	- Personal research - Advice from other readers	- English language skills - Foreign cultural knowledge
Department	- English language skills	- A need to experience the originals

C: Literature	- Personal researches	
Department D: Translation	- A need to experience the originals - English language skills - Foreign cultural knowledge	- Personal research - Advice from other readers

The participants showed that the dominant factor of literary reading was the English language ability of the reader. The secondary factors were personal research and knowledge attained from other readers. Three lecturers and two students indicated language as an important skill. Department A indicated that English was mandatory in reading, interpreting, and understanding literary works. Surprisingly, more than one participant claimed that the original English language works were more understandable than the translated Thai versions, claiming that many translated works were confusing and badly created. In addition, the participants indicated having a need to improve language and interpretation skills to become successful in their respective department curricula. Meanwhile, the participants mentioned either 'personal research' or 'advice from other readers' as the reading factors. University-level literary readers were suggested being capable of studying the works from many sources such as the Internet, dictionaries, as well as other literary readers.

4.2.3) Literary Reading Benefits

Table 4.4 Benefits of Literary Reading

	Lecturer	Student
Department A: English	- Efficient contents	- Efficient contents - Understanding of the story - Translation knowledge
Department B: World Languages	- Being entertained - English language proficiency - Cultural knowledge - Adaptable knowledge	- Writing knowledge - Efficient contents
Department C: Literature	- English language proficiency - Philosophical knowledge	- English language proficiency - Writing knowledge
Department D: Translation	- Efficient contents	- English language proficiency - Writing knowledge - Translation knowledge

The main benefit of the literary works was that they provided reliable and efficient learning materials which would lead to other benefits such as better understanding of the works and an improvement in the efficiency of the academic experience. Five participants indicated several types of 'knowledge' gained from reading literary works. Similar to the reading purposes, literary works were suggested to provide language, styles, narrative structures, cultural background, and other knowledge that could be adapted to their respective academic contexts. For example, the students claimed literary reading would improve their writing and translation skills whereas lecturers stated literary reading would enhance their teaching methods. Both groups indicated that the English language was still a dominant key aspect to understand British and American literature.

4.2.4) Literary Reading Problems

Table 4.5 Common Problems of Literary Reading

	Lecturer	Student
Department A: English	- English language difficulty - Lack of cultural knowledge	- English language difficulty - Lack of cultural knowledge
Department B: World Languages	- Lack of cultural knowledge	- English language difficulty
Department C: Literature	- English language difficulty	- Outdated stylistics
Department D: Translation	- Lack of cultural knowledge	- Complex stylistics

Participants indicated two main obstacles to understanding the works: linguistic and cultural problems. These problems potentially limit readers from reading efficiently. The students were evidently concerned with the language while the teachers were concerned with the lack of background and cultural knowledge. At least four participants indicated English language difficulty as a common problem in literary reading. Other answers were related to the language difficulty, such as the complexity or outdated structures and styles of the works. Notably, the lecturer from Department C provided an example of Williams Faulkner, an American writer from 1919-1962, whose confusing style intentionally invoked complex and run-on sentences which are difficult to interpret both grammatically and semantically. In another case, the lecturer cited the Irish novelist James Joyce, known for neologisms and coinages which cannot be found in most dictionaries. The student respondents claimed that complex and outdated writing could be very tiring and boring to read. Literary works were acknowledged by lecturers for containing unfamiliar cultural elements. A student from Department B indicated that foreign cultures and religions tended to be unknown to her while one student from Department D claimed that she could not understand some works because of cultural differences.

4.2.5) Literary Works as EFL Learning Materials

Table 4.6 Literary Works as EFL Learning Materials

	Lecturer	Student
Department A: English	- Too difficult to learn - Thai EFL classes do not support literature	- Too difficult to learn - Thai EFL classes do not support literature
Department B: World Languages	- Thai people do not like reading. - Depend on an individual	- Lecturers are not skilled in literature
Department C: Literature	- Lecturers are not skilled in literature - Thai EFL classes do not support literature	- Translated works are sufficient
Department D: Translation	- Thai EFL classes do not support literature	- Translated works are sufficient

According to the participants, literary works were severely limited in Thai EFL education because the system did not support literary reading in classrooms. The lecturers were indicated not skilled at literary teaching, and students found the works too difficult to study. In this regard, three lecturers indicated a problem of teaching literary works in classrooms. They stated that Thai EFL education was designed in a way that English was taught only in communicative and grammatical aspects. Department A's lecturer indicated that preparing literary teaching could be time consuming while Departments C and D claimed that literary studies were not widespread in Thailand; therefore, lecturers would not be properly skilled to teach them. Department D's lecturer, however, suggested that literary works and EFL should not be considered completely separate fields of study because the two fields share many linguistic and cultural aspects. The students, meanwhile, believed that literary works were too difficult, and translated works were sufficient as reading materials. Department A's student bluntly claimed that studying literary works was a "waste of time" because one could have spent more time studying other subjects. Department B's lecturer indicated that studying literature is a matter of personal preference.

4.2.6) Literary Reading and ASEAN

Table 4.7 Literary Reading and ASEAN

	Lecturer	**Student**
Department A: English	Unchanged: - Readers still prefer the translated versions. - Original version is expensive.	Positively changed: - Readers will be motivated. - Readers will improve English skills.
Department B: World Languages	Unchanged: - If the government does not encourage reading, nothing will change	Positively changed: - Gradual improvement over time because of the social enforcement - Readers will improve English skills.
Department C: Literature	Unchanged: - Thai students are too lazy to develop.	Positively changed - Readers will be motivated. - Readers will improve English skills.
Department D: Translation	Positively changed - Gradual improvement over time because of the social enforcement	Positively changed - Gradual improvement over time because of the social enforcement

When asked about the AEC and intercultural influences toward literary reading and EFL perceptions, most of the lecturers held the view that nothing would change regarding students' literary reading habits, even with the influence of the AEC. Meanwhile, students actively believed that their reading habit would improve over time because the students would be motivated to read and use the English language. All lecturers except Department D claimed that student readers' habits might not improve from the influence of AEC fads. Department A claimed that the translated version is preferable for the readers; Department B stated that unless the government actively encouraged literary reading, readers would not take interest, which was likely the case considering cultural diversity and issues in Thailand. Department C, meanwhile, implied that Thai readers would not care about literary reading since they lacked motivation and the capacity to learn EFL through such texts. The students and Department D's lecturers, however, viewed the issue positively. Departments A, C, and D indicated that influences from the AEC would indirectly force students to become motivated enough to take interest in external EFL learning resources, particularly British and American literary works. Department B indicated that changes would happen only gradually over time. The students in general have a lot more positive view compared to the lecturers toward literary reading as they are living in an era in which English and intercultural contacts are inevitable.

Discussion

5.1 Research Question #1: Literary Reading Perceptions

Regarding the first research question concerning "What are the perceptions of the university respondents regarding the reading of British and American literary works?", it was established earlier in this study that an application of literary works should not only concern 'how' it is applied in classrooms, but also 'why'. In this regard, the participants showed that literary reading was worthwhile because they, generally, perceive literary works in a positive light, claiming that they could utilize them for academic purposes. The perceptions are separated into two categories: 'common' and 'department exclusive'.

First, the participants indicated themselves having 'common' perceptions toward literary reading activities. Such perceptions were relatively related to the improvement of EFL and international cultural knowledge. In general, the participants believed that literary reading could be helpful toward EFL education. English language skills and assistance were indicated as key factors and benefits of reading, with university students and lecturers being significantly skilled in English to read. In addition, the participants believed that literary works, especially in the original English language versions, were interesting because the works invoke satisfying experiences, which implies a positive motivation factor in reading. Second, participants from different departments appeared to develop the 'department-exclusive' perceptions which indicate the departments' unique ways of applying literary works to their professions. For example, Department A and Department B would focus on the language acquisition. Department C would focus on literary knowledge and literary studies. Lastly, Department D would consider background knowledge and linguistics transfers, reflecting their roles as translators. An implication is that the unique traits of the department should be taken into account when considering which literary works should be used because different types of readers approach texts with different purposes and goals.

The positive reactions of the participants correspond to and confirmed several studies (Baratz & Abuhatzira, 2014; Mahammed, 2014; Bussaidi & Sultana, 2015) that literary works were positively perceived by EFL students. Pegrum (2000) suggested that external resources were important for students to improve EFL skills as they were exposed to realistic texts. She added that adapting such sources in classrooms could further their benefits. This was shown in the study by Khuankaew (2010), who successfully adapted literary works in a Thai EFL writing classroom. Unfortunately, the application of literary works to EFL education is not likely to be a simple task. The participants acknowledged the limitations of British and American literary works in Thailand for the unsupportive Thai education system and the lack of skills and motivation on the part of lecturers and students, which suggested a similar result to Yimwila's study (2015), namely, that Thai students and lecturers EFL acquisition was extremely limited. Yimwila, however, suggested that literary works could be successful if they were applied properly.

Regarding the AEC and the cultural implications of literary works, the participants believed that intercultural influences depend on the individual, suggesting that concerns over Thai culture and tradition (Phaisit Boriboon, 2011) may not be as much of an obstacle as anticipated. Regardless, Baker (2008) suggested that totally ignoring intercultural aspects in EFL education was not possible. Exposing Thai students to intercultural texts were mandatory to improve language learning; therefore, foreign texts should be selected with care if academics wish to avoid the cultural implications of EFL learning.

5.2 Research Question #2: Literary Works upon Thai EFL Development

The second research question was "How can British and American literary works relate to the development of Thailand's EFL?" Participants read literary works to improve EFL and literary reading skills to satisfy their academic needs. English language was considered an important ability to attain in order to read literary works. Such belief can be depicted as follows:

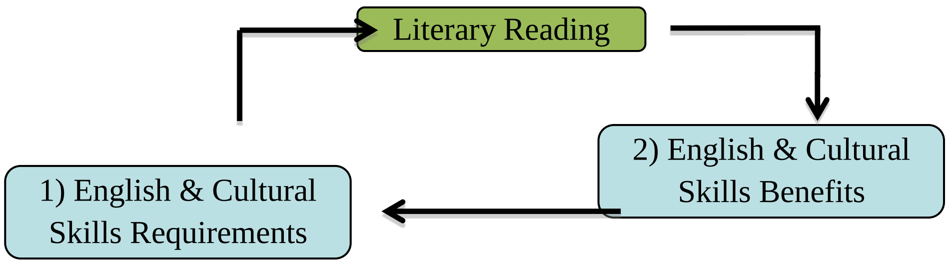

Figure 1: EFL and Cultural Learning Cycle of Literary Reading

Literary reading activity can be considered a cycle of EFL and cultural learning. As suggested in 1), a person is required to have skills in English language and foreign culture in order to proceed to read literary works. Doing so will create benefits concerning English language and foreign culture as suggested in 2). The reader then may proceed to use those benefits to continue reading literary works. In addition, different participant groups also found their needs to adapt literary reading to their respective academic fields. For example, EFL communication students would use literary reading to supplement their linguistic skills and vocabulary, whereas EFL literary students would use literary reading to develop critical analysis skills, and EFL translation students would use literary works to improve their meaning transferring skills between English and Thai languages.

The implication of this model is that literary reading is supposed to be a gradual process. Similar to the result of Vural (2013), students might not appreciate literary reading right away, but the reward for the activity would result in their improved EFL quality and reading habits; it is not possible for literary readers to rush their learning process, as done in traditional EFL curricula. If the process is rushed, a lot of details, meanings, and benefits would be missed by the students. Kasemsap and Yu-Hsiu Lee (2015) suggest that critical thinking is a crucial aspect in an advanced language education, and students must be allowed to take their time to utilize their critical thinking and learning skills. Doing so would allow the students to develop these skills effectively. The keyword, as suggested by Yimwilai (2015), is that literary works must be applied properly. Instead of utilizing entire books, short paragraphs or passages from the novels can be used in a way that is similar to textbooks' use of mock conversations and paragraphs are used. Doing so may allow similar contexts to be taught and students may be inspired to seek to read full texts in order to expand their reading habits and capacity. It is, therefore, highly suggested that there is an advantage to literary reading within an academic contexts in order to maximize benefits to EFL learners. By utilizing the models provided, English language development through the use of literary works using either version can be recommended as an alternative learning method within the contexts of Thai EFL in order to maximize language learning benefits as well as to proudly promote English as the nation's international lingua franca.

Conclusions and Implications

6.1) Conclusions

This study was conducted to explore literary reading perceptions of Thai university students and lecturers to pinpoint how literary reading could be applied to improve Thai EFL education, in order to provide significantly positive results. Literary works were perceived as an important tool in improving English language, foreign cultural knowledge, and 'department-exclusive' skills as well as providing entertainment. A discussion showed the potential development of literary reading by suggesting that literary works should be encouraged as a gradual and continuous learning process.

6.2) Implications of the Study

This study would like to suggest that it has benefits for students, lecturers, and other readers who wish to improve their English language and literary reading skills. One of its implications is to encourage students to engage in continuous literary reading and learning in order to promote academic development of English language skills, literary techniques, styles, foreign cultures, morals, and other aspects that make readers more 'human' and wiser as they continue in their respective careers. Next, the researcher would like to recommend researchers to take interest in similar issues addressed in this study in order to justify and expand the fields even further for the benefit of other related academic fields. Research on language and communication as well as literature and translation as the study of the attitudes of participants toward the uses of British or American literary works as instructional materials should be encouraged.

6.3) Limitations of the Study

Because the 'mixed methodology' used in this research can only provide a basic idea of literary trends, the research should not be viewed as representative of a reading trend of the whole nation nor every university reader in Thailand. Due to the wide and generic choices of subject and participants, this research is created only as a step to close the knowledge gap, allowing researchers to notice the possibility of literary study within the field of language, communication, literary, and translation studies, so that they may be inspired to expand their own research in those fields. While this research paper might have been used to provide ideologies and beliefs of the participants toward the research topic, the limited participants and difficulties in gaining access to them prevented the paper from presenting a truly in-depth or theory-based study, the aspects of which are beyond the contexts and aims of this study.

6.4) Recommendations for Future Studies

Following research limitations, several aspects of literary reading in Thailand should be expanded, which may include studies that determine in-depth and theory-based studies related to literary reading, different research topics within the fields of literature and EFL development, similar topics with different groups of participants, or studies that focus on different types of media such as e-books, the Internet, films, and video games because literary works and literary translation in our time are no longer limited to only printed formats.

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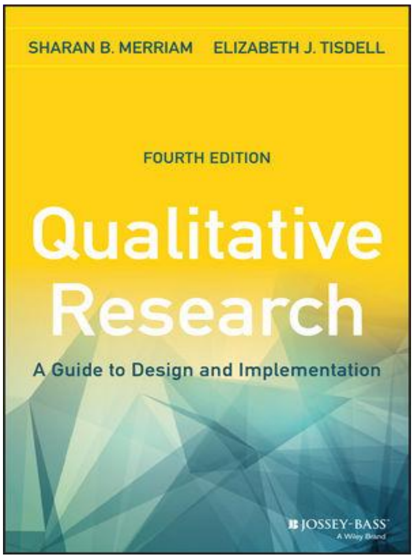
Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation (Fourth Edition)



Authors: Sharan B. Merriam and Elizabeth J. Tisdell
Publisher: Jossey-Bass: A Wiley Brand
Year of publication: 2016
ISBN 978-1-119-00361-8 (paperback)
Pages: 346 pp.
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Saying that there is a vast array of books on qualitative research is stating the obvious. But one would be remiss if he were to pay scant attention to *Qualitative Research: A Guide to Design and Implementation* (4th edition). Divided into three main parts and ten chapters, this book will help novice researchers, especially postgraduate students, to feel confident that research is doable. That is, they will obtain a panoramic view of and a practical insight into what qualitative research entails. Below I will be briefly discussing the nuts and bolts of the ten chapters.

Chapter One emphasizes the contrast between two major research traditions: quantitative and qualitative foci, including a brief discussion on underpinning philosophies. The chapter ends with a delineation of major characteristics of qualitative research, for example, that the researcher is the primary instrument in data collection and analysis.

Chapter Two discusses six types of qualitative research, all of which aim at gaining a better understanding of a phenomenon, something that cannot and should not be quantified because "lived experience" does not lend itself to numerical explication per se.

Chapter Three extends the edge of knowledge in qualitative research by introducing the expanded qualitative paradigm of research, outlining what mixed methods, action research and arts based research entail. More specifically, the reader is informed of the strong tendency on the part of qualitative researchers to pursue "intertextuality" in their research design. For example, "arts based approaches can be incorporated into action research, critical research, or other types of studies."

Chapter Four delves into basic yet crucial components of research. In so doing, the authors discuss the following: topic selection, the theoretical framework of a study, selecting the sample and a succinct discussion of sample size. Taken together, the reader will not have unnecessary difficulties in plowing through a jargon-laden explanation because it is clearly written.

Chapter Five takes the reader through qualitative interviewing procedures, beginning with a straightforward explanation of types of qualitative interviews, followed by detailed information on how to ask good questions and avoid ineffectual ones, and the mechanics of recording interview data.

Chapter Six helps the reader to appreciate the breadth and width of being a careful observation. Because qualitative researchers want to gain a better understanding of a phenomenon, observation is a must in most qualitative cases. This is because without observation, the researcher will miss something important that will eventually help in the final stage of data analysis. In this chapter, the reader is also introduced to the importance of ethics in doing research, using observation as one of the data collection techniques.

Chapter Seven touches on another key aspect of data collection and analysis in qualitative research, documents and artifacts. Because documents and artifacts usually precede a study, they have to be used cautiously through "... the researcher's flexibility in construing the problem and the related questions" (p. 189).

Chapter Eight revolves around data analysis. The reader is introduced to necessary steps in analyzing data that would strike a proper balance between the researcher's stance and what the data indicates. All the steps discussed are meant to ensure reliability and validity (although qualitative research uses other terms such as dependability and credibility or transferability). The chapter rounds up with a discussion on the advantages and disadvantages of using software programs in qualitative data analysis such as CAQDAS.

Chapter Nine focuses on a research aspect that, in my opinion, is most important, validity, reliability and ethics. Of the three words, ethics is at the forefront, for reliability and validity must always be conducted in an ethical manner. The authors capture the essence of this aspect most professionally. In addition, the authors clearly explain the strategies for promoting validity and reliability, which helps the reader to understand the nuances involved in augmenting the issues. Some of the subtopics being discussed are audit trail, triangulation and maximum variation.

Chapter Ten wraps up the whole book in which the authors discuss how to best write qualitative research. The chapter helps the reader to see the importance of succinct writing, which I admit is easier than done, but the authors manage to provide practical suggestions to achieve the desired result.

Overall, this book should be a required reading for postgraduate students, especially those keen on qualitative research. Written in a reader-friendly style, it will certainly help students to fathom the breadth and width of qualitative research with ease. It is a book not to be missed, really.

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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

<u>Books</u>

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

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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.
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NIDA Journal of Language and Communication Volume 21 - Issue 28 - May - August 2016

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