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NIDA Language and Communication Journal is the official journal of the Graduate School of Language and Communication at NIDA. The purpose of this journal is to disseminate information of interest to language teachers, those in communication areas, and others interested in language and communication. The journal presents information on theories, researches, methods, and ideas related to language teaching and learning as well as communication. The editors welcome a wide range of academic papers, including research articles, review articles, and book reviews.

Editorial

It is my honor to greet you on behalf of *NIDA Journal of Language and Communication*. This issue marks our 17th year of publication. With the aim to provide a platform for international and local researchers to present their effort in advancing this interdisciplinary area of language and communication studies, we welcome manuscripts which provide systematic empirical analysis of language and communication in context from various perspectives and disciplines.

In this issue, three articles discuss critical issues of learning English. In their article "*The Acquisition of English Restrictive and Non-restrictive Relative Clauses* by L1 Thai Learners", Atipong Amornwongpeeti and Nattama Pongpairoj explore the acquisition of English restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses (RRCs & NRRCs) by L1 Thai learners. They question if the Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy (NPAH) asserted by Keenan & Comrie (1977) and the Perceptual Difficulty Hypothesis (PDH) theorized by Kuno (1974) can be equally applicable to the acquisition of both RRCs and NRRCs. Their finding shows that only the NPAH can be applied to the acquisition of RRCs and NRRCs, while the PDH is applicable only to the acquisition of RRCs, not the NRRCs.

Busaya Santikarn's article examines the language learning strategy use of undergraduate students at Bangkok University. She compares their language learning strategy use categorized by gender, experience of studying English and subjects of study. She also questions if there is a relationship between students' learning strategy use and their English language proficiency. Her research reveals that students with high English proficiency tend to employ fewer learning strategies compared with students with low proficiency of English.

Nicha Klinkajorn's article studies the pragmatic formulas and politeness strategies in directives in English and Thai dialogues from the English fiction, *Turning Thirty* (2000) and its translated Thai version. She discovers that both the English source text (STs) and the Thai target text (TTs) employ the same pragmatic formulas and politeness strategies, but in different ratios. Her finding also highlights the fact that the literal translation is more frequently used in translating the directives from English into Thai in the translated version than free translation.

In the article "*Teaching Journalism Ethics in Thailand*", Preeya Sompuech surveys lecturers' and students' opinions towards current journalism ethics teaching and presents a new approach to develop ethical reflection and decision making for journalism undergraduate students. Her finding suggests that both lecturers and students satisfy with the current journalism ethics teaching as it is believed to encourage students to be decisive in decision making and in expressing their opinions. Preeya's study, however, cautions that journalism students' ability to ethically reflect on and make decisions about professional journalism are still at a moderate level.

The final article examines persuasive techniques deployed in different marriage proposals found in Jane Austin's classical literary work, *Pride and Prejudice*. Thanis Bunsom, Sompatu Vungthong and Wareesiri Sighasiri present an analysis of three marriage proposals based on Marwell and Schmitt (1967)'s theory of compliance-gaining strategies and Jacks and Cameron (2003)'s theory of resistance strategies. They argue that Austin's male characters utilize different persuasive techniques in the three dialogues. Their study also reveals the additional connotation of marriage which is to an extent contradictory to the Victorian socio-cultural condition.

This issue presents a review of a book on Linguistics research methods; Saksit Saengboon contributes an insightful and thorough review of the book *Research Methods in Linguistics*. This book is edited by Lisa Litosseliti, a Senior Lecturer in Linguistics in the Division of Language and Communication Science at City University, London.

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

Kind Regards,

Jaray Singhakowinta, PhD

(Editor in Chief)

Contents

The Acquisition of English Restrictive and Non-restrictive Relative Clauses by L1 Thai Learners[1]

Atipong Amornwongpeeti and Nattama Pongpairoj

Abstract

This study examined the acquisition of English restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses (RRCs and NRRCs) by L1 Thai learners to test whether the Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy (NPAH) (Keenan & Comrie, 1977) and the Perceptual Difficulty Hypothesis (PDH) (Kuno, 1974), both previously confined to RRC data, would be equally applicable to NRRCs. As the distinction between English RRCs and NRRCs does not rely on the factors upon which the two hypotheses are hinged, it was hypothesized that these hypotheses would be equally applicable to both RC types. However, because NRRCs are less common, the acquisition of NRRCs was hypothesized to diverge from that of RRCs. A sentence interpretation task and a grammaticality judgment task were administered to 40 intermediate and advanced L1 Thai undergraduate students and five native controls. The results showed that RRC and NRRC acquisition trajectories confirmed the NPAH, suggesting the NPAH could also be extended to NRRCs. The PDH, however, seemed to apply to the acquisition of RRCs but not NRRCs, possibly because NNRCs' prototype differs from RRCs'. The results also demonstrated that the learners experienced more difficulty in acquiring NRRCs than RRCs. This asymmetry was attributed to NRRCs' rarity and lesser degree of prototypicality, including transfer of training and the cognitive factor of overgeneralization (Selinker, 1972).

Key Words: *English Acquisition, English Restrictive and Non-restrictive Relative Clauses, Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy, Perceptual Difficulty Hypothesis*

บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยนี้ศึกษาการรับคุณานุประโยคแบบเจาะจงและไม่เจาะจงโดยผู้เรียนที่มีภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาแม่เพื่อทดสอบว่า ลำดับการเข้าถึงนามวลี (Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy) (Keenan & Comrie, 1977) และสมมติฐานความยากต่อ การรับรู้ (Perceptual Difficulty Hypothesis) (Kuno, 1974) อันเป็นสมมติฐานที่ใช้กับข้อมูลคุณานุประโยคแบบเจาะจง เท่านั้นมาโดยตลอด จะสามารถปรับใช้ได้กับคุณานุประโยคแบบไม่เจาะจงได้เช่นเดียวกันหรือไม่ เนื่องจากการจำแนกคุณานุ ประโยคแบบเจาะจงและไม่เจาะจงในภาษาอังกฤษไม่ได้อาศัยปัจจัยที่สมมติฐานเหล่านี้ใช้เป็นฐาน ผู้วิจัยจึงตั้งสมมติฐานว่า สมมติฐานทั้งสองนี้จะใช้ได้กับคุณานุประโยคทั้งสองประเภท อย่างไรก็ตาม เนื่องด้วยคุณานุประโยคแบบไม่เจาะจงพบได้น้อย กว่า ผู้วิจัยจึงตั้งสมมติฐานด้วยว่าการรับคุณานุประโยคแบบไม่เจาะจงจะแตกต่างจากการรับคุณานุประโยคแบบเจาะจง ผู้วิจัย ได้ขอให้ผู้เข้าร่วมวิจัยที่เป็นนิสิตปริญญาตรีที่ความรู้ภาษาอังกฤษระดับกลางและสูงจำนวนรวม 40 คน และเจ้าของภาษา 5 คน ทำแบบทดสอบตีความประโยคและแบบทดสอบตัดสินความถูกต้องทางไวยากรณ์ ผลการวิจัยพบว่าเส้นทางการรับคุณานุ

ประโยคทั้งสองประเภทสอดรับกับลำดับการเข้าถึงนามวลีและบ่งชี้ว่าลำดับการเข้าถึงนามวลีสามารถนำไปปรับใช้กับคุณานุ
ประโยคแบบไม่เจาะจงได้ ส่วนสมมติฐานความยากต่อการรับรู้สอดรับกับการรับคุณานุประโยคแบบเจาะจงเท่านั้น แต่ขัดแย้ง
กับการรับคุณานุประโยคแบบไม่เจาะจง ทั้งนี้อาจเป็นเพราะคุณานุประโยคแบบไม่เจาะจงมีตัวต้นแบบ (prototype) ที่ต่างจาก
คุณานุประโยคแบบเจาะจง อนึ่ง ผลการวิจัยพบว่าผู้เรียนประสบปัญหาในการรับคุณานุประโยคแบบไม่เจาะจงมากกว่าแบบ
เจาะจง ความไม่สมมาตรนี้ มีสาเหตุหลักจากการที่คุณานุประโยคแบบไม่เจาะจงมีให้พบเห็นได้น้อยกว่าและความเป็นตัว
ต้นแบบของคุณานุประโยคน้อยกว่าคุณานุประโยคแบบเจาะจง อีกทั้งยังมีการถ่ายโอนการจากเรียน และการสรุปเกิน
(Selinker, 1972) อันเป็นปัจจัยเชิงปริชานเป็นสาเหตุร่วมด้วย

คำสำคัญ: *การรับภาษาอังกฤษ, คุณานุประโยคแบบเจาะจงและไม่เจาะจง, การเข้าถึงนามวลี,สมมติฐานความยากของการรับรู้*

1. Introduction

Relative clauses (RCs) is one of the most vibrantly investigated structures in the English language by researchers who work on second language acquisition (SLA) (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig, 1987; Gass, 1979; J. A. Hawkins, 1999; Izumi, 2003). What has mainly drawn many researchers' attention to RCs' structure is their variety across languages as well as their implications for SLA (Izumi, 2003, p. 286). A number of aspects that contribute to the structure's variety across languages and, thus, complexity have been identified, such as the position of the RC in relation to the head noun or the noun that is being modified, the marking of RC, and the relativization strategies involved (Schachter, 1974, pp. 207-209). Because of these aspects and their potential influence on L2 learners, RCs have been the subject of a considerable amount of research in the realm of SLA.

Related to RCs and SLA are a number of language universals that have been proposed on the acquirability of this structure both for L1 and L2 speakers. The two main theories that have been frequently discussed are the Noun Phrase Accessibiliy Hierarchy (NPAH) by Keenan and Comrie (1977). This is based on typological markedness and posits a universal hierarchy of RC acquisition (with subject RCs being the easiest to acquire and object of comparison RCs being the most difficult). The second theory is the Perceptual Difficulty Hypothesis (PDH) by Kuno (1974), which hypothesizes that center-embedded RCs are more perceptually difficult to process than right- or left- embedded RCs. A number of studies, such as Ioup and Kruse (1977), Gass (1979), and Izumi (2003), have been conducted to test both theories.

However, so far, either explicitly or tacitly, most research on acquisition of English relative clauses has been confined exclusively to restrictive relative clauses (RRCs). Although a few studies have also taken into account data on non-restrictive relative clauses (NRRCs) (e.g. Phoocharoensil (2009)), they have rarely been given the same status or studied as comprehensively as RRCs. This may be ascribed partly to the fact that this clause type is often dismissed as more uncommon than its counterpart. This perspective is endorsed by corpus findings in Biber et al. (1999), which suggested that NRRCs make up only 15% of all RCs in fiction and academic prose. Also, it would

most reliably seem that NRRCs have never been tested against all the aforementioned hypotheses, against which English RRCs have been tested in numerous works.

Nevertheless, the uncommonness of English NRRCs should not form grounds on which one can reject the importance of NRRCs as they have to be acquired by learners as well, and the failure to produce or recognize the distinction between RRCs and NRRCs can cause misunderstandings in communication.

Therefore, because of such gaps in the body of research, this study aimed to investigate NRRCs as an equal to RRCs and look into how the distinction between the two can be acquired and how NRRCs interact with the RC-related hypotheses compared to RRCs.

The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 discusses the similarities and differences between English and Thai RCs with respect to both RRCs and NRRCs. Section 3 gives an overview of the two well-known RC-related hypotheses included in the study. These two sections will serve as a background for the objectives and the hypotheses of the study in Section 4. The description of the methodology will be given in Section 5. The results of the task will be detailed in Section 6 and subsequently discussed in Section 7. The last section provides a conclusion to the study.

2. Relative clauses in English and Thai

In order to better understand the acquisition of English RCs, it is necessary to first review how RRCs differ from NRRCs and how English RCs differ from Thai RCs.

2.1 Restrictive and non-restrictive RCs

RCs can be classified on the basis of their semantic functions into restrictive RCs and non-restrictive RCs. RRCs are those that 'serve to limit the possible referents of the NPs in which they occur' (Wasow et al., 2011, p. 187). For example, in 'the books that he read,' the RRC restricts that the books can refer only to those that this person read, not just any book; that is, the RRC restricts the referent of the head noun the books only to a subset. This type of RCs is also called integrated, identifying, and defining relative clauses (Arts & McMahon, 2006, p. 210; Swan, 2005, p. 479).

On the other hand, NRRCs are those that "convey an independent assertion about the referent of its associated head" (Stowell, 2005, p. 608). For example, in 'the books, which were given to him,' the NRRC does not limit the possible referent of the books, but rather gives additional information about the book. NRRCs are often assumed to be less prototypical than RRCs, as reflected in Comrie (1989, p. 139), who stated that NRRCs are less central to the notion of

relative clause than RRCs. This type of RCs is also called appositive, supplementary, non-identifying, and non-defining RCs. (Arts & McMahon, 2006, p. 210; Stowell, 2005, p. 608; Swan, 2005, p. 479).

The distinction between RRCs and NRRCs can be expressed differently across languages although it seems only a handful actually encode such a distinction formally.

2.2 English RCs

In this section, a typological description of English RCs is given, along with the differences between English RRCs and NRRCs.

2.2.1 Description of English RCs

In terms of the position of RC in relation to the head noun, English RCs are postnominal or right-branching in nature. This entails that, in terms of the relationship between the RC and the matrix clause as well as the position of the head noun, they are also embedded within their matrix clauses and have external heads as shown in Table 3 (see 2.1.2). This is illustrated in (1) below.

(1)   The books [that you bought] are outdated.

It can be seen that the RC 'that you bought' is postnominal in that it follows the head 'The books' that it modifies. In addition, the RC together with the head forms a NP, which is characteristic of an embedded RC. In addition, the head noun 'The books' also appears outside the RC, making this RC external-headed.

As for relativization strategies, English is usually considered to use the gap strategy[2]. That is, no overt indication of the role of the head within the RC is present. Within this gap strategy, English makes use of five relative markers, namely 'that,' 'which,' 'who,' 'whom,' and 'whose.'

The choice of relative markers is mostly dictated by semantics. Generally, 'who' and 'whom' are restricted to human head nouns while 'which' covers inanimate entities. 'That,' however, is allowed to cover both, while 'whose' is used to signify possession.

In RRCs, 'that,' 'which,' 'who,' and 'whom' can be omitted if they function as an object in the RC, except in pied-piping structures (Stowell, 2005, p. 608). In addition, any omission in NRRCs results in ungrammaticality.

One further point worthy of mention relates to the topic of relativization strategies where pronoun retention is usually not allowed by English RCs. That is, resumptive pronouns result in ungrammaticality, as shown in (2) below.

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[2] Gaps refer to missing NPs within RCs that are coreferential with their head NPs.

(2)   *The books [that you bought *them*] are outdated.

In (2), 'them' is a resumptive pronoun, coreferential with the head noun 'The books,' and is not allowed.

2.2.2 English RRCs and NRRCs

English encodes the distinction between RRCs and NRRCs in a number of ways. First of all, prosody and intonation can be used to signal this distinction. More specifically, RRCs in English are not marked by any pause or intonation shift, while NRRCs are (Arts & McMahon, 2006, p. 211; Bache & Jakobsen, 1980, p. 244; Swan, 2005, pp. 495-496).

Second, commas are usually used to separate NRRCs from their heads while RRCs do not make use of any punctuation (Bache & Jakobsen, 1980, p. 244; Biber et al., 1999, p. 602; Swan, 2005, pp. 495-496), as shown in (3).

(3)   a. My brother who lives in Arizona is named Pat.   (RRC)
       b. My brother, who lives in Arizona, is named Pat.   (NRRC)

It can be seen that although their meanings differ greatly, the former implying that the speaker has more than one brother while the latter not, the only surface difference between (3a) and (3b) lies in the commas in the NRRC. That is, the only way to distinguish (3a) from (3b) in a written form is to resort to the commas.

Third, in terms of relative markers, NRRCs require overt *wh*-relative markers to be present. The use of 'that' is normally limited to RRCs and not allowed in NRRCs.

(4)   *My brother, that lives in Arizona, is named Pat.

For example, (4) is ungrammatical because of the relative marker 'that.' Its acceptable counterpart is (3b), in which 'who' is used. Also, as mentioned above, zero relativizers, or relative omissions, are not allowed for NRRCs (Bache & Jakobsen, 1980, p. 244; Swan, 2005, p. 496).

(5)   a. *I poured him a glass of wine, ø he drank at once.
       b. I poured him a glass of wine, which he drank at once.

For instance, (5a) is ungrammatical because of the zero relative. Its grammatical counterpart is presented in (5b), where 'which' is used instead.

2.3 Thai RCs

This section reviews characteristics of Thai RCs, with the first half dedicated to the typological description of Thai RCs and the second half dedicated to the distinction between Thai RRCs and NRRCs.

2.3.1 Description of Thai RCs

In terms of the position of RC in relation to the head noun, Thai RCs, like their English counterparts, are postnominal or right-branching (Yaowapat & Prasithrathsint, 2008; 11). Thus it can be inferred that, in terms of the relationship between the RC and the matrix clause as well as the position of the head noun, they are also embedded within their matrix clauses and are external. This is illustrated in (6) below.

(6)   khon   [thîi khăw chɔ̂ːp ø]

         person   REL 3SG   like GAP

         the person that he/she likes

In (6), it can be seen that the RC shown in brackets appears to the right of the head noun 'khon.' In addition, the RC together with the head forms a NP, which is characteristic of an embedded RC. In addition, the head noun 'khon' also appears outside the RC, making this RC external-headed, similar to English RCs.

In terms of relativization strategies, Yaowapat and Prasithrathsint (2008) state that Thai uses two strategies to form RCs, namely the gap strategy and, more controversially, the pronoun retention strategy. The gap strategy is the dominant strategy for relativization in Thai. That is, most RCs in Thai are formed using the gap strategy (p.12). For example, in (6), inside the RC in brackets, a gap is left where the missing element should be. It should be noted that 'thîi' is not case-marked and does not indicate the role of relativized element in the RC.

Another strategy used to form RCs in Thai is pronoun retention. Although resumptive pronouns are assumed not to exist in Thai RCs, their presence in RCs, although quite peripheral, is first acknowledged formally in Kullavanijaya (2006, pp. 41-44). However, it is in Yaowapat and Prasithrathsint (2008, pp. 14-16) that pronoun retention in Thai RCs is attested and described systematically. An example is given in (7).

(7)   khăw dâay hây   nɛɛwkhít [sɨ̂ŋ   **man** pen   pràyòot sămràp thúk khon]

         3SG PST give idea   [REL 3SG COP benefit for   every people]

         'He gave an idea which is beneficial for everyone.'

(Yaowapat & Prasithrathsint, 2008, p. 15)

In (7), the resumptive pronoun 'man,' which is coreferential with the head 'nɛɛwkhít,' is retained in the RC and does not result in ungrammaticality or unacceptability. However, pronoun retention seems to be restricted to RRCs (Kullavanijaya, 2006, p. 44). Yaowapat and Prasithrathsint (2008) noted further that pronoun retention seems to be common in spoken language while rare in written texts (p. 16).

Within these two strategies, Thai employs three main relativizers: 'thîi,' 'sɨ̂ŋ,' and 'ʔan.' Examples of these relativizers in use are shown below in (8-10) respectively.

(8)   mɛɛ   [thîi yùu chiaŋmày] sàʔbaay dii   máy

         mother [REL stay Chiangmai fine   good Q

         'Is (your) mother who lives in Chiangmai fine?'

(9)   khăw tɔ̂ŋkaan khon [sɨ̂ŋ   mii   pràʔsòpkaan]

         3SG want   person REL have experience

         'He/She wants (to get) a person who has experience.'

(10)   nîi pen raaŋwan   [ʔan yîŋyày   thîisùt   nay chiiwít]

         this COP prize/reward REL big/great superlatively in   life

         'This is the prize which is the biggest in (my) life.'

(Yaowapat & Prasithrathsint, 2008, p. 11)

The first relativizer 'thîi,' as shown in (8), can modify both animate and inanimate NPs, whatever function they assume (Suktrakul, 1975, p. 110). The next relativizer 'sɨ̂ŋ,' shown in (9), is more literary but also appears in everyday conversation as well (Iwasaki & Ingkapirom, 2005, p. 246; Suktrakul, 1975, p. 103). Last of all, 'ʔan,' shown in (10), is usually used to refer to non-human NPs and is found only in written language (Suktrakul, 1975, p. 103).

However, zero relativizers seem to be allowed in Thai RCs as well. In these instances, the RC is attached to the head noun without any overt relativizer (Yaowapat & Prasithrathsint, 2008, p. 16). An example is shown in (11).

(11)   thîi   nîi   mii   ʔaacaan [ø sɔ̌ɔn dii]   lǎay   khon

       place   this   have   teacher   [teach   good] several CLF

       'This place has several teachers who teach well/skillfully.'

(Yaowapat & Prasithrathsint, 2008, p. 17)

In (11), the RC 'sɔ̌ɔn dii,' which modifies the head 'ʔaacaan,' is not prefaced by any overt relativizer. The subject gap only appears as a zero relativizer.

2.3.2 Thai RRCs and NRRCs

    There are two major accounts regarding how Thai expresses the distinction between RRCs and NRRCs. The first account was proposed by Suktrakul (1975, pp. 106-114). According the researcher, Thai RRCs are distinguished from NRRCs in that a noun classifier is added before a relativizer to add emphasis.

(12)   a.   dèkphûujǐŋ khon [thîi maa   mɨawaanníi] pen   phîisǎaw khɔ̌ɔŋ chǎn

            girl   CLF [REL come yesterday   ] COP sister   of   me

            'The girl (the one) who came yesterday is my sister.'

       b.   mɛɛrîi [thîi maa   mɨawaanníi] pen   phîisǎaw khɔ̌ɔŋ chǎn

            Mary [REL come yesterday   ] COP sister   of   me

            'Mary, who came yesterday, is my sister.'

(Suktrakul, 1975, p. 106)

It is argued that (12a) is an instance of a RRC because the classifier 'khon' is added to the RC for emphasis. On the other hand, (12b) is a NRRC due to the lack of such a classifier. However, the motivation behind such a stipulation is not clarified in the original work.

    The second account came from Iwasaki and Ingkapirom (2005) who claim that restrictiveness is signaled by the use of thîi, whose primary function is "to identify the head noun, or to specify a referent by separating it from other similar referents" (p. 246). On the other hand, NRRCs are introduced by sîŋ, whose main function is "to add information" (p. 247). This analysis is endorsed by Kullavanijaya (2006), who stated that it can be said that Thai realizes the distinction between RRCs and NRRCs by the use of the two relative pronouns (pp.49-50). However, this account is undermined by Yaowapat (2005) who asserts that the two relativizers are mostly used interchangeably (p.124).

Given the fact that there seems to be no way these two analyses can be viewed as complementary, it can only be concluded that, currently, the way Thai expresses the distinction between RRCs and NRRCs remains inconclusive. However, these attempts seem to indicate that at least such a distinction exists in Thai.

2.4 Similarities and differences between English and Thai RCs

The similarities and differences between English and Thai RCs are summarized in Table 1 below.

Characteristics		English	Thai
Parameters	Position of head noun	External	External
	Linkage between RC and head noun	Embedded	Embedded
	Position of RC	Postnominal	Postnominal
	Relativization strategies	Gap	Gap, pronoun retention
Distinction between RRCs and NRRCs		Encoded (intonation, punctuation, use of overt *wh*-operators[3])	Inconclusive

Table 1: A summary of the similarities and differences between English and Thai RCs.

It can be seen that both English and Thai RCs are very similar in a number of ways. That is, both languages feature external, embedded, and postnominal RCs. The differences seem to lie in the strategies involved, with Thai RCs allowing pronoun retention while English RCs do not, and how the distinction between RRCs and NRRCs are encoded.

3. RC-related hypotheses

There are two major hypotheses relevant to RCs acquisition: the Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy (NPAH) and the Perceptual Difficulty Hypothesis (PDH). These hypotheses were formulated on different grounds and make different predictions concerning the difficulty order of different types of RCs.

3.1 Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy (NPAH)

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[3] *Wh*-operators refer to *wh*-expressions, which have a [+wh] feature and appear in the specifier of a complementizer phrase (CP) (R. Hawkins & Chan, 1997, p. 189).

In analyzing the syntactic forms of RCs across 50 languages in an attempt to arrive at the universal properties of RCs, Keenan and Comrie (1977) discovered that RCs can be categorized into six main types as shown in Table 2 based on the grammatical function of the relativized NP.

Symbols	Meanings	Examples
SU	Subject	The cake that was on the table...
DO	Direct object	The cake that I ate...
IO	Indirect object	The cake that I baked for you...
OPREP	Object of preposition	The cake that I put your name on...
GEN	Genitive	The cake whose lowest layer was chocolate...
OCOMP	Object of comparison	The cake that the pie was cheaper than...

Table 2: Explanations and examples for each symbol

However, the distribution of these six types is unequal, with some exhibiting more markedness than others. That is, some RC types can be found in most languages while the others are not so numerous. For example, while Catalan can relativize four types of RCs (subject, direct object, indirect objects, and object of preposition), English allows all six types (Keenan & Comrie, 1977, pp. 74-80).

Keenan and Comrie (1979) also discovered that there seems to be a pattern to the limitations on the grammatical functions that can be relativized in different languages. In other words, languages vary in terms of NP positions that can undergo relativization in a systematic way. That is, whether certain grammatical functions can be relativized is far from completely haphazard, but rather depends on whether other grammatical functions can be relativized. These dependencies are claimed to be universal and lead Keenan and Comrie to postulate the Noun Phrase Accessibility Hierarchy, shown below in (13).

(13) SU > DO > IO > OPREP > GEN > OCOMP

The accessibility to relativization decreases from left (less marked) to right (more marked), or from higher to lower positions. That is, subject RCs are more accessible to relativization than RCs with a direct object as a gap and so on.

Keenan and Comrie (1977) proposed that this hierarchy can predict the relative degree of difficulty with which each NP type is accessible to relativization. Within this hierarchy, therefore, the factor that determines such difficulty is the grammatical function of the NP that is being relativized.

Keenan and Comrie (1977) claimed that the NPAH makes correct predictions because it 'directly reflects the psychological ease of comprehension' (p.88) That is, RCs formed on lower

positions are harder to understand than those formed on higher positions. While subject RCs are always among the most acceptable in any given language, RCs formed on objects of comparison are often deemed only marginally acceptable, even in English (Keenan & Comrie, 1977, p. 90).

Evidence that the NPAH represents the psychological accessibility to relativization is derived from several L1 experimental studies (e.g. Brown, 1971; Hatch, 1971; Legum, 1975; Valli et al., 1972). The NPAH, however, has found mixed support from works in L2. While several studies such as Doughty (1991), Gass (1979), and O'Grady (1999) showed results that were consistent with the hierarchy, a few papers, such as Flanigan (1995) and Xiao and Lu (2005), failed to fully support the hypothesis.

3.2. Perceptual Difficulty Hypothesis (PDH)

In an attempt to explain why RCs in languages with similar syntactic arrangement are positioned in the same way in relation to their head nouns, Kuno (1974) proposed that the phenomenon has to do with the capacity of the human memory system to retain temporary information; some syntactic arrangements are more perceptually difficult to process than others. To be more specific, center-embedded relative clauses (e.g. The person [who is speaking] is my friend.) create more perceptual difficulties than do left- or right-embedded relative clauses (e.g. My friend is eating the cake [that I baked]. (right-embedded)). Therefore, regardless of the grammatical function of the relativized material, the difficulty can be predicted from the position of the head of the relative clause in the matrix clause. In other words, the difficulty can be predicted not from the grammatical function of the relativized material, but from the grammatical function in the matrix clause of the head of the relative clause. Therefore, it is postulated that RCs whose heads function as subject will normally appear center-embedded, and thus be more difficult to process than RCs whose heads function as object. These will usually appear right-embedded as shown below in (14).

(14) OS, OO, OIO, OOPREP, OGEN, OCOMP > SS, SO, SIO, SOPREP, SGEN, SOCOMP

For each pairing label, the first letter refers to the function of the antecedent in the matrix clause and the second letter refers to the syntactic role of the relative pronoun within the RC. Therefore, an example of OS is, "He drank the milk [that ___ was already sour]." The head of the RC *the milk* functions as an object in the matrix clause, hence the first letter *O*, and the relativized material functions as a subject in the RC, hence the second letter *S*.

Regardless of the grammatical function of the RC gap (the second part of each pairing), the PDH predicts that RCs that modify objects or are right-branching are easier than RCs that are center-

embedded to modify subjects because the former do not cause interruption in the processing of the matrix clause. Consider the following examples:

(15)   I like the vase [that is on the table].   (Right-embedded)

(16)   The vase [that I like] is on the table.   (Center-embedded)

In (15), the RC 'that is on the table' appears at the end of the sentence and does not interrupt the matrix clause 'I like the vase.' On the other hand, in (16), 'that I like' is inserted between the subject and the predicate of the matrix clause ('The vase … is on the table') and causes a burden to the processing.

The PDH has received support from several L1 studies, such as Cook (1973), Prideaux and Baker (1987),), and Slobin (1973). A number of L2 studies, such as Ioup and Kruse (1977), Schumann (1980), Sadighi and Jafarpur (1994), and Izumi (2003), have also lent support to the PDH as well.

Table 3 below summarizes both hypotheses discussed above.

Hypotheses	Theoretical basis	Focus	Order of difficulty
NPAH	Typological markedness	Relative clause	SU>DO>IO>OPREP>GEN>OCOMP
PDH	Short-term memory capacity	Matrix clause	OS, OO, OIO, OOPREP, OGEN, OCOMP > SS, SO, SIO, SOPREP, SGEN, SOCOMP

Table 3: Summary of both RC-related hypotheses

3.3. Previous works in L1 Thai learners

The most comprehensive among these works is Phoocharoensil (2009). The study examined the extent to which ERC acquisition in L1 Thai learners conformed to the NPAH and the PDH as well as the influence of L1 Thai on ERC acquisition. Based on the analysis of data elicited from 90 L1 Thai students using a descriptive essay task, a descriptive speaking task, and a translation task, the study found that the ERC acquisition path appeared to be in line with the predictions of the NPAH and the PDH. It was also found that problems the learners face in acquiring ERCs could be ascribed to L1 transfer, influence of previous instruction, overgeneralization, and avoidance. It should be noted that the scope of the research included both RRCs and NRRCs, although the latter accounted for only less than 10 percent of all the RCs in the elicited data (Phoocharoensil, 2009, pp. 169, 202).

Phoocharoensil (2011) examined resumptive pronouns in the interlanguage of low- and high-proficiency L1 Thai learners. The results were partly borne out by the Resumptive Pronoun Hierarchy (Keenan & Comrie, 1977), which postulates that resumptive pronouns are found more frequently in an inverse order of the NPAH. That is, resumptive pronouns appeared more frequently in DO relatives than in SU counterparts. Since the Resumptive Pronoun Hierarchy is formed on the basis of the NPAH and was confirmed in the study, as mentioned above, the study gave vicarious support to the NPAH.

Amornwongpeeti and Pongpairoj (2013) investigated the acquisition of English RRCs by L1 Thai learners of three different proficiency levels using a grammatical judgment test. The results showed that, with increasing English proficiency, the Thai subjects were more accurate in judging the grammaticality of English RRCs, indicating that RRCs were attainable for L1 Thai learners.

It can be seen that research on the acquisition of ERC by L1 Thai learners is still in its inchoate state, with several gaps to bridge, such as the limited variety of tasks used to elicit data and the deficit of attention paid to less prototypical RCs. More specifically, one such gap lies in the asymmetry in the number of studies dedicated to RRCs and NRRCs that is evident. The gap in the body of research warrants a more thorough and systematic investigation of the relationship between NRRC acquisition and the two RC-related hypotheses.

4. Objectives and Hypotheses

The objectives and the hypotheses of this study were as follows.

4.1 Objectives

This study aimed to:

i) test the applicability of the NPAH and the PDH to English NRRCs in comparison to English RRCs by L1 Thai learners.

ii) compare the extent to which the acquisition order of English RRCs and NRRCs conforms to the NPAH and the PDH.

4.2 Hypotheses

The hypotheses of the current study were as follows:

i) The NPAH and the PDH will be applicable to the acquisition of English NRRCs as the distinction between English RRCs and NRRCs does not rely on the differences in linear syntactic arrangements that affect the factors these hypotheses are hinged upon, namely the position of the grammatical role of the relativized material and the position of the RC in relation to its head.

ii) Although both RC-related hypotheses will be applicable to the acquisition of both RRCs and NRRCs, the extent to which they are applicable to RRCs and NRRCs might differ. That is, while the acquisition order might be the same for RRCs and NRRCs, the rate at which the same type of RC is acquired might diverge for RRCs and NRRCs.

5. Methodology

This section describes the subjects, the research instruments, data collection, and data analysis involved in this study.

5.1 Subjects

The subjects were 40 L1 Thai undergraduate students in the first and second semesters of academic year 2012 from various faculties (Law, Engineering, Medicine, Education, and Arts) at Chulalongkorn University, at the time of the experiment. They were recruited by the teachers who taught the courses and they participated voluntarily.

The subjects were divided into two proficiency groups, namely intermediate and advanced, on the basis of their scores on the Oxford Placement Test (Allan, 1992), a proficiency test featuring 100 grammatical test items Those scoring in the range of 60 to75 out of 100 were placed in the intermediate group, and those scoring higher than 75 were put in the advanced group. The average ages of the intermediate and advanced groups were 18.15 and 18.40 respectively (for individual information, see Appendix A).

In addition, five native English speakers, all of whom were English teachers with Bachelor's degrees, were included as a control group and asked to complete the OPT as well. Their average age was 26.2 (for individual information, see Appendix B).

Details of the three groups, their average ages and scores on the OPT are described in Table 4.

Groups	Numbers	Average ages	Score ranges	Average scores
Intermediate	20	18.15	60-75	66.55
Advanced	20	18.4	Above 75	80.75
Control	5	26.2	-	96.2

Table 4: The numbers of subjects, the average scores, and the standard deviations of the three groups

5.2 Research instruments

As production tasks had been heavily used in previous studies, as mentioned above, this study opted for a combination of both production and reception tasks, with an emphasis on the latter, to shed new light on the acquisition of English RRCs and NRRCs by L1 Thai learners. The reception tasks employed in this research were a sentence interpretation task and a grammaticality judgment task.

5.2.1 Sentence interpretation task

In order to measure the subjects' comprehension of each type of RC, a sentence interpretation task, which is a reception task, was used. Some of the previous studies that employed this type of task include Izumi (2003) and Chou (2006).

For each item, a sentence containing an RC was given, along with two statements that required the subject to judge as either inferable or not inferable from the given sentence. An example is given below in (17).

(17)   The hamster that I kept was called Tyler.

_____   I also kept some other hamsters.

_____   I kept this hamster.

The sub-items were designed in a way that tested the subjects' comprehension of both the differences in implication between RRCs and NRRCs and the relationship between the RC and the matrix clause. For instance, the first statement in (63) is false because the RRC *that I kept* specifies that there was only one hamster that this person kept, while the second statement is true because the RC *that I kept* modifies *The hamster*, which is an element of the matrix clause.

All the instances of RCs were designed so that their heads were uniformly definite singular nouns in order to keep the variants constant.

The test featured altogether 44 items, distributed across different combinations of RC types and relativizers, as shown in Table 5 below. Any combinations that resulted in ungrammaticality were excluded from the test and represented with a dash in the table. In addition, there were two items for each grammatical combination included in the test.

RCs	Relativizers	SS	OS	SO	OO	SOPREP	OOPREP
RRC	*Wh*-operator	2	2	2	2	2	2
	That	2	2	2	2	2	2
	Null	-	-	2	2	2	2
NRRC	*Wh*-operator	2	2	2	2	2	2
	That	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Null	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 5: The distribution of items in the sentence interpretation task

Each correct sub-item was worth one point while incorrect answers received no point. Each item thus held two points, making each combination carry the maximum score of four points and yielding the maximum score of 88 for the entire test.

The test items were arranged in such a way that no two adjacent test items featured exactly the same RC type and relativizer combination. The subjects were also asked not to go back and change the answers they had already given so as to elicit responses that were as spontaneous, and thus as natural, as possible.

The subjects were given 45 minutes to complete the task. Two practice items were also given before the real test to help them understand the instructions better. They were also allowed to ask any questions they might have regarding the instructions (for the actual test, see Appendix C).

5.2.2 Grammaticality judgment task

A grammaticality judgment task was also employed as part of the study. This type of task, although questioned by some researchers (e.g. Johnson et al., 1996; Liceras, 1993) for its ability to reflect learners' competence, has many supporters (e.g. Gass, 1994; Leow, 1996; Mandell, 1999) and seems to have enjoyed considerable popularity in previous studies of a similar nature, including Ioup and Kruse (1977), Gass (1979), Izumi (2003), and Chou (2006).

For each item on the test, a complete sentence was given. The subjects were asked to judge whether or not the sentence was grammatical and to identify how certain they were of the answer, as well as to provide a correction if that sentence was deemed to be incorrect. They were to put A if they believed the sentence was definitely correct, B if the sentence was probably correct, C if the sentence was probably incorrect, and D if the sentence was definitely incorrect. An example is given below in (18).

(18) _____ The bus he got on was almost empty.

For example, in (64), the subjects should judge the sentence as correct because a null subject is allowed in a non-subject RRC. If this sentence was deemed as definitely correct, then the subjects should write A.

Similar to the first task, the head of the RC in each item was a definite singular noun. In addition, the subjects were also informed that errors regarding spelling, tense, and punctuation were not part of the test.

The test consisted of a total of 120 items, distributed across different combinations of RC types, relativizers, and error types, namely those involving *that*-complementizer and null subjects in NRRCs as well as those regarding resumptive pronouns and doubly-filled CPs[4] in both RRCs and NRRCs, as shown in Table 6 below. It should be noted that there were two items for each combination and ungrammatical items are represented with italicized numbers.

RCs	Relativizers	SS	OS	SO	OO	SOPREP	OOPREP
RRC	*Wh*-operator	2	2	2	2	2	2
	That	2	2	2	2	2	2
	Null	*2*	*2*	2	2	2	2
	Resumptive pronoun	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*
	Doubly-filled CP	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*
NRRC	*Wh*-operator	2	2	2	2	2	2
	That	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*
	Null	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*
	Resumptive pronoun	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*
	Doubly-filled CP	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*	*2*

Table 6: The distribution of items in the grammaticality judgment task

As for scoring, there were two separate score rubrics for grammatical and ungrammatical sentences as shown in Table 7.

	For grammatical sentences	*For ungrammatical sentences*
A (definitely correct)	3	0
B (probably correct)	2	1
C (probably incorrect)	1	2
D (definitely incorrect)	0	3

Table 7: Score rubrics for the grammaticality judgment task

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[4] A doubly-filled CP refers to a CP whose specifier is filled with a *wh*-operator and whose head is the complementizer *that*. Because a co-occurrence of a *wh*-operator ([+wh]) and *that* ([-wh]) will cause a feature clash, a constraint on doubly-filled CPs is said to exist in English (Chomsky & Lasnik, 1977, p. 469).

Therefore, the maximum point possible for each item was three, and the maximum point possible for each relative clause type was six. The highest score possible for the entire test totaled 360 points. In addition, while the corrections provided were not counted towards scoring, they served as production data and were used to help explain what was found in the reception data.

In addition, the test items were arranged so that no two adjacent items tested the same structure, and the participants were asked not to change any answers already given, as in the previous task.

The subjects were given 60 minutes to finish the task. Similar to the sentence interpretation task, they were given clear instructions from the teachers supervising the session and provided with three warm-up items to practice. They were also encouraged to inform the teachers of any part of the instructions they felt had to be further clarified (for the actual test, see Appendix D).

5.3 Data collection

After the OPT had been administered and 40 participants had been categorized into the intermediate and advanced groups based on their scores, the two tasks were given in class. Because of the time the tasks required, the tests were administered one week apart rather than back to back, with the sentence interpretation administered first and the grammaticality judgment task given a week later. After the participants finished each test in the allotted time, they were asked to turn it in immediately.

5.4 Data analysis

After the tests were scored, the results were calculated into percentage scores. Because of the asymmetries between the numbers of RRC and NRRC items in the first task and the ratios of correct and incorrect RRC and NRRC items in the second task, as discussed above, data analysis was conducted based on these percentage scores rather than the raw scores.

6. Results

The results obtained from both the sentence interpretation task and the grammaticality judgment task are detailed below.

6.1 Task 1: Sentence interpretation task

In this section, the subjects' accuracy scores on RRCs and NRRCs in Task 1 are presented and then arranged from highest to lowest to observe the degrees of difficulty of each RC type in different subject groups. The scores are then further analyzed to determine the extent to which they support or contradict claims made by the two RC-related hypotheses and whether RRCs and NRRCs interact with these hypotheses in the same manner. It should also be noted that in order to

keep the focus on the learners' data, the scores of the control group will be presented only in the overall score section.

6.1.1 Overall scores

The overall scores of items on RRCs and RRCs sorted by subject groups are presented in Table 8 below. It should be noted that each percentage in parentheses represents the difference between the number in that cell and the cell above and therefore the difference between the accuracy score of the same RC type between two adjacent groups.

Groups/RC types	RRCs	NRRCs
Intermediate	85.63%	82.92%
Advanced	90.28% (+4.65%)	87.50% (+4.58%)
Control	95.28% (+4.65%)	95.00% (+7.50%)

Table 8: Average accuracy scores on RRCs and NRRCs in the sentence interpretation task

For RRCs, the average accuracy score of the intermediate group stood at 85.63%, which was 4.65% lower than that of the advanced group, which was 90.28%. The control group scored the highest among the three groups at 95.28%, also 4.65% higher than the average score of the advanced group.

As for the items testing NRRCs, the lowest average accuracy score also belonged to the intermediate group (82.92%). The advanced group came in second at 87.50% (4.58% higher than the score of the intermediate group), and the control group ranked the highest at 95.00% (7.50% higher than the score of the advanced group).

For both RRCs and NRRCs, there seemed to be a strong proficiency-related trend, with the intermediate group scoring the lowest, the advanced group coming in second, and the control group scoring the highest.

When a comparison between RRCs and NRRCs was made, another clear trend emerged. That is, every group exhibited lower average scores on NRRCs, as illustrated in Figure 1 below, in which the line representing NRRC remained under the line representing RRC across the three subject groups.
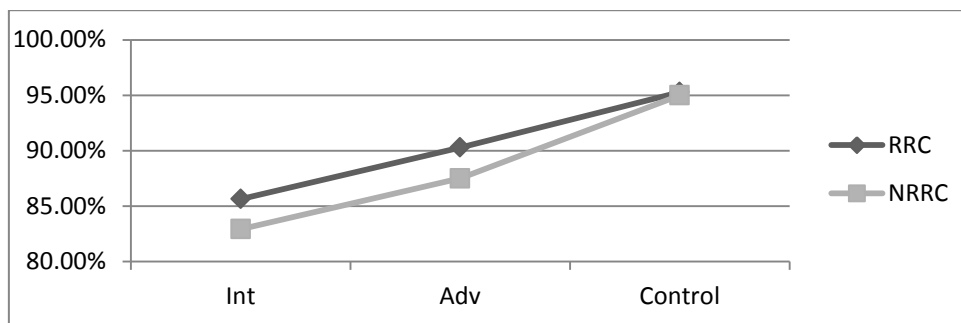
Figure 1: Progression of scores on RRCs and NRRCs across the three subject groups in the sentence interpretation task

6.1.2 Detailed scores and orders of difficulty

In order to illustrate a more detailed picture of the trends mentioned above, the scores were broken down by RC subtypes and arranged into orders. The scores on RRC subtypes by both subject groups are presented in Table 9 below.

Groups/RC types	SS	OS	SO	OO	SOPREP	OOPREP
Intermediate	89.38%	91.88%	85.83%	87.08%	80.42%	79.17%
Advanced	95.00% (+5.62%)	93.75% (+1.88%)	89.58% (+3.75%)	90.83% (+3.75%)	85.42% (+5.00%)	87.08% (+7.29%)

Table 9: Accuracy scores on each RRC subtype of the learner groups in the sentence interpretation task

The intermediate group seemed to find OS (91.88%) and SS (89.38%) the easiest two while they were less accurate with OO (87.08%), SO (85.83%), SOPREP (80.42%), and OOPREP (79.17%), respectively.

A little switch-up in the order of accuracy scores could be seen in the advanced group. SS (95.00%) appeared to be the easiest, followed by OS (93.75%), OO (90.83%), SO (89.58%), OOPREP (87.80%), and SOPREP (85.42%), respectively. It should also be noted that the advanced group scored higher than the intermediate group on every RRC subtype, with the biggest increase evident in OOPREP (+7.29%) and the smallest increase in OS (+1.88%)

The orders of the accuracy scores of the two learner groups arranged from highest (left) to lowest (right) described above are illustrated schematically below in (19). The 'greater than' symbol (>) means that the score of the subtype on the left of the symbol is greater than that on the right, and the equal symbol (=) means that the scores of the subtypes on both sides of the symbol are equal.

(19) Accuracy scores on each RRC type arranged from highest to lowest

Intermediate group:

OS	>	SS	>	OO	>	SO	>	SOPREP	>	OOPREP
(91.88%)		(89.38%)		(87.08%)		(85.83%)		(80.42%)		(79.14%)

Advanced group:

SS	>	OS	>	OO	>	SO	>	OOPREP	>	SOPREP
(95.00%)		(93.75%)		(90.83%)		(89.58%)		(87.08%)		(85.42%)

It can be seen that the orders of both groups were not identical. However, there seemed to be an underlying pattern, with XS (X representing any grammatical role of the head noun of the RC) assuming the top two highest ranks, XO taking the next two, and XOPREP occupying the two lowest slots. These orders, along with those on NRRCs discussed below, will be further analyzed in the next section below.

As for the NRRC, the scores on each subtype of both learner groups are presented in Table 10 below.

Groups/RC types	SS	OS	SO	OO	SOPREP	OOPREP
Intermediate	87.50%	85.00%	82.50%	81.25%	82.50%	78.75%
Advanced	92.50% (+5.00%)	88.75% (+3.75%)	87.50% (+5.00%)	86.25% (+5.00%)	86.25% (+3.75%)	83.75% (+5.00%)

Table 10: Accuracy scores on each NRRC subtype of the learner groups in the sentence interpretation task

The table shows that the intermediate group found SS by far the easiest among the six subtypes (87.50%), followed by OS (85.00%), SO and SOPREP (82.50%), OO (81.25%), and OOPREP (78.75%), respectively.

Similarly, SS (92.50%) and OS (88.75%) were ranked the two top subtypes that the advanced group found easiest, followed by SO (87.50%). The order started to diverge from that of the intermediate group at the fourth place, jointly assumed by OO and SOPREP (86.25%), before ending with the same least accurate subtype OOPREP (83.75%). It should be noted that the advanced group scored higher than the intermediate group on every subtype of NRRC, with an increase of 3.75-5%.

The accuracy scores were also organized into high-to-low orders as illustrated below in (20).

(20) Accuracy scores on each NRRC type arranged from highest to lowest

Intermediate group:

SS	>	OS	>	SO	=	SOPREP	>	OO	>	OOPREP
(87.50%)		(85.00%)		(82.50%)		(82.50%)		(81.25%)		(78.75%)

Advanced group:

SS	>	OS	>	SO	>	OO	=	SOPREP	>	OOPREP
(92.50%)		(88.75%)		(87.50%)		(86.25%)		(86.25%)		(83.75%)

It can be seen that while both groups exhibited different accuracy orders, there seemed to be a detectable pattern, with SS, OS, and SO assuming the three top slots, SOPREP and OO taking the next two, and OOPREP sitting at the bottom.

The RRC orders shown above in (67) and the NRRC orders shown in (68) appeared to have too little in common to make out any meaningful pattern at this stage. In addition, they did not seem to strictly follow any claims posited by both RC-related hypotheses. This will be discussed in the section below, where the scores are analyzed in relation to both RC-related hypotheses in order to delve into the extent of the effects made on this ordering.

To better illustrate the trend, the scores of each RC subtype of each subject group are plotted in Figure 2 below. The unbroken lines represent RRC and the dotted lines represent NRRC.
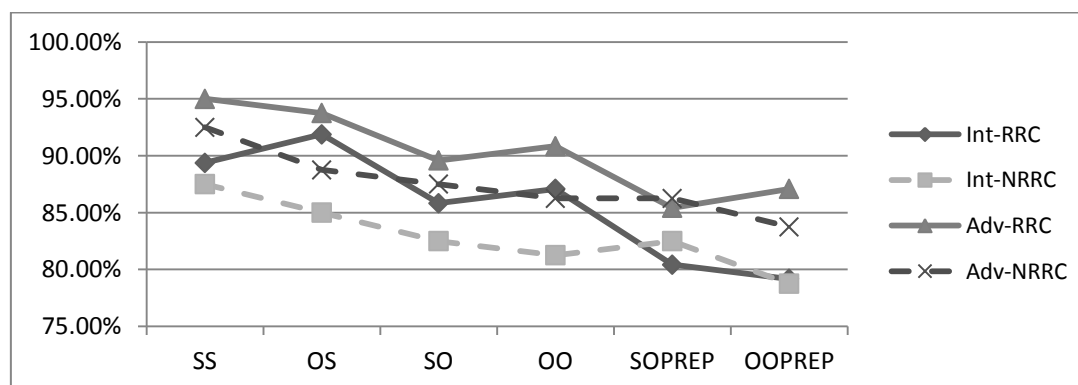
Figure 2: Accuracy scores of each RRC and NRRC subtype in the sentence interpretation task

When the scores of each subtype of RRC and NRRC were compared, most RRC subtypes had higher scores than their NRRC counterparts, with the exceptions of SOPREP. The results demonstrate a general trend in which both learner groups were more accurate with RRC than with NRRC in most RC subtypes.

6.1.3 Scores in relation to the RC-related hypotheses

The scores were also analyzed to determine the extent to which they conformed to the predictions posited by the NPAH, PDH, and SOHH, respectively.

6.1.3.1 NPAH

As the NPAH makes predictions based on the grammatical role of the gap/relativized material alone, the scores were divided into three subtypes corresponding to the three grammatical roles of the gap included in this study (namely subject, object, and object of preposition), instead of the six subtypes treated in the previous section.

For RRC, the average accuracy scores categorized by the grammatical role of the gap are presented in Table 11. It should be noted that X represents the grammatical role of the RC head noun, which is irrelevant to the claims made by the NPAH. Therefore, in this study, XS refers to both SS and OS, and the scores of XS are therefore the average scores of SS and OS.

Groups/RC types	XS	XO	XOPREP
Intermediate	90.63%	86.46%	79.79%
Advanced	94.38% (+3.75%)	90.21% (+3.75%)	86.25% (+6.46%)

Table 11: Average accuracy scores on each RRC type based on the grammatical role of the relativized material

For the intermediate group, the accuracy score peaked at 90.63% with the RRC relativized materials functioning as subjects. The score tapered to 86.46% with XO and finally to 79.79% with XOPREP.

In the advanced group, XS also ranked first in the accuracy score (94.28%), followed by XO (90.21%) and XOPREP (86.25%), respectively.

In both learner groups, a discernible trend was perceived. The participants appeared to find the grammatical role of Subjects to be the easiest among all three, followed by objects, while objects of preposition seemed to pose the most trouble to the learners.

As for NRRC, the scores based on the grammatical role of the relativized material are shown below in Table 12.

Groups/RC types	XS	XO	XOPREP
Intermediate	86.25%	81.88%	80.63%
Advanced	90.63% (+4.38%)	86.88% (+5.00%)	85.00% (+4.38%)

Table 12: Average accuracy scores on each NRRC type based on the grammatical role of the relativized material

Again, the same trend found in RRC was also manifest in NRRC, with the highest scores found in XS, the next highest in XO, and the lowest in XOPREP. For the intermediate group, the XS score was 86.25%, the XO score stood at 81.88%, and the XOPREP score plunged slightly to 80.63%.

For the intermediate group, the score started out at 90.63% for XS and fell to 86.88% for XO and 85.00% for XOPREP.

In addition, although the accuracy score orders shown in (67) and (68) might not appear to strictly adhere to the NPAH, the hypothesis did appear to exert its influence on the overall ordering. The fact that some XO appeared before an XS in the actual ordering, although the NPAH posits that XS should be easier than XO, might be attributed to some other influences that could also be at play (namely perceptual difficulty and discontinuities) apart from the accessibility hierarchy. However, this did not deny the influence of the NPAH, as shown in Tables 11 and 12.

To explore whether the trend was exactly the same in RRC and NRRC, a comparison between the scores of the same grammatical role in RRC and NRRC was made. The differences are shown in Figure 3.
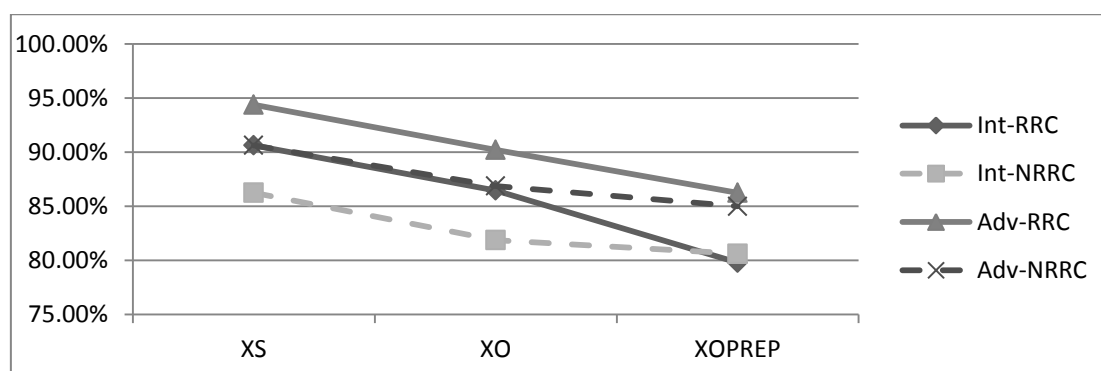
Figure 3: Progression of each RRC and NRRC type based on the grammatical role of the relativized material

When the same grammatical role was compared between RRC and NRRC, it was found that subjects were judged in the same grammatical role more accurately in an RRC than in an NRRC, with the exceptions of XOPREP for the intermediate group. In addition, the results lent support to the trend found in 6.1.1 that the subjects perceived RRCs to be easier than NRRCs even when the data was arranged on the basis of the grammatical role of the relativized material.

6.1.3.2 PDH

Disregarding the grammatical role of the relativized material, the PDH makes claims based on the position of an RC in relation to the head noun or, in other words, the grammatical role of the head of the RC. Therefore, to fathom the extent of the effect of PDH in the results, the scores were divided into two subtypes based on the grammatical role of the RC head (namely subject and object).

As for RRC, the scores of each group are shown below in Table 13. It should be noted that X represents any grammatical role of the relativized material. Therefore, SX includes SS, SO, and SOPREP, and the score of SX is an average of the scores of these three subtypes.

Groups/RC types	SX	OX
Intermediate	85.21%	86.04%
Advanced	90.00% (+4.79%)	90.56% (+4.51%)

Table 13: Average accuracy scores on each RRC type based on the grammatical role of the head noun

For the intermediate group, SX stood at 85.21% while OX stood at 86.04%. For the advanced group, the SX questions were accurately answered 90.00% of the time, while the OX questions were accurately answered at 90.56%.

It can be seen that the OX scores were slightly higher than the SX scores across the subject groups, leading support to the presence of the influence of the PDH in RRCs. In addition, the advanced group seemed to perform better than the intermediate groups consistently in both RC subtypes.

As for NRRC, the scores based on the grammatical role of the RC head of both subject groups are presented below in Table 14.

Groups/RC types	SX	OX
Intermediate	84.17%	81.67%
Advanced	88.75% (+4.58%)	86.25% (+4.58%)

Table 14: Average accuracy scores in each NRRC type based on the grammatical role of the head noun

For the intermediate group, the SX score was 84.17%, and the OX score was 81.67%. For the advanced group, the SX score stood at 88.75%, and the OX score stood at 86.25%.

The pattern that emerged in this set of data seemed to contradict the pattern found in RRC. That is, it appeared that subject-modifying NRRCs seemed to be perceived as easier than object-modifying NRRCs. This went directly against the prediction of the PDH, which posits the opposite. The results, thus, suggested that the PDH might not have applied to NRRCs. Some possible reasons for this will be discussed in Section 7.4.2.

The differences between the subtypes of RRC and NRRC are shown below in Figure 4.
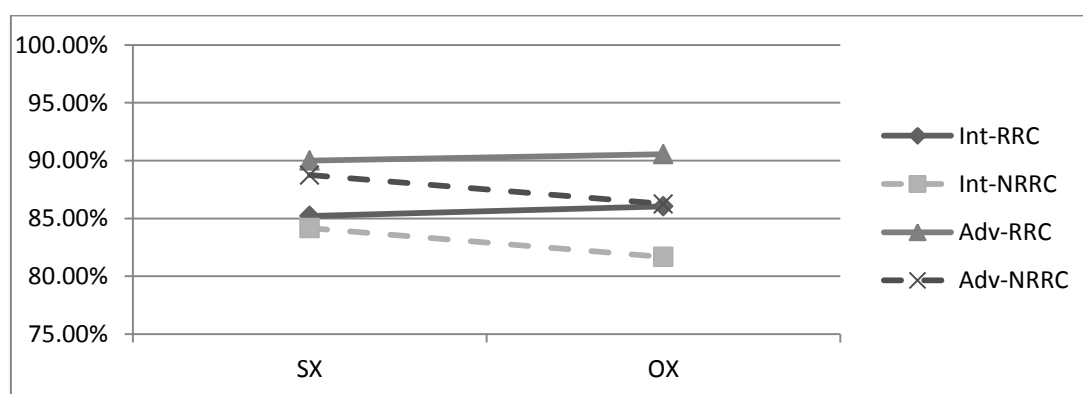
Figure 4: Progression of each RRC and NRRC type based on the grammatical role of the head noun in the sentence interpretation task

It can be seen that the scores of RRC were higher than those of NRRC across the board, which indicates that the two learner groups were more accurate with RRCs than with NRRCs even when the influence of the PDH was taken into account.

6.2 Task 2: Grammaticality judgment task

Similar to the previous section, this section will start off with the overall scores of RRCs and NRRCs in Task 2. Then, the accuracy scores will be presented in detail and arranged in order from highest to lowest to observe the degrees of relative difficulty each RC presents in each subject group. Following this, the scores will be analyzed in relation to both RC-related hypotheses to analyze the extent to which they are supported or contradicted by the data. Written data will only be mentioned if it is relevant to the discussion. It should also be noted that in order to keep the focus on the learners' data, the scores of the control group will be presented only in the overall score section.

6.2.1 Overall scores

The overall scores of items on RRCs and RRCs sorted by subject groups are presented in Table 15 below.

Groups/RC types	RRCs	NRRCs
Intermediate	79.72%	73.08%
Advanced	91.25% (+11.53%)	87.33% (+14.25%)
Control	96.89% (+5.64%)	95.89% (+8.66%)

Table 15: Average accuracy scores of judgment of RRCs and NRRCs of the three groups in the grammaticality judgment task

For RRCs, the average accuracy score of the intermediate group stood at 79.72%, which was 11.25% lower than that of the advanced group, which was 91.25%. The control group scored the highest among the three groups at 96.89%, which was 5.64% higher than the average score of the advanced group.

As for the items testing NRRCs, the lowest average accuracy score also belonged to the intermediate group (73.08%). The advanced group came in second at 87.33% (14.25% higher than the score of the intermediate group), and the control group ranked the highest at 95.89% (8.66% higher than the score of the advanced group).

For both RRCs and NRRCs, there seemed to be a strong proficiency-related trend similar to what was found in Task 1, with the intermediate group scoring the lowest, the advanced group coming in second, and the control group scoring the highest. This trend suggested that L1 Thai learners could acquire English RCs. This will be further elaborated in Section 7.1.

When a comparison between RRCs and NRRCs was made, it was evident that every group exhibited lower average scores on NRRCs, as illustrated in Figure 5 below, in which the line representing NRRC constantly remained under the line representing RRC, across the three subject groups.
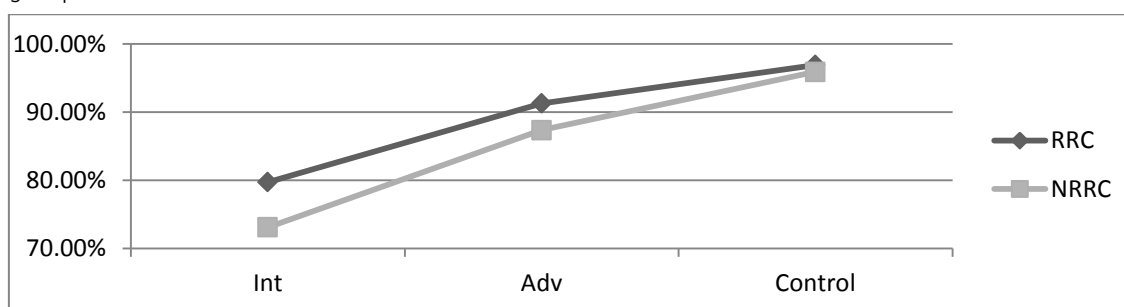
Figure 5: Progression of scores of RRCs and NRRCs in the learner groups in the grammaticality judgment task

6.2.2 Detailed scores and orders of difficulty

To get a more refined picture of the data presented above, the scores were broken down by RC subtypes and arranged into accuracy orders. The scores on RRC subtypes by the learner groups are presented in Table 16 below.

Groups/RC types	SS	OS	SO	OO	SOPREP	OOPREP
Intermediate	83.67%	83.33%	77.83%	81.67%	75.83%	76.00%
Advanced	93.50% (+9.83%)	92.17% (+8.83%)	91.00% (+13.17%)	92.67% (+11.00%)	88.83% (+13.00%)	89.33% (+13.33%)

Table 16: Accuracy scores on judgment of each RRC type of the learner groups in the grammaticality judgment task

In the intermediate group, the highest score belonged to SS (83.67%), only slightly higher than the second highest subtype OS (83.33%). OO (81.67%) came next in order, followed by SO (77.83%), OOPREP (76.00%), and SOPREP (75.83%), respectively.

As for the advanced group, the easiest subtype was SS (93.50%), with OO (92.67%) and OS (92.17%) trailing very closely. SO (91.00%) came in fourth, followed by OOPREP (89.33%) and SOPREP (88.83%)

When each subtype is compared, it can be seen that there was a clear proficiency-related progression. That is, the accuracy scores increased with proficiency, suggesting that, as in Task 1, RRCs can be acquired.

The accuracy score orders of both subject groups described here are presented schematically from highest to lowest in (21) below.

(21) Accuracy scores of judgment of each RRC type arranged from highest to lowest
Intermediate group:

SS	>	OS	>	OO	>	SO	>	OOPREP	>	SOPREP
(83.67%)		(83.33%)		(81.67%)		(77.83%)		(76.00%)		(75.83%)

Advanced group:

SS	>	OO	>	OS	>	SO	>	OOPREP	>	SOPREP
(93.50%)		(92.67%)		(92.17%)		(91.00%)		(89.33%)		(88.83%)

Similar to the results of the first task, it can be seen that the orders featured different sequences. However, this does not mean that there were no underlying patterns. First of all, the last two slots for both orders were assumed by OPREP and SOPREP respectively, suggesting that they were the most difficult types of RCs among these six. Second, the RC subtype that both intermediate and advanced learners perceived to be the easiest was unanimously SS. Despite the patterns, these orders did not seem to lend support to either RC-related hypotheses as of now. Therefore, a further in-depth analysis of the data will be carried out in the next sections below.

As for NRRCs, the scores of each subtype by the learner groups are shown below in Table 17.

Groups/RC types	SS	OS	SO	OO	SOPREP	OOPREP
Intermediate	76.67%	74.00%	75.17%	73.33%	70.50%	68.83%
Advanced	90.67%	87.50%	89.00%	86.83%	86.17%	83.83%
	(+14.00%)	(+13.50%)	(+13.83%)	(+13.50%)	(+15.67%)	(+15.00%)

Table 17: Accuracy scores on judgment of each NRRC type of the learner groups

For the intermediate group, the subtype with the highest score was SS (76.67%). SO (75.17%) occupied the second highest score slot, followed by OS (74.00%), OO (73.33%), SOPREP (70.50%), and OOPREP (68.83%), respectively.

The intermediate group exhibited an identical sequence, with SS trumping the other subtypes at 90.67%, followed by SO (89.00%), OS (87.50%), OO (86.83%), SOPREP (86.17%), and lastly OOPREP (83.83%).

When the scores of the same subtype were compared, it can be seen that the higher the proficiency level, the higher the score, lending itself as evidence of a proficiency-related progression.

The scores of each group described above are arranged from highest to lowest in the charts detailed in (22) below.

(22) Accuracy scores on judgment of each NRRC type arranged from highest to lowest
Intermediate group:

SS	>	SO	>	OS	>	OO	>	SOPREP	>	OOPREP
(76.67%)		(75.17%)		(74.00%)		(73.33%)		(70.50%)		(68.83%)

Advanced group:

SS	>	SO	>	OS	>	OO	>	SOPREP	>	OOPREP
(90.67%)		(89.00%)		(87.50%)		(86.83%)		(86.17%)		(83.33%)

Unlike the data on RRCs presented above, the orders of the two learner groups were actually identical in terms of subtype sequences and featured a few underlying patterns. First, the two lowest spots were occupied by XOPREP, similar to the results of the RRCs. Second, the top two spots were taken by SX (this X not including OPREP). Following this, the third and fourth slots were occupied by OX (this X not including OPREP). Again, in order to fully understand this ordering and how they reflected the effects of either RC-related hypotheses, the data will be further analyzed in the next sections.

For a better illustration of the data presented above, Figure 6 below plots the scores of each RRC and NRRC subtype of each of the subject groups.
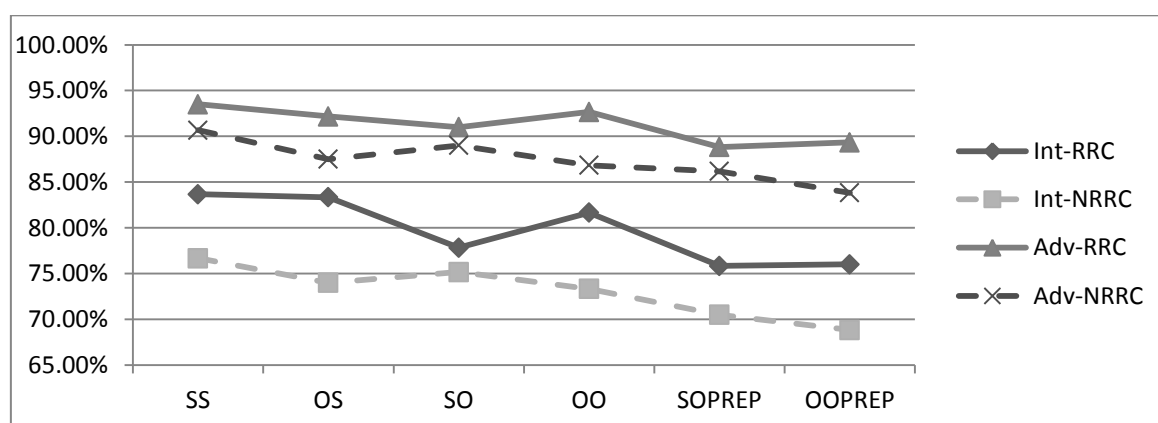
Figure 6: Accuracy scores on judgment of each RRC and NRRC subtype in the grammaticality judgment task

It can be seen that for the same subtype, the scores of RRCs (unbroken lines) were higher than those of NRRCs (dotted lines). It can be inferred from this that NRRCs were perceived to be more difficult than RRCs across all the subtypes. In addition, SS had the highest score for every line, showing that SS was perceived by the subjects to be the easiest.

6.2.3 Scores in relation to the RC-related hypotheses

Since the scores presented in the previous section did not show the extent to which the influence of the RC-related hypotheses was present in the data, this section will present the scores sorted on the basis of the grammatical role of the relativized material to gauge the influence of the

NPAH as well as the grammatical role of the RC head noun to plumb the influence of the PDH. As for the effect of the SOHH, the orders of difficulty presented in the previous section will be used.

6.2.3.1 NPAH

The scores were categorized on the basis of the grammatical function of the relativized material in order to look into the influence of the NPAH in the data. Table 18 below shows the scores on RRCs by both learner groups.

Groups/RC types	XS	XO	XOPREP
Intermediate	83.50%	79.75%	75.92%
Advanced	92.83% (+9.33)	91.83% (+12.08%)	89.08% (+13.17%)

Table 18: Average accuracy scores on the judgment of each RRC type based on the relativized material in the grammaticality judgment task

For the intermediate group, XS (83.50%) appeared to be the easiest type, followed by XO (79.75%) and XOPREP (75.92%), respectively.

Similarly, the type with the highest accuracy score for the advanced group was XS (92.83%), followed XO (91.83%), and XOPREP (89.08%).

From the RRC data, the results seem to indicate the presence of the influence of the NPAH. That is, because the accessibility hierarchy posited by the NPAH held a degree of validity, the subjects found XS to be easier than XO and XOPREP, respectively.

As for NRRCs, the scores sorted by the grammatical role of the relativized material of the learner groups are presented in Table 19 below.

Groups/RC types	XS	XO	XOPREP
Intermediate	75.33%	74.25%	69.67%
Advanced	89.08% (+13.75%)	87.92% (+13.67%)	85.00% (+15.33%)

Table 19: Average accuracy scores on the judgment of each NRRC type based on the relativized material in the grammaticality judgment task

For the intermediate group, XS had the highest accuracy score of 75.33%. XO occupied the second highest score slot with 74.25%, followed by XOPREP (69.97%).

XS ranked highest at 89.08% for the advanced group, followed by XO (87.92%) and XOPREP (85.00%).

The data suggests that even for NRRCs, the NPAH applied to both groups. Therefore, from both RRC and NRRC data, it could be inferred that the NPAH exerted significant influence on the results, similar to the findings in Task 1.

To observe the differences between the RRC and NRRC data, the scores on the grammatical role of the relativized material are presented in Figure 7 below.
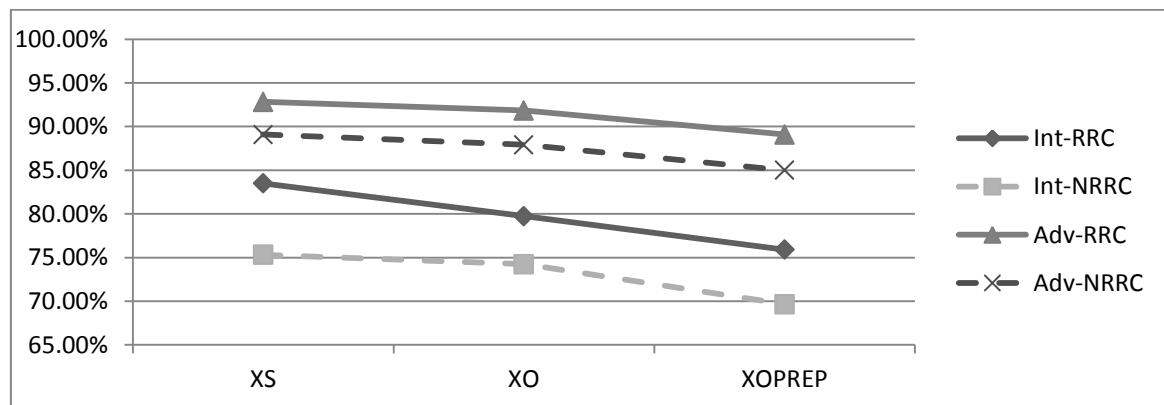
Figure 7: Progression of each RRC and NRRC type based on the grammatical role of the relativized material in the grammaticality judgment task

It can be seen that for both groups, apart from the fact that the scores followed the prediction of the NPAH mentioned above, the gap between the RRC and the NRRC also diminished as the proficiency increased. In addition, it can be seen that the subjects perceived RRCs to be easier than NRRCs even when the data was arranged on the basis of the grammatical role of the relativized material, supporting the findings in 5.2.1 and mirroring the findings of Task 1.

6.2.3.2 PDH

To delve into the influence of the PDH in the data, the scores were also sorted on the basis of the grammatical role of the RC head. The scores on items testing the RRCs of both subject groups are presented in Table 20 below.

Groups/RC types	SX	OX
Intermediate	79.11%	80.33%
Advanced	91.11% (+12.00%)	91.39% (+11.06%)

Table 20: Average accuracy scores on the judgment of each RRC type based on the grammatical role of the head noun in the grammaticality judgment task

In both learner groups, the OX scores were higher than their SX counterparts. For the intermediate learners, the OX score was 80.33% while the SX score stood at 79.11%, (1.22% lower). As for the advanced group, the OX score was 91.39%, only 0.28% higher than the SX score (91.11%).

The results suggest the presence of the influence of the PDH in the RRC data of both learner groups, albeit very small. That is, the grammaticality of an RRC could be judged more easily if it modified an object rather than a subject of the matrix clause.

In addition, the between-group score differences were also all in the plus, again indicating that a proficiency-related progression shown previously was evident even when the scores were arranged according to the grammatical role of the RC head.

As for NRRCs, the scores categorized by the grammatical role of the RC head are presented below in Table 21.

Groups/RC types	SX	OX
Intermediate	74.11%	72.06%
Advanced	88.61% (+14.50%)	86.06% (+14.00%)

Table 21: Average accuracy scores on the judgment of each NRRC type based on the grammatical role of the head noun in the grammaticality judgment task

Interestingly, for both groups, the SX scores seemed to outstrip the OX scores. For the intermediate group, the SX score stood at 74.11%, 2.05% higher than the OX score (72.06%). For the advanced group, the SX score was 88.61% while the OX score trailed at 86.06%. The results indicate that the PDH did not seem to have as much influence, if any at all, on NRRCs as on RRCs. This phenomenon mirrored what was found in Task 1.

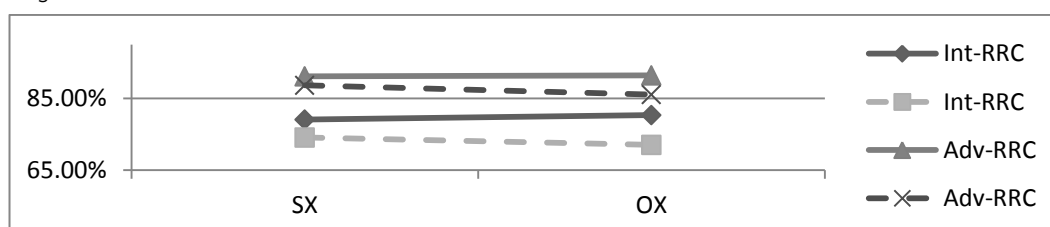To observe the differences between the RRC and NRRC data, the scores are presented in Figure 8 below.

Figure 8: Progression of each RRC and NRRC type based on the grammatical role of the head noun in the grammaticality judgment task

It can be seen that the gap between RRCs and NRRCs seemed to diminish as the proficiency level increased. This suggests that although NRRCs might be considerably more difficult than RRCs for learners at lower proficiency levels, the construction came increasingly closer to RRCs in terms of difficulty/ease as learners became more advanced.

7. Discussion

In this section, the trends demonstrated in the data will be discussed in terms of possible explanations.

7.1 Proficiency-related progression

All through the data in both tasks, it can be seen that the higher the proficiency level, the higher the accuracy scores (see Table 8 in 6.1.1 and Table 15 in 6.2.1). This tendency also manifested itself at a closer look throughout Tasks 1 and 2. This trend, as opposed to the one in which learners' performance did not improve with increasing proficiency levels, suggests that RRCs and NRRCs can be acquired by L1 Thai learners, corroborating the findings of Amornwongpeeti and Pongpairoj (2013). That is, although they might not have exhibited complete mastery of the constructions at a lower level of proficiency, learners can become more and more accurate as they develop along the acquisition trajectory and even grow close to native speakers in certain aspects. The conclusion is consistent with Phoocharoensil (2009) and Amornwongpeeti and Pongpairoj (2013) with respect to RRCs (NRRCs were not studied exhaustively in both works,).

The most likely explanation as to why English RRCs and NRRCs can be acquired by Thai learners lies in L1 influence, which refers to the tendency for learners to use the forms and meanings in their first language in the target language (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 519). As shown in Table 1 in 2.4, English and Thai RCs share a number of common characteristics, which can facilitate the acquisition of English RCs. That is, because both English and Thai RCs are external-headed, right-embedded, and postnominal, as well as their use of the gap strategy, these similarities allow L1 Thai learners to acquire L2 English RCs with greater ease.

7.2 RRCs and NRRCs

The subjects were shown to be able to make a distinction between RRCs and NRRCs. This could be ascribed to L1 transfer. That is, because Thai also encodes the distinction between the two types of RCs, although the encoding methods have not been examined exhaustively (see 2.3.2), the subjects were primed to better classify RCs as restrictive and non-restrictive and grasp the difference in forms and functions between the two types.

Also evident throughout the results of Tasks 1 and 2 was the tendency for the subjects to be more accurate with RRCs than with NRRCs (see Figure 1 in 6.1.1 and Figure 5 in 6.2.1). That is, although the learners appeared to be able to acquire English RCs, their performance on RRCs always stayed slightly ahead of that on NRRCs. As the acquisition of RRCs and NRRCs has never been examined thoroughly side by side in the literature, whether this phenomenon is common across L1s has yet to be explored.

There are a few possible explanations for this phenomenon. First, the asymmetry could be ascribed to the frequency with which RRCs and NRRCs are used. As mentioned earlier, Biber et al. (1999) found in their corpus study that RRCs are more common than NRRCs in all written genres (p. 603). To be more precise, NRRCs account for only 15% of all RCs in fiction and academic prose. This number goes up to only 30% in news. Because humans have been shown to be sensitive to frequency to linguistic events (Ellis, 2002, cited in Robinson & Ellis, 2008) the evidence that NRRCs are less common suggests that it is possible that because learners were less exposed to NRRCs than to RRCs, they were, thus, not able to acquire NRRCs at the same rate as RRCs and, as a result, they were not as accurate with NRRCs as they were with RRCs (p.46).

The frequency mentioned above is linked to the second explanation. That is, RRCs are claimed to be more prototypical to the category of RC than are NRRCs. As mentioned in 2.1, Comrie (1989) claimed that NRRCs are less central to the notion of RCs than RRCs (p. 139). This claim seems to be confirmed by the amount of research devoted to RRCs when compared to that dedicated to NRRCs. This prototype claim is also linked to frequency, which is said to determine the prototype of a category (Bybee, 2001, cited in Robinson & Ellis, 2008, p. 46). As prototypes are more salient, they can positively affect L2 development (Robinson & Ellis, 2008, p. 7). The positive effects of salience on L2 acquisition have been demonstrated in a number of studies across different linguistic areas (such as Carroll & Shea, 2007, on prosody ; Goldschneider & DeKeyser, 2001, on L2 morpheme acquisition; Trenkic & Pongpairoj, 2013, on L2 article use) Therefore, it is possible that the subjects were more accurate on RRCs than NRRCs because RRCs are more prototypical and, thus, more salient.

Another possible explanation may have to do with the textbooks to which these learners were exposed. Five textbooks used by Thai high school students were sampled (*New Inside Out – Intermediate* (Kay & Jones, 2009, p. 89), *New English File – Intermediate* (Oxenden & Latham-Koenig, 2006, pp. 92-95)*, American Headway 4* (Soars & Soars, 2005, p. 67), *Solutions – Intermediate* (Falla & Davies, 2012, pp. 25-27), and *Knock Out*: *First Certificate* (May, 1999, p. 70)). Indeed, in each of the textbooks, RRCs are introduced before NRRCs. Even when the main topic in the lesson is RCs, RRCs are taught first. As a consequence, these learners might have developed a

notion that RRCs were more central to RCs and perceived NRRCs as secondary. In addition, the tendency for NRRCs to be introduced after RRCs have been taught also appears in English grammar textbooks. Five commercial textbooks by international publishers were sampled (*Macmillan English Grammar in Context – Advanced* (Vince, 2008, p. 158), *Advanced Grammar in Use* (Hewings, 2005, p. 106), *Oxford English Grammar Course* (Swan & Walter, 2011, p. 208. 210), *Oxford Practice Grammar* (Yule, 2006, p. 174), and *Understanding and Using English Grammar* (Azar, 2002, p. 281)). Unsurprisingly, in not one of these five books are NRRCs taught before RRCs. Because of such reinforcement, the asymmetry between RRC and NRRC acquisition evident in the data is understandable.

7.3 Difficulty orders

A number of studies have been conducted in pursuit of the difficulty order in the acquisition of RCs. However, the results from this study varied considerably and did not yield any conclusive order for each subject group. Although generally SS was shown to be the easiest RC subtype across the data, the remaining subtypes did not remain constant.

A possible explanation for this is that the difficulty order was governed by a conglomerate of factors, whose dynamics and relationships were not straightforward. For example, the NPAH and the PDH were shown to be at play in the data. However, the extent to which they held sway over the data could vary which, in turn, could alter the difficulty order. To illustrate, an extreme example is in order. If the NPAH effect has more influence on the data than the effect of the PDH, the difficulty order yielded might be SS > OS > SO > OO > SOPREP > OOPREP. However, if the scenario is reversed, the difficulty order might be SS > SO > SOPREP > OS > OO > OOPREP. In both cases, the accessibility hierarchy and the perceptual difficulty are still at play. As it is very unlikely for the two hypotheses to exert their influence to an equal degree under every circumstance, it is only natural that the orders found in the current study exhibit a degree of variety.

7.4 RC-related hypotheses

Attempts will be made to offer some explanation for the trends related to both RC-related hypotheses that have been found in the data.

7.4.1 The NPAH

Based on the grammatical role of the gap, the NPAH predicts that XS is easier than XO, and XO is easier than XOPREP. When other factors were excluded and only the grammatical role of the gap was considered, a trend became evident; the overall results lent support to this

hypothesis (see Figure 3 in 6.1.3.1 and Figure 7 in 6.2.3.1). The results were consistent with a number of studies, including Gass (1979, 1980), Eckman et al. (1988), Yip and Matthews (1991), Hsin and Wang (2005), and Phoocharoensil (2009), all of which point out the role the NPAH has on the acquisition of RCs. It should also be noted that the influence of the NPAH was also present in the NRRC data, adding a new piece of information to the literature on RC acquisition and the NPAH.

With the trend established, it should be pointed out that although the hierarchy found in this study did not strictly follow the order the NPAH postulates, it is possibly because the order was also influenced by the PDH. In other words, the validity of the accessibility hierarchy was still supported in this study even though the difficulty orders did not appear to be exactly as postulated by the NPAH.

The results were also borne out by corpus findings. Biber et al. (1999) has shown that RCs with subject gaps or XS are the most common subtype of RCs, and are found in conversation and fiction (55%) and in news and academic prose (75%) (pp. 621-22). Biber et al. has claimed that this is because XS is easier to process than non-XS as no clause element is displaced from its normal position[5].

7.4.2 The PDH

The PDH makes predictions based on the notion of perceptual difficulty, claiming that RCs that modify subject head nouns, and thus intervene between subjects and verbs, are more difficult than RCs that modify object head nouns. The overall results interestingly seemed to reveal two contradicting trends for RRCs and NRRCs.

For RRCs, the PDH was generally supported (see Figure 4 in 6.1.3.2 and Figure 8 in 6.2.3.2) in both tasks. That is, OX was shown to be slightly easier than SX. The results appeared to be consistent with a number of studies, such as Ioup and Kruse (1977), Schumann (1980), Iwami (1991), Izumi (2003), and Phoocharoensil (2009), which have indicated that OX poses less trouble to learners than SX and can be acquired more easily.

Apart from the perceptual difficulty as an explanation for this phenomenon (see 3.1.2), another possible factor possibly reinforcing the results lies in the frequency of SX. Biber et al. (1999) found that SX accounts for only 10-15% of all RCs across different registers (p.623).

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[5] Apart from XS RCs, the other subtypes of RCs involve some sort of clause element displacement.

(i)   XS   the cake [that was in the fridge]

(ii)   XO   the cake[that I ate]

In (i), *that*, which functions as the subject in the RC, is not moved from its subject position in the RC. However, in (ii), *that*, which functions as an object in the RC, is moved from its object position after the verb *ate* to precede the subject *I*. This type of displacement or movement is claimed by Biber et al. to make the statement more difficult to process.

Because SX is considerably rarer than OX, it is possible that learners received lesser exposure to SX as well, and as a result, did not acquire SX at the same rate as OX.

However, as noted above, OX was shown to be only slightly easier than SX (see Table 13 in 6.1.3.2 and Table 20 in 6.2.3.2). This comparison introduces a further dimension worthy of discussion. That is, the written data revealed that the learner subjects have been trained to parse SX. Many learners put parentheses around SX to make sure they could find the subject and the verbs on either side. This technique could perhaps be ascribed to tutorial school instruction. To help students deal with national examinations, many tutorial schools teach their students parsing techniques. This is evident in course materials from two popular tutorial schools (Enconcept and Kru Somsri), both of which teach students to parse RCs, especially SX, using parentheses. This technique even appears in a course material for Brand's Summer Camp, a short cram event held annually and broadcast throughout the nation (Thammasarasopon et al., 2013, pp. 3, 191). Therefore, the results could be affected by transfer of training, one of the five cognitive processes that can influence learners' L2 acquisition (Selinker, 1972, cited in R. Ellis, 1994, p. 351). That is, because these learners may have been trained to use such a technique, they could parse more accurately and are less affected by the perceptual difficulty caused by SX.

As for NRRCs, the PDH was systematically contradicted (see Figure 4 in 6.1.3.2 and Figure 8 in 6.2.3.2) in both tasks. That is, the subjects were more accurate with items testing SX than with items testing OX. However, instead of concluding that the PDH played no role in the NRRC data, an attempt will be made to give an alternative explanation that does not reject the PDH. That explanation has to do with prototypes. It is possible that the prototype of NRRCs is a NRRC whose head noun functions as a subject in the matrix clause. This is reflected in commercial English grammar textbooks produced by international publishers. In all five sampled books (see 7.2), the NRRCs used to introduce this type of RC are all SX. To further test if SX-NRRCs are more prototypical than OX-NRRCs, the researcher sent out an informal online questionnaire to ten participants[6], asking each to write one random sentence with an NRRC. Nine out of ten NRRCs sent back were SX. Whether the prototype of NRRCs is SX certainly requires a more formal and thorough investigation. However, as the distinctions between RRCs and NRRCs, in terms of linear syntactic arrangement, do not involve factors that would make perceptual difficulties apply to only RRCs and not to NRRCs, the effect of the PDH will not be completely ruled out. Instead, it will be proposed that the PDH influence might be overridden by the prototype effect in the NRRC data.

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[6] All of the participants had been graduated from the Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn University for 3 years at the time of the administration of the questionnaire.

8. Conclusion

In conclusion, the first hypothesis of the study, which stated that the NPAH and the PDH would be equally applicable to both RRCs and NRRCs, was only partially supported. In terms of the acquisition orders posited by both RC-related hypotheses, the orders yielded by the data of both tasks pointed to the possibility that the difficulty orders were governed by more than one factor, and these factors interacted in such a way that did not allow the orders to perfectly conform to any single order posited by both RC-related hypotheses. Therefore, in this respect, it had to be concluded that both RC-related hypotheses failed equally in predicting the precise order of difficulty in both RRCs and NRRCs. However, in terms of the overall influence of these RC-related hypotheses, the NPAH was shown to apply to both RRCs and NRRCs (see 6.4.1). While the hypothesis was initially formed on RRC data, the results indicated that the NPAH could be extended to NRRCs. This was probably due to the fact that the distinctions between English RRCs and NRRCs do not involve any drastic changes in the linear syntactic arrangement that would otherwise affect the position of the grammatical role of the relativized material, the factor upon which the NPAH is hinged. Interestingly, the PDH had been shown to apply clearly only to the RRC data, contradicting the first hypothesis posed by the study. The NRRC data has consistently defied the effect of the PDH, and the current study has ascribed this phenomenon to the prototype effect. That is, because SX seems to be more prototypical of NRRCs than OX, the subjects were primed to score higher on items with SX. Therefore, the first hypothesis was supported only with regard to the overall influence of the NPAH. That is, only the influence of the NPAH seems to apply equally to RRCs and NRRCs.

The second hypothesis of the study stated that while the acquisition orders might be the same for RRCs and NRRCs, the rate at which each subtype of RC would be acquired might diverge for RRCs and NRRCs. This hypothesis is borne out by the research results. Although the acquisition orders were shown to vary greatly, the rate at which the same RC type was acquired differed quite systematically, with NRRCs generally trailing behind RRCs for each RC type. This went hand in hand with the general trend discerned throughout the study; that is, NRRCs are more difficult than RRCs. The asymmetry was explained in terms of the unequal frequencies of RRCs and NRRCs, the prototype effect, and transfer of training. In addition, NRRCs also seemed to involve more restrictions on relativizers, which in turn predisposed the subjects to making more mistakes.

✹ ✹ ✹ ✹ ✹ ✹ ✹

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Appendix A: Individual learner subject information

12	Age	Faculty	OPT score	Proficiency
Subject 1	18	Engineering	62	Intermediate
Subject 2	19	Medicine	63	
Subject 3	18	Law	63	
Subject 4	18	Law	63	
Subject 5	17	Law	64	
Subject 6	18	Law	64	
Subject 7	18	Law	65	
Subject 8	18	Medicine	66	
Subject 9	19	Engineering	66	
Subject 10	18	Medicine	67	
Subject 11	18	Engineering	68	
Subject 12	18	Engineering	68	
Subject 13	18	Engineering	68	
Subject 14	18	Engineering	68	
Subject 15	19	Law	68	
Subject 16	18	Education	68	
Subject 17	18	Medicine	70	
Subject 18	18	Engineering	70	
Subject 19	18	Medicine	71	
Subject 20	19	Law	71	
Subject 21	20	Arts	75	Advanced
Subject 22	19	Arts	76	
Subject 23	18	Medicine	77	
Subject 24	18	Law	77	
Subject 25	18	Law	77	
Subject 26	18	Law	78	
Subject 27	18	Law	78	
Subject 28	18	Law	78	
Subject 29	18	Law	79	
Subject 30	19	Medicine	80	
Subject 31	18	Medicine	80	
Subject 32	18	Engineering	80	
Subject 33	18	Engineering	80	
Subject 34	18	Medicine	81	
Subject 35	18	Medicine	84	
Subject 36	19	Engineering	86	
Subject 37	18	Engineering	86	
Subject 38	18	Engineering	87	
Subject 39	19	Arts	89	
Subject 40	20	Arts	89	

Appendix B: Individual native speaker subject information

Subject	Age	OPT Score
Subject 1	22	92
Subject 2	24	96
Subject 3	26	97
Subject 4	28	98
Subject 5	31	98

Appendix C: Sentence interpretation task

Task 1: Sentence Interpretation

Instructions: Read the given sentences and rate if the statements given under each sentence can be inferred from the sentence. If they can be inferred from the sentence, mark ✔. If they cannot be inferred from the sentence, mark ✘. You have 45 minutes to complete this task.

Example

    0. If I had paid attention in class, I would have passed the exam.

    _____   I did not pass the exam.

    _____   I paid attention in class.

If you think the first statement can be inferred from the given sentence, put ✓ in the space provided.

    ____✓____   I did not pass the exam.

If you think the second statement cannot be inferred from the given sentence, put ✘ in the space provided.

    ____✘____   I paid attention in class.

For each sentence, both statements could be all correct or all incorrect, or only one of the statements is correct.

    0. If I had paid attention in class, I would have passed the exam.

    ____✓____   I did not pass the exam.

    ____✓____   I did not pay attention in class.

    0. If I had paid attention in class, I would have passed the exam.

    ____✘____   I passed the exam.

    ____✘____   I paied attention in class.

    0. If I had paid attention in class, I would have passed the exam.

    ____✓____   I did not pass the exam.

    ____✘____   I paid attention in class.

Warm up:

i. He has no one to blame but himself.

_____   He is at fault.

_____   He should not blame anyone else.

ii. Not unlike raising a child, having a pet is a huge responsibility.

_____   There is no similarity between raising a child and having a pet.

_____   Both child rearing and pet keeping are a huge responsibility.

1. The dog which is sleeping is mine.

_____   I have at least one dog.

_____   Some other dogs are also sleeping.

2. I really like the plant that grows by your window.

_____   The other plants do not grow by your window.

_____   This plant grows by your window.

3. The exporter I contacted told me that the products would arrive in two weeks.

_____   I also contacted some other exporters.

_____   I contacted this exporter.

4. Pat disliked the ending of the movie, which most reviewers praised.

_____   There was also another ending, and most reviewers hated it.

_____   Pat disliked most reviewers.

5. The bakery which you talked about was just shut down.

_____   You did not talk about other bakeries.

_____   Your bakery was just shut down.

6. The villagers cut the tree that an evil spirit lived inside.

_____   There were probably some other trees with an evil spirit as well.

_____   The villagers did not cut this tree.

7. The factory the government closed hired illegal employees.

_____   The government also closed some other factories.

_____   The government closed this factory.

8. The band had to fire the drummer, who(m) the police found using drugs last week.

_____   This drummer was the only drummer in the band.

_____   The police found the band using drugs after the concert.

9. The woman who(m) you used to be in love with just got married to a billionaire.

_____   You were also in love with other women.

_____   You were not in love with this woman.

10. This morning Jim visited the school that Amy and he went to.

_____ There were also some other schools that Amy and Jim went to.

_____ Amy and Jim did not go to this school.

11. The shareholders do not like the product you manufacture.

_____ You do not manufacture the other products.

_____ You manufacture this product.

12. The actress, who(m) you might not have heard of, is a Youtube celebrity.

_____ It is possible that you might not have heard of some other actresses as well.

_____ You must have heard of the Youtube celebrity.

13. I just found the supermarket which your sister worked at.

_____ If there were other supermarkets, your sister did not work there.

_____ Your sister worked at this supermarket.

14. The rose that came from your garden was so beautiful.

_____ Apart from this rose, some other roses also came from your garden.

_____ Your garden was so beautiful.

15. I do not think you fully understand the article she wrote.

_____ There might be some other articles, but she did not write them.

_____ I do not think she wrote the article.

16. The book, which the movie was based on, was little known before the movie came out.

_____ The movie was based on this book.

_____ Everybody knew the book even before the movie came out.

17. I know the professor who(m) you are looking for.

_____ You are also looking for the other professors.

_____ The professor is looking for you.

18. The thermometer that was wrapped in paper did not work anymore.

_____ If there were other thermometers, they were also wrapped in paper.

_____ The paper did not work anymore.

19. The information you're looking for is not available on our database.

_____ There might be other information, and you are looking for it as well.

_____ This information is what you are looking for.

20. The institute is forced to end the project, which John has been working on since he first worked here.

_____ What John has been working on since he first worked here was this project.

_____ The project is ended.

21. The postman who often came here just left his job.

_____ The other postmen also came here often.

_____ This postman came to leave his job.

22. Apple just released the application that allows its users to upload data from anywhere.

_____ The other applications do not allow their users to upload data from anywhere.

_____ Apple uploads data from anywhere.

23. The grandmother you borrowed money from just called an hour ago.

_____ An hour ago, this grandmother just called.

_____ You borrowed money from this grandmother an hour ago.

24. We have been avoiding the woman, who(m) Jane is still angry at.

_____ Jane is angry at this woman.

_____ We have been avoiding Jane.

25. I just ate the cake which was in the fridge.

_____ There might be some other cake outside the fridge.

_____ This particular cake was in the fridge.

26. The theory that Sir Isaac Newton proposed marked the beginning of science.

_____ If there were other theories, Sir Isaac Newton did not propose them.

_____ Sir Isaac Newton proposed the beginning of science

27. The government continued the policy people protested against anyway.

_____ People also protested against the other policies.

_____ People protested against this policy.

28. The dictionary, which has more than 300,000 entries, is the most expensive of its kind.

_____ This dictionary is probably not the only one with more than 300,000 entries.

_____ This dictionary contains more than 300,000 entries.

29. A policeman fined the driver who was driving too fast.

_____ The other drivers were not driving too fast.

_____ This driver was fined for driving too fast.

30. The hamster that I kept was called Tyler.

_____ I also kept some other hamsters.

_____ I kept this hamster.

31. A dark forest with dangerous animals lay in the direction Kim was heading for.

_____ There were other directions, but Kim was not heading those ways.

_____ Kim was heading for this direction.

32. The suspect, who was 26, drove a red car towards the expressway.

_____ What this suspect drove was a red car.

_____ This 26-year-old person was a suspect.

33. The fridge which Jane bought did not fit the space.

_____ Jane also bought the other fridges.

_____ This fridge was bought by Jane.

34. My poodle broke the vase that I made.

_____ If there were other vases, I also made them.

_____ I made this vase.

35. The earthquake caused the tsunami, which is expected to hit the shore in two days.

_____ If there are some other tsunamis, they might hit the shore in two days as well.

_____ The earthquake is expected to hit the shore in two days.

36. The thief who(m) the girl saw ran out the back door.

_____ If there were other thieves, the girl did not see them.

_____ The girl ran out the back door.

37. Rosa clearly did not like the dress that her daughter was wearing.

_____ Her daughter might have some other dresses, but she was not wearing them.

_____ Rosa did not like her daughter.

38. People seemed to hate the minister, who had no previous experience in politics.

_____ People seemed to hate this inexperienced minister.

_____ People also hated politics.

39. The storm destroyed the park which the city people loved.

_____ The city people also loved the other parks.

_____ This park was destroyed by the storm.

40. The plan that the government intended to carry out was criticized.

_____ The government did not intend to carry out other plans.

_____ People praised this plan.

41. The band, which Thai people love so much, started out with only three members.

_____ Thai people love this band so much.

_____ This band loves Thai people so much.

42. She liked the teacher who(m) all of her friends hated.

_____ The other teachers were not hated by all of her friends.

_____ Not all of her friends hated this teacher.

43. The man that Danielle went out with called her again.

_____ Danielle did not go out with other men.

_____ This man called Danielle

44. The burglar, who(m) no one managed to catch, was arrested this morning.

_____ There was another burglar.

_____ This morning, no one could catch the burglar.

Appendix D: Grammaticality judgment task

Task 2: Grammaticality judgment test with sentence correction

Instructions: Read each sentence. Then, put either A, B, C, or D in the blank in front of the sentence to rate if it is grammatical or not.

A = Definitely correct

B = Probably correct

C = Probably incorrect

D = Definitely incorrect

Example 1

_____a. I love ice cream.

If you think this sentence is <u>definitely correct</u>, put the letter A in the blank in front of the sentence.

___A___a. I love ice cream.

If you think this sentence is <u>probably correct</u>, put the letter B in the blank in front of the sentence.

___B___a. I love ice cream.

If you think the sentence is incorrect (i.e. if you put C or D in the blank), please also provide a correction. Also note that <u>you will not be tested on errors related to spelling, tense, and punctuation</u>

Example 2

_____b. They does not know where the toilet is.

If you think this sentence is <u>probably incorrect</u>, put the letter C in the blank in front of the sentence as well as cross out the incorrect part and provide a correction over it.

         do
___C___b. They ~~does~~ not know where the toilet is.

If you think this sentence is <u>definitely incorrect</u>, put the letter D in the blank in front of the sentence as well as cross out the incorrect part and provide a correction over it.

         do
___D___b. They ~~does~~ not know where the toilet is.

You have 60 minutes to complete the task.

DO NOT return to previous questions to change answers.

Warm up:

_____ i. Chulalongkorn University was founded in 1917.

_____ ii. I didn't bought the vase.

_____ iii. The grass always looks greener on the other side.

_____

_____ 1. The document which was on the table was given to Mr. Evans.

_____ 2. I like the cake that has chocolate fudge and chocolate chips on top.

_____ 3. The house Henry got from his grandmother was too big for him to live there alone.

_____ 4. I didn't see the bag which you made it.

_____ 5. The tart which that this bakery is famous for is actually very easy to make.

_____ 6. Einstein came up with the theory, which we are making use of at the moment.

_____ 7. The doll, that sat on the shelf, belonged to his sister.

_____ 8. The court also supported the law, will force every motorist to wear a helmet.

_____ 9. The contract, which Jimmy signed it, made him lose his house.

_____ 10. Jennifer Aniston popularized the hairstyle, which that every girl in the 90's tried to imitate.

_____ 11. The book which you are looking for has already been borrowed.

_____ 12. I won't sleep in the bed that she slept in.

_____ 13. The seed received no light grew very little compared to the one in the sun.

_____ 14. He asked me not to use the pan which it was in the cupboard.

_____ 15. The explosive which that Nobel invented changed the world forever.

_____ 16. HBO is going to air the scene, which nobody has ever seen before.

_____ 17. The restaurant, that Ricky and I just went to last Friday, also serves grilled fish.

_____ 18. The island's main attractions include the waterfall, every visitor has to take a photo of.

_____ 19. The book, which it will hit the shelf this Monday, contains all the details about the new star.

_____ 20. They missed the event, which that would not be held again in the next four years.

_____ 21. The package which you took also included breakfast.

_____ 22. You've picked the t-shirt that I hate the most.

_____ 23. The bus he got on was almost empty.

_____ 24. The military successfully captured the killer who(m) people were so afraid of him.

_____ 25. The flag which that was replaced by the current one was last flown in 1936.

_____ 26. Most people on higher floors should be able to feel the earthquake, which measured over 5 on the Richter scale.

_____ 27. The element, that scientists can create in a lab, is highly unstable.

_____ 28. He was forced to drop the gun, he held in his right hand the whole time.

_____ 29. The board, which you can also put your ads on it, is right in front of the canteen.

_____ 30. Several experts have been invited to discuss the topic, which that Peter was really keen on.

_____ 31. The committee also chose the book which won the popular vote.

_____ 32. The street that you will have to take should be on your left.

_____ 33. Tom lost the watch his grandmother gave him.

_____ 34. The ticket which you have paid for it can be collected at the entrance.

_____ 35. You must report to the police the noise which that you have been putting up with.

_____ 36. The church, which was built in the 14th century, once served to protect refugees.

_____ 37. People in the village believe in the legend, that has been passed on from generation to generation.

_____ 38. The parasite, Dr. Henry found accidentally, is revealed to be harmless.

_____ 39. The flood has severely damaged the temple, which the villagers built it just 2 years ago.

_____ 40. The sauce, which that John doesn't dip his chicken nuggets in, is actually neither hot nor spicy.

_____ 41. Please make sure that you clean the slot which you put discs in.

_____ 42. The germ that lives in your ear can cause an infection.

_____ 43. Ken bought the shirt went well with his pants.

_____ 44. The food which he cooked it was so tasty we all asked for more.

_____ 45. You should have bought the shirt which that we saw in the first shop.

_____ 46. The house, which he lived in when he was a child, has been replaced by a small church.

_____ 47. A group of entertainment companies decided to sue the website, that millions of users logged into each month.

_____ 48. The star, was mentioned in many ancient inscriptions, is visible in a really dark night.

_____ 49. Several people go to the zoo to see the panda, which it was given to Thailand by the Chinese government.

_____ 50. The book, which that we will use only for the first half of this course, is available at the library.

_____ 51. People will finally like the song which the station plays again and again.

_____ 52. The song that you're listening to is sung by Rebecca Ferguson.

_____ 53. Abortion is the topic they are arguing about.

_____ 54. The book which it has no cover is separated from the rest.

_____ 55. People around here love the shoemaker who that owns a shop on the corner of the street.

_____ 56. The expressway, which you must not take, will be on your left.

_____ 57. Many critics praised the policy, that the government proposed under the pressure of the economic crisis.

_____ 58. The test, he had spent months preparing for, was cancelled at the last minute.

_____ 59. Finally, I saw the comet, which I spent the whole night waiting for it.

_____ 60. The planet, which that is almost twice bigger that the earth, has the perfect environment for life to develop.

_____ 61. The doctor who had to be in tonight came 15 minutes late.

_____ 62. The technician failed to recover the data that was in the hard disk.

_____ 63. The tool you have alone might not be enough for the job.

_____ 64. We went back to school to visit the teacher who(m) we admired her.

_____ 65. The professor who(m) that I took psychology with just moved to another town.

_____ 66. Joey ran into the coach, who(m) he had not heard of for several years.

_____ 67. The photo, that was taken on the last day of the war, has been put up for sale.

_____ 68. They were not allowed to enter the area, strictly prohibited improper attire.

_____ 69. The comedian, who(m) Ellen has interviewed him twice, will come to the show again.

_____ 70. My father personally knows the philosopher, who that my teacher often quotes.

_____ 71. The postman who(m) all the dogs bark at does not come by on Tuesday.

_____ 72. I want to play the game that you told me about last week.

_____ 73. The stamp comes with the cereal box can be used as a discount coupon.

_____ 74. The policeman had no choice but to shoot the thief who he was going to hurt a little girl.

_____ 75. The patient who(m) that the vaccine was given was very young.

_____ 76. The elderly man ran out to hug the girl, who(m) he recognized right away.

_____ 77. The answer, that nobody could think of at the moment, was actually right under their nose.

_____ 78. A mad man killed the victim, many Thai people gave donation to.

_____ 79. The boy, who he has already performed 500 operations, started curing people when he was 7.

_____ 80. The gangsters attacked the beggar, who that was sitting on the floor in front of the store.

_____ 81. The professor who(m) you mentioned is going to give a lecture at the conference.

_____ 82. That artist painted the picture that I hung in my room.

_____ 83. The topic I wrote on was considered too dangerous to be published.

_____ 84. Tom nearly punched the neighbor who(m) he was having a serious argument with her.

_____ 85. The sailor who that was left on that island did not know that the war was over.

_____ 86. The police finally found the murderer, who tried to escape to Cambodia.

_____ 87. The card, that he drew slowly, turned out to be the worst– Death.

_____ 88. We all went to buy the novel, Dan wrote a year before he died.

_____ 89. The politician, who(m) my mother voted for him, just resigned from his party.

_____ 90. Sarah hopes to meet the producer, who(m) that she has always wanted to work with.

_____ 91. I know the mechanic who lives on the fifth street.

_____ 92. The bomb that the terrorists threw did not go off.

_____ 93. Still angry at Natalie, Nick refused to touch the cake she baked him.

_____ 94. The girl who(m) you fell in love with her just got married.

_____ 95. Mandy thought she knew the man who(m) that Judy was talking to.

_____ 96. The doctor, who specializes in brain diseases, had published several articles.

_____ 97. In 1982, they discovered the island, that was the home of thousands of new species.

_____ 98. The dress, you have worn only once, costs more than my salary.

_____ 99. We met the golfer, who(m) many people criticized him for his affairs with several women.

_____ 100. The physicist, who(m) that we were invited to have a dinner with, just won a Nobel Prize.

_____ 101. I just don't like the contestant who(m) you voted for.

_____ 102. The picture that is hung on the wall was taken when I went to Japan.

_____ 103. Dr. Franco discovered the dinosaur linked crocodiles with birds.

_____ 104. The doctor who(m) you saw her thought there was nothing to worry about.

_____ 105. A TV show just interviewed the activist who(m) that we met in Hong Kong.

_____ 106. The author, who(m) you used to share a room with, was just given an award.

_____ 107. They finally reached the temple, that only a few people could get into.

_____ 108. The river, runs through every province in the region, plays an important role in the people's lives.

_____ 109. I want you to see the therapist, who he will give you tips on how to cope with stress.

_____ 110. The hero, who(m) that the kids love so much, can be said to be a little too aggressive.

_____ 111. The critics seem to like the chef who(m) you hated so much.

_____ 112. The leaf that these bugs feed on will turn brown at the edge.

_____ 113. The city is repairing the street we used to walk along every evening.

_____ 114. The teacher who he used to teach Spanish is currently teaching English.

_____ 115. Jenny decided to throw away the box which that was in the basement.

_____ 116. The president, who(m) the media are attacking severely, decided to resign.

_____ 117. The conditions of that period forced them to invent the symbol, that we can still find nowadays.

_____ 118. The teenager, everybody used to laugh at, has become really successful and famous.

_____ 119. Harry travelled across the country to see the actress, who(m) he was really fond of her.

_____ 120. The cook, who that is famous for his soup, will open a cooking school.

The Use of Language Learning Strategies:

A Case Study of Undergraduate Students in a Private University

Busaya Santikarn

Abstract

The objectives of this research were to investigate the language learning strategy use of undergraduate students at Bangkok University, compare their language learning strategies use classified by gender, experience of studying English, and subjects, and study the relationship between their learning strategy use and English language ability. The data were collected from 400 students enrolling in EN 013 and EN 311 in the first semester of 2012 by Oxford's Strategies Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) questionnaire. The data were analyzed by means, standard deviations, t-tests, and Pearson Correlation. The findings revealed that the overall use of language learning strategies was at a moderate level. In addition, students with different gender and experience of studying English did not use language learning strategies differently at the significance level of .05. However, statistically significant differences were found in overall strategy use and in all categories between students taking two English courses. That is, the overall language learning strategies use of the students studying EN 013 was higher than those studying EN 311. It was also found that high proficient students tended to use fewer learning strategies while low proficient students tended to use more learning strategies.

Key words: *language learning strategies, undergraduate students, private university*

บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยนี้มุ่งศึกษาการใช้กลยุทธ์ในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของนักศึกษามหาวิทยาลัยกรุงเทพ เปรียบเทียบการใช้กลยุทธ์จำแนกตามเพศ ประสบการณ์ในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ และวิชาที่เรียน รวมทั้งศึกษาความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างการใช้กลยุทธ์ในการเรียนกับความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษ เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูลได้แก่แบบวัดกลยุทธ์ในการเรียนภาษาของ Oxford เพื่อเก็บข้อมูลจากนักศึกษาจำนวน 400 คนที่ลงทะเบียนเรียนวิชา EN013 และ EN311ในภาคการศึกษาที่ 1 ปีการศึกษา 2556 และนำข้อมูลมาวิเคราะห์ด้วยโปรแกรม SPSS เพื่อหาค่าเฉลี่ย ส่วนเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐาน ค่าที และค่าสหสัมพันธ์ของเพียร์สัน ผลการวิจัยพบว่ากลยุทธ์ในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของนักศึกษาอยู่ในระดับปานกลาง ปัจจัยด้านเพศและประสบการณ์ในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษไม่มีผลต่อการใช้กลยุทธ์ดังกล่าว อย่างไรก็ตาม พบว่ามีความแตกต่างอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติในภาพรวมและในรายด้านของการใช้กลยุทธ์ระหว่างนักศึกษาในสองรายวิชา กล่าวคือนักศึกษาที่เรียนวิชา EN013 ใช้กลยุทธ์ในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษมากกว่านักศึกษาที่เรียนวิชา EN311 นอกจากนี้ ยังพบว่านักศึกษาที่มีความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษสูงใช้กลยุทธ์ในการเรียนภาษาน้อยกว่านักศึกษาที่มีความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษต่ำ

คำสำคัญ *กลยุทธ์ในการเรียนภาษา นักศึกษาระดับปริญญาตรี มหาวิทยาลัยเอกชน*

Introduction

English language plays an increasingly crucial role in many countries around the world; and Thailand is no exception. As Thailand prepares itself to step across the threshold to be part of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) in the next few years, the role of English is becoming even more crucial. However, despite the efforts put into the learners throughout at least six years of studying English, the outcome remains unsatisfactory as seen from the scores of 21.80 from Ordinary National Education Test (O-Net) of Matthayom 6 (Grade 12) students in the academic year of 2011 as revealed by the Office of Basic Education Commission (Obec) (Poor ONet scores 'could reflect, 2012, p. 1). Moreover, a survey of adult English proficiency by the Office of the Education Council (ONEC) stated Thailand ranked 42nd out of 44 countries – below Vietnam (39th), and Indonesia (34th), with Malaysia the top ASEAN country at No. 9 (English skills below ASEAN partners, 2012, p. 1). Thus, it can be clearly seen that Thailand is in urgent need to reform its education system at all levels to bring it to international standard ahead of the AEC in 2015.

Therefore, there has been a shift within the field of language learning and teaching to place greater emphasis on learners and learning rather than on teachers and teaching. In this regard, how learners process new information and what kinds of strategies they employ to understand it are becoming of primary concern. Language abilities can be developed if students know how to learn and acquire knowledge. Learning strategies are methods taken by students to enhance and achieve their own learning. Strategies are especially important for language learning as they are tools for developing language competence and achieving language learning goals (Pawapatcharaudom, 2007). Appropriate strategies result in encouraging English proficiency and greater self-confidence. As White (2007) stated, "learners develop language ability by constructing a personally meaningful interface with the learning context, and that strategies play a key role in this regard." Cohen (2011) supported the idea with five reasons for language learner strategies: to enhance learning; to perform specified tasks; to solve specific problems; to make learning easier, faster and more enjoyable; and to compensate for a deficit in language proficiency. As they play an important role in helping learners develop their ability to achieve their goals, language learning strategies of Thai students have been examined by a number of researchers (Pringprom, 2008; Pannak and Chiramamee, 2011; Khamkhien, 2006). Moreover, language learning strategies, like other skills, can be taught to second language learners. Successful learners have to put their whole persons into all aspects of the target language: the content, the culture, the way of thinking and behaving (Brown, 2007). Therefore, this process requiresnot only what has been instructed in the classroom, but also the real life situations outside the classroom. Understanding the students' language learning strategies will be of great benefit for the teacher to design appropriate language learning

activities to upgrade students' language proficiency to achieve the ultimate goal with appropriate content and enjoyable activities. The executives who deal with policy and decision making can also help students overcome their difficulties, improve their language skills and meet their academic goals. Furthermore, this aspect of study has never been examined before in Bangkok University. For these reasons, the researcher would like to investigate the language learning strategies of Bangkok University students to help them master the language more rapidly and effectively.

Objectives of the Study

1. To investigate the language learning strategy use of undergraduate students at Bangkok University

2. To compare students' language learning strategy use classified by gender, experience, and subjects

3. To study the relationship between students' learning strategy use and their language ability

Literature Review

<u>**Language Learning Strategies: Definition and Categories**</u>

Language learning strategies have been defined by many experts in many ways. Oxford (1990) stated that language learning strategies are the often-conscious steps or behaviors used by language learners to enhance the acquisition, storage, retention, recall, and use of new information. They are also specific actions, behaviors, steps, or techniques used by students to enhance their own learning (Oxford & Ehrman, 1988; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992) The idea is confirmed by Chamot (1987) as "techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning, and recall of linguistic and content area information". Brown (2007) also illustrated that "strategies" are specific methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information, whereas Davies (1995) viewed strategies as physical or mental actions employed consciously or unconsciously with the intention of facilitating learning. Language strategies are also viewed by Cohen (2011) as thoughts and actions, consciously chosen and operationalized by language learners, to assist them in carrying out a multiplicity of tasks from the very onset of learning to the most advanced levels of target-language performance. In short, language learning strategies are the means students use to help them achieve the proficiency of a language.

To identify the learners' language learning strategy use, a questionnaire was developed by Oxford namely "Strategy Inventory for Language Learning" (SILL). According to Oxford (1990, 1993), language learning strategies are classified into two main types: direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are the strategies that need the learners' mental processing of the new language. They help the learners to understand and use the new language more easily. On the other hand, indirect strategies are those that help the learners to master the new language without being directly involved.

Direct language learning strategies include three different aspects and purposes. Memory strategies help the learners to better memorize the new vocabulary by making use of visual images, sorting, word association, arranging information and reviewing while cognitive strategies help the learners to manage or transform the new language through practicing, analyzing or summarizing. Compensation strategies are for learners to fill the gap of the new language both in words and grammar by guessing meaning, using words with similar meaning or finding different ways to express the new language.

Indirect language learning strategies consist of three different aspects. Metacognitive strategies help the learners to plan how to study the new language effectively by scheduling or looking for opportunities to use the language. Affective strategies help the learners to deal with the anxieties they have when studying a language by trying to relax when they feel afraid of using English, writing down their feelings in a diary, or giving a reward to themselves when they can do well in English. Social strategies are the techniques the learners use to expose themselves to the new language by asking questions in English, asking English speakers to correct them when they talk, or learning the culture of the target language.

Apart from Oxford's SILL, there are two more recent language learning strategy scales. O'Malley (1985) categorized these strategies into three groups namely metacognitive, cognitive and socioaffective strategies. Metacognitive strategies include such skills as planning for learning, thinking about the learning process while learning, monitoring of the learner's production or comprehension, and evaluating the learning after an activity is completed. Cognitive strategies focus on specific learning tasks and how the learner manipulates such skills to help them learn the language such as through repetition, resourcing, translation, grouping, note-taking, and imagery. As for socioaffective strategies, these stress socializing and interacting with others in a real situation. Stern (1992) points out five language learning strategies on the scale: management and planning, cognitive, communicative, interpersonal, and affective strategies, which are more detailed than that of O'Malley's.

<u>**Related Research**</u>

Language learning strategies have been an interesting issue for years and there are many pieces of recent research conducted to study the use of language learning strategies and relating them to gender, English proficiency, and prior experience of English.

Language learning strategies employed by students has been widely examined. The findings from a number of researches showed that the participants used strategies at a moderate level (Nikoopour, Farsani & Neishabouri, 2001; Ok, 2003; Zhao, 2009; Zare, 2010). Sheu, Wang and Hsu (2013) studied the language learning strategies of 238 EFL non-major sophomores at a technological university. The result showed that the students significantly used more indirect than direct strategies with compensation ranked as the most frequently-used strategy and cognitive as the least frequently-used strategy. This finding was confirmed by Saitakham (2010), Khamkhien (2006), Mochizuki (1999), Zhao (2009), Pringprom (2009), and Ok (2003) who illustrated in their studies that compensation was the most frequently used strategy. However, the researches of Goh and Foong (1997), Nikoopour, Farsani and Neishabouri, 2001, Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), Alqahtani and Alhebaishi (2010), and Radwan (2011) revealed that students used metacognitive strategy the most. Nguyes and Godwyll (2010) supported this view with a research of 75 international students at Ohio University revealing social and metacognitive strategies as the most frequently used strategy while affective and memory strategies were the least used.

As for the relationship between English learning strategies and gender, it has been found that gender played an important role in the strategies used and female students used more strategies than male students (Mochizuki, 1999; Pringprom, 2009; Zare, 2010). Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006) have also reported that, of 55 ESL students of differing cultural and linguistic backgrounds, females tended to use affective and social strategies more frequently than males. This idea was supported in the research with 175 ESL students from the People's Republic of China conducted by Goh and Foong (1997). The finding showed that female students significantly used more compensation and affective strategies than male students while Liu's (2004) research pointed out that memory and affective strategies were used more by females. Sheu, Wang and Hsu (2013) indicated in their research with non-English major sophomores at a technological university that females can significantly do better than males in memory and affective strategies. Gender influence was also confirmed by the researches of Hou (2008), Green and Oxford (1995), and Ok (2003). In contrast, Radwan (2011) revealed that male students used more social strategies than female students. Additionally, Rahimi, Riazi and Saif (2008) found no effect of gender on the use of language learning strategies among Persian learners.

In many studies, English proficiency level has been found to be another factor influencing English learning strategies. Park (1997) worked with 332 Korean university students to examine the relationship between language learning strategies and their English proficiency determined by the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) scores and found that the two factors are related in all six categories of language learning strategies, both separately and totally, with significant correlation with the TOEFL scores especially with cognitive and social strategies. Lai (2009) applied the English Language Placement Test to determine the proficiency level of 418 EFL learners in Taiwan and the result showed a significant effect of proficiency level on strategy choice and use and that the more proficient learners used more learning strategies. The outcome also pointed out that the more proficient learners preferred metacognitive and cognitive strategies the most and memory strategies the least; on the other hand, the less proficient learners favored social and memory strategies the most and cognitive as well as metacognitive strategies the least. Jones, Pibulchol and Wongyounoi (2010) studied English learning strategies of three groups of English proficiency level (very high, high and moderate) of Thai Matthayomsuksa 6 of five to ten English subject's Ordinary National Educational Test (O-NET) scoring schools in the three consecutive academic years of 2005-2007. The findings revealed that the strategies most frequently used by the very high proficiency students were cognitive and metacognitive strategies while compensation strategies were the most popular among those with high and moderate proficiency; memory strategies were found the least frequently used among all. Moreover, the majority of researches discovered the correlation between language learning strategies and proficiency level and indicated that more proficient or successful learners use cognitive and metacognitive strategies more than the less proficient ones (Mochizuki, 1999; Mingyuan, 2001; Griffith, 2003; Gan, Humphreys & Hamp-Lyons, 2004; Lai, 2009; Hou, 2008; Zhao, 2009; Jones, Pibulchol & Wongyounoi, 2010; Pannak & Chiramanee, 2011; Gharbavi & Mousavi, 2012). English proficiency was found highly correlated with metacognitive strategies while it was lowly correlated with memory (Liu, 2004; Alqahtani & Alhebaishi, 2010).

The learners' prior experience of English is one of the factors influencing language learning strategy use. Although there were not as many researches in this area as other factors, the past experience in learning a language can help the learners find more successful methods to cope with the problems encountered (Ramsay, 1980). The idea was proven by the study of Purdie and Oliver (1999) that experience in studying a language is one important factor influencing the choices of language learning strategies. In addition, they found that the participants who had been in Australia for a longer period of time had significantly higher mean scores for cognitive and memory strategies. This finding is in line with that of Opper, Teichler, and Carlson (1990), Oxford and Nyikos

(1989), and Oxford (1996) confirming the important role of experience in studying a language toward language learning strategy use. Wharton (2000) also reported the same idea when his research with bilingual foreign language learners in Singapore in language learning strategy use revealed that all the participants used a great deal of social strategies when compared with affective strategies. Furthermore, Ok (2003) studied the impact of school year on language learning strategy use and found that third-year students had higher mean scores that first-year students in compensation and memory strategies whereas the first-year students received more in metacognitive, cognitive, affective and social strategies. However, the research conducted by Pringprom (2009) revealed that the course levels did not show significant differences on the use of strategies.

Methodology

1. Population and Samples

The population of this study was 2,380 undergraduate students who enrolled in EN 013: English in action and EN311: English for Business Purposes I in the first semester of 2012 academic year. The samples were 400 students to be selected using stratified Random Sampling technique. The sample size was calculated from Taro Yamane table. A 95% of confidence level was used with a precision rate of ±5%. When the population is 2,500, the samples should be at least 345. However, the researcher agreed to employ 400 samples in this study. 200 students studying EN013 are those who have passed EN012 and the other 200 from EN311 are students who have passed EN014.

2. Research Instruments

The instrument of this study was a self-assessing questionnaire, comprising two main sections. Section 1 contained demographic data of gender, grade that student received in the previous English course, experience of studying English, attitude towards the subject, and duration of self study after class. Section 2 included the SILL questionnaire created by Oxford (1990) comprising memory (items 1-9), cognitive (items 10-23), compensation (items 24-29), metacognitive (items 30-38), affective (items 39-44), and social strategies (items 45-50). The second section which was in the form of five-point rating scale investigated the language learning strategies the students used in studying English. This part asked the students to rate how frequently they used each strategy ranging from "the most frequent" to "never at all" for the students to check.

2.1 Constructing the Questionnaire

The researcher translated an original English version of the questionnaire into Thai. To be sure that all translated items remained intact, three experts specializing in language teaching

were asked to check the meaning in Thai. A meeting was conducted to review, reconcile and harmonize the translation. After that, the backward translation technique was used to ensure its accuracy. This reconciled translation was then translated back into English by two translators. Next, the researcher together with the three experts reviewed and compared the backward translation with the original English questionnaire.

2.2 Piloting the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was then piloted with 40 undergraduate students who were not the target group during the first semester of academic year 2012 at Bangkok University and calculated for proper reliability indexes by using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients as shown below:

Table 1 Reliability Indexes by using Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients

Category	Reliability Value
1. Memory Strategy	.751
2. Cognitive Strategy	.903
3. Compensation Strategy	.751
4. Metacognitive Strategy	.917
5. Affective Strategy	.691
6. Social Strategy	.819
Total	**.951**

3. Data Analysis

Data were statistically recorded and analyzed by SPSS/Windows program. Personal data of the respondents were calculated for frequency and percentage. The use of language learning strategies was analyzed quantitatively for means and standard deviations and presented in a table based on the following ranges: 1.00-1.50 = very low, 1.51-2.50 = low, 2.51-3.50 = moderate, 3.51-4.50 = high, 4.51-5.00 = very high. T-tests were employed to compare students' language learning strategy use in terms of gender, subject and experience of studying English. Pearson's Correlation was applied to discover the relationship between language proficiency and the use of language learning strategies.

Research Results

The participants of this research were 400 undergraduate students enrolled in two subjects (EN013 & EN311) of Bangkok University. Of these, 65.3% were female and 34.8% were male. The experience in studying English of the majority (92.3%) was between 6-10 years while that of 7.8%

was between 1-5 years. When categorized by the attitude toward English, 45.8% of the respondents reported they like the English subject while 31.5% of them like it at the moderate level with 11.3% dislike, 9.8% strongly like, and 1.8% strongly dislike respectively. In addition, 45.5% of them spent 15-30 minutes of after-class study while 27% of them never did.

Table 2 Personal Information of Respondents' Shown in Frequency and Percentage

	Frequency	Percentage
1. Gender		
- Male	139	34.8
- Female	261	65.3
2. Experience of studying English		
- 1-5 years	31	7.8
- 6-10 years	369	92.3
3. Attitude towards the subject		
- Strongly dislike	7	1.8
- Dislike	45	11.3
- Neither dislike nor like	126	31.5
- Like	183	45.8
- Strongly like	39	9.8
4. Duration of self-study after class		
- Never	108	27
- 15-30 minutes	182	45.5
- 1-2 hours	88	22.0
- 3-4 hours	13	3.3
- More than 4 hours	9	2.3

Table 3 indicates that the overall mean score of students' use of language learning strategies was at a moderate level (M = 2.97). When considering all strategies, it was found that the six language learning strategies were also used at a moderate level. Among the six strategies, the mean scores could be arranged in order of usage as follows: metacognitive strategy (M = 3.33), social strategy (M = 3.02), affective strategy (M = 2.97), compensation strategy (M = 2.94), memory strategy (M= 2.92) and cognitive strategy (M= 2.76).

Table 3 Means and Standard Deviations of Students' Use of Learning Language Strategies Shown in Six Categories

Language Learning Strategies	Mean	S.D.	Level of Importance	Rank
1. Memory Strategy	2.92	.62	moderate	5
2. Cognitive Strategy	2.76	.67	moderate	6
3. Compensation Strategy	2.94	.71	moderate	4
4. Metacognitive Strategy	3.33	.78	moderate	1
5. Affective Strategy	2.97	.73	moderate	3
6. Social Strategy	3.02	.81	moderate	2
Total	**2.97**	**.55**	**moderate**	

Table 4 indicates that the overall mean score of female students using language learning strategies was higher than male students (M = 2.99, 2.92) in every aspect except cognitive strategy. The t-test was employed to examine a significant difference in language learning strategy use between male and female students. The result reveals that there were statistically significant differences in language learning strategies between them in metacognitive and affective strategies at the level of .05. This means that female students used more metacognitive and affective language learning strategies than male. However, no significant difference was found in overall language learning strategy use between male and female students.

Table 4 Comparisons of Mean Scores of Students' Language Learning Strategies Use Classified by Genders

Language Learning Strategies	Variable		n	Mean	S.D.	t
1. Memory Strategy	genders	male	139	2.84	.71	-1.86
		female	261	2.96	.57	
2. Cognitive Strategy	genders	male	139	2.79	.74	.70
		female	261	2.74	.63	
3. Compensation Strategy	genders	male	139	2.94	.75	-.13
		female	261	2.95	.70	
4. Metacognitive Strategy	genders	male	139	3.17	.81	-2.93*
		female	261	3.41	.75	
5. Affective Strategy	genders	male	139	2.87	.73	-2.03*
		female	261	3.02	.72	
6. Social Strategy	genders	male	139	3.00	.84	-.31
		female	261	3.02	.79	
Total	**genders**	**male**	**139**	**2.92**	**.61**	**-1.23**
		female	**261**	**2.99**	**.51**	

*p<.05

Table 5 shows that the overall language learning strategy use of the students studying EN 013 was higher than those studying in EN 311 (M = 3.09, 2.85) in every aspect. When the t-test was employed to examine a significant difference in language learning strategy use between the two groups, it revealed that there were statistically significant differences in all aspects at the level of

.05. This means that students studying EN013 used more language learning strategies than those studying EN311.

Table 5 Comparisons of Mean Scores of Students' Language Learning Strategies Use Classified by Subjects

Language Learning Strategies	Subject	n	Mean	S.D.	t
1. Memory Strategy	EN 013	200	3.04	.66	3.82*
	EN 311	200	2.80	.60	
2. Cognitive Strategy	EN 013	200	2.86	.71	3.10*
	EN 311	200	2.66	.62	
3. Compensation Strategy	EN 013	200	3.08	.72	3.85*
	EN 311	200	2.81	.69	
4. Metacognitive Strategy	EN 013	200	3.48	.73	3.84*
	EN 311	200	3.18	.80	
5. Affective Strategy	EN 013	200	3.13	.67	4.39*
	EN 311	200	2.81	.76	
6. Social Strategy	EN 013	200	3.11	.79	2.37*
	EN 311	200	2.92	.81	
Total	**EN 013**	**200**	**3.09**	**.55**	**4.56***
	EN 311	**200**	**2.85**	**.53**	

*p<.05

Table 6 shows that the students with more experience in studying English used more language learning strategies than those with less experience (M = 2.98, 2.88). The t-test was employed to examine a significant difference between students who had 1-5 and 6-10 years of experience. The result indicates that no statistically significant difference was found in all strategies.

Table 6 Comparisons of Mean Scores of Students' Language Learning Strategies Use Classified by Experience

Language Learning Strategies	Experience	n	Mean	S.D.	t
1. Memory Strategy	1-5 years	31	2.78	.82	-1.00
	6-10 years	369	2.93	.60	
2. Cognitive Strategy	1-5 years	31	2.72	.80	-.34
	6-10 years	369	2.76	.66	
3. Compensation Strategy	1-5 years	31	2.83	.86	-.88
	6-10 years	369	2.95	.70	
4. Metacognitive Strategy	1-5 years	31	3.20	.92	-.96
	6-10 years	369	3.34	.77	
5. Affective Strategy	1-5 years	31	2.95	.78	-.14
	6-10 years	369	2.97	.73	
6. Social Strategy	1-5 years	31	2.93	.86	-.63
	6-10 years	369	3.03	.80	
Total	**1-5 years**	**31**	**2.88**	**.72**	**-.89**
	6-10 years	**369**	**2.98**	**.54**	

*p<.05

The next factor which should be taken into account was students' language proficiency. In this study, there were students who are more and less proficient in English. The grade that they received in the previous English course was transformed into numbers as follows: A= 4, B+= 3.5, B= 3, C+= 2.5, C= 2, D+= 1.5, D= 1. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient test was used to discover whether there was a statistically significant relationship between GPA and the use of language learning strategies. Table 7 shows that there was a negative relationship between students' language proficiency and their language strategy usage at the .05 level (-.306, P = .000). This means that the higher grade the students gained, the fewer learning strategies they used.

Table 7   The Relationship between Language Proficiency and the Use of Language Learning Strategies

	Language Proficiency	Strategy Use
Language Proficiency	1.00	-.306**
Strategy Use		1.00

Discussion of Research Findings

The finding that Bangkok University students' learning strategy use was at a moderate level is in line with the studies of Nikoopour, Farsani and Neishabouri (2001), Ok (2003), Zhao (2009), and Zare (2010) who found that the participants in their studies use the strategies at a moderate level. This is probably because English courses at the university did not provide students with how to use learning strategies. When the curriculum was transformed to be more student centered, many activities were included to reach learning goals. Time in class was, therefore, spent on learning four skills, completing the given tasks and making presentations. In addition, the finding points out that the most frequently used strategies of the participants were metacognitive while the least frequently used were cognitive strategies. The former result was supported by Goh and Foong (1997), Nikoopour, Farsani and Neishabouri (2001), Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), Alqahtani and Alhebaishi (2010), and Radwan (2011). The latter finding corresponded with the study of Sheu, Wang and Hsu (2013) in that students used cognitive strategies the least. The reason why they used metacognitive strategies the most was probably because the English courses provided a great deal of scores on projects outside class. These students had passed their previous fundamental courses which also emphasized the activities. By applying the prior experience, they knew how they would plan the projects effectively so as to gain good grades. Planning involved setting goals and objectives of the projects, deciding where to acquire the knowledge, organizing the information and looking for people who can speak English for interviews. They learned to produce scripts and

reports. In contradistinction, the teaching-learning English in Thai curriculum nowadays highlights students' communicative abilities without paying much attention to grammar and drilling language patterns, which are why the students used cognitive strategies the least.

Gender is one of the factors that should be discussed. Female students were found to use more affective strategies than male students. This is similar to the researches of Hong-Nam and Leavell (2006), Goh and Foong (1997), and Liu (2004). This result can be explained by the nature of females; that is, they are more talkative than males. When they talk, they are more motivated or encouraged by their classmates or even by themselves. However, gender did not have any effect on students' use of language learning strategies because no significant difference was found between the two groups. This finding is consistent with that in Rahimi, Riazi and Saif's work (2008), revealing that male and female Persian learners did not use different learning strategies.

The factor of taken course was found to have an effect on language learning strategies use. That is, students taking a fundamental course used more language learning strategies than those studying in an advanced course. The clarification of this finding can be seen in the nature of these two subjects. EN013 is one of the general English courses mainly focusing on the four skills of language learning with wide variety of contexts whereas EN311 is a business English subject for students majoring in Accounting, Business Administration and Economics. Consequently, the contexts in EN311 place emphasis on business only with more practice in writing business reports and correspondence, certain vocabulary and patterns in business field. Students in this course tended to exercise fewer strategies when compared with those taking EN013. As such, those in the advanced course should be provided with more learning activities which can develop the use of language learning strategies. For instance, when students are assigned to undertake any project, the teacher should make interviewing foreigners part of the requirements and schedule the submission of their project plan a few weeks before the presentation as well as let them writing about how they feel about the project during the preparation period every week via e-mail to the teacher. In addition, students may be given an opportunity to undertake the whole process of the project such as inviting a guest to share the idea related to their field of study and let them write a report about what they gain from the project.

It is interesting to learn that the students with more experience in studying English used more language learning strategies than those with less experience. This is consistent with Ramsay (1980); Purdy and Oliver (1999); Opper, Teichler, and Carlson (1990); Oxford and Nyikos (1989); and Oxford (1996); Wharton (2000); and Ok (2003). The obvious explanation is that the experience in any of the four skills makes the learners become accustomed to the language; hence, the experienced learners can study the language more rapidly than the less experienced. This can also

be explained on the basis of prior experience which can help the learners find more successful methods to cope with the problem encountered (Ramsay, 1980). However, the difference was not found statistically significant. This might be because the number of students having experience had an impact on the result. The majority of students (92.3%) had 6-10 years of English learning experience while some of them (7.8%) had experience of 1-5 years.

Language proficiency is another factor that plays a significant role in students' strategy use. In this study, it is interesting to find that high proficient students tended to use fewer learning strategies while low proficient students tended to use more learning strategies. This finding is in contrast with many research results in that more proficient learners used more learning strategies than the less proficient ones (Lai, 2009; Jones, Pibulchol & Wongyounoi, 2010; Mochizuki, 1999; Mingyuan, 2001; Griffith, 2003; Gan, Humphreys, & Hamp-Lyons, 2004; Hou, 2008; Zhao, 2009; Jones, Pannak & Chiramanee, 2011; Gharbavi & Mousavi, 2012; Liu, 2004; Alqahtani & Alhebaishi, 2010). A reason for this finding is that low proficient students generally tried hard in order not to fail or receive an F. One of the strategies they employed was attending tutorial classes provided by the Language Institute. Thus, they had an opportunity to learn how to employ useful strategies in those classes. Moreover, students who were not good at English had more chances to use learning strategies to improve their English performance while high proficient students did not need to adjust themselves. Since their background knowledge of English was good and the current course was not much different from the previous course, it was rather easy for them to reach the goal of study.

Conclusion

To be in line with the competitiveness expected as a result of joining AEC in 2015, it is necessary that the executives in all educational institutes launch new policies and projects to promote the level of English proficiency of Thai students. According to the study, language learning strategies are considered very important factors for foreign language learners. Not only do they help the students acquire the language more easily and effectively, but they also play a vital role to make them successful learners. To develop direct language learning strategies, learning through games is a fun way for teachers to increase their stock of vocabulary and develop students' skills in listening, speaking, reading and writing. Moreover, indirect learning strategies should be applied in all language teaching curriculum since students will have opportunities to use realistic English and gradually absorb the language automatically. Outside classroom activities such as interacting with foreigners, watching soundtrack movies, listening to songs and providing positive learning

atmosphere will also give them more motivation and confidence in exercising their knowledge gained from their English class in the real world.

Recommendations for Further Research

The findings from this study suggest some areas that may be investigated by further studies. Firstly, the use of learning strategies might be affected by culture. Thailand is a collective society where children are taught to respect and be obedient to adults while Western cultures tend to exhibit individualistic values. In undertaking future studies on learning strategies, the issue of culture should be taken into consideration. Secondly, there should be a study investigating the use of language learning strategies classified by students' motivation and learning styles. Students with different learning styles may use different learning strategies to acquire knowledge. Using appropriate learning strategies will help to promote their motivation to learn and enhance their learning potentials. Lastly, further studies should be done to compare the use of language learning strategies among students in private and public universities. Since the nature of students in the two types of university is rather different as students in private universities need more guidance and support from the teachers in their study.

❋ ❋ ❋ ❋ ❋ ❋ ❋

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Directives in English and Thai Dialogues:
A Comparative Study of English Source Texts and Thai Target Texts [6.1]

Nicha Klinkajorn

Abstract

In this study the researcher intends to investigate the pragmatic formulas and politeness strategies in directives in English and Thai dialogues from the English source texts (STs) and Thai target texts (TTs), as well as to examine the translation strategies used in translating the directives from English into Thai. The data of the study are 147 directive utterances in dialogues from the English fiction, *Turning Thirty* (2000) and its Thai translated version. It is found that in performing the directives, both the English STs and Thai TTs use the same pragmatic formulas and politeness strategies, but in different ratios. The pragmatic formulas used in the directives both in English STs and Thai TTs are composed of two elements: the "headact" and the "supportive move". There are two main groups of the pragmatic formulas in the directives both in the English STs and Thai TTs: the formulas with and without supportive move(s). As for the formulas with supportive move(s), both a single supportive move and multiple supportive moves are found, and they can be placed either before or after, and both before and after the headact. Also, it is discovered that in performing directives, both the English STs and Thai TTs employ all four politeness strategies proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987). When mapping the pragmatic formulas and politeness strategies in English STs and Thai TTs to examine the translation strategies, the findings reveal that literal translation is more frequently used than free translation.
Keywords: Directives, Speech act, Pragmatic formula, Politeness strategy, Cross-cultural pragmatics, Translation strategy

บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยนี้มีความมุ่งหมายที่จะศึกษาสูตรทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์และกลวิธีความสุภาพที่ใช้ในวัจนกรรมการบอกให้ทำในบทสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษและภาษาไทย โดยศึกษาจากงานแปลต้นฉบับภาษาอังกฤษและฉบับแปลภาษาไทย รวมถึงต้องการที่จะศึกษากลวิธีในการแปลที่ใช้ในการแปลวัจนกรรมการบอกให้ทำ จากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทย ข้อมูลในการศึกษาได้แก่คำพูดที่แสดงการบอกให้ทำ 147 คำพูดที่พบในบทสนทนาในนวนิยายภาษาอังกฤษและฉบับแปลภาษาไทยเรื่อง *Turning Thirty* (2000) ผลการศึกษาพบว่าในการแสดงวัจนกรรมการบอกให้ทำนั้น ทั้งต้นฉบับภาษาอังกฤษและฉบับแปลภาษาไทยต่างใช้สูตรทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์และกลวิธีความสุภาพเดียวกันแต่ในสัดส่วนที่ต่างกัน สูตรทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ที่ใช้ทั้งในต้นฉบับภาษาอังกฤษและฉบับแปลภาษาไทยต่างประกอบด้วยองค์ประกอบ 2 ส่วน ได้แก่ องค์ประกอบส่วนหลัก และองค์ประกอบส่วนเสริม สามารถแบ่งสูตรทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ที่พบได้เป็น 2 กลุ่มหลัก คือ สูตรที่มีและไม่มีองค์ประกอบส่วนเสริม โดยสูตรที่มีองค์ประกอบส่วนเสริมนั้น พบทั้งที่มี

องค์ประกอบส่วนเสริมเดียว และหลายองค์ประกอบส่วนเสริม ซึ่งสามารถวางไว้หน้าหรือหลังองค์ประกอบส่วนหลัก หรือ ทั้งหน้าและหลังองค์ประกอบส่วนหลัก นอกจากนี้ยังพบว่าในการแสดงวัจนกรรมการบอกให้ทำ ทั้งต้นฉบับ ภาษาอังกฤษและฉบับแปลภาษาไทยต่างใช้กลวิธีความสุภาพทั้ง 4 กลวิธีที่เสนอโดยบราวน์และเลวินสัน (1987) และ เมื่อนำสูตรทางวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์และกลวิธีความสุภาพที่ต้นฉบับภาษาอังกฤษใช้มาเทียบกับที่ฉบับแปลภาษาไทยใช้ พบว่าการแปลแบบ literal translation ถูกใช้มากกว่าการแปลแบบ free translation

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Introduction

In any communication, one from many ways of saying provided by a language must be selected. The reason for this selection is primarily because language does not have only one way of saying, as Holmes (2008) states "languages provide a variety of ways of saying the same thing" (p. 3). What assists in choosing these choices properly is what Firth (1957) calls "context of communication". Firth (1957) purposes the theory of context of communication in order to show his thought and belief that the most important element in communication is the context. He firmly believes that the context is the core frame in shaping the communication to be how it should be; in other words, the context governs the communication, causing a speaker to communicate suitably. In sum, the context of communication rules how to communicate or the "way of speaking" (Hymes, 1967; Gumperz, 1977). This is the reason why the way of speaking is different when it is used with different people in different situations even within the same culture.

Within the context of communication, one of the important factors is culture. Obviously, intracultural communication is easier to be successful and effective than intercultural communication. This is because people from the same culture tend to have the same norms of interaction and rules of speaking; while people from different cultures have different socialization and acculturation which is reflected in language. It could be said that the reason why the way of speaking of each language is not the same is because the way of thinking of each community is not the same. When people in each community experience different things, stay in different places, or live in different times, it is certain that they must have different worldviews, perceptions of reality, ideas and thoughts. This reality is not an independent reality but a cultural reality. It can be said that they have different "context of culture". The different context of culture is illustrated clearly below:

"As I sit at a desk in an outer suburb of Adelaide, looking from time to time out of my window on a day more overcast than we usually have, rather cold, in fact, for September, to see wind stirring our loquat tree and the gums beyond it, you are in London, or Canberra, or Leeds, or

Kuala Lumpur at another time and in circumstances quite unknown to me, so that the way you and I are using language in the present discussion is not the most normal one."

(Turner, 1977, p. 8)

As it is a fact that people speaking different languages have different ways of expressing things because they are from different cultures which have different norms of speaking, the study of these norms or preferences of each language is of interest. It would be directly beneficial to cross cultural and intercultural[7] communication. Moreover, if the study is done with speech events taking place in the same contexts of situation, the different norms of the different languages and cultures would be seen clearly and empirically. Thus, translation is the best source of data for this study as translation is representative of the work that has the same contexts of situation or the same components of interaction but different languages and cultures. It is assumed that the meaning and the message from the source language (SL) must be completely conveyed to the target language (TL) according to the definition of the good translation defined by Nida (1964) that "translation means to reproduce in the message in one language which is equivalent to another language in terms of meaning, and style." But with different contexts of culture or different frames of thinking of the SL and TL, the view of the contexts of situations and participants are also different. The different norms or conventions of speaking should be found in the study.

Besides the benefit to the cross cultural communication, a comparative study of the source text (ST) and target text (TT) also can also increase awareness of translation strategies that can deal with the different ways of speaking of the SL and TL to achieve translation equivalence, particularly pragmatic equivalence. Pragmatic equivalence provides translation studies with new aspects including the concept of equivalence which relates to function and response or effect, including universality. The perspectives elucidating the function-oriented equivalence are, for example, "the source language and target language items rarely have 'the same meaning' in the linguistic sense; but they can function in the same situation" (Catford, 1965, p. 49); "translation equivalence occurs when an SL and a TL text or item are relatable to (at least some of) the same features of substance" (Catford, 1965, p. 50); "the most important requirement for translation equivalence is that translation have a function equivalent that of its original" (House, 1997b, as cited in House, 1998, p. 63). The response-oriented equivalence is highlighted by Nida (1964), Nida and Taber (1969), and Hassan (2011), among others. According to Hassan (2011), "the effect of the target text

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[7] The terms "cross cultural" and "intercultural" are often used interchangeably. However, this study employs the term "cross cultural" in the meaning of "a comparison and contrast between two cultural groups" (González, 2011) which is more relevant to the objective of the study than the term "intercultural" which means "what happens when the two (or more) culturally-different groups come together, interact and communicate" (González, 2011).

on the target language reader should be equivalent to that of the source text on the source language reader" (p. 15). Both the function-oriented and response-oriented equivalence reflect the concept of universality of language and culture as Venuti (2000, as cited in Hassan, 2011, p. 16) expresses that "[e]quivalence in translation has been considered to be built on universals of language and culture" (p. 121). The "universal" which is mentioned here can be explicated that "what members of one culture do can be imagined by members of another culture, even if they do otherwise, it is to this extent that human communication is 'universal'" (Harvey, 1998, p. 10); or that "[...] underneath their differences in culture, people everywhere are the same" (Goffman, 1999, p. 319).

To achieve the translation equivalence in these aspects, Firth's (1957) context of communication comes into play again. Agreeing with Nida (1964) who emphasizes the importance of context of communication in obtaining translation equivalence, Ivir (1996, as cited in House, 1998, p. 63) insists that "[e]quivalence is [...] never to be conceived as absolute but rather as inherently relative emerging 'from the context of situation as defined by the interplay of many different factors and has no existence outside that context'" (p. 155). In the same way, House (1997, as cited in House, 1998) views that this equivalence "can be established and evaluated by referring original and translation to the context of situation enveloping the two texts, and by examining the interplay of different contextual factors both reflected in the text and shaping it" (p. 64). Specifically speaking, pragmatic equivalence can be achieved by understanding cross cultural pragmatics. It can be concluded from Wierzbicka (1991), one of the most influential figures in cross cultural pragmatics, that in different countries and cultures, people speak in different ways—not only the different linguistic codes, but also the different ways of using the codes. The translator should realize that under the different contexts of culture between the SL culture and the TL culture, people may have different ways of expressing or communicating things even in the same context of situation, as Žegarac (2008) mentions about culture and communication that "[...] the members of many [...] different cultures have different languages, they may also have different schemata for the same or similar types of things or events" (p. 65).

The present study is motivated by all the aforementioned reasons. It is most interesting to discover the different norms or preferences of expressing the same thing in the same context of situation, but under the different cultures, and it is also interesting to investigate the way to deal with these differences in translation. There are many aspects that can be studied in cross cultural pragmatics, but the selected aspect of this study is a speech act and the speech act which is selected to be analyzed in this study is the speech act of directives. The speech act of directives is one of the main types of speech acts classified by Searle (1977), other than the speech acts of

assertives, commissives, expressives and declarations. Directives are utterances in which a speaker attempts to make hearers do something. The intention or illocutionary act of this type of speech act involves a great deal of imposition upon the hearers. The more imposition the speaker makes on the hearer, the more complicated the pragmatic formula, as well as the higher level of politeness strategy the speaker tends to adopt in expressing the utterances.

To translate speech acts, the translator must be aware of pragmatic equivalence. S/he should know that the intention underneath the speech acts or "illocutionary act" can be the same between the SL and the TL as Harvy (1998) insists that "[...] illocutionary functions can be comprehended across the most diverse cultural boundaries" (p. 11), but it may be expressed differently according to each culture. What the translator always makes is the decision of choosing the suitable strategies between making the adjustment, which brings about the free-towards translation, and keeping the original, which leads to the literal-towards translation.

There is a considerable body of research on pragmatic equivalence in translation, for example, Kallia (2009) investigating the problem of pragmatic equivalence in translating requests and suggestions in English, German, Greek, Italian and Russian; Wang (2009) examining pragmatic shifts in translating requests from Chinese into English; and Hassan (2011) studying aspects of pragmatic meaning, namely speech acts, presuppositions, implicatures, politeness and deixis in literary translation from Arabic to English. Nevertheless, there is a limited quantity of research on pragmatic equivalence in translation into the Thai language.

The objectives of the present study are to analyze the pragmatic formulas and the politeness strategies used in performing directives in the English STs which are the dialogues in the fiction, and in the Thai TTs which are the dialogues in the translated fiction, as well as to examine the translation strategies adopted to translate the speech act of directives from the English STs into the Thai TTs.

Methodology

The dialogues used as the data in this research are from the fiction entitled *Turning Thirty* (2000), a British-setting contemporary fiction written by British author, Mike Gayle. It has been translated into the Thai version by a professional translator, Phoomchai Boonsinsuk. The Thai title of the fiction is *Turning Thirty* ปีนี้ไม่อยากโสด /pii0 nii3 maj2 jaak1 sood1[8]/ "year this not want single".

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[8] The system of Thai transcription used in the present study is the LRU transcription which is "the system developed at the Linguistics Research Unit (LRU) of Chulalongkorn University" (Luksaneeyanawin, 1993, as cited in Schoknecht, 2000, p. 329). Schoknecht (2000) indicates the advantages of the LRU transcription that "[t]he LRU transcription uses standard keyboard

The data of the present study are only the directives selected by the set criteria which are adapted from Searle's (1977) classification. The criteria used in the present study are: (1) the intention of the speaker, which is considered to be the main criterion; confirmed by (2) the linguistic action verbs; and (3) the effects of the utterances on the hearer, which can be found in the narration part of the fiction. With the set criteria, a total of 147 directive utterances from *Turning Thirty* (2000) are selected. These 147 directives can be divided into direct and indirect speech acts, according to their basic sentence types. The imperative sentences are categorized to be direct directives, while the other types of sentences are considered as indirect directives. In the present study, it is found that the indirect speech act of directives can be performed via the declarative, interrogative and exclamation sentences.

To achieve the objectives of the study, which are to investigate the speech act of directives in the English dialogues and the Thai translated dialogues in two main aspects: the pragmatic formulas and politeness strategies, as well as to explore the translation strategies used in translating the speech act of directives from English into Thai, the researcher undertook the following analyses:

1) <u>The analyses of pragmatic formulas and politeness strategies</u>: In analyzing the pragmatic formulas and the politeness strategies, the segmentation of the utterances must be done to identify the elements of the utterances, which are the headacts and supportive moves. The pragmatic formula is the sequences of the elements which are segmented in each utterance. The complicatedness of the formulas can be realized from the numbers of the supportive move in each utterance. Regarding the politeness strategies, they are identified from the headact.

2) <u>The analysis of translation strategies</u>: In analyzing the translation strategies, the mapping of the utterances between the English STs and Thai TTs must be done to see the sameness and the difference in terms of their pragmatic formulas and politeness strategies.

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characters to represent the consonants, vowels, tones, and accent of Thai words and is therefore suited to computer input. The system uses the minimum number of such characters to unambiguously represent to the phonemic structure of Thai" (p. 330). Also, Schoknecht (2000) explains that "[t]he LRU system deviates from IPA in using duplication of symbols to indicate vowel lengthening, standard keyboard characters as substitutes for specialized IPA symbols, and numbers in place of tone marks to indicate the spoken tone of syllables" (p. 330). The number 0 marks the mid tone, 1-the low tone, 2-the falling tone, 3-the high tone, and 4-the rising tone.

Findings

The Pragmatic Formulas of Directives in the English Source Texts and Thai Target Texts

The concept of "pragmatic formula" is adapted by Modehiran (2005) from the concept of "semantic formula" of Fraser (1981). Fraser (1981) employs the "semantic formula" framework in analyzing the speech act of apologies and finds that each apology can be analyzed into one or more semantic formulas, e.g., the part of an expression of apology which is considered to be the core part, the part of explanation of the situation, the part of an acknowledgement of responsibility, etc. It can be seen that each part is determined according to its meaning. This is the reason why it is called "semantic formula". After these, there are many researchers using this framework in the analysis of speech acts, including the analysis of the speech act of correction makings by Modehiran (2005). However, Modehiran (2005) adapts "semantic formula" into "pragmatic formula" because she is of the opinion that her study examines "how to use language in making corrections in different contexts of situations and participants, which is more proper for 'pragmatic' than 'semantic'" (Modehiran, 2005, p. 13). This study follows the idea of using the term "pragmatic" instead of "semantic" for the same reason.

After doing the segmentation, it is found that there are two elements comprising of the pragmatic formula of directives both in the English and Thai languages. They are: (1) headact, the core of the structure and the element which is identified the politeness strategy; and (2) supportive move, the element "that gives additional information to justify [the speech act]" (Wang, 2009, p. 216), including a connector connecting two elements, or in sum, any other elements other than the core of the structure. The example of each element is presented in the table 1.

Table 1: Example of each element of the pragmatic formulas of directives in the English STs and Thai TTs

Element	English source texts	Thai target texts
Headact (h)[9] supportive move (s)[10]	Have a seat, mate	นั่งสิเพื่อน /nang2 si1 phvvan2/ 'Sit SP[11] friend'

With these two elements, the English STs have four patterns of doing both the direct and indirect directives. Similarly, the Thai TTs also have four patterns of doing directives directly and indirectly. Each pattern of the pragmatic formulas in doing direct and indirect directives both the English STs

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[9] A headact is underlined with a solid line.

[10] A supportive move is underlined with a dotted line.

[11] SP stands for Sentence Particle.

and Thai TTs together with the numbers of the supportive moves appearing in each pattern are shown in table 2.

Table 2: Patterns and numbers of the supportive moves in the pragmatic formulas of directives in the English STs and Thai TTs

Utterance type	Pragmatic formula: English ST		Pragmatic formula: Thai TT	
	Patterns	Numbers of s	Patterns	Numbers of s
Direct	1) h		1) h	
	2) h + s	h + s (1-3)[12]	2) h + s	h + s (1-2)
	3) s + h	s (1-2) + h	3) s + h	s(1-3) + h
	4) s + h + s	s(1-2) + h + s (1)	4) s + h + s	s(1-2)+h+s (1)
Indirect	1) h		1) h	
	2) h + s	h + s (1-3)	2) h + s	h + s (1-3)
	3) s + h	s(1-3) + h	3) s + h	s (1-2) + h
	4) s + h + s	s (1, 3) + h + s (1-2)	4) s + h + s	s (1-3) + h + s (1-2)

As seen in table 2, the findings about the pragmatic formulas of directives in the English STs and Thai TTs are presented separately according to the types of the utterances—direct and indirect speech acts. Almost all patterns are the same in both languages, except for the different numbers of the supportive moves in some patterns. The reason why the patterns of the pragmatic formula in the Thai TTs are almost completely the same as the English STs can be explained by the influence of the STs on the TTs, which can be called the respect of the TTs for the STs. However, the interesting finding on the pragmatic formulas of directives is the frequency of each pattern used in the English STs and Thai TTs, which is apparently different, as shown in figure 1.
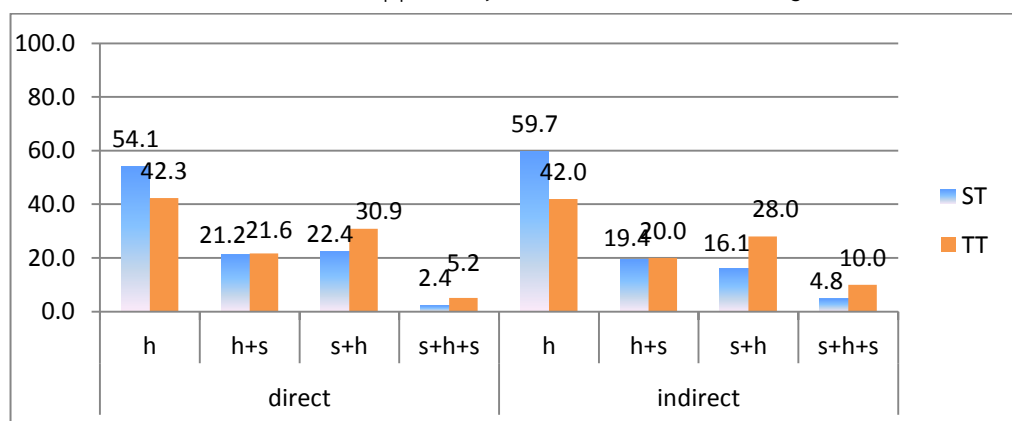

Figure 1: The frequency of each pattern of the pragmatic formulas in doing directives used in the English STs and Thai TTs[13]

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[12] The numbers in the parentheses are the numbers of the supportive moves found in the data.

From figure 1, it can be concluded that the most popular pattern both in the English STs and Thai TTs is the pattern "h", which means the structure with only the headact, as shown in examples 1 and 2:

Example 1   ST: Eat up. (direct)

            TT: กินให้เกลี้ยงเลยนะ /kin0 haj2 kliiang2 lqqj0 na3/ "eat to empty beyond SP"
                    (direct)

Example 2   ST: Shall we just get a taxi into town? (indirect)

            TT: เรียกแท๊กซี่เข้าเมืองกันไหม /riiak2 thxxk3 sii2 khaw2 mvvang0 kan0 maj4/ 'call
                    taxi enter town together SP' (indirect)

While the least frequently used pattern both in the English STs and Thai TTs is the pattern "s+h+s" or the structure with the headact in between pre- and post-supportive moves, as illustrated by examples 3 to 6:

Example 3   ST: So come on, out with the details. When, how and most of all why? (direct)

Example 4   ST: Uncle Matt, will you play that record again? The one we were just dancing to?
                (indirect)

Example 5   TT: ไหนส่งเชอร์รี่มาซิเพื่อน /naj4 song1 chqq0 rii2 maa0 si3 phvvan2/ "where send
                cherry come SP friend" (direct)

Example 6   TT: อาแมทขา เล่นแผ่นเสียงอีกได้ไหมคะ เอาเพลงที่เรากำลังเต้นกันอยู่เมื่อกี้น่ะ /?aa0 mxxt3
                khaa4 len2 phxxn1 siiang4 ?iik1 daj2 maj4 kha3 ?aw0 phleng0 thii2 raw0 kam0 lang0
                ten2 kan0 mvva2 kii2 na2/ "uncle Matt SP play record again can SP SP take song
                which we dancing together last moment SP". (indirect)

It can be assumed that the most efficient pattern in doing directives is the simplest pattern, which consists of only one element expressing the main intention of the speakers, while the rather complicated patterns, which have many elements and require more interpretation from the hearers are less often used. Consequently, it can be inferred from figure 1 that the more complicated the patterns are, the less popular they are in usage. Moreover, another outstanding point is that all patterns of structures with more than one element or the more complicated patterns (that is, h+s, s+h, s+h+s) are more often found in the Thai TTs than in the English STs. This can because the Thai language tends to employ supportive moves in doing directives more so than the English language and tends to use them before the headact rather than after the headact.

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[13] The frequency in figure 1 is presented as a percentage as the N (population size) of the direct and indirect directives in the English STs and Thai TTs are not equal (but they are from the same total number of 147 utterances)--in the English STs: 85 directs and 62 indirects; but in the Thai TTs: 97 directs and 50 indirects. This is because some direct speech acts in the English STs are translated into indirect ones in the Thai TTs.

The Politeness Strategies of Directives in The English Source Texts and Thai Target Texts

Brown and Levinson (1978; 1987) point out that when acts are performed via speech, something threatening happens to either the speaker's face or the hearer's face, or sometimes both faces. These acts are called "Face Threatening Acts" or "FTAs". When the FTAs occur, linguistic strategies are employed by the speaker to save the face of the speaker and the hearer, and to make the speaker's intention under the utterances successful. These strategies are pragmatically called "politeness strategies". The selection of the politeness strategies is governed by context of communication, ranging from context of culture to context of situation, which covers the context of participants. Different contexts of culture prefer different norms or conventions of politeness strategies. Subsequently, in translation, the politeness strategies of the TL could differ from those of the SL, even though they are used in the same context of situation.

In analyzing the politeness strategies used in performing directives both in the English STs and Thai TTs, the present study adopts the politeness strategy model of Brown and Levinson (1987) as the framework. This model is suitable for the present study in terms of its direct relevance to the concept of politeness and its economy. Brown and Levinson (1987) label their strategies as "Possible strategies for doing FTAs" and propose five strategies. Within these five strategies, they are divided into "do the FTAs" (Strategies 1-4) and "don't do the FTAs" (Strategy 5)."Do the FTAs" is divided into "on record" (Strategies 1-3) and "off record" (Strategy 4). "On record" is divided into "without redressive action" (Strategy 1) and "with redressive action" (Strategies 2-3). Finally "with redressive action" is divided into "positive politeness strategy" (Strategy 2) and "negative politeness strategy" (Strategy 3).

To analyze the data with this model, it is necessary to understand the concept of "face" proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978; 1987). Brown and Levinson (1987) base the concept of "positive and negative faces" by dividing the strategies of doing the FTAs in "on record/ with redressive action" or Strategies 2-3. Among others, Horn (1984), Grundy (2008) and Hassan (2011) give a clear and understandable explanation of these two kinds of face. Positive face means a wish to be well thought of, the desire to have others admire what we value, the desire to be understood by others, and the desire to be treated as a friend and confidant; while negative face represents a wish not to be imposed on by others, a wish to be allowed to go about our business unimpeded, and distance between the speaker and hearer. Based on the concept of "positive and negative faces", Brown and Levinson (1987) propose the politeness strategies and try to elucidate the concept of "positive and negative politeness" throughout the book *Politeness* (1987). The clearest words that are used for explaining the positive politeness are "approach-based",

"solidarity", and "friendliness", and for the negative politeness are "avoidance-based", "individuality" and "formality".

In doing directives, it is found from the data that both the English STs and Thai TTs employ all four politeness strategies, excluding Strategy 5: "don't do the FTAs", which means the act is not performed. The examples of the utterances are shown in the table below.

Table 3 Examples of each politeness strategy in doing directives in the English STs Thai TTs

Strategy	English STs	Thai TTs
1. On record/ without redressive action	<u>Direct directives</u> <u>Example 7</u> Call me when you reach England.	ถึงอังกฤษแล้วโทรศัพท์มานะ /thvng4 ?ang0krit1 lxxw3 thoo0ra3sap1 maa0 na3/ "reach England already phone come SP"
	<u>Indirect directives</u> <u>Example 8</u> You're not paying for me.	ห้ามแกจ่ายเด็ดขาด (direct-TT) /haam2 kxx0 caaj1 det1 khat1/ "prohibit you pay seriously"
2. On record/ with positive politeness	<u>Direct directives</u> <u>Example 9</u> **Let's** go shopping. ("let's" expresses the in-group identity.)	ไปชอปปิ้งกัน /paj0 ch@@p3 ping2 kan0/ "go shopping together"
	<u>Indirect directives</u> <u>Example 10</u> **Why don't** you throw one in too? ("why don't" expresses the care for and interest in the hearer.)	แล้วทำไมเธอไม่ลองเสนออะไรเสียบ้างล่ะ /lxxw3 tham0maj0 thqq0 maj2 l@@ng0 sa1nqq4 ?a1raj0 siia4 baang2 la2/ "then why you not propose what SP some SP"
3. On record/ with negative politeness	<u>Direct directives</u> <u>Example 11</u> Well, **feel free to** say no, if you want to. ("feel free" expresses the freedom.)	อ่า ถ้าอยากปฏิเสธล่ะก็ ได้เลยนะ ไม่ต้องเกรงใจ /?aa1 thaa2 jaak4 pa1ti1seet1 la1 k@@@2 daj2 lqqj0 na3 maj2 t@@ng2 kreeng0 caj0/ "Well if want refuse SP then can SP SP not must considerate"

	Indirect directives <u>Example 12</u> You **should** be with Elaine. ("should" expresses the hedge and deference.)	ลูกน่าจะอยู่เป็นเพื่อนอีเลนนะ /luuk2 naa2 ca1 juu1 pen0 phvvan2 ?ii0 leen0 na3/ "Child should stay be friend Elaine SP"
4. Off record	<u>Direct directives</u> <u>Example 13</u> Spill the beans. (metaphor) <u>Indirect directives</u> <u>Example 14</u> I want to know everything. (give the clue to the hearer)	เล่ามาให้หมดเปลือกเลยเชียว /law2 maa0 haj2 mot1 plvvak1 lqqj0 chiiaw0/ "tell to empty husk SP SP" ฉันอยากรู้ทั้งหมด /chan4 jaak1 ruu3 thang3 mot1/ "I want know all"

From table 3, examples 7-14 show only the examples of directives with the same strategies of politeness between the English STs and Thai TTs. Actually, from all data, the politeness strategies used in the STs can be translated into different politeness strategies in the TTs, for example:

<u>Example 15</u>   ST: "Come and dance"

TT: "มาเต้นรำ**กันเถอะแมท**" /maa0 ten2 ram0 kan0 thq1 mxxt3/ "come dance together SP Matt"

Example 15 shows that Strategy 1-on record without redress in ST translated into Strategy 2-on record with politeness redress-ingroup identity marker "กันเถอะ" / kan0 thq1/ "together SP." Figure 2 presents the frequency of each strategy used in each language. (The translation strategies will not be stated here, they are mentioned in the next section.)
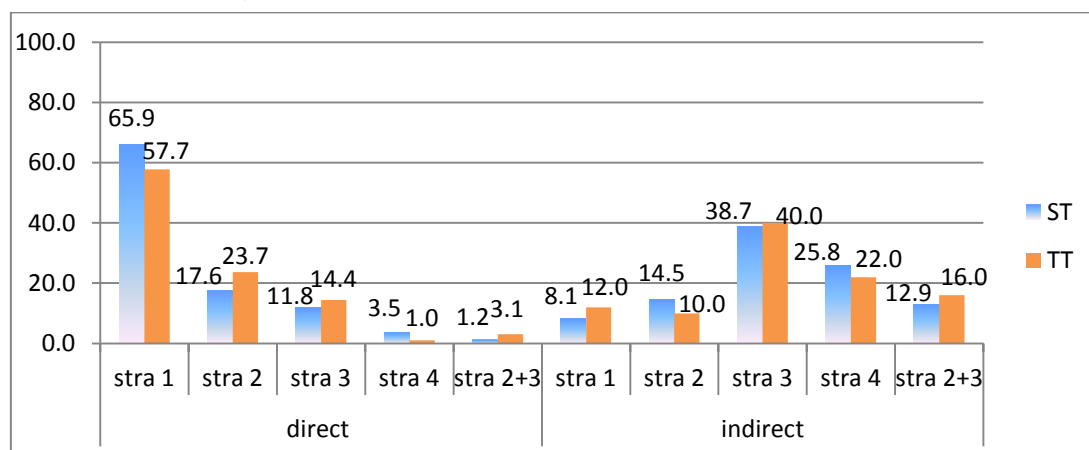

Figure 2: Frequency of each politeness strategy used in the English STs and Thai TTs

Figure 2 presents that there is not much difference in the use of the politeness strategies in directives between the English STs and Thai TTs. As previously stated, this may be because being translation makes the TTs guided by the STs and follow the STs as much as possible. The interesting findings turn to the differences in the politeness strategies used in the direct directives and the indirect ones. It can be clearly seen that both the English STs and Thai TTs like to do directives boldly, without redressive action (Strategy 1) the most; and the combination of the positive and negative politeness strategies (Strategy 2 and 3) are used the least in the direct directives, while doing the indirect directives, Strategy 3 (on record with negative politeness) is the most preferable in both the English STs and Thai TTs, and the least preferable is Strategy 1. Interestingly, in doing the direct directives, both the English STs and Thai TTs prefer positive politeness to negative politeness. This is opposite to the indirect directives, which the negative politeness is selected for use more than the positive one.

After the pragmatic formulas of directives and the politeness strategies in the English STs and Thai TTs are examined, the next exploration is done with the translation strategies. The findings are presented in the following section.

The Translation Strategies of Directives in the English Dialogues into Thai

Awareness of cross cultural pragmatics results in the translator understanding that it is rather impossible to produce the translation without any "translation shifts" (Catford, 2000) or adjustments in translation. The challenging duty of the translator is to tackle with this discrepancy between the two languages. As Wang (2009) say, "[s]ince the norms operating in the source-language and target-language communities do not coincide, the translator needs to negotiate the differences between these two distinct systems of norms and conventions [...]" (p. 210). To achieve pragmatic equivalence, the translator has to decide which is the appropriate strategy in the process of translation.

The concept of "translation strategy" is a rather debatable concept. Some, e.g. Saibua (1999) identify it as the specific methods which a translator does in translation to solve the discrepancies between the ST and TTs, which can be called "adjustments in translation", while others, e.g. Vinay and Darbelnet (2004) and Munday (2012) define it as the general types of translation which can be divided into two major groups—literal and free (the terms can be various), such as, overt-covert (House, 1977), direct-oblique (Vinay and Darbelnet, 2004). The present study adopts the literal and free translation as the fundamental frame because they are basic and comprehensive. However, they are not taken in the form of dichotomy, but in the form of

continuum because not all aspects of the texts are investigated. Thus, the present study uses the terms "literal- and free-towards translation" to categorize the translation strategies.

Like the exploration of the pragmatic formulas and politeness strategies of directives in the English dialogues and the Thai translated dialogues, the investigation of translation strategies is also done in these two main aspects. In addition to these two aspects, the types of directives are also related to the investigation of the translation strategies. The decision or categorization of the literal-towards and free-towards translations can be done by mapping or doing the comparative study between the English STs and Thai TTs one by one utterance: the same types of directive, pragmatic formulas and politeness strategies between the English STs and Thai TTs are considered to be the literal-towards translation, while the different types of directive, pragmatic formulas and politeness strategies between the English STs and Thai TTs are considered to be the free-towards translation. The following are the examples to illustrate the literal-towards and free-towards translation in translating directives in English dialogues into Thai.

Table 4: Examples of the literal-towards and free-towards translation in translating directives in English dialogues into Thai

Aspects of analysis	Literal-towards translation	Free-towards translation
Types of directive	Example 16 ST: Cancel it. TT: ยกเลิก /jok3 lqqk2/ "cancel"	Example 17 ST: Why don't you sit down, Mum? TT: แม่นั่งสิฮะ /mxx2 nang2 si1 ha3/ "Mother sit SP SP-politeness"
Pragmatic formula	Example 18 ST: Come on, lan, mate! TT: ไปเถอะน่าเอียน เพื่อนยาก /paj0 thq1 naa2 ʔiian0 phvvan2 yaak2/ "go SP SP lan mate"	Example 19 ST: Listen, Matt. TT: นี่แมท ฟังก่อนนะ /nii2 mxxt3 fang0 k@@n1 na3/ "here Matt listen before SP"
Strategy of politeness	Example 20 ST: Have a guess. TT: เดาดูสิ /daw0 duu0 si1/ "guess look SP"	Example 21 ST: Don't even think about going down that road. TT: อย่าแม้แต่คิดให้เปลืองสมอง /jaa1 mxx3 txx1 khit3 haj2 plvvang0 sa1m@@ng4/ "don't even think to waste brain"

The examples in table 4 illustrate both translation strategies in three aspects of analysis. Starting from the types of directives, the Thai TTs which employ the same types of directive or same basic sentence types as used in the English STs are categorizeded to be the literal-towards translation, as seen in example 16—the direct directive in the ST is transferred to the direct directive in the TT, both of them are imperative sentences. Meanwhile, the free-towards translation strategy in the aspect of the types of directive is demonstrated in example 17—the ST which is the indirect directive (interrogative sentence) is translated into the direct directive (imperative sentence) in the TT. The following aspect is the pragmatic formulas. Example 18 is an example of the literal-towards translation in this aspect because the sequence of the elements in the ST is similar to that of the TT, in other words, they are in the same formula "h+s"; at the same time, in example 19, the ST and TT are in the different sequence—the pragmatic formula of the ST is "h+s" but the TT is in the formula "s+h", so it is considered to be the free-towards translation. In terms of politeness strategies, example 20 is the literal-towards translation because both ST and TT use the same strategy, that is, the strategy of "on record, boldly" (Strategy 1). Example 21 illustrates the free-towards translation in this aspect as the ST employs the strategy of "off record" (Strategy 4) by using the metaphor; while the TT uses the strategy of "on record, with positive redress" (Strategy 2) for "เปลืองสมอง" plvvang0 sa1m@@ng4/ "waste brain" expresses the in-group identity. Finally, the frequency of the literal-towards and free-towards translation in translating directives in English STs into the Thai TTs is presented in the following figure.
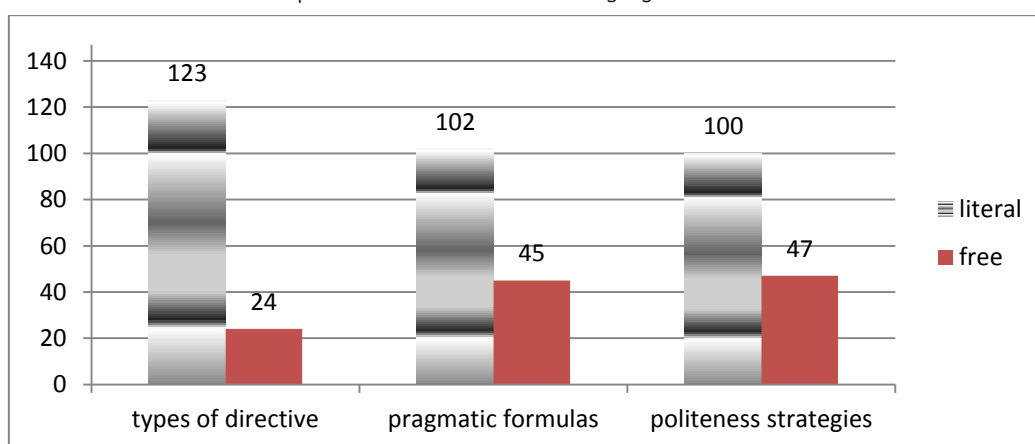
Figure 3: Frequency of the literal-towards and free-towards translation in translating directives in English dialogues into Thai

From the above figure, it is apparent and surprising that literal-towards translation is far more commonly employed in translating directives than free-towards translation, in all aspects—types of directives, pragmatic formulas and politeness strategies. Interestingly, the frequency of literal-towards translation in types of directives is considerably higher than that in pragmatic formulas and

strategies of politeness, while at the same time there is almost no difference between the frequency of literal-towards translation in pragmatic formulas and politeness strategies. This may assume that the important aspect that makes the translation achieve the pragmatic equivalence is the type of speech act and in translating, the type of speech act may be easier to render than the pragmatic formula and politeness strategy. In other words, it is more essential to convey the characteristics of direct or indirect speech acts in the ST to the TT because it governs the pragmatic equivalence in translation, while the pragmatic formulas and the politeness strategies can be varied according to the preference or norms of each language.

Conclusion and discussion

There are two significant tasks to be undertaken in the exploration of the pragmatic formulas and the politeness strategies of directives both in the English STs and Thai TTs, which are doing segmentation and grouping the types of directives. Doing segmentation is very necessary because the analyses in both aspects must be done with the elements of the utterances. In terms of pragmatic formula, the structure can be discovered from the element sequencing and in terms of politeness strategies, the utterances can be identified by the strategy from the headact. Other than the elements of the utterances, the types of utterances also play an important role as the pragmatic formulas and politeness strategies are varied depending upon the types of directives, or it can be said that the direct and indirect directives have different trends in the selection of pragmatic formulas and politeness strategies.

From the results of the study, both the English STs and the Thai TTs employ the pragmatic formula with only headact (the formula "h") the most. This may be because this formula is the most basic and simplest. At the same time, the pragmatic formula usage of each language may indicate its norms or preferences. It is found that the Thai TTs prefer the pragmatic formulas with supportive moves more so than the English STs. This can be seen from the percentage of the Thai TTs which is higher than the percentage of the English STs in all formulas with supportive moves. Correspondingly, although the Thai TTs employ the formula "h" the most as the English STs do, the percentage of the Thai TTs in the formula "h" is far lower than the percentage of the English STs both in the direct and indirect directives. It may be concluded that unlike the English language, the Thai language tends to prefer a way of speaking which has more detail and is brief and sharp.

As for the politeness strategies, both in English and Thai, all four strategies of "do the FTAs" proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) are used in directives, but the frequency of the usage of each strategy varies between the English STs and the Thai TTs, but there is little difference. Interestingly, as English culture values individuality (negative face) while the Thai culture

appreciates solidarity (positive face), the findings of the present study do not confirm this perception because the percentage of using positive and negative politeness in both the English STs and TTs is quite similar. This may be the result of being translation, in which the TTs tend to follow the STs as much as possible. If the analysis of politeness strategy is done with Thai written works, the findings may be different.

In terms of translation strategies, the findings show that the literal-towards translation is the practical strategy in translating directives from the English dialogues into Thai. They confirm that "[l]iteral translation is the authors' prescription for good translation" (Munday 2012, p. 87). This does not mean the literal translation is the only efficient translation strategy, because according to the findings, free translation is also used. It can be inferred that the adjustments can be done for the sake of naturalness and acceptability in the TTs. Furthermore, the literal translation in the present study are not completely "word-for-word" translation, because the present study investigates only three aspects: the types of utterances, the pragmatic formulas and the politeness strategies.

As previously mentioned, together with the confirmation by the results of the present study, the SL and TL could use different ways of communication to communicate the same things. These differences are governed by the context of culture. It is necessary for the translator to realize this, because not only semantic meaning, but also pragmatic meaning is considerably significant to the translation works. Nevertheless, the findings of this study show that the literal-towards translation is employed much more than the free-towards translation.

Finally, there is another interesting issue or question emerging from the results of the present study in relation to "what factors govern these various ways of communication?" This is very worthy of further study. Now, it can be roughly answered that context of situation, including context of participants are the main factors in governing the different ways of communication, but a systematic and thorough exploration would be very valuable.

❋ ❋ ❋ ❋ ❋ ❋ ❋

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Teaching Journalism Ethics in Thailand[14]

Preeya Sompuech, JIntavee Khlaisang and Onjaree Natakuatoong

Abstract

The objectives of this study were to discern lecturers' and students' opinions towards current journalism ethics teaching and present a new approach to develop ethical reflection and decision making for journalism undergraduate students. Data were collected through questionnaires and opinion samples from Thai Rajabhat university lecturers and undergraduate students in the faculty of Communication Arts.

The findings were as follows:

1. The lecturers and students indicated that the present status of journalism ethics teaching encourages students to be brave in order to think, to do and to express themselves, especially in a reasonable manner. However, only minimal learning activities are being used that integrate professional ethics. In addition, only minimal case studies are used to prepare learners to face the realities creating current circumstances.

2. The present status of students' ability to ethically reflect on and make decisions about professional journalism, that is, students' ability to search and retrieve data for lessons, clear problem identification and problem solving alternatives, are at a moderate level. This should be developed to a higher level.

Key Words : Mass Media Professional Ethics, Case-Based Learning, Reflection, Ethical Decision Making.

บทคัดย่อ

การศึกษาครั้งนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาความคิดเห็นของอาจารย์และนักศึกษาเกี่ยวกับสภาพการจัดการเรียนการสอนด้านจริยธรรมวิชาชีพสื่อมวลชนและแนวทางในการออกแบบการเรียนการสอนที่พัฒนาการคิดไตร่ตรองและการตัดสินใจเชิงจริยธรรม ของนักศึกษาระดับปริญญาตรี เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูล คือ แบบสอบถามความคิดเห็น กลุ่มตัวอย่างเป็นอาจารย์และนักศึกษาสาขาวิชานิเทศศาสตร์ ระดับปริญญาตรี มหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏทั่วประเทศ

ผลการศึกษา พบว่า

1. ผลการวิเคราะห์สภาพปัจจุบันเกี่ยวกับการจัดการเรียนการสอนด้านจริยธรรมวิชาชีพสื่อมวลชน พบว่า อาจารย์และนักศึกษา มีความคิดเห็นว่า สภาพปัจจุบันมีลักษณะการจัดการเรียนการสอนที่ให้ผู้เรียนกล้าคิด กล้าทำ กล้าแสดงออก เน้นให้ผู้เรียนแสดงความคิดเห็นอย่างมีเหตุผล แต่ยังจัดกิจกรรมการเรียนการสอนที่สอดแทรก

จริยธรรมวิชาชีพน้อยกว่าที่ควร อีกทั้งการจัดกิจกรรมการเรียนการสอนโดยใช้กรณีศึกษาเพื่อให้ผู้เรียนเผชิญกับ
สถานการณ์จริงนั้นไม่มากเท่าที่ควร

2. ผลการวิเคราะห์สภาพปัจจุบันเกี่ยวกับความสามารถในการคิดไตร่ตรองและการตัดสินใจเชิงจริยธรรม
วิชาชีพของนักศึกษา พบว่า ความสามารถในการรวบรวมและสืบค้นข้อมูลประกอบการเรียน การระบุปัญหาที่ชัดเจน
การระบุทางเลือกในการแก้ปัญหา รวมทั้งการคิดไตร่ตรองและการตัดสินใจเชิงจริยธรรมวิชาชีพสื่อมวลชนอยู่ในระดับ
ปานกลาง ซึ่งควรได้รับการพัฒนาให้อยู่ในระดับที่สูงขึ้น

คำสำคัญ : *จริยธรรมวิชาชีพสื่อมวลชน การคิดไตร่ตรอง การตัดสินใจเชิงจริยธรรม*

Forward

To develop the country is to develop its population. The foundation of national
development is the moral and educational quality of its people. The people of the country must
be developed in the framework of goodness, intelligence and happiness - virtues and knowledge.
In order to achieve this goal, the Office of Higher Education Commission has set forward the Thai
Qualifications Framework for Higher Education to implement concretely the National Higher
Education Act emphasizing the National Higher Educational Standards of students' learning
outcomes. These standards comprise 5 aspects: 1) virtues and ethics, 2) knowledge, 3) intellectual
skills, 4) interpersonal relations and responsibility skills, 5) skill in mathematical analysis,
communication, and Information Communication Technology. (Office of Higher Education
Commission, 2009). These standards indicate that virtues and ethics are the key educational
qualities that enable students to manage the concrete and ethical problems of the profession
using value, empathy, basic value and professional ethics. These characteristics will appear in the
forms of self-discipline, responsibility, honesty, sacrifice, good example, and world understanding,
etc. Therefore, educational administration must be undertaken according to the framework of the
2009 Thai Qualifications Framework for Higher Education. This will ensure that graduates
demonstrate positive character quality and ethics, knowledge, skill, responsibility, creativity, and
ability to solve complicated problems.

Communication Arts is an important curriculum helping the growth and progress of national
development. It is an important tool to develop human resources for people to have better
understanding, skills and ability to seek for data and information. As well it assists in the acquiring
of broad, real, deep and immediate knowledge, as well as the ability to utilize appropriate modern
communication technology for the betterment of society with responsibility, virtue and ethics, and
to abide by a professional code of ethics. (Communication Arts, Phranakhon Rajabhat University,
2012) The 2012 report on the curriculum assessment of the Liberal Arts Faculty (Communication
Arts Program), Phranakhon Rajabhat University revealed that ethics promotion instruction was at a

moderate level. The report on the communication curriculum evaluation of Silpakorn University indicated that the employers of the Communication Arts graduates indicated that the graduates' ability to analyze and to solve problems reasonably was at a very low level. Regarding professional ethics, the graduates' sense of responsibility was estimated to be at a low level (Faculty of Information Communication Technology, Silpakorn University, 2012). After a review of this data, it was agreed that all educational institutes teaching Communication Arts must develop students' skills to analyze and solve problems reasonably, and deepen their professional ethics in order to better prepare them for their career world.

The Communication Arts curriculum therefore needs to integrate profession ethics in all subjects in order for students to learn how to think, reflect and practice. It is not enough to integrate mass media professional ethics into one specific subject. To gain a deeper understanding of this strategy, the researcher studied the development of integrated instructions found on websites, using a case study of Yonisomanasikara, Pali for wise or proper consideration and attention, to develop a professional ethics approximation and decision making process for undergraduate students. The researcher needed to find relevant data and information about the current teaching of journalism ethics, as well as the status of students' thinking and decision-making ability within mass media professional ethics. The immediate goal was to develop an effective Journalism Ethics Learning-Teaching Model.

Objectives

The objectives of this research were to study the lecturers' and students' opinions about the present status and problems concerning the teaching of mass media professional ethics, and to study Communication Arts students' reflection and decision making ability about mass media professional ethics. The goal was to use this data to construct a model for teaching mass media professional ethics.

Related literature

Ethics is an important attribute that every human being should hold and practice for the benefit of society as a whole, in lieu of morality or a doctrine for peace of mind, for the peace and happiness of society, and for the sake of professional ethics. Ethical practice will bring goodness to society and enable societies to be virtuous and moral. As well, learning-teaching management in educational institutions can help human beings to demonstrate ethical conduct, especially professional ethics.

A Communication Arts curriculum produces graduates for the mass media profession where there is a need for knowledge, competency, skill and mass media professional ethics, so that those who practice within the mass media profession will practice the profession correctly and justly within the framework of civil law and an ethical code. Many researchers have conducted studies of the ethical decision-making process of the mass media profession, such as Sriluksana Silpi (1996) who conducted research on the ethical reporting of crime in newspapers. The findings reveal that most newspaper reporters realize the problems created by reporting limitations to cover criminal news; for example, the details and pictures of sexual cases involving children and young adults. When the reporters were confronted with such ethical problems the motif most used was that of the professional ethical standards. When they were interviewed about the criminal cases that used to be publicized in newspapers, they indicated that making the news most believable in the eyes of their readers was the most important criterion. This indicated that, in real life, news reporters could not practice their career within the framework of a set professional standard because of competition with other newspapers and ways of finding reliable news sources may lead to news reporters overlooking the privacy rights of their news subjects. This discovery of the presence of difficult ethical decisions, especially around an individual's privacy rights, coincided with the findings of Virojna Srihiran (1998) who conducted research on the conscious mind (journalistic ethics) of newspaper photographers and their decision making process to take pictures. The findings highlight that the journalistic conscious mind of newspaper photographers was at a high level, the highest level of responsibility, a high level regarding duty awareness and a do-not-take-sides neutrality. The least or lowest level concerned freedom. As for a journalistic ethical decision making process of newspaper photographers, the findings show that newspaper photographers mostly decided to take pictures even if it concerned a case that threatened their professional ethics. They emphasized the truth of the story, its news worthiness and the ethical principles involved. Overall, ethical decision making was found to be at a low level. In short, the reporters were confronted with ethical risk at all times. They need the skill to make quick decisions to present the news and its pictures. For this reason, mass media practitioners need the ability to judge the ethics of a situation with which they are confronted.

This current study conducted a survey to collect data from mass media practitioners, all adult bachelor degree graduates. They reported that they did not have much opportunity to practice ethical decision making. If there was a need, in their work, to be able to make a correct and ethical decision when confronted with a difficult situation then, while they were studying in mass communication schools, the Communication Arts curriculum should provide an opportunity to practice such decision making. For example, opportunity needs to be afforded in the curriculum

that directly prepares graduates for a mass media career. Teaching-learning strategies should give students the opportunity to confront real life situations in which to practice ethical decision making.

The research results also found that the learning-teaching model that presents real life events or confronts students with real and/or mock-up situations, should then be analyzed as if they were a real situation. This kind of case-based learning model is one example of a teaching process that presents events, situations and facts in complete detail, along with reality-making multi-media that help learners to participate in idea expression, discussion, analysis, synthesis and concept and theory application, and the principles of analysis and decision making (Ward, 1998). The learners search and collect data from these situations in order to analyze and synthesize them and then to decide how to respond to such cases reasonably. They then conclude with the decisional direction appropriate to the particular situation which has more benefits than other means of decision making. This is an interactive learning process between learners and teachers and amongst the learners themselves.

Case-based learning enables learners to engage in analytical reflection of the causes and effects in the findings of the data, discover directions for future practice, gain knowledge for operational planning and the know-how to separate important data, to pinpoint and analyze problems or situations and to solve the encountered problems. In addition, the learners are able to select the important data for planning and decision making. Learners have the opportunities to search the data for problem solving elements in various situations. Besides this, learners gain the chance to express, discuss, listen to and accept others' ideas. This strategy will practice learners in comprehensive communication and essay-writing skills. Case-based learning is a value-added method to enhance learners' maturity and readiness for decision-making with appropriate values and intelligence.

The important components of case-based learning outlined by Wariratana Kaewurai (1998) include that case-based learning is student-centered learning, a small group teaching technique, and one that enables group discussion for knowledge generation. The cases used for the lessons should be current instances and should be integrated with real occupational cases for problem solving. Students soon appreciate the learning method and feel empowered to search for additional knowledge. In fact, learners can control the learning process by themselves. For example, they find they need to search for appropriate knowledge by themselves to solve the problems, according to the presented situation. As well, they can utilize the gained knowledge to solve problems and to suggest the appropriate problem solving methods for good results. In conclusion, the important components of case-based learning are instructors, learners, and the

cases themselves. Indeed, the appropriate integration of these components would enhance knowledge and critical thinking in using the appropriate data to solve the problems arising from the cases.

As for the steps of case-based learning, different educators suggest the order and use of the steps in a variety of ways. For example, Barkley, Cross and Major (2005) divided case-based learning into 6 steps, and Lua Woon Ming Leo (2006) divided case-based learning into 5 steps. However, this researcher has studied, analyzed and synthesized case-based learning into the following 6 steps; they are, 1) cognition and problem identification, 2) scrutinizing and analyzing the cause of the problems, 3) problem solution direction, 4) the selection of a problem solution direction, 5) feedback of the solution direction, and 6) presentation and evaluation. The details are in the following tables:

Table 1 the synthesis of the case-based learning steps

Barkley,Cross and Major (2005)	Leo, LW.M. (2006)	Tisna Kaemmani (2007)	Suvit Moonkam, Orathai Moonkam (2008)	Ikseon Choi, Sang Joon Lee and Jeongwan Kang(2009)	Researcher
1.Division of learners into case-based learning groups	1. Introduction of the case	1. Teachers, students introduce the case	1. Introduce the sample cases	1. Identify problem cases	1. Cognition and problem identification
2. Allocation of learners to ask questions about the case and problem solution	2. Form groups and initiate discussion	2. Students study the sample cases	2. Studying the case, group division to study the case	2. Assessing situations	2. Scrutinize and analyze the cause of problems
3. Learners work in groups to study the case and determine the decision alternatives	3. Identify the way forward	3. Students discuss the case problem to find the answers	3. Conclusion and evaluation of the lessons	3. Setting goals	3. Setting problem solving methods
4. Learners systemize data, applying tools to analyze problems by using data or experience to solve problems; what is the problem? Its causes, getting supporting data to conclude the problems.	4.Guide learning activities	4. Teachers, lecturers, students discuss answers	4.Generate solutions		4.Selective decision for problem solving alternatives

Table 1 the synthesis of the case-based learning steps (continues)

Barkley,Cross and Major (2005)	Leo, LW.M. (2006)	Tisna Kaemmani (2007)	Suvit Moonkam, Orathai Moonkam (2008)	Ikseon Choi, Sang Joon Lee and Jeongwan Kang(2009)	Researcher
	5. Organize presentation, mobilize and provide timely feedback	5. Teachers, students discuss problems, problem solving method.conclude the learned lessons			5. Idea feedback from the alternatives
		6. Teachers evaluate students' learning			6. Presentation and evaluation

From the related literature and research, it was found that case-based learning can be applied in many fields of study. It helps learners have to participate actively, analyze, and discuss within the learning process. It helps learners develop analytical skills and make alternative determination for ethical decision making.

Research Methodology

This research was a study of the opinions of lecturers and students about the status of learning-teaching management and the approaches to develop a teaching model for mass media ethics teaching, a teaching model to develop ethical reflection and decision making within the framework of professional ethics codes. Data were collected from undergraduate students in the School of Communication Arts and other related schools, utilizing the following method.

1. Samples;

Samples for this research were 104 lecturers from the School of Communication Arts and other related schools of 5 Rajabhat universities and 402 undergraduate students who were studying in the school of Communication Arts and other related schools of the 5 Rajabhat universities.

2. Data collecting tools and the tool quality validation

2.1 Questionnaires on opinions of present mass media professional ethics teaching administration to develop the ethical reflection and decision making skills of undergraduate students in the school of Communication Arts and other related schools. Also surveyed was the students' ability to think and make decisions ethically from the perspective of the lecturers in the school of Communication Arts and other related schools. This had been tested for content validity and then the content validity checked by means of the index of item-objective congruence, IOC.

2.2 Questionnaires on opinions about current mass media professional ethics teaching management to develop the ethical reflection and decision making skills of undergraduate students in the school of Communication Arts and other related schools. Also surveyed was the students' ability to think and to make decisions ethically from the perspective of undergraduate students in the school of Communication Arts and other related schools. This had been tested for content validity and then had the content validity checked by means of the index of item-objective congruence, IOC.

3. Data analysis:

Data from the questionnaires was analyzed by frequency, mean and standard deviation.

Findings

The research findings are divided into two categories; these are the current teaching management and the approach to a design of a learning-teaching model that will enhance students' ability to reflect analytically and make decisions within the frame of professional ethics, from the viewpoints of the lecturers and the undergraduate students in the school of Communication Arts and other related curriculum from the Rajabhat University group throughout the country.

The management of teaching mass media professional ethics: the findings of this aspect disclosed that the present status of teaching mass media professional ethics opens up an opportunity for students to search for new knowledge from many sources, encourages students to think, to do, and to express themselves, promotes students to search for new knowledge by themselves. Classroom learning uses a lecture format and is designed to meet the subject objectives. It does not emphasize the activities that incorporate mass media professional ethics. It was found that there is less case-based learning than should be. Communication channels for students to express themselves are still at a minimal level, including the students' self-expressio.

Table 2 Mean and standard deviation of lecturers' opinions towards mass media professional ethics teaching management (Highest: 5 - the first level)

Instructional Status	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
Open the opportunities for learners to search for new knowledge from the knowledge sources	4.29	0.72	High
Activities organized to encourage students to think, to do and to express themselves	4.27	0.69	High
Learning-teaching management concentrating on thinking process	4.26	0.57	High
Virtues and ethics integrated into learning activities	4.23	0.78	High
Learning activities that yield opportunities to listen to others' opinions and criticism	4.16	0.56	High

Table 3 Mean and standard deviation of students' opinions towards mass media professional ethics teaching management (Highest: 5 - the first level)

Instructional status	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
Open the opportunities for learners to search for new knowledge from the knowledge sources	4.25	0.73	High
Learning activities organized to encourage students to search for knowledge by themselves	4.10	0.73	High
New information from daily life used as questions or situations in teaching media	4.04	0.74	High
Learning activities that yield opportunities to listen to others' opinions and criticism	4.16	0.56	High
Learning activities used for lecturing to meet the objectives of the course of subjects	4.00	0.78	High

Table 4 Mean and standard deviation of lecturers' and students' opinions towards students' ability to reflect analytically and to make decision within the framework of mass media professional ethics

Questions	Lecturers			Students		
	Mean	S.D	Interp.	Mean	S.D	Interp.
Learners' ability to understand mass media professional ethics	3.45	0.70	High	3.44	0.63	Moderate
Learners' ability to collect data for lessons	3.40	0.66	Moderate	3.82	0.73	High
Learners' ability to search for data for learning	3.46	0.79	Moderate	3.86	0.80	High
Learners' ability to identify problems clearly and correctly	3.21	0.62	Moderate	3.50	0.71	Moderate
Learners' ability to analyze encountered situations or problems reasonably	3.23	0.87	Moderate	3.79	0.82	High
Learners' ability to identify possible alternatives related to the problems	3.17	0.86	Moderate	3.91	0.77	High
Learners' ability to select data related to situations, problems or case studies	3.23	0.85	Moderate	3.83	0.73	High
Learners' ability to present appropriate conclusions	3.15	0.89	Moderate	3.89	0.73	High

The above tables indicate that lecturers' opinions about students' ability to reflect analytically and make decisions about mass media professional ethics was at a moderate level. Only the ability to understand mass media professional ethics was at a high level.

While students' own opinions about their ability to reflect analytically and make decisions about mass media profession ethics was at a high level. The only items found to be at a moderate level were the learners' ability to understand mass media professional ethics, the ability to identify problems clearly and correctly, and the learners' ability to make decisions about mass media profession ethics. Lecturers and students shared the same opinion about learners' ability to make decisions about mass media professional ethics. Their shared opinions were at a moderate level. These skills need to be developed to gain higher ability to make decisions ethically about mass media profession ethics.

Discussion and Recommendation

From tables 1 to 3, we learn the breakdown of details concerning the current situation of mass media professional ethics teaching that has opened up opportunities for learners to search

for new knowledge from knowledge sources, encouraged students to think, to do, and to express themselves, emphasized students to search for knowledge by themselves. There were learning activities that and has emphasized a lecture format in order to meet the objectives of the courses, while still integrated into mass media professional ethics. Case-based learning was found to remain at a minimal level and communication channel opportunities for students to express themselves was also found to be at minimal level.

The research findings also discerned that teaching, lecturers' and students' assessments of students' ability to reflect and to make decisions about mass media professional ethics were all found to be at a moderate level. As well, the ability to collect and retrieve data, to identify problems clearly, to analyze and identify problem solution alternatives were also found to be at a moderate level.

Therefore, it is recommended that a future approach to the learning-teaching management of mass media professional ethics should emphasize that learners meet or confront real problems or real life situations. This future approach should be a student-centered learning process in order that students would practice how to utilize their ability, intellect and reasoning to analyze and classify real problems. They can plan and set an approach to solve problems that coincides with Pol Saengsawang's concept (1987) which states that case-based learning, or a case study or a learning by case examination approach is a learning process that gives students a variety of roles through which to participate in the problem solving of real situations, or in specific mock-up situations. In the problem solving process, learners have to analyze data, assess problems, decide an optimal method to solve particular problems, then report the causes and a problem solving approach to their group. This process matches that of Pongyuth Klaryuth (2009) who maintains that the benefits of case-based learning offer students the opportunities to deepen their understanding of particular problems directly by themselves, to help them gain an ability to think analytically, to develop questioning and discussing skills, with training to think through problems and make decisions, to create a learning process related to the problem's causes and outcomes. These findings also reflect those of Choovit Chaibao(2009) who concluded that case-based learning helps students to gain an ability to think analytically and to see the ramifications of a situation clearly, to enjoy learning, to generate good learning habits and to attain a desired learning achievement. These conclusions and recommendations also are found in Lane (2007) who explained that case-based learning was effective preparation for students to learn problem solving techniques where the students can learn, through participation, from the decision making process and problem solving methods.

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To Wed or not to Wed:

Investigating Marriage Proposal in Jane Austen's *Pride and Prejudice*

Thanis Bunsom, Sompatu Vungthong, Wareesiri Singhasiri

Abstract

Jane Austen's *Pride and Prejudice* is a classic literary work widely read and studied all over the world. Considered one of the most famous pieces of writing in Austen's time, the novel has been thoroughly analysed especially in terms of its Victorian socio-cultural context where women's lives and future happiness depend greatly on good marriages. Wishing to shed further light on the persuasive techniques deployed in different marriage proposals, we examine three significant dialogues: Mr. Collins's proposal to Elizabeth Bennet, Mr. Darcy's first proposal to Elizabeth Bennet and Mr. Darcy's final proposal to Elizabeth Bennet. The analysis is based on Marwell and Schmitt (1967)'s theory of compliance-gaining strategies and Jacks and Cameron (2003)'s theory of resistance strategies. The findings suggest that in attempting to manipulate Elizabeth Bennet into accepting the proposals, Austen's male characters employ different persuasive techniques in the three dialogues. Interestingly, the findings also suggest further implications on what marriage should be which is completely contradicting to the socio-cultural environment of the Victorian era.

Keywords: *Pride and Prejudice, Marriage proposals, Compliance-gaining strategies, Resistance Strategies, Victorian era*

บทคัดย่อ

นวนิยายคลาสสิกเรื่อง *Pride and Prejudice* ของเจน ออสเตนเป็นผลงานชิ้นสำคัญที่มีผู้อ่านและผู้ศึกษาระดับโลก เนื่องจากเป็นหนังสือที่โด่งดังมากที่สุดเล่มหนึ่งในยุคสมัยของเธอ จึงทำให้มีนักวิจารณ์หลายท่านสนใจวิเคราะห์ถึงแง่มุมและบริบททางสังคมและวัฒนธรรมในยุควิกทอเรียนที่ชีวิตของผู้หญิงจะมีความสุขได้ต้องขึ้นอยู่กับการแต่งงาน งานวิจัยชิ้นนี้ต้องการที่จะเพิ่มองค์ความรู้เกี่ยวกับกลวิธีการชักจูงที่ใช้ในการขอแต่งงาน ข้อมูลที่ผู้วิจัยนำมาศึกษาเป็นบทสนทนาในการขอแต่งงานสามสถานการณ์ได้แก่ นายคอลลินส์ขออลิซาเบทแต่งงาน นายดาร์ซีขออลิซาเบทแต่งงานครั้งที่หนึ่งและนายดาร์ซีขออลิซาเบทแต่งงานครั้งที่สองโดยใช้ขอบเขตทฤษฎีกลวิธีการสร้างการยอมรับของมาร์เวลและชมิท (ปี 2510) และทฤษฎีกลวิธีการต่อต้านของแจคส์และแคเมอรอน(ปี 2546) ผลการศึกษาพบว่าตัวละครชายใช้กลวิธีการชักจูงหลากหลายวิธีในบทสนทนาทั้งสามสถานการณ์เพื่อหว่านล้อมให้อลิซาเบทยอมตกลงแต่งงานด้วย ประเด็นที่น่าสนใจก็คือผลการศึกษาพบว่าออสเตนได้กล่าวเป็นนัยยะถึงลักษณะของการแต่งงานที่แท้จริงว่าควรเป็นอย่างไรซึ่งขัดกับสภาวะแวดล้อมทางสังคมและวัฒนธรรมในยุควิกทอเรียนอย่างสิ้นเชิง

คำสำคัญ: *Pride and Prejudice การขอแต่งงาน ทฤษฎีกลวิธีการสร้างการยอมรับ ทฤษฎีกลวิธีการต่อต้าน ยุควิกทอเรียน*

1. Introduction

The opening sentence of Jane Austen's *Pride and Prejudice* "It is a truth universally acknowledged, that a single man in possession of a good fortune, must be in want of a wife (1)" establishes one of the most-discussed themes of this classic novel: the issue of marriage (See Weinsheimer, 1972; Newton, 1978; Sherry, 1979; Newman, 1983; Wiesenfarth, 1984; Allen, 1985). This sentence bears ideological significance, communicating a social value in Regency England, during the transition between Georgian and Victorian eras. The claim that a wealthy man must be looking for a wife also implies that a single woman must be in want of a husband, especially a wealthy one. In this context, the issue of marriage is simply a matter of status. While young men could socially advance through the military, church, or law, the main method of self-improvement for women was the acquisition of wealth through successful marriage. In Austen's time, there was no real way for young women of the genteel classes to be independent. Few occupations such as a governess were open to them and these occupations were not highly respected and did not pay well. It seems marriage was the only acceptable option for these genteel women to maintain financial and social status. This can explain the idea of matrimony as a goal in Austen's writing.

In *Pride and Prejudice,* the significance of marriage upon women's lives is portrayed through the Bennet family that had five daughters, making it necessary for Mrs. Bennet to push one of the girls to become married in order to maintain the family's financial stability. While the eldest daughter, Jane, has a better chance at an advantageous marriage because of her outstanding beauty, a lack of connections makes it almost impossible for her and her sisters to marry well. Despite her family's economic and social inferiority, Elizabeth, the female protagonist of the novel, refuses to let society dictate her life or influence her happiness. Therefore, she defies her mother's wishes and is determined to marry only for love. Her rebellious viewpoints on marriage make it worth our while to investigate the marriage proposals directed to her by the male characters, Mr. Collins and Mr. Darcy, to see how different techniques of persuasion and resistance can lead to an idealistic notion of matrimony as proposed by the writer.

2. Research Questions

With special attention paid to the theme of marriage and its significance, in this paper the researchers aim to analyze *Pride and Prejudice*'s marriage proposals through the lens of compliance-gaining and resistance strategies which can help shed light on the values that the

characters hold and simultaneously shed light on the ideological proposition for the context in which the novel is situated. In other words, the researchers aim to answer the following questions:

1. What strategies do the characters use to persuade or to resist persuasion?

2. How do those strategies give implications to the values that the characters hold and possibly reveal an idealistic idea of marriage proposed by the writer?

3. Literature Review

3.1 *Pride and Prejudice*

Research on Jane Austen's *Pride and Prejudice* and other novels has been continuous and abundant, both nationally and internationally. It would be impossible to mention every academic piece of writing but for the purpose of this paper, the researchers would like to capture a few interesting research trends which the novel has inspired. Traditionally, literary scholars such as Kliger (1947), Brown (1979) and Fergus (1983) discuss the novel in its relation to the Victorian society of Great Britain. While Kliger analyses the characters' taste in art and their realistic discussion of aesthetics in the late eighteenth century, Brown and Fergus focus on the didactic aspect of the novel in relation to the course of social changes that were occurring in Austen's time.

In addition, numerous analyses have been conducted on the central issue of marriage, revealing prevalent ideas about women's status in nineteenth century England. Weinsheimer (1972) examines the likeliness and hierarchy of marriages as well as the values of marriage choices in the novel. Sherry (1979) draws her reading from the way Victorian society is constructed and investigates social constraints that women have to experience especially in their lack of marriage choices. Sherry's analysis is also maintained by other scholars such as Wiesenfarth (1984) and Newton (1978). Newman (1983) concentrates on the final nuptial union; while the happy ending is satisfactory, she proposes that the marriage between Mr. Darcy and Elizabeth may come to a termination because of the female protagonist's incorrigible social and financial inferiority. Allen (1985) also touches upon the notion of marriage but from a different perspective: the character of Lydia Bennet, the youngest of the Bennet sisters whose imprudent marriage, a result of her unruly, uncontrollable desire, brings about a social censure and prohibition.

Towards the end of the twentieth century and the beginning of the new millennia, the analysis of the book has expanded across wider academic disciplines. Almond (1989) investigates the characters' development deploying a psychoanalytical and psychotherapeutic framework, linking a fictional work to a realistic clinical issue. Lacour (1992), on the other hand, approaches the

book from a historicist approach, arguing that the transition between the first-person to the third-person narrative – "between speculative and representational realism" (p. 603) – affects the conception of truth in fiction. *Pride and Prejudice* also invites a philosophical reading; Bonaparte (2005) posits that Austen and her characters are highly philosophical, judged by "the nature of their actions and the language of the narrative" (p. 142). Additionally, there have been attempts to scrutinise Austen's work through a linguistic methodology. Wijitsopon (2000) studies the stylistics in Mr. and Mrs. Bennet's interactions. In her other work in 2009, she applies corpus linguistics into her analysis of irony. Fischer-Starcke (2009) also employs a corpus stylistic analysis to uncover the hidden meanings of the novel through the identification of keywords and frequent phrases.

3.2 Compliance-Gaining Strategies

The communication theory of compliance-gaining strategies has been widely applied to several different fields of knowledge such as medical science, education, linguistics and sociology. Some of the most interesting pieces of research are briefly introduced as follows.

Researchers in the field of medical science have deployed a conceptual framework to study relationships between physicians and patients. Burgoon et al. (1987) examine how physicians' use of compliance-gaining strategies affects their patients' satisfaction and compliance in communication. In their later study (1990), selection of verbal compliance-gaining strategies made by primary care physicians becomes the central focus. Furthermore, Wrench and Butterfield (2003) observe ways in which physicians employ their sense of humor, compliance-gaining strategies and perceived credibility to increase their patients' satisfaction and compliance.

Apart from medical science, compliance-gaining strategies have also played a significant role in other academic realms. Golish (1999) investigates students' use of the strategies to analyze their perceptions towards the credibility and power of graduate teaching assistants in comparison with those of the professors. In linguistics, Baxter (1984) does research on the association between the compliance-gaining strategies and Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness, based on an idea that our interaction is characterized by our desire to be liked. Sociologically, compliance-gaining strategies are deployed to explain social interactions among people. Sillars (1980) studies people's interactions and persuasive strategies with strangers (noninterpersonal relationships) versus spouses (interpersonal relationships). Another remarkable piece of research is conducted by Rudd, Burant and Beatty (1994) who survey 115 abused women's use of compliance-gaining strategies to build argumentation and verbal aggression.

3.3 Resistance Strategies

Unlike their compliance-gaining counterparts, resistance strategies are arguably newer as they were only theorized as recently as 2003 by Jacks and Cameron. Most of the subsequent existing literatures and literatures prior to 2003 have been written or contributed to by these authors. For example, Cameron, Jacks and O'Brien (2002) conduct an experimental examination of strategies for resisting persuasion. In this study, participants are asked to use five strategies (counterarguing, attitude bolstering, source derogation, negative affect and assertions of confidence) in their handwriting samples for a lie-detection experiment. Another significant work is Jacks and Cameron's "Strategies for Resisting Persuasion" (2003) in which the seven types of resistance used in our study are posited.

Further to the aforementioned literatures, the current researchers believe that analyzing Austen's classic work with a communication framework will contribute to the existing pool of knowledge and offer another meaningful way of reading and interpreting this novel.

4. Research Methodology

4.1 Data Selection

Although marriage forms the central focus of this novel and proposals are mentioned several times by different characters (such as Mr. Collins's proposal to Charlotte Lucas and Mr. Bingley's proposal to Jane Bennet), only three marriage proposals, Mr. Collins's proposal to Elizabeth, Mr. Darcy's first and final proposal to Elizabeth, are described in detailed dialogues. They were hence chosen to be the data for our analysis. The text of the three proposals that are analyzed can be found in Appendix A.

4.2 Overview of Data Analysis

The method of analysis is based on Marwell and Schmitt's (1967) theory of compliance-gaining strategies and Jacks and Cameron's (2003) theory of resistance strategies. Each turn in the dialogues is examined to identify the strategies and classified accordingly. Dominant strategies are then analyzed in profundity to shed insight into the characters' values influenced by their social or personal context and Austen's unconventional viewpoints on marriage.

While the written dialogues of the characters are solid proofs of different deployed strategies (RQ1), it is more difficult to firmly explicate the characters' values and define Austen's true ideas of matrimony (RQ2) because those are a matter of the researchers' interpretation. Therefore, this paper can possibly offer another scholastic reading of the novel, among many other interpretations.

5. Theoretical Framework

5.1 Compliance-Gaining Strategies

Gaining compliance of another person is one of the most common communication goals. Typically, compliance-gaining research explores choices people make about what to say when trying to persuade others to behave in predetermined ways. In line with this field of research there have been numerous attempts in many areas of communication for example in the organizational realm, the media, cross-cultural aspects, education and health (Lamude & Lichtenstein, 1985).

In particular, Marwell and Schmitt (1967) propose the 16 compliance-gaining strategies in the table below.

Table 1: 16 compliance-gaining strategies

Strategies	Descriptions
1. Promise	(If you comply, I will reward you.) "You offer to increase Dick's allowance if he increases his studying."
2. Threat	(If you do not comply I will punish you.) "You threaten to forbid Dick the use of the car if he does not increase his studying."
3. Positive Expertise	(If you comply you will be rewarded because of "the nature of things.") "You point out to Dick that if he gets good grades he will be able to get into a good college and get a good job."
4. Negative Expertise	(If you do not comply you will be punished because of "the nature of things.") "You point out to Dick that if he does not get good grades he will not be able to get into a good college or get a good job."
5. Liking	(Actor is friendly and helpful to get target in "good frame of mind" so that he will comply with request.) "You try to be as friendly and pleasant as possible to get Dick in the 'right frame of mind' before asking him to study."

6. Pregiving	(Actor rewards target before requesting compliance.) "You raise Dick's allowance and tell him you now expect him to study."
7. Aversive Stimulation	(Actor continuously punishes target making cessation contingent on compliance.) "You forbid Dick the use of the car and tell him he will not be allowed to drive until he studies more."
8. Debt	(You owe me compliance because of past favors.) "You point out that you have sacrificed and saved to pay for Dick's education and that he owes it to you to get good enough grades to get into a good college."
9. Moral Appeal	(You are immoral if you do not comply.) "You tell Dick that it is morally wrong for anyone not to get as good grades as he can and that he should study more."
10. Positive Self-Feeling	(You will feel better about yourself if you comply.) "You tell Dick he will feel proud if he gets himself to study more."
11. Negative Self-Feeling	(You will feel worse about yourself if you do not comply.) "You tell Dick he will feel ashamed of himself if he gets bad grades."
12. Positive Altercasting	(A person with "good" qualities would comply.) "You tell Dick that since he is a mature and intelligent boy he naturally will want to study more and get good grades."
13. Negative Altercasting	(Only a person with "bad" qualities would not comply.) "You tell Dick that only someone very childish does not study as he should."
14. Altruism	(I need your compliance very badly, so do it for me.) "You tell Dick that you really want very badly for him to get into a good college and that you wish he would study more as a personal favor to you."
15. Positive Esteem	(People you value will think better of you if you comply.) "You tell Dick that the whole family will be very proud of him if he gets good grades."
16. Negative Esteem	(People you value will think worse of you if you do not comply.) "You tell Dick that the whole family will be very disappointed (in him) if he gets poor grades."

Marwell and Schmitt use an exchange-theory approach as the basis for this compliance-gaining model. A person will comply in exchange for something else offered by the other person. This approach is based on the assumption that people act to gain something from others in exchange for something else. This model is therefore power oriented. It implies the idea that you can gain

compliance if you have enough power in terms of resources and can provide something they want (Littlejohn & Foss, 2008).

5.2 Resistance Strategies

In line with compliance-gaining techniques, resistance strategies have also been explored. Jacks and Cameron (2003) compile the variety of strategies individuals may use to resist persuasion from the persuasion literature. They postulate the following seven types of responses that have been posited as strategies for resisting attitude as follows.

Table 2: 7 types of responses posited as strategies for resisting attitude change.

Strategies	Descriptions
1. Counterarguing	The direct rebuttal of message arguments (Abelson, 1959; Buller, 1986).
2. Attitude bolstering	Support arguing—that is, generating thoughts in favor of one's original attitude without directly refuting message arguments.
3. Social validation	Resisting the message by bringing to mind the important others who share one's original attitude (Festinger, 1950, 1954).
4. Source derogation	A resistance strategy that involves insulting the source, dismissing his or her expertise or trustworthiness, or otherwise rejecting his or her validity as a source of information (Buller, 1986)
5. Negative affect	Responding to the persuasion attempt by getting angry, irritated or otherwise upset (Abelson and Miller 1967)
6. Selective exposure	Resisting persuasion by leaving the situation or actively tuning out the persuasive message (Brock & Balloun, 1967; Kleinhesselink & Edwards, 1975).
7. Assertions of confidence	Explicitly asserting that nothing or no one could ever change one's opinion.

In using the two theories of compliance-gaining and resistance strategies, we hope to better understand the mechanisms of the personal or social values that influence the characters' persuasion or resistance.

6. Results and Discussion

The three dialogues involving marriage proposals in *Pride and Prejudice* have been examined and categorized in accordance with the compliance-gaining and resistance strategies.

6.1 The Characters' Strategies

A. Mr. Collins and Elizabeth

The first proposal was offered to Elizabeth Bennet, the second daughter of the five Bennet sisters, by Mr. Collins, a pompous clergyman who was going to inherit Mr. Bennet's property. According to Marwell and Schmitt's compliance-gaining strategies, Mr. Collins' strategies can be categorized as follows.

Table 3: Mr. Collin's proposal

Compliance Gaining-Strategy	Statement
Liking	"Believe me, my dear Miss Elizabeth, that your modesty, so far from doing you any disservice, rather adds to your other perfections."
Positive Esteem	"You would have been less amiable in my eyes had there *not* been this little unwillingness; but allow me to assure you, that I have your respected mother's permission for this address."
Moral appeal	"…first, that I think it a right thing for every clergyman in easy circumstances (like myself) to set the example of matrimony in his parish;…"
Altruism	"…secondly, that I am convinced it will add very greatly to my happiness…"
Positive Esteem	"…and thirdly -- which perhaps I ought to have mentioned earlier, that it is the particular advice and recommendation of the very noble lady whom I have the honour of calling patroness."
Altruism	"But the fact is, that being, as I am, to inherit this estate after the death of your honoured father (who, however, may live many years longer), I could not satisfy myself without resolving to chuse a wife from among his daughters,…"
Promise	"but I cannot imagine that her ladyship would at all disapprove of you. And you may be certain that when I have the honour of seeing her again, I shall speak in the highest terms of your modesty, economy, and other amiable qualifications."
Promise	"It does not appear to me that my hand is unworthy your acceptance, or that the establishment I can offer would be any other than highly desirable. My situation in life, my connections with the family of De Bourgh, and my relationship to your own, are circumstances highly in my favour;"
Threat	"…and you should take it into farther consideration that, in spite of your manifold attractions, it is by no means certain that another offer of marriage may ever be made you. Your portion is unhappily so small, that it will in all likelihood undo the effects of your loveliness and amiable qualifications."

| Threat | "… when sanctioned by the express authority of both your excellent parents, my proposals will not fail of being acceptable." |

Employing resistance strategies to analyze Elizabeth's verbal and nonverbal responses, her resistance strategies can be sorted as follows.

Table 4: Elizabeth's refusal

Resistance Strategies	Statement
Counterarguing	"I do assure you that I am not one of those young ladies (if such young ladies there are) who are so daring as to risk their happiness on the chance of being asked a second time."
Assertions of Confidence	"I am perfectly serious in my refusal."
Counterarguing	"You could not make *me* happy, and I am convinced that I am the last woman in the world who would make *you* so. Nay, were your friend Lady Catherine to know me, I am persuaded she would find me in every respect ill qualified for the situation."
Assertions of Confidence	"I thank you again and again for the honour you have done me in your proposals, but to accept them is absolutely impossible. My feelings in every respect forbid it. Can I speak plainer? Do not consider me now as an elegant female, intending to plague you, but as a rational creature, speaking the truth from her heart."
Counterarguing	"In making me the offer, you must have satisfied the delicacy of your feelings with regard to my family, and may take possession of Longbourn estate whenever it falls, without any self-reproach. This matter may be considered, therefore, as finally settled."
Selective Exposure	To such perseverance in wilful self-deception Elizabeth would make no reply, and immediately and in silence withdrew; determined, if he persisted in considering her repeated refusals as flattering encouragement…

From the data in the two tables, Mr. Collins initiated his marriage proposal with the liking strategy. He tried to impress Elizabeth by admiring her, pointing out her modesty as one of her other perfections. After that, positive esteem was applied. He asserted that Mrs. Bennet, Elizabeth's mother, had already approved his decision to propose to Elizabeth. This signifies that Mrs. Bennet would be happy for her if she agreed to his proposal.

However, Elizabeth was not moved by Mr. Collins' strategies. Instead of being flattered by the compliment and his verbal expression of affection for her, she almost laughed. Elizabeth did not believe that Mr. Collins was overwhelmed with his passionate love for her as he stated. This can be seen as "distrust" one of the four faces of resistance as Knowles and Linn (2004) elaborate that distrust occurs when people become guarded when faced with a proposal or offer.

Self-conceitedly ignoring Elizabeth's reaction, Mr. Collins continued his proposal through the strategy of moral appeal. He posited that marrying him was a right option as they would set a good example for town people. Mr. Collins as a clergyman believed that he and his future wife would help illustrate how to be a good couple in the Christian context.

Furthermore, Mr. Collins used altruism by directly stating that this marriage would make him happy. It is implied he was asking Elizabeth to help him as a favor. The altruism strategy was immediately followed by positive esteem. Mr. Collins cited Lady Catherine De Bourgh, his patroness, as a way to persuade Elizabeth to marry him. This noble lady recommended him to find a wife and would appreciate his marriage with Elizabeth. Then the altruism strategy was employed again. Mr. Collins postulated that marrying Elizabeth would help satisfy his need to relieve his uneasiness as he was going to inherit Mr. Bennet's house after his death. In Austen's time, women could not inherit or own anything. As Mr. Bennet had only daughters, his other male relative, Mr. Collins, would be the one to inherit his property.

In response to Mr. Collins' persuasive strategies, Elizabeth employed the resistance strategy. First of all, she just thanked him for the compliment and simply turned down the proposal. After realizing that Mr. Collins misunderstood that she was playing coy and actually secretly accepting his proposal, Elizabeth used counterarguing, one of the resistance strategies. Counterarguing involves direct rebuttal of message arguments. To counter Mr. Collins' belief that she was like most young ladies who typically acted coy when faced with a proposal, Elizabeth told Mr. Collins that if she was really going to accept the proposal, she would not dare to refuse him because she could not be certain of the chance of being asked a second time. After that, Elizabeth turned to assertions of confidence which involves explicitly asserting that nothing or no one could ever change one's opinion. Using this strategy, Elizabeth insisted that her refusal should be taken literally and seriously. In addition, through the use of counterarguing, addressing the argument Mr. Collins used to persuade her that a marriage with her would bring him happiness, she counterargued that she could not make him happy. Similarly, for the point of Lady Catherine's recommendation, Elizabeth persisted that the lady would find her ill qualified for his wife.

Mr. Collins then counterargued that Lady Catherine would not disapprove of Elizabeth. Moreover, using the promise strategy he offered to convince the lady of Elizabeth's modesty, economy, and other agreeable qualifications.

After that, through the use of counterarguing strategy, referring to Mr. Collins's argument that marrying Elizabeth would help relieve his feeling uneasiness because he was going to inherit her house, Elizabeth pointed out only the fact that Mr. Collins by making a proposal to her should help him feel better with regard to her family and after her father's death he may take possession of Longbourn estate, her family's house, without any self-reproach. It therefore was not necessary that the proposal be fulfilled.

Despite facing Elizabeth's firmly repeated refusals, Mr. Collins still considered her negative reactions as her encouragement. He cited the reasons why he was certain that Elizabeth would not refuse him. Through these reasons, Mr. Collins made use of the promise and threat strategies. Firstly, he referred to the benefits that would belong to Elizabeth if she yielded to his persuasion. She would be able to enjoy a desirable life accompanied with his property and connections. Then, immediately Mr. Collins used threat, maintaining that it was very unlikely that she would be offered another marriage proposal despite her amiable qualifications because she had no substantial property or wealth.

Again Elizabeth resisted the persuasion through assertions of confidence. With the purpose to make her intention to refuse the proposal clear, she stated it was "absolutely impossible" to convince her of the marriage with him as it was against her feeling.

Finally, seeing Elizabeth insisting on her refusal solidly, Mr. Collins resorted to the threat strategy again by stating that if he asked her parents to pressure her, his proposals would not fail. Through this statement, Mr. Collins threatened to employ her parents' authority over their daughter. If Elizabeth did not yield obediently, she would be forced to anyway by her parents. For Elizabeth's part, to respond to Mr. Collins' self-deception and persistence in considering her repeated refusals as flattering encouragement, Elizabeth chose to use selective exposure. She just ignored him, giving him no response.

B. Mr. Darcy and Elizabeth

The second proposal was offered to Elizabeth by Fitzwilliam Darcy or Mr. Darcy, a wealthy gentleman and the master of Pemberley. His proposal can be seen as the turning point of *Pride and Prejudice*. Employing the compliance-gaining theory, Mr. Darcy's strategies can classified as shown in the table below.

Table 5: Mr. Darcy's first proposal

Compliance-Gaining Strategy	Statement
Liking	"In vain have I struggled. It will not do. My feelings will not be repressed. You must allow me to tell you how ardently I admire and love you."

Responding to Mr. Darcy's proposal, Elizabeth employed a variety of resistance strategies as can be seen in the table below.

Table 6: Elizabeth's refusal

Resistance Strategies	Statement
Counterarguing	"I have never desired your good opinion, and you have certainly bestowed it most unwillingly... The feelings which, you tell me, have long prevented the acknowledgment of your regard, can have little difficulty in overcoming it after this explanation."
Counterarguing	"I might as well enquire,...why, with so evident a design of offending and insulting me, you chose to tell me that you liked me against your will, against your reason, and even against your character? Was not this some excuse for incivility, if I *was* uncivil?"
Source Derogation	"Had not my own feelings decided against you, had they been indifferent, or had they even been favourable, do you think that any consideration would tempt me to accept the man, who has been the means of ruining, perhaps for ever, the happiness of a most beloved sister?"
Source Derogation	"I have every reason in the world to think ill of you. No motive can excuse the unjust and ungenerous part you acted *there*."
Source Derogation	"But it is not merely this affair," she continued, "on which my dislike is founded. Long before it had taken place, my opinion of you was decided. Your character was unfolded in the recital which I received many months ago from Mr. Wickham."
Assertions of Confidence	"You could not have made me the offer of your hand in any possible way that would have tempted me to accept it."

Resistance Strategies	Statement
Source Derogation	"From the very beginning, from the first moment I may almost say, of my acquaintance with you, your manners, impressing me with the fullest belief of your arrogance, your conceit, and of disapprobation, on which succeeding events have built so immoveable a dislike; and I had not known you a month before I felt that you were the last man in the world whom I could ever be prevailed on to marry."
Attitude Bolstering	It was gratifying to have inspired unconsciously so strong an affection. But his pride, his abominable pride, his shameless avowal of what he had done with respect to Jane, his unpardonable assurance in acknowledging, though he could not justify it, and the unfeeling manner in which he had mentioned Mr. Wickham, his cruelty towards whom he had not attempted to deny, soon overcame the pity which the consideration of his attachment had for a moment excited.

Mr. Darcy began his proposal with "liking", expressing his love for Elizabeth. Moreover, he pointed out because of her social inferiority he had tried to suppress his feeling but his love for her was too strong. Then, he asked her to accept his hand.

Infuriated by his feeling of her social inferiority, Elizabeth used counterarguing. She stated that she had never desired him to admire or love her and as he maintained that he had tried to suppress his feeling he should have little difficulty in overcoming it.

Asked for the reasons of her refusal, she again used counterarguing, asking back why he insulted her by telling her that he loved her against his will, against his reason, and even against his character. She claimed this could be an excuse for the incivility of bluntly refusing him. Then, source derogation was used. Elizabeth attacked Mr. Darcy's trustworthiness and credibility, blaming him for his intervention that deprived her beloved sister, Jane, a chance of being married with Mr. Bingley. She argued that there was no way for her to accept his hand as he destroyed her sister's happiness. Afterwards, again using source derogation, she posited that she had every reason in the world to hate him.

After Mr. Darcy accepted that he separated Mr. Bingley, his friend, from her sister, Elizabeth continued the strategy of source derogation. She allegedly attacked Mr. Darcy for his role in disinheriting Wickham.

Seeing Mr. Darcy still insisted his attitudes and actions were natural and just, Elizabeth became angry and used the strategy of assertions of confidence saying that there was no possible way to make her yield to his proposal. Then, again source derogation was used. She stated that

from the very beginning, he was marked by his arrogance and conceit which developed her dislike for him.

After that, pondering over the situation, Elizabeth used "attitude bolstering" to support her decision to refuse Mr. Darcy's proposal. At first, she was flattered by his strong affection for her but afterwards she came up with good reasons to refuse him. She convinced herself of his appalling character, thinking of his pride, his role in destroying her sister's happiness and his alleged cruelty towards Mr. Wickham.

However, after Elizabeth read Mr. Darcy's letter clarifying himself, she began to reevaluate her feelings towards Darcy. In the letter, he claimed that he urged Bingley to distance himself from Jane because he thought their romance was not serious. As for Wickham, he was a liar who attempted to elope with his young sister, Georgiana Darcy. Moreover, Elizabeth learnt that Mr. Darcy had secretly helped pay Wickham to marry her younger sister, Lydia, who had eloped with him. This leads to Mr. Darcy's second proposal as can be sen in the following table.

Table 7: Mr. Darcy's second proposal

Compliance-Gaining Strategy	Statement
Pregiving	"If you *will* thank me,… let it be for yourself alone. That the wish of giving happiness to you might add force to the other inducements which led me on, I shall not attempt to deny. But your *family* owe me nothing. Much as I respect them, I believe I thought only of *you*."
Liking	"*My* affections and wishes are unchanged"

One can see that pregiving could change Elizabeth's attitude regarding his character. When Elizabeth expressed her gratitude for his helping her younger sister, Mr. Darcy told her, he did this for her. This can be seen as pregiving as something was given before the second proposal would be made. Apparently, Elizabeth had already formed a good opinion towards him even before he asked her to marry him for the second time. Therefore, when he used "liking" telling her that his love and wishes to marry did not change, she tenderly accepted his proposal. No resistance strategy was therefore used in this interaction.

6.2 The Implications of the Characters' Social Values

To recapitulate, through Mr. Collins's and Mr. Darcy's compliance gaining strategies and Elizabeth's resistance strategies, their characters, the values they hold and the ideological implications are simultaneously revealed.

Through Mr. Collins' use of altruism (two times), one can learn more about his character. Despite trying to show otherwise, obviously Mr. Collins thought only of himself. Altruism is the strategy one uses to persuade others to yield to our request just for our own sake. Mr. Collins just proposed to Elizabeth in order to avoid self-reproach; his claim that his marriage with her will add to his happiness also reflects his self-centeredness.

Moreover, Mr. Collins representing the social values at that time mostly alludes to the external factors and the material world implying the values of the Victorian era as a way to persuade Elizabeth. His use of positive esteem shows that he paid a great deal of attention to other people's opinions. Positive esteem is used to convey that people you value will think better of you if you comply. By citing Mrs. Bennet's approval and Lady Catherine's recommendation, he believed that it would influence Elizabeth to yield easily. Through moral appeal, promise and threat, Mr. Collins's held beliefs and simultaneously the society's values are uncovered. For moral appeal, to be good Christians was an important thing. For promise, what Mr. Collins offered was referring such material and superficial matters as connections and a comfortable life. For threat, he threatened Elizabeth through parental pressure and the risk of not having a chance to become married. This signifies that women at the time could not really make their own decision in terms of marriage. Such external factors as parents' opinions and a material aspect were of great importance.

Through Elizabeth's use of resistance strategies, one also learns more about her character and the social values. Reacting to Mr. Collins' persuasion, she mostly employed counterarguing and assertions of confidence in order to make her refusal clear. Counterarguing was used to refute Mr. Collins' reasons why she should marry him point by point. The reasons he cited were not convincing for her and she could firmly argue back. This implies there is a value clash between Mr. Collins and Elizabeth. Mr. Mr. Collins values what is outside, the material reality, whereas Elizabeth values what is inside, the feeling and sincerity. His various compliance-gaining strategies do not work because his held values are against Elizabeth's. It eventuates she does not care about what he values and simultaneously what he used as a reason to persuade her such as other people's opinion, a connection with a noble lady and wealth. The liking strategy was also ineffective as Elizabeth realized he was not sincere and did not really love her. When Mr. Collins

persisted considering Elizabeth's refusal as her modest encouragement, he could not comprehend that what he offered to give her was not what she cared about. When she believed it was useless to convince him of her refusal, she turned to use selective exposure, choosing to ignore him and being determined not to yield.

For Mr. Darcy's first proposal, he was not very different from Mr. Collins in terms of caring about social status. Although he used the liking strategy in the beginning, he could not help pointing out her social inferiority. Responding to Mr. Darcy's first proposal, Elizabeth mostly used counterarguing and source derogation. Again, Elizabeth's wittiness was shown when she effectively argued back. However, differently from the strategies used to resist Mr. Collins's persuasion, source derogation was used to attack Mr. Darcy. Elizabeth placed an emphasis on his destroying her elder sister's happiness and disinheriting Wickham. Infuriated by his contempt for her family and his involvement in destroying the happiness of people she was fond of, Elizabeth rejected him bluntly with assertions of confidence. Even after the situation, she used attitude bolstering, trying to produce evidence to justify her decision.

However, after pregiving was used, Elizabeth had formed a new attitude towards him, being moved by his secret help and feeling very grateful. Then, when proposed to by Mr. Darcy for the second time, she did not resist it anymore.

Not only for the resistance strategies used, the absence of some strategies also communicates ideological significance. Elizabeth, with a passive role, was being asked to give her hand and had to resist through arguing back point-by-point. Obviously, social validation, which involves resisting the message using the important others who share one's original attitude, was not used because what Elizabeth was doing went against the social expectation. From a traditional perspective, it was logical for a young woman with no fortune to marry a man who could help support her financially.

Interestingly, the way Mr. Collins and Mr. Darcy employed compliance-gaining strategies can to some extent communicate the play of patriarchal power over women. Wheeless, Barraclough and Stewart (1983) classify the compliance-gaining schemes according to the kinds of power employed by communicators when attempting to gain the compliance of another individual. From the compliance-gaining strategies, there are three types of power. The first one is the ability to manipulate the consequences. It can lead people to use such strategies as promises and threats. This reflects the communicators' power to affect another person's expectations and consequences. In the novel, the use of promise and threat strategies demonstrates the two male characters had the social and financial power to offer Elizabeth something they expected she wanted. The second type of power is the ability to determine one's relational position with the

other person. With such power, communicators may use the strategies such as liking and positive or negative esteem. Both Mr. Collins and Mr. Darcy used liking as a beginning for their proposal. The third category of power is the ability to define values or obligations. A communicator has the credibility to tell the other what is right and wrong for the other person to comply by behaving in accordance with this standard. Mr. Collins's use of moral appeal involves this kind of power. With these three kinds of power to make use of a variety of compliance-gaining strategies, Mr. Collins and Mr. Darcy had no doubt of a favorable answer. However, against the social expectation, Elizabeth turned down the two prospective proposals as her held belief, true feeling rather than material wealth, did not conform to the mainstream values. This could be interpreted as Austen's proposition of a true, idealistic notion of proper marriage where love should take precedence over financial or status gain.

On the one hand, the use of compliance-gaining strategies that the male characters in the novel relied on signifies the passive role of women, waiting to be persuaded or waiting to be offered by men with social and financial power to respond to their need. The use of resistance strategies, on the other hand, reveals Elizabeth's rebellious sprits challenging the social norms. Although marriage at the time was largely about the social status and material need, Elizabeth could successfully become married because of love, being true to her own feeling.

7. Conclusion

As illustrated in this paper, marriage is a significant factor of women's security. While the social and legal obligations during the Victorian era did not leave much choice for women, Austen created her female protagonist, Elizabeth Bennet, to be different. Her determination to marry for love separates her from the rest of the characters and her social settings. Mr. Collins gives reasons for his marriage based on his own personal happiness, his patroness's recommendation and his clerical duty; Mr. Darcy's first proposal, despite being offered out of love, carries with it his biases towards Elizabeth's inferior background; therefore, Elizabeth rejects both offers. Only when Mr. Darcy prioritizes his love for her, does she accept his hand in the conjugal union. Interestingly, the analysis of the dialogues based on the theoretical framework could effectively point out ways in which the characters express their beliefs and values that they uphold.

Furthermore, the voice and desire of Austen, being a female writer of the late eighteenth century where women had little influence in British society, could be heard and perceived through the character of Elizabeth. When the male counterparts exercise their power and dominance over Elizabeth, she resists their attempts and only surrenders herself when she has an equal share of

love and happiness in the marriage. This is what the researchers' believe is Austen's true definition of marriage: love.

8. Recommendations for Future Research

Other instances in *Pride and Prejudice* are worth further investigations of compliance-gaining and resistance. As this paper focuses on the interaction between the male characters and Elizabeth, possible future analyses can cover interactions among female characters such as those between Mrs. Bennet and Elizabeth and Lady Catherine de Bourgh and Elizabeth. The analysis will certainly shed light onto the characters and the social context in which they live.

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Appendix A: Three marriage proposals

A. Mr. Collins and Elizabeth (Chapter 19)

"Believe me, my dear Miss Elizabeth, that your modesty, so far from doing you any disservice, rather adds to your other perfections. You would have been less amiable in my eyes had there not been this little unwillingness; but allow me to assure you, that I have your respected mother's permission for this address. You can hardly doubt the purport of my discourse, however your natural delicacy may lead you to dissemble; my attentions have been too marked to be mistaken. Almost as soon as I entered the house, I singled you out as the companion of my future life. But before I am run away with by my feelings on this subject, perhaps it would be advisable for me to state my reasons for marrying—and, moreover, for coming into Hertfordshire with the design of selecting a wife, as I certainly did."

"My reasons for marrying are, first, that I think it a right thing for every clergyman in easy circumstances (like myself) to set the example of matrimony in his parish; secondly, that I am convinced that it will add very greatly to my happiness; and thirdly—which perhaps I ought to have mentioned earlier, that it is the particular advice and recommendation of the very noble lady whom I have the honour of calling patroness. Twice has she condescended to give me her opinion (unasked too!) on this subject; and it was but the very Saturday night before I left Hunsford—between our pools at quadrille, while Mrs. Jenkinson was arranging Miss de Bourgh's footstool, that she said, 'Mr. Collins, you must marry. A clergyman like you must marry. Choose properly, choose a gentlewoman for my sake; and for your own, let her be an active, useful sort of person, not brought up high, but able to make a small income go a good way. This is my advice. Find such a woman as soon as you can, bring her to Hunsford, and I will visit her.' Allow me, by the way, to observe, my fair cousin, that I do not reckon the notice and kindness of Lady Catherine de Bourgh as among the least of the advantages in my power to offer. You will find her manners beyond anything I can describe; and your wit and vivacity, I think, must be acceptable to her, especially when tempered with the silence and respect which her rank will inevitably excite. Thus much for my general intention in favour of matrimony; it remains to be told why my views were directed towards Longbourn instead of my own neighbourhood, where I can assure you there are many amiable young women. But the fact is, that being, as I am, to inherit this estate after the death of your honoured father (who, however, may live many years longer), I could not satisfy myself without resolving to choose a wife from among his daughters, that the loss to them might be as little as possible, when the melancholy event takes place—which, however, as I have already said, may not be for several years. This has been my motive, my fair cousin, and I flatter myself it will not sink me in your esteem. And now nothing remains for me but to assure you in the most animated language of the violence of my affection. To fortune I am perfectly indifferent, and shall make no demand of that nature on your father, since I am well aware that it could not be complied with; and that one thousand pounds in the four per cents, which will not be yours till after your mother's decease, is all that you may ever be entitled to. On that head, therefore, I shall be uniformly silent; and you may assure yourself that no ungenerous reproach shall ever pass my lips when we are married."

"You are too hasty, sir," she cried. "You forget that I have made no answer. Let me do it without further loss of time. Accept my thanks for the compliment you are paying me. I am very sensible of the honour of your proposals, but it is impossible for me to do otherwise than to decline them."

"I am not now to learn," replied Mr. Collins, with a formal wave of the hand, "that it is usual with young ladies to reject the addresses of the man whom they secretly mean to accept, when he first applies for their favour; and that sometimes the refusal is repeated a second, or even a third time. I am therefore by no means discouraged by what you have just said, and shall hope to lead you to the altar ere long."

"Upon my word, sir," cried Elizabeth, "your hope is a rather extraordinary one after my declaration. I do assure you that I am not one of those young ladies (if such young ladies there are) who are so daring as to risk their happiness on the chance of being asked a second time. I am perfectly serious in my refusal. You could not make me happy, and I am convinced that I am the last woman in the world who could make you so. Nay, were your friend Lady Catherine to know me, I am persuaded she would find me in every respect ill qualified for the situation."

"Were it certain that Lady Catherine would think so," said Mr. Collins very gravely—"but I cannot imagine that her ladyship would at all disapprove of you. And you may be certain when I have the honour of seeing her again, I shall speak in the very highest terms of your modesty, economy, and other amiable qualification."

"Indeed, Mr. Collins, all praise of me will be unnecessary. You must give me leave to judge for myself, and pay me the compliment of believing what I say. I wish you very happy and very rich, and by refusing your hand, do all in my power to prevent your being otherwise. In making me the offer, you must have satisfied the delicacy of your feelings with regard to my family, and may take possession of Longbourn estate whenever it falls, without any self-reproach. This matter may be considered, therefore, as finally settled." And rising as she thus spoke, she would have quitted the room, had Mr. Collins not thus addressed her:

"When I do myself the honour of speaking to you next on the subject, I shall hope to receive a more favourable answer than you have now given me; though I am far from accusing you of cruelty at present, because I know it to be the established custom of your sex to reject a man on the first application, and perhaps you have even now said as much to encourage my suit as would be consistent with the true delicacy of the female character."

"Really, Mr. Collins," cried Elizabeth with some warmth, "you puzzle me exceedingly. If what I have hitherto said can appear to you in the form of encouragement, I know not how to express my refusal in such a way as to convince you of its being one."

"You must give me leave to flatter myself, my dear cousin, that your refusal of my addresses is merely words of course. My reasons for believing it are briefly these: It does not appear to me that my hand is unworthy your acceptance, or that the establishment I can offer would be any other than highly desirable. My situation in life, my connections with the family of de Bourgh, and my relationship to your own, are circumstances highly in my favour; and you should take it into further consideration, that in spite of your manifold attractions, it is by no means certain that another offer of marriage may ever be made you. Your portion is unhappily so small that it will in all

likelihood undo the effects of your loveliness and amiable qualifications. As I must therefore conclude that you are not serious in your rejection of me, I shall choose to attribute it to your wish of increasing my love by suspense, according to the usual practice of elegant females."

"I do assure you, sir, that I have no pretensions whatever to that kind of elegance which consists in tormenting a respectable man. I would rather be paid the compliment of being believed sincere. I thank you again and again for the honour you have done me in your proposals, but to accept them is absolutely impossible. My feelings in every respect forbid it. Can I speak plainer? Do not consider me now as an elegant female, intending to plague you, but as a rational creature, speaking the truth from her heart."

"You are uniformly charming!" cried he, with an air of awkward gallantry; "and I am persuaded that when sanctioned by the express authority of both your excellent parents, my proposals will not fail of being acceptable."

B. Mr. Darcy and Elizabeth (Chapter 34)

"In vain I have struggled. It will not do. My feelings will not be repressed. You must allow me to tell you how ardently I admire and love you."

"In such cases as this, it is, I believe, the established mode to express a sense of obligation for the sentiments avowed, however unequally they may be returned. It is natural that obligation should be felt, and if I could feel gratitude, I would now thank you. But I cannot—I have never desired your good opinion, and you have certainly bestowed it most unwillingly. I am sorry to have occasioned pain to anyone. It has been most unconsciously done, however, and I hope will be of short duration. The feelings which, you tell me, have long prevented the acknowledgment of your regard, can have little difficulty in overcoming it after this explanation."

"And this is all the reply which I am to have the honour of expecting! I might, perhaps, wish to be informed why, with so little endeavour at civility, I am thus rejected. But it is of small importance."

"I might as well inquire," replied she, "why with so evident a desire of offending and insulting me, you chose to tell me that you liked me against your will, against your reason, and even against your character? Was not this some excuse for incivility, if I was uncivil? But I have other provocations. You know I have. Had not my feelings decided against you—had they been indifferent, or had they even been favourable, do you think that any consideration would tempt me to accept the man who has been the means of ruining, perhaps for ever, the happiness of a most beloved sister?"

"I have every reason in the world to think ill of you. No motive can excuse the unjust and ungenerous part you acted there. You dare not, you cannot deny, that you have been the principal, if not the only means of dividing them from each other—of exposing one to the censure of the world for caprice and instability, and the other to its derision for disappointed hopes, and involving them both in misery of the acutest kind."

"Can you deny that you have done it?" she repeated.

With assumed tranquillity he then replied: "I have no wish of denying that I did everything in my power to separate my friend from your sister, or that I rejoice in my success. Towards him I have been kinder than towards myself."

"But it is not merely this affair," she continued, "on which my dislike is founded. Long before it had taken place my opinion of you was decided. Your character was unfolded in the recital which I received many months ago from Mr. Wickham. On this subject, what can you have to say? In what imaginary act of friendship can you here defend yourself? or under what misrepresentation can you here impose upon others?"

"You take an eager interest in that gentleman's concerns," said Darcy, in a less tranquil tone, and with a heightened colour.

"Who that knows what his misfortunes have been, can help feeling an interest in him?"

"His misfortunes!" repeated Darcy contemptuously; "yes, his misfortunes have been great indeed."

"And of your infliction," cried Elizabeth with energy. "You have reduced him to his present state of poverty—comparative poverty. You have withheld the advantages which you must know to have been designed for him. You have deprived the best years of his life of that independence which was no less his due than his desert. You have done all this! and yet you can treat the mention of his misfortune with contempt and ridicule."

"And this," cried Darcy, as he walked with quick steps across the room, "is your opinion of me! This is the estimation in which you hold me! I thank you for explaining it so fully. My faults, according to this calculation, are heavy indeed! But perhaps," added he, stopping in his walk, and turning towards her, "these offenses might have been overlooked, had not your pride been hurt by my honest confession of the scruples that had long prevented my forming any serious design. These bitter accusations might have been suppressed, had I, with greater policy, concealed my struggles, and flattered you into the belief of my being impelled by unqualified, unalloyed inclination; by reason, by reflection, by everything. But disguise of every sort is my abhorrence. Nor am I ashamed of the feelings I related. They were natural and just. Could you expect me to rejoice in the inferiority of your connections?—to congratulate myself on the hope of relations, whose condition in life is so decidedly beneath my own?"

"You are mistaken, Mr. Darcy, if you suppose that the mode of your declaration affected me in any other way, than as it spared me the concern which I might have felt in refusing you, had you behaved in a more gentlemanlike manner."

"You could not have made the offer of your hand in any possible way that would have tempted me to accept it."

"From the very beginning—from the first moment, I may almost say—of my acquaintance with you, your manners, impressing me with the fullest belief of your arrogance, your conceit, and your selfish disdain of the feelings of others, were such as to form the groundwork of disapprobation on which succeeding events have built so immovable a dislike; and I had not known you a month before I felt that you were the last man in the world whom I could ever be prevailed on to marry."

"You have said quite enough, madam. I perfectly comprehend your feelings, and have now only to be ashamed of what my own have been. Forgive me for having taken up so much of your time, and accept my best wishes for your health and happiness."

C. Mr. Darcy and Elizabeth (Chapter 58)

"If you will thank me," he replied, "let it be for yourself alone. That the wish of giving happiness to you might add force to the other inducements which led me on, I shall not attempt to deny. But your family owe me nothing. Much as I respect them, I believe I thought only of you."

Elizabeth was too much embarrassed to say a word. After a short pause, her companion added, "You are too generous to trifle with me. If your feelings are still what they were last April, tell me so at once. My affections and wishes are unchanged, but one word from you will silence me on this subject for ever."

Book Review

Research Methods in Linguistics

by Litosseliti, Lia (Ed.), London, Continuum, 2010,

 ix + 227 pp., $30.00 (paperback), ISBN: 9780826489937

Saksit Saengboon

Placed at the center of the "contents" section in this book is the word "issues." It is this very word that piqued my interest in this research book. This is because researching a discipline necessitates problematizing it and researching linguistics is no exception. Linguistics and its allies such as applied linguistics, second language acquisition, World Englishes and the like are issues— sometimes straightforward, oftentimes quite contentious—that students in the fields could find daunting. However, this volume should help them develop informed understanding of the fields with relative ease.

The book is divided into three major sections: Part I: Issues, consisting of two chapters; Part II: Quantitative and Corpus Research Methods, consisting of three chapters; and Part III: Qualitative Research Methods, consisting of five chapters.

Each of the chapters is preceded by "Chapter Outline" that is detailed enough for novice researchers such as graduate students to gradually formalize key concepts involved. Written in a reader-friendly language, the chapters are relatively easy to follow.

Chapter 1 focuses on research questions in Linguistics, which is very appropriate because which research design to employ will ordinarily rely on the nature of one's research question(s). How to formulate successful research questions is discussed in this chapter. In fact, discussing research questions right up front, in my opinion, serves as an apt prequel to research agenda.

Chapter 2 addresses the nuts and bolts of mixed methods, combining both quantitative and qualitative designs. This is very practical; issues in linguistics and language-related studies for that matter, call for integrated methods involving numbers and narratives, especially when dealing with language in use.

Chapters 3 and 4 are intended as sequels to Chapter 1 because the authors discuss key concepts, frameworks and how to organize and process collected data. Here, readers will find very useful techniques as well as pitfalls to be guarded against when analyzing data.

Chapter 5, which is about corpus methods in Linguistics, suitably represents the current trend in language analysis. The author not only discusses the basics of corpus methods but also

provides detailed explanations of procedures involved in corpus data analysis, followed by a list of references in this burgeoning field of linguistics.

Chapter 6, discourse-analytic approaches to text and talk, provides the historical background of the emergence of "...the study of real samples of speech and writing.." (p. 117), discussing a turning point from Chomskyan Linguistics to today's more "human" Linguistics. Peppered throughout with examples of interaction at the discoursal level, the chapter ends with critical discourse analysis (CDA), attesting to the fact that language is never devoid of power.

Chapter 7 extends the discourse community of text and talk to the next level of speech community. It discusses the intricacies of linguistic ethnography, recapitulating the close connection between language and culture of a people.

Chapter 8 deals primarily with interviews and focus groups, emphasizing the fact that language use must necessarily involve how people go about constructing social realities. In the chapter, readers will be able to appreciate the logic of the research interview, including the issues of reliability and validity through words.

Multimodal analysis is the focus of Chapter 9. After briefly discussing the operational definition of multimodality, the authors not only explains the ways and means of this research method but also points out potentials and limitations of this research design. Those interested in social semiotic theory of communication will find this chapter a succinct recapitulation of multimodality.

Last but not least, Chapter 10 revolves around narrative analysis in linguistic research. Focusing on sociolinguistic manifestations and discursive constructions of various strands of social processes, the author methodically discusses "...a step-by-step procedure for designing and analyzing [narrative] networks" (p. 199).

In conclusion, this manuscript is a most practical text for those new to research in Linguistics; it provides a panoramic view of linguistic research procedures. The editor of this volume explicitly mentions in the Introduction that this book is "...an essential up-to-date one-stop resource for researchers and graduate students" (p. 1). Readers will find that the chapters live up to this proclaimed practicality.

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