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

# Editor's Note

To ensure our commitment to make *NIDA Journal of Language and Communication* an academic space addressing the interplay between language and communication, we have done our best to meet the tier 1 quality assessment criteria set by Thai-Journal Citation Index Centre (TCI) for the past 3 years. Next year, we are planning to take one step further by submitting our journal to be indexed in the ASEAN Citation Index (ACI) system. This process will thereby require a more rigorous approach to our operational procedures and we definitely need our contributors' understanding and cooperation as there will subsequently be changes in our submission policy, manuscript reviewing and publishing frameworks. We will keep you updated about the development as soon as all necessary preparation steps for this transition are set in place.

All seven articles selected for this issue represent the current research interests in language and communication. The first article, *Andragogy: A Workplace Business English Course*, authored by Ketkanda Jaturongkachoke and Supamit Chanseawrassamee, discusses the career benefits of adult language learning and the increasing importance of the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) as a popular assessment form of English language proficiency in ASEAN countries. Following 19 Thai telecommunication enterprise employees having taken the 15-month-in-house English training courses, this paper studies the employees' reflection on the training courses and their struggles for achieving higher English proficiency scores through questionnaires and student evaluation forms. The study suggests that workers' commitment to improving their English skills is not only motivated by their lifelong learning attitude, but also driven by their employers' recognition of the global competitiveness making the employment of workers whose English skills meet the international standard an urgent necessity.

The second article, *Expectations and Satisfaction of EFL Learners at an International University in Thailand*, written by Adisorn Vinitwatanakhun, explores hypothetical variables influencing the satisfaction of 152 students taking English courses offered by the Institute for English Language Education (IELE). Using self-administered questionnaires, this paper suggests that there is no direct correlation between the students' level of satisfaction and the students' levels of language proficiency. However, Adisorn argues that the Institute's grading and testing system as well as additional academic support and customer services can increase the overall satisfaction and positively lead to a comparative advantage of the educational provider whilst facing fierce competition from other institutions.

Kornkamol Waiyaraphutra and M.L. Jirapa Abhakorn co-author the third article, *Conversation Analysis of Thai Politicians' Answers during Television News Interviews*, examining the ways in which Thai politicians discursively design their responses to interview questions by broadcast journalists. Analyzing live interviews of five candidates for the Bangkok governor election in 2013 through conversation analysis approach, Kornkamol and Jirapa's research discovers that the candidates employ a range of discursive techniques including obligation, confirmation and evasion depending on the positive or negative relevance of the concerning questions to the politicians' personal issues. Using the conversation analytical method, this article epistemologically highlights the power relationships between the conversational interactants on the way in which the asymmetry of power predetermined by the institutional norms can be achieved, challenged, negotiated, and maintained.

Suthinun Chanthatira and Kasma Suwanarak study the needs of English usage of the Thai caddies working in a golf course in Ban Chang district, Rayong province in order to design a required English training course catering specifically for their career-oriented purposes in the fourth article, *Perceived Problems and Needs of English Usage of Thai Caddies*. Through a questionnaire combining open-ended and close-ended questions, this research suggests that the English usage needs of these caddies include English for general purposes and English for specific purposes. In addition, Suthinun and Kasma highlight that the listening and speaking skills are particularly essential as the proficiency of these skills directly affect their work performance whilst writing and reading skills which are considered less important.

Aiming to develop speaking lessons based on genre approach, the fifth article, *Developing English Speaking Ability for Historical-Information Communication from Lessons based on Genre Approach for Thai EFL Adolescent Learners*, written by Patspat Praneenararat, probes the feasibility of using the information-report speaking practices to improve the speaking ability of Thai EFL adolescent learners. Through the close observation of 17 English-major undergraduate students in the real classroom situations, Patspat maintains that the speaking tasks indubitably engage learners in developing their speaking skills although there is little evidence showing the direct correlation between the speaking practices and the increased speaking proficiency. The study, nevertheless, proves that this approach to designing speaking lessons is beneficial as it provides logical supports and can also be used as a type of analytical interpretation in making argument for learners.

*Intergenerational Variation in Lawua (Bo Luang Dialect)*, the sixth article, written by Rakkhun Panyawuthakrai, studies the phonological and lexical variation of *Lawua*, Bo Luang variety, an indigenous language spoken among the Lawua people, an ethnic minority group in Chiang Mai, Thailand. The study finds that Lawua of Bo Luang dialect varies according to different speakers of different age groups : old aged, middle aged, and young aged. Rakkhun also observes in this study the ubiquitous

influence of Central Thai and Northern Thai varieties onto both phonological and lexical shifts among younger generations of Lawua speakers.

The seventh article, *Exploring Chinese and Korean Non-native English-speaking Teachers' Perceptions of Their Beliefs and Values in ELT*, authored by J. Jaime Chung, investigates the perceptions of Chinese and Korean non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) teaching English at private after-school academies. Living and working in societies where English is regarded as an integrated part of success, theses teachers are found to have been influenced by the pervasive neoliberal ideologies rendering academic attainment as a market commodity. Whilst recognizing their socially disadvantaged position as being non-native English teachers, NNEST are found to have been pressured to regard their knowledge and know-hows as skilled commodities and thereby treat students and parents as consumers.

This issue also includes a review of one of a must-read introductory text for beginners of language study. Jaray Singhakowinta presents a detailed outline of Claire Kramsch's *Language and Culture* (2016/1998, reprint), pointing out to the book's accessible approaches to reading rather complex language and cultural theories. Being Concise and descriptive, this book, according to Jaray, follows the familiar constructionist approach to language study.

As the editor in chief, I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to all of this issue contributors for their thought provoking manuscripts enriching our understanding of the interplay between language and communication. Since this issue is also the last issue under my editorship, I would like to thank our readers and our staff at the graduate school of language and communication, NIDA, whose continuous support to this journal is highly appreciated. Thank you very much.

Jaray Singhakowinta, Ph.D.

Editor in Chief

# Contents

# Andragogy: A Workplace Business English Course

**Ketkanda Jaturongkachoke, Supamit Chanseawrassamee**

## Abstract

It has been complicated and protracted process to develop an English course for the specific purpose termed *andragogy* for adult learning. With the growing importance of the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) in the ASEAN labor market, Thai employees have to develop themselves so that they can be compatible with new recruits and/or other ASEAN workers, suppliers and coordinators who arrive in Thailand with high English proficiency. At academic settings presently, not only professors but also personnel are encouraged to improve their English skills and demonstrate their high English proficiency. Likewise, at an enterprise with almost 20,000 people such as *Company A*, its employees need to adjust to handle such changes. This 1.5 year study was thus conducted in order to show how 19 employees at a leading Thai telecommunication enterprise struggled to achieve their English competence. The TOEIC score progress is shown and analyzed together with the respondents' answers to the questionnaire and participant evaluation form. The findings revealed a wealth of optimistic feedback, whereas their individual levels of success varied. From the 19 employees, only nine attained the course requirements and were permitted to take the real test at the Educational Testing Service (ETS) center. The highest score was 840/990, while the lowest score was 455.

**Keywords:** Business English, Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), Thai adult learners

## บทคัดย่อ

การสร้างหลักสูตรภาษาอังกฤษเฉพาะทางสำหรับผู้เรียนรู้โดยเฉพาะผู้ใหญ่วัยทำงานที่เรียกใน ภาษาอังกฤษว่า*andragogy* เป็นเรื่องที่ซับซ้อนและไม่สิ้นสุด ในขณะที่การสอบภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อการสื่อสาร ระหว่างชาติหรือโทอิค (Test of English for International Communication – TOEIC) มีความสำคัญเพิ่ม มากขึ้นเรื่อยๆในตลาดแรงงานของอาเซียน พนักงาน/ลูกจ้างชาวไทยจำต้องพัฒนาตนเองเพื่อจะได้สามารถมี คุณสมบัติที่สอดคล้องกับการว่าจ้างงานและ/หรือสามารถทำงานร่วมกับพนักงาน/ลูกจ้าง/ผู้จัดหาวัสดุ/ผู้ ประสานงาน ฯลฯ จากประเทศอื่นในอาเซียนซึ่งมาพร้อมกับความสามารถทางภาษาอังกฤษในระดับสูง ใน ปัจจุบันสถานศึกษา ทั้งอาจารย์และบุคลากรต่างได้รับการสนับสนุนให้พัฒนาและแสดงความสามารถทาง ภาษาอังกฤษให้เห็นเป็นที่ประจักษ์ เช่นเดียวกันในองค์กรที่มีพนักงานเกือบ 20,000 คนเช่นบริษัท A พนักงาน จำเป็นต้องพัฒนาตนเองเพื่อให้เข้ากับการเปลี่ยนแปลงดังกล่าวข้างต้น ด้วยเหตุนี้ผู้วิจัยทั้งสองจึงได้ดำเนินการ

ศึกษาวิจัยเป็นระยะเวลาหนึ่งปีครึ่งเพื่อดูว่าพนักงาน ณ บริษัทชั้นนำด้านโทรคมนาคมแห่งหนึ่งได้ดิ้นรนที่จะ
พัฒนาภาษาอังกฤษของตนได้อย่างไร โดยพิจารณาจากพัฒนาการของระดับคะแนนโทอิคควบคู่ไปกับการ
วิเคราะห์แบบสอบถามและแบบฟอร์มการประเมินหลักสูตร การศึกษาครั้งนี้แสดงให้เห็นผลสะท้อนกลับเชิง
บวกมากมาย ทั้งๆที่มีระดับความสำเร็จที่แตกต่างกัน จากนักเรียนทั้งหมดจำนวน 19 คน มีเพียง 9 คนที่ผ่าน
ข้อกำหนดตามหลักสูตรและสามารถเข้ารับการทดสอบโทอิคของจริง ณ ศูนย์ทดสอบของ Educational
Testing Service (ETS) ได้ คะแนนสูงสุดคือ 840/990 และคะแนนต่ำสุดคือ 455

**คำสำคัญ:** ภาษาอังกฤษธุรกิจ, การทดสอบภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อการสื่อสารระหว่างชาติหรือโทอิค (Test of
English for International Communication – TOEIC), นักเรียนภาษาอังกฤษในวัยทำงาน

## Introduction

Numerous state-owned companies in Thailand such as PTT, CAT Telecom, and TOT, as well as other state enterprises such as Bank of Thailand and Electricity Generating Authority of Thailand (EGAT) have increasingly used the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) as a prerequisite in recruitment. Similarly, many hospitals in Thailand, for example, Bumrungrad International, have used the TOEIC Listening and Reading test to evaluate their employees' English-language proficiency. Such tests are also used to assist these hospitals to identify staff in need of English training programs. Bumrungrad, LG Group and Siam Cement Group (SCG) for instance have used the same test to measure the English proficiency of their employees and to make informed training. For PTT, SCG, and LG Group, the test results are also used for making promotion decisions. These examples confirmed that such a demand for high English proficiency has driven not only new graduates but also existing employees to learn English in a more practical and purposeful way in the occupational realm. For more successful stories or TOEIC, visit the website: http://www.ets.org/toeic/successes. However, Company A in this study does not use TOEIC score in their promotion policy. The score requirement for new recruits is only 450, which is quite low when compared to other smaller companies.

To cope with societal changes, Fishman (1972) stated that employment is one area in which multilingual competence is required and influenced by behavioral norms of people in a certain community. According to Fishman, multilingual usage depends on "sociolinguistic variation" rather than accounting for an individual's personal interactions (p. 450). He discusses multilingual competence as a language choice with respect to "domains," for example, family, friendship, education, religion, and *employment* (p. 445). Similarly, Tucker (1998) observed that foreign languages are usually taught at different stages in school for economic and occupational reasons (p. 8). As English education for employment is the target of this study, it is interesting to know whether or not the course is successful and how.

Countless academic institutions have offered courses such as academic writing, English for occupation, Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), and TOEIC, and so do in-house training centers. At Company A under observation in this study,

employees were trained to use English in business conduct with foreign customers, suppliers, and coordinators. As a consequence, they were enthusiastic to learn English for their occupational purposes. Despite their self-motivation, it is appealing to know their advancement and comments throughout the year and a half. Such comments can help educators, researchers, and instructors to learn more about adult learners, their underlying motives, and prospects. Before delving into the specifics of the study, it is worth discussing the definition and significance of andragogy.

## Principles of "Andragogy"

"Andragogy" is a mixture of the Greek prefix "andro-," which means "man," and the Greek suffix "-gogy," which means "teaching." Combined, the word refers to the techniques and practices of instructing adult learners (Knowles, 1983; Crandall & Peyton, 1993). The word was spelt differently to "androgogy" in Nunan (1999, p. 15), which slightly deviated from that of Knowles (1983). Such methods were primarily found in the works of several theorists including Brundage and Macheracher (1980), Knowles (1983), Crandall and Peyton (1993), Savage (1993), and Nunan (1999). Brundage and Macheracher (1980) conducted numerous research studies on adult learners and proposed some principles about adult learning. Importantly, adult learners have their own cognitive style; therefore, they will not react to an experience as the teacher presents it, but as they personally perceive it. They will not learn under pressure or overstimulation, either. As a saying goes, "It is hard to teach an old dog new tricks." Nonetheless, as adult learners tend to learn well only matter related to their past or life experiences, present concerns, and future hopes, it is the teacher's duty to find the contents and materials that will help them develop their English competence. Andragogy must be related to adult learners' real-life expectation and immediate needs in the situation or society they are in (Crandall & Peyton, 1993, p. 5). As it seems rigid for the instructors to set the standards and objectives for these adult learners to reach, the instructor in this course informed the students of the necessity of TOEIC in the current labor market. Newcomers at Company A, at the time when this study was being conducted, were required to have at least 450 TOEIC score. As a result, the TOEIC was discussed, a score of 450 was set as the minimum target, TOEIC success stories were exemplified (http://www.ets.org/toeic/successes), and real test experiences were shared.

## Methodology

*A. Nature of the Business English Course at Company A*

At the company where the present study was conducted, the Business English course was provided for company's employees. The course was divided into three levels: basic, intermediate, and advanced, totaling 330 hours. The Basic Business English course lasted 15 weeks or 90 hours. The class ran every Thursday between 9 am and 4 pm. The Intermediate and Advanced course lasted 20 weeks each (120

hours/course). There were 26, 23, and 19 participants at the basic, intermediate, and advanced series, respectively.

The Basic Business English course in the present study was provided between October 3 and March 6, 2014. The Intermediate Business English course ran from June 12 to November 27, 2014. The Advanced course started on February 15 and finished on July 16, 2015. The three-series course took approximately 1.5 years in total.

## B. Nature of the Textbook

For the basic course, the participants were assigned three books to read as follows: *English for Business Studies* (3rd edition) by Ian MacKenzie (2010); *Grammar for Business* by Michael McCarthy, Jeanne McCarten, David Clark, and Rachel Clark (2009); and *Business Vocabulary in Use: Elementary and Pre-intermediate* by Bill Mascull (2010). *Intelligent Business Coursebook: Upper intermediate Business English* by Tonya Trappe and Graham Tullis (2006) and *Business Vocabulary in Use: Intermediate* by Bill Mascull (2010) were chosen for both intermediate and advanced levels. The difficulties and complication of the two latter books allowed the participants to learn and read for almost a year. Furthermore, to familiarize the students with TOEIC, they were asked to read *Essential Words for the TOEIC* by Barron (4th edition) during the intermediate and advanced levels.

Each day, students read the main textbook *English for Business Studies* for the basic class and *Intelligent Business Coursebook: Upper intermediate Business English* for the intermediate and advanced classes. They must actively participate in all class activities including listening to the audiotape accompanying the textbook, speaking by giving a presentation or meeting, reading the textbook, and writing an essay or email or press release according to the textbook.

## C. Nature of the Participants

All the informants were working for a telecommunication company at the time of the investigation. The company has provided its in-house English courses at its training center for over 30 years. The participants in the study could access the free course by applying for a seat online via the company website, however, the applicants need permission from their manager to attend. Their manager's signature must be included in the application form. For the 19 informants at the advanced level, ages ranged from 31 to 56, with an average of 48.5 years.

As the number of participants in each course varied primarily due to to their job schedules, the number decreased from 26 at the basic level to 23 in the intermediate and 19 in the advanced course. The questionnaire was administered during the intermediate level; as a result, there were 23 respondents at the time. From 23 students, there were 4 males and 19 females. Their fields of studies included public administration, international business, business administration, general management, economics, information technology management, electrical communication engineering, telecommunication management, marketing, business computer, laws and management, accounting, public and private administration, finance, as well as banking and finance.

Among these informants, 19 had obtained their master's degree, while the other four held their bachelor's degree.

### D. Nature of the Questionnaire

As the participants would be given an evaluation form at the end of each course, the researchers decided to distribute the questionnaire on November 6, 2014—after the basic course and during the last month of the intermediate course. There were two parts of the short questionnaire. The first part garnered the demographic information of each participant, i.e., gender, age, highest education, and field of studies. In the second part (open-ended question part), they were asked whether or not they felt the course (after 210 hours at the time) was useful to them. After that, they were asked to provide some more explanations. Prompts were provided to encourage them to think in an all-around manner. For instance, they were asked "What benefits did they get from the courses, e.g., grammatical rules, vocabulary words?" They should explicate more about whether or not, for example, they could read faster. They were also asked how the two courses applied to their jobs and to provide examples to support their answers and opinions. The results are presented and discussed in detail in *Findings and Discussion*.

### E. Nature of the Student Evaluation Form

Students were asked to complete an evaluation form at the end of each course. They had to assess the five factors in the course comprising: (1) course objective, (2) design and duration, (3) facilities, (4) textbooks and materials, and (5) instructor. Each factor is further divided into sub-topics. For instance, for course objective, the score is derived from three areas: (1) Is the course objective clearly explained? Are the course contents consistent with the course objectives? Are the course contents as expected?

For the design and duration, students had to evaluate the methods used in the course. They had to assess how interesting and appropriate the instructional methods, the activities, the lessons, and duration are. For facilities, respondents had to evaluate six domains: the course convenience, environment, location, equipment availability and performance, public relations, and registration facilitation. For the materials and textbooks, participants had to show their satisfaction level in terms of content and clarity. Lastly, instructors had to be able to clearly delineate the course objectives and efficiently transfer their knowledge and experiences. Also, they had to correctly sequence the lessons, precisely answer students' questions, strongly encourage students to participate in class activities, wisely manage time, and succinctly summarize the contents.

The full score of each factor is 5.00. The meaning of each score range is as follows:

1.00 – 1.50 means Least / Need Improvement,

1.51 – 2.50 means Less / Need Improvement,

2.51 – 3.50 means Neutral / Fair,

3.51 – 4.50 means Much / Good, and

4.51 – 5.00 means Very Much / Very Good.

**Findings and Discussion**

*A. Qualitative Results Based on the Questionnaire*

The questionnaires were distributed to 23 students and all were returned. All respondents agreed that they gained some benefits from the 210-hour basic and intermediate courses. Unfortunately, most of them discussed the benefits overall, not separately. Therefore, it is quite difficult for the researchers to separate the answers into grammatical, vocabulary, organizational, etc. domains as they wished. As the overall picture of the feedback appeared in much the same vein, an abundance of positive feedback found in the open-ended question can be roughly divided into three advantages: (1) English skill development, (2) beneficial impact of their English learning upon their work, and (3) impact on the scores, as follows:

*English skill development*
- I can understand English movies on YouTube, read newspaper articles, and translate from Thai into English and vice versa. I can write without thinking for a long time.
- I learn to develop and enhance all four English skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Particularly, writing lesson gives me interesting techniques, such as grammar, sentence structure, revision, etc.
- I know that all improvements come from me. Thanks to the instructors' patience and encouragement, I move on bit by bit. Now my vocabulary and grammar become better.
- I think the most important benefit I got from these classes is guilt. If I cannot do anything, I feel guilty and want to work harder to be able to do it better. In addition to the feeling to learn more, I become more orderly in my daily life. I try to use English every day. I feel thankful to my instructor as she is a good driver and encourager. Without her, I could not have come thus far.
- I can practice all the four skills: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. I have been always encouraged to learn more and more English.

Indeed, all the four skills—speaking, listening, reading, and writing—must be taught in a meaningful way. Of course, vocabulary and grammar must be taught simultaneously. Others went beyond merely their English proficiency enhancement to the effect on their career progress.

*Beneficial impact of their English learning upon their work*
- The greater grammatical understanding enabled me to write and read better. Giving the presentation in English benefits my work. My listening skills are also better. I have a good chance to enhance my vocabulary repository.
- My listening and reading skills are getting much better. I gain more confidence in my writing and my work. I can talk with foreigners with more confidence than I used to be. I can understand English-language news and can sing English songs along. I can read with proper pauses. The sound-track movies become more

understandable to me. I can read English-language newspapers in a more understandable manner.
- I know more vocabulary words used in daily life. I can translate English documents for my boss. I can read and understand English articles better. I can even give some suggestions about English usage to other colleagues. I have more confidence in my English proficiency. I am so proud of myself and my English skills.
- My knowledge of business vocabulary and grammar has been improved. I can write email in English in an effective manner.
- I'm responsible for writing English specifications and Term of Reference (TOR). My English skills—e.g. grammar, writing, reading, and speaking—become much better than before. I become more confident in my work compared to what I had done before. Sometimes, I even want to improve my previous work. Despite my good progress, I think there are more areas of English that I need to improve, especially when AEC becomes more powerfully effective.
- These courses do not only allow me to gain vast varieties of English skill improvement, but also enable me to know how to apply the knowledge to my company's business. I can write good English emails, understand English-language programs, and communicate with foreigners. Group work also encourages me to learn together and to help each other.
- I can use the knowledge for my work such as the company's websites by searching and reading English-language websites.
- Before I join these classes, I knew nothing about English. After taking the business courses, I know more vocabulary and grammar. Now I can use such knowledge in my job at my company. Learning here encouraged me to want to know more about English. Even though I can move on slowly, I promise to try harder.

*The significance of the TOEIC as the driving force.*
*Impact on the scores*
- With the knowledge and techniques given by the instructor, I have more chances to read, listen to, and write. My English skills have developed without my noticing. When being evaluated, I can feel that my scores get better. I also learn my gap and try to fill it so that I can apply all the knowledge to my work.
- The two courses made me improve my English skills in all four domains: speaking, listening, reading, and writing. I received the knowledge of both vocabulary and grammar. An experience in taking the TOEIC test made me know my real English proficiency level. This made me know how and in what area I need to improve. I can apply the knowledge gained from these two courses to my work well and appropriately as I need English in working.

These comments apparently support the andragogy theorists, e.g., Brundage and Macheracher (1980), Knowles (1983), Crandall and Peyton (1993), Savage (1993), and Nunan (1999), that adult learners can make good learning progress if the circumstances fit their needs and the topics are of interest or benefit to them. By their nature, adult learners tend to learn when relevant to their current situation or distant, unfulfilled wish.

As Nunan (1999) put it, "Adults learn best when the content is personally relevant to past experience or present concerns and the learning process is relevant to life experiences" (p. 15). Likewise, for adult learners, "…learning should be directly related to application" (Savage, 1993, p. 19).

In this study, the course contents were of interest to the participants because they, more or less, could be beneficial to the tasks at hand. In the researchers' opinion, the course can be assessed "Very Good" because, based on the respondents' answers reported above, the course places a great emphasis on how to apply theories into practice. In other words, students are taught how to incorporate vocabulary and grammar into their four skills—speaking, reading, listening, and writing—at work.

### B. Quantitative Results Based on the Student Evaluation Form

At the end of each course—basic, intermediate, and advanced—students were asked to fill in an evaluation form. The results were then calculated based on the system of 5.00 full score. As mentioned earlier, students had to perform the course evaluation in five areas: (1) course objective, (2) design and duration, (3) facilities, (4) textbooks and materials, and (5) instructor. The summary of the results of the three-course series is shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary of the Course Evaluation Results

| Description \ Course | Course Objective | Design & Duration | Facilities | Textbooks & Materials | Instructor | Average |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Basic** | 4.71 | 4.78 | 4.17 | 4.75 | 4.92 | **4.67** |
| **Intermediate** | 4.88 | 4.88 | 4.57 | 4.89 | 4.93 | **4.83** |
| **Advanced** | 4.80 | 4.82 | 4.15 | 4.94 | 4.97 | **4.74** |
| **Average** | 4.80 | 4.83 | 4.30 | 4.86 | 4.94 | **4.75** |

Overall, the three course were assessed as *Very Good* based on the score averages. From the open-ended questions, however, there were some explanations for the score above.

At the *basic* level, the students were of the opinion that the contents were very good. There should be some manuals or handbooks for other employees as well. The course duration and facilities were appropriate. However, as the textbooks needed to be returned to the company library, it would not be easy for them to review, reuse, or refer to the books in the future. The instructor was nice and approachable, and took good care of her students. With good knowledge transfer ability and lecture skills, the students were able to enhance their knowledge and understanding of business English well. They also had some complaints about the microphones; there should have been a technician to check the audio-visual equipment before class commenced, resulting in the lower score for *facilities* compared to the other factors. The satisfaction level achieved 4.67/5.00 for the intermediate course.

At the intermediate level, students were of the opinion that the contents, lessons, and duration were appropriate. Specifically, the lessons could be applied to their duties

and responsibilities. The instructor could transfer their knowledge well, enabling participants to gain more knowledge and understanding. The facilities were properly provided, though the visualizer and projector did not work well and sometimes the air-conditioner did not work effectively. The textbooks should be given to participants rather than returned to the library. The satisfaction level achieved 4.83/5.00 for the intermediate course.

At the advanced level, participants commented that the course was a good and could be applied to their daily interactions. The instructor could lecture well, was knowledgeable, and enabled students to understand English better. The facilities were appropriately provided. The mentioned that the course then should be continued further. Some respondents asked the Academy to improve the air-conditioning, notebook, toilet, and refreshments. The satisfaction level for the advanced course achieved 4.74/5.00.

Even though the average score of the three courses were 4.75, at the *Very Good* level, this does not mean that the course was without imperfections. There were many dimensions that could be improved, especially the classroom and its facilities.

Of course, the student questionnaire in combination with student evaluation form allows for the betterment of the course. Furthermore, such resources enable the instructor to raise the students' TOEIC scores. With regard to the greater significance of TOEIC, the findings can help other instructors to increase their students' TOEIC scores and thus increase participants' job opportunities and aid in their career development.

## C. Quantitative Results Based on the Students' TOEIC

Foe the development of a course, results must be measurable. For the current study, the course was not assessed only by the student evaluation form, but also measured by their TOEIC scores. The Business English course at the training center of Company A is a mixed-ability class. In other words, students joined the class with different levels of English proficiency. There were insufficient students—not over 30— to divide the students into smaller classes according to their English proficiency. To encourage them to learn, a rewarding system was applied. For more information regarding the rewarding system, see Chanseawrassamee (2012), and for effects of in-class feedback, see Jaturongkachoke and Chanseawrassamee (2013 & 2014).

Furthermore, any student who could exceed 700 points in their TOEIC practice in class would be fully funded to take a real TOEIC test at the ETS center on Asoke-Dindaneg Road in Bangkok. Throughout the three courses taking place from June 12, 2014 to July 16, 2015, there were nine students out of 19 (the number at the end of the course) who took the test with the following scores. For students who took more than one test, whether before or after, their scores are shown in Table 2 for comparison.

Table 2. Comparison of TOEIC Scores of TOEIC Test Takers

| Student No. | 1st Test Date | Score | 2nd Test Date | Score |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Nov 5, 2013 | 785 | Dec 3, 2014 | 840 |
| 2. | Nov 5, 2013 | 635 | Oct 25, 2014 | 755 |
| 3. | May 9, 2014 | 720 | Aug 21, 2015 | 715 |
| 4. | Nov 5, 2013 | 530 | - | - |
| 5. | Nov 5, 2013 | 620 | - | - |
| 6. | Nov 5, 2013 | 530 | - | - |
| 7. | Nov 5, 2013 | 505 | - | - |
| 8. | Nov 5, 2013 | 530 | - | - |
| 9. | Nov 5, 2013 | 455 | - | - |

Four students had scores over 600 TOEIC. Of those who took the test twice, their scores remained stable or improved. Based on Company A's rules for newcomers who must pass A TOEIC score OF 450, the nine students' from this class were deemed "Pass." Students numbered 4 to 9 are still studying (at the time of writing), as a consequence, it will be interesting to learn whether or not these students can improve their scores.

There were two males out of these nine test takers; consequently, gender was not deemed a significant variable in this study and no gender differences were further examined. Interestingly, all test takers had received their master's degree.

**Conclusions, Recommendations, and Limitations**

The study can show the benefits of adult learning and the importance of English competence. In terms of academic values, the findings could support lifelong learning and how a person could attempt to achieve a difficult but positive goal such as learning the English language. Moreover, the results are valuable in terms of both the helping the employer develop future plans and increasing the company's productivity.

To teach students to make progress in their English studies requires a great deal of support. Textbooks, materials, facilities, and instructors should be well prepared for the betterment and success of the course. Teaching adults can be useful and productive if the lessons closely relate to the learners' expectations and jobs. Handling changes in terms of standardized tests such as TOEIC should be supported with a reward system that has clear goals. In this case, several respondents asserted that the TOEIC scores encouraged them to learn, be more enthusiastic, and try harder.

The English course should become more content-based. The textbook does not only present grammar and vocabulary lessons in a meaningful manner but also enables learners to apply the contents into their daily interactions in the English language. With good insertion of grammar and vocabulary lessons, learners can make significant

progress. In these classes, grammar and vocabulary teaching and learning was not considered by the students to be boring.

The holding of a degree may be a factor in the progress made in English by students during the course, as master's degree graduates may have higher self-motivation than those with only a bachelor's degree. As the number of informants is small, there should be more studies conducted with different and larger groups.

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# Expectations and Satisfaction of EFL Learners at an International University in Thailand

**Adisorn Vinitwatanakhun**

## Abstract

It has been widely accepted that educational institutions have the characteristics of a service industry. Thus, it is not surprising that principles of marketing, management, and service quality have been adopted to attain a sustainable competitive advantage. To survive and stay competitive in the higher education market, educational institutions need to embrace the concept of stakeholder satisfaction, specifically student satisfaction, as not only does it contribute to profitability, but also reputation. Measuring student satisfaction, therefore, is paramount. This study focused on the relationships between the level of English language proficiency and the learners' satisfaction. Also, the present study was conducted to ascertain which variables could determine the overall satisfaction. The research instrument used is a questionnaire, and the sample size was 152 participants who took English courses offered by the Institute for English Language Education (IELE). It was found that the level of satisfaction rated by students with different levels of language proficiency did not statistically differ. Moreover, the findings revealed that the grading and testing system and academic support and services were positively related to overall satisfaction. Therefore, the IELE and Assumption University (AU) should improve both variables in order to markedly gain a competitive advantage in the industry.

**Keywords:** student satisfaction, stakeholder satisfaction, EFL

## บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยนี้ มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อ 1) ศึกษาความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างระดับทักษะภาษาอังกฤษและระดับความพึงพอใจของนักศึกษา 2) ศึกษาความสัมพันธ์ระหว่าง การเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ การวัดผล งานบริการทางวิชาการ และความพึงพอใจของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ รูปแบบงานวิจัยคือการวิจัยเชิงการสำรวจ โดยใช้แบบสอบถาม ผู้วิจัยเก็บข้อมูลกับนักศึกษาที่ลงเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษจำนวน 152 คน จากการศึกษาพบว่า ระดับความพึงพอใจของนักศึกษาที่มีระดับทักษะภาษาอังกฤษไม่เท่ากัน ไม่มีความแตกต่างอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ นอกจากนี้ ผลงานวิจัยแสดงให้เห็นว่า ระบบการวัดผล และงานบริการวิชาการ มีความสัมพันธ์เชิงบวกอย่างมีนัยสำคัญกับความพึงพอใจโดยรวมของผู้เรียน ผลของงานวิจัยนี้ จะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อสถาบันการศึกษาภาษาอังกฤษ (IELE) และ มหาวิทยาลัยอัสสัมชัญ (AU) ในการพัฒนาการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ การวัดผล และงานบริการทางวิชาการ

**คำหลัก**: ความพึงพอใจของนักเรียน ความพึงพอใจของผู้มีส่วนได้เสีย  ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะเป็น
ภาษาต่างประเทศ

## Introduction

It is widely accepted in academia that students are customers of most, if not all, educational universities (Mustafa et al., 2012; Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013). Recent studies have shown that universities are facing fierce competition. One factor that helps a university remain competitive in the higher education market is student satisfaction, for there is a relationship between the willingness to pay tuition fee and rising expectations of the students (Maceli, Fogliasso, & Baack, 2011). It should be noted that high level of satisfaction has great impacts. Not only would learners be likely to graduate, which leads to low dropout rate, they tend to perform well in schools (Lee, 2014). In addition, positive word-of-mouth, which occurs when learners or customers spread information between one another about positive experiences, could greatly benefit the educational institution (Babin & Harris, 2012). Clearly, satisfaction provides universities an invaluable competitive advantage (Howell & Buck, 2012).

During the annual faculty seminar held on August 14th, 2014, Assumption University set its goal to increase the retention rate. Similarly to other scholars in this field, (Aldridge & Rowley, 1998; Howell & Buck, 2012; Mustafa et al., 2012) the administrators believed that maintaining existing customers, or students currently studying at the university, is more feasible than attracting new ones. For this reason, the researcher attempts to assess the present level of the stakeholders' satisfaction.

*Customer Satisfaction*

Babin and Harris (2012) describe Customer Satisfaction as a positive emotional state, as opposed to Customer Dissatisfaction. Advantages of Customer Satisfaction include loyalty to and positive word-of-mouth. According to Mustafa et al. (2012), satisfied customers act as agents of promotion, being influential and persuasive. Thus, customers' predetermined expectation as conceptualized in Expectancy/Disconfirmation theory plays an important role as its essence helps the service provider understand customer behavior, and hence cater excellent quality service (Hextall & Mahony, 1998; Babin & Harris, 2012). The authors state that when quality of products or services is higher than what the customers expect, positive disconfirmation occurs; on the contrary, when the quality or performance does not meet the customers' predetermined expectation, negative disconfirmation occurs.

*Student Satisfaction*

Jurkowitsch, Vignali, and Kaufmann (2006) introduce a student satisfaction model, said to have been conceptualized for several reasons. For instance, students are a part of the product development, and also transport the image of the academic institution. According to the model, teaching service, culture, environment, the general economic climate, learners' personality, and academic institution's marketing account for student satisfaction (Jurkowitsch, Vignali, & Kaufmann, 2006; Mooij, 2011).

Academic institution's success depends on its service quality since its characteristics are similar to that of a service industry (Mustafa et al., 2012). Thus, it is customers who both define and assess quality (Venetis & Ghauri, 2004). It is not surprising that many higher education institutions conduct evaluation regularly in order to understand stakeholders' needs (MacBeath, 1994; Mustafa et al., 2012).

Aldridge and Rowley (1998) assert that there are approaches to assess student satisfaction; however, the most effective approach is the one which measure the total university experience, as opposed to approaches that focus on one aspect such as classroom experience.

Quality of lecturer, feedback given to students, as well as lecturer-student relationship are crucial factors in measuring student satisfaction (Lee, 2014). However, they may not account for overall satisfaction (Wilkins & Balakrishnan, 2013). In order to better cater the high-quality services to students, other aspect should be taken into consideration. For instance, supporting units or non-teaching staff, library, and physical environment should be well-managed. According to Howell and Buck (2012), the conceptual framework regarding course satisfaction encompasses the aforementioned aspects: classroom experience, grading and testing, academic support and services, and expectation and overall satisfaction.

The relationships between overall satisfaction and English competency of international students have been studied (Phongsuwan, 1996; Naumnoi, 2008). Phongsuwan (1996) revealed that English language skills lead not only to satisfaction, specifically in an international university context, but also adaptation. Likewise, Nuamnoi (2008) states that students with higher proficiency of English language skills are likely to be more satisfied with the total university experience in comparison to those with lower proficiency.

Given that the contexts of each university differ, and very few studies on the relationships between satisfaction and English proficiency have been conducted over the last decade, the present study will explore such relationships at AU. In addition, it will focus on the total student experience: teaching and learning experience, grading and testing, academic support and services, all of which contribute to overall satisfaction.

*Purposes of the study*

The purposes of the study are to: (1) ascertain whether satisfaction scores rated by students with different levels of English proficiency differ; and (2) determine which variables significantly account for the overall satisfaction.

*Research Questions*

1) Do mean scores of satisfaction rated by students taking different English courses offered by IELE differ?
2) Is there a relationship between independent variables and overall satisfaction?

*Hypotheses*

1) There is no significant difference of satisfaction mean scores among students taking different English courses offered by IELE.
2) There is no correlation among variables and dependent variables.

## Methodology

*Participants, Materials and Procedure*

It is said that contexts of academic institutions vary, even in different divisions within the same institution (Aldridge & Rowley, 1998); thus, a research instrument should be specifically designed to both evaluate the level of stakeholder satisfaction of the particular unit as well as the satisfaction as a whole.

Participating students took one of the English courses offered by IELE in the first semester of academic year 2014 at AU. They were given a questionnaire a week before the final examination. After the questionnaire was filled in, they rated the level of satisfaction. Feedback by the participants to the researchers was encouraged, allowing the IELE and AU to see what is further needed from the wants of stakeholders. From 154 questionnaires given to students, 152 were completed and returned. This is a 98.7 percent response.

The questionnaire was developed from previous reports and studies (Aldridge & Rowley, 1998; Fredrickson, 2012; Howell & Buck, 2012; Methavasaraphak, Cheunsuksomboon, & Sinthanaporn, 2013; Lee, 2014). It consisted of 12 items to form a composite score for teaching and learning, 8 items to form a composite score for grading and testing, 3 items to form a composite score for academic support and services, and 5 items to form a composite score for expectation and overall satisfaction. The Likert scale was used to gauge the student satisfaction level. Scores were given as: 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = agree; 5 = strongly agree. Participants were strongly encouraged to fill in the open-ended section.

The collected data were then statistically analyzed. The computed mean scores determined the level of learners' satisfaction of each variable. Even though the five-point Likert scale was the research tool, the range of the data is 4. The mean scores, hence, should be interpreted as follows: 1.00-1.80 as 'very dissatisfied'; 1.81-2.60 as 'dissatisfied'; 2.61-3.40 as 'neutral'; 3.41-4.20 as 'satisfied'; and 4.21-5.00 as 'very satisfied'.

To test the first hypothesis, One-way ANOVA was used to compare means (Griffith, Stirling, & Welden, 1998). That is, the test compared means rated by students taking different English courses: English I, English II, English III, and English IV.
$H_0: \mu_{E1} = \mu_{E2} = \mu_{E3} = \mu_{E4}$

To test the second hypothesis, Multiple Linear Regression was used to ascertain if there was any relationship between independent variables and dependent variables (Devore & Peck, 1990). In other words, the test would determine whether or not teaching and learning, grading and testing system, and academic support and services were significant predictor variables.
$H_0: \beta_{TL} = \beta_{GT} = \beta_{ASS} = 0$

*Validity and Reliability*

The researcher asked experts to review the questionnaire to ensure that the items could measure what they were intended to. Cronbach's alpha is commonly used to measure internal consistency (Pittenger, 2003; Salkind, 2012). The alpha value determines the level of agreement among items in each construct, and to what extent the items in the same construct correlate with each other. The alpha value greater than

.70 indicates that the items are reliable (Brace, Kemp, & Snelgar, 2006; Fredrickson, 2012). The computed alpha values of teaching and learning, grading and testing system, academic support and services and overall satisfaction were .914, .875, .743, and .838, respectively. Hence, the items or statements within the same construct were highly interrelated.

## Findings and Discussion

The mean scores of teaching and learning, grading and testing system, academic support and services, and overall satisfaction were 4.44, 4.19, 3.73, and 4.23 respectively. Based on the data interpretation elaborated in the methodology section, learners were generally 'very satisfied' with teaching and learning, 'satisfied' with grading and testing system and academic support and services, and were 'very satisfied' with the overall experience.

Table 1: SPSS Output of One-way ANOVA

ANOVA

Overall Satisfaction

|  | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Between Groups | .290 | 3 | .097 | .311 | .817 |
| Within Groups | 46.038 | 148 | .311 |  |  |
| Total | 46.328 | 151 |  |  |  |

RQ1: Do mean scores of satisfaction rated by students taking different English courses offered by IELE differ?

As can be seen in Table 1, there was no difference between the level of satisfaction (mean scores) among students taking different English courses offered by IELE (p>.05). As the *p*-value was greater than .05, the study failed to reject the null hypothesis. Thus, it cannot be concluded that students with different English language proficiency are not equally satisfied with teaching and learning, grading and testing, and academic support and services.

Table 2: SPSS Output of Multiple Linear Regression's Coefficients

Coefficients

|  | Unstandardized Coefficients | | Standardized Coefficients | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Model | B | Std. Error | Beta | t | Sig. |
| 1    (Constant) | .683 | .327 |  | 2.09 | .038 |
| Teaching and Learning | .220 | .105 | .181 | 2.097 | .038 |
| Grading and Testing | .492 | .096 | .468 | 5.130 | .000 |
| Academic Support and Services | .136 | .050 | .175 | 2.703 | .008 |

RQ2: Is there a relationship between independent variables and overall satisfaction?

As shown in the output in Table 3, the null hypothesis was rejected (p<.01). There was indeed a strong relationship between grading and testing (p<.01), academic support and services (p<.01), and overall satisfaction. Since both beta coefficients were positive and statistically significant, it could be inferred that an increase in 1 score of grading and testing (beta = .468) would result in an increase in .468 while an increase in 1 score of academic support and services (beta = .175) would result in an increase in .175. Therefore, grading and testing had higher impact on satisfaction.

Following is the analysis of results based on the four themes. The interpretation of the scores would outline both areas that need improvement and strengths.

*Teaching and Learning*

The composite mean score of 4.4 indicated that the learners were 'very satisfied' with the teaching and learning. Three out of 12 items with the highest scores were related to the teachers: the ability to communicate with the participants, the ability to make the subject interesting, and the feedback on the participants' work. The mean scores were 4.63, 4.59, and 4.55, respectively. Indeed, the instructors were the strength of IELE. Nevertheless, as the responses from open-ended section were analyzed, some problems and suggested solutions arose.

Interestingly, there was one participant who claimed that there were some errors in the teaching materials and wished to have them corrected. The researcher was surprised at the remark as it was apparent that this learner was confident of his/her linguistic competence, enough to voice such opinion. The solution to this is to revise the teaching materials regularly.

Additionally, there was another remark about the teaching materials. Some participants wished to see more exercises in the textbook because they believed that practice makes perfect. This is in line with the researcher's most recent study (Vinitwatanakhun, 2014b). According to his findings, participants believed that exercises, samples of writing, and sample tests could facilitate their learning. The participants also suggested that IELE provide learners with an exercise book. In fact, not only do IELE instructors use in-house textbooks as main teaching materials, they also give students a list of self-study workbook or study materials (Institute for English Language Education, 2014). This remark allows IELE to understand that its instructors may have to regularly remind learners of the existing self-study materials, such as *Language Links Grammar* and *Vocabulary for self-study* (Institute for English Language Education, 2014). To even better enhance their learning experience, instructors may have to demonstrate how to use such extra learning materials.

*Grading and Testing*

This independent variable showed statistical significance due to its highest beta value (beta = .468) or regression weight, as can be seen in Table 2. When the null hypothesis of multiple regression is rejected, the dependent variable can be predicted by some or all independent variables tested (Foster, Barkus, & Yavorsky, 2006). Grading and testing system was one of the two predicting variables. In other words, learners' satisfaction on grading and testing system can predict the overall satisfaction.

The result also showed that the participants were 'satisfied' with IELE's grading and testing system. However, the responses from the open-ended section revealed that some learners were dissatisfied with their test results, and also questioned the standard of the grading system. Moreover, some participants claimed that the course was fairly difficult.

The researcher sees this as an illuminating remark. IELE instructors distribute a course outline which clearly states the grading system during the first class of the semester. Lecturers then would go through it, clarify, as well as inform learners about what they are expected to do or achieve during the entire semester. Students may also find the provisional study plan in the course outline. Essentially, all IELE instructors use a rubric when grading students' work. The notion that a rubric is an effective way to grade students' tasks or tests has been widely accepted (Martin-Kniep, 2000). According to the author, a rubric can define and differentiate students' performance; indicating whether an attribute to be graded is either present or absent, indicating that the specific attribute is worth a given number of points, and identifying degrees of completeness. The researcher believes that a rubric is sufficient, and is a very effective tool to assess the learners' performance.

The students' remark might be a result of their absence from the first class or the first week, thereby not knowing how they would be assessed. In addition, as time passed by, students may have simply forgotten what was explained. Hence, the solution to this issue is not complicated; instructors may have to remind students of the grading system, including the rubric, expectation, etc. throughout the semester. Importantly, students should be active learners, asking teachers when they do not understand. Sutton (1995) emphasizes that both teacher and learners have to communicate with each other, and are constantly aware of the assessment's prime purpose of enhancing the development of learners as they receive education service. In fact, this is what the IELE has been trying to do. Probably, it has to be done more frequently so as to remind learners of the evaluation and to help them become alert and constantly active. This practice can also serve as a preventive measure as learners realize their potential or weakness via the lecturers' regular warnings and feedback, thus they are more likely to expect and forecast the outcome or test results. As a result, students should be less likely to be dissatisfied, or file complaints.

Since giving feedback to students is IELE's practice, it can prove to be a useful strategy to tackle this issue. As a result, it is worth discussing how and why it should be done. As stated earlier, communication is crucial. It is said that if learners only view grades as the sole feedback, then they will only compare their test results with their classmates. Such attitudes or practices are not fruitful. Rather, their attention should be paid on specific feedback, which is by no means intended for comparative purposes, offered by their teachers, for this can be helpful in identifying areas of improvement (Sutton, 1995). The author advises that feedback be specific, positive, and constructively critical.

*Academic Support and Services*

The participants were 'satisfied' with the amount of educational resources that helped them learn English courses, the opening hours of the library, and the responsiveness of IELE staff. The composite score was 3.73, lowest among all

variables. Therefore, the IELE and AU shall improve service provision, and be more responsive to the learners.

As planning, service provision, and other issues in education service depend greatly on the stakeholders' understanding of needs, responsiveness is paramount (Walsh, 1994). Another point to consider is the availability of information on quality, which Walsh (1994) states can affect stakeholders' decision-making process, whether or not they would consider other possible alternative service providers.

If IELE and AU wish to achieve an increased level of students' satisfaction, successful communication or effective communication has to be developed. Presented in Table 3 are the educational resources or materials available in the university's libraries (The AU Library, In Press). The columns show the number of materials increased on a monthly basis. Since this information is not shared with students, it is not surprising that they may not be aware of both IELE and AU's attempt to promote better teaching and learning environment, and enhance stakeholders' learning opportunities. Awareness can be created, simply by informing students about the services provided, both existing and new. E-mail or e-news could be a fast and cost-effective means of delivering the message.

Table 3: Educational resources in AU libraries in the first semester of academic year 2014 (August 2014 – December 2014)

| Types of materials | August | September | October | November | December | Units/ quantities |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Books | 3,154 | 3,158 | 3,158 | 3,165 | 3,186 | books |
| Journals | 39 | 39 | 39 | 39 | 39 | titles |
| E-books | 2/237 | 2/237 | 2/237 | 2/237 | 2/237 | databases/ titles |
| E-journals | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | databases/ titles |
| E-newspaper | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | titles |
| Online database full text | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | 7 | databases |
| Online database abstract | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | databases |

Note: The number represents only the materials related to the field of English Language Teaching

Taking e-books and other e-resources into consideration, the researcher believes that this technology can, to some extent, allow students to have a wider access to the educational resources in the library, even when it is closed. In addition to the current technology, innovation, and existing resources, a digital library that gives its patrons even wider access, could be the best solution. Simply put, it is a library that never sleeps.

Consider Bibliotheca Alexandrina as an example. In establishing itself as "an international center of excellence", the library has to be "an instrument for rising to the digital challenge" (Serageldin, 2015). Their two significant challenges are as follows:

bringing the digital age to Egypt, and promoting "the new digital world of instant communication". Moreover, the International School of Information Science was founded to assist Bibliotheca Alexandrina to transform itself to a universal digital library (International School of Information Science, 2015). The library has demonstrated that libraries are sources and centers of knowledge and shall be readily available to its patrons.

Students, when having difficulties, seek advice from friends and teachers. If their friends could not help and the teachers were not available, they might seek assistance from the staff. It well may be that those students had no idea what the staff could do and could not do in helping them. As a result, some students, regardless of the staff's explanation, possibly assumed that the staff did not try their best. Therefore, the students need to be informed about the areas in which the IELE staff can help them with.

Overall, the composite mean score of academic support and services was the lowest among the four, and thus should be the greatest challenge for both the IELE and AU. Because this might result from the way the service provider communicated with students, a better and more effective communication channel should be established and developed. The researcher is convinced that technology could play a vital part in this service enhancement process.

*Expectation and Overall Satisfaction*

The participants were 'very satisfied' with the total university experience. The composite score was 4.23. Responses from the open-ended section revealed that few participants expected every student in class to use English as a medium of communication. In learning a foreign language, students, particularly beginners and intermediate learners, are likely to find particular speech acts difficult to produce (Brown & Levinson, 1987). A study by Vinitwatanakhun (2014a) investigates the refusal strategy, which is said to be challenging for learners. It was found that in making refusal, many categories of indirect speech act, which are not straightforward responses, were employed. That is, learners need to be linguistically competent. During the class discussion, students might find some topics hard and thus could not find words to express opinions, unable to fluently argue. Possibly, they might seek advice from their classmates before articulating their opinion. For a few students, this is unpleasant. Instructors may have to consider the topic of discussion, whether it is too difficult, or whether it is possible for students to complete the task with their current linguistic repertoire. Additionally, instructors may provide them the list of words that they might find useful in completing the task to avoid the use of their mother tongue.

The responses showed learners' attitude towards English proficiency; the English language skills learned from the English courses can result in having better career opportunities. The mean score was 4.3. It is evident that the IELE has successfully promoted AU's uniqueness and identity, one of which is English Proficiency (Assumption University, 2014).

The open-ended section revealed that some participants misunderstood the cause and nature of the problem regarding the grading and testing system. Moreover, some participants might not be informed about the services the university has been providing; as a result, they were not aware that AU has tried its best to promote and facilitate their

learning. In short, effective communication between the university and its students needs to be established and developed.

## Conclusion

Contrary to the findings of Phongsuwan (1996) and Naumnoi (2008), the results of the present study show that the participants' satisfactions with teaching and learning, grading and testing system, and academic support and services were at the same level regardless of their difference in English language proficiency. The study failed to reject the null hypothesis of the first research question (p>.05). That is, the level of English proficiency did not significantly affect the AU students' perception of the overall service quality.

Since the null hypothesis of the second research question was rejected (p< .01), it can be concluded that grading and testing (beta =.468) and academic support and services (beta =.175) had predictive power. In other words, if the IELE and the university can improve academic support and services, and the grading and testing system, the overall satisfaction will significantly increase. Despite its highest mean score among other variables, teaching and learning is not a strong predictor and thus a change in its mean score would not be as significant as those of the other two variables. As a result, the university should consider spending more resources on them in order to achieve higher level of satisfaction.

## Pedagogical Implications

Feedback from students is invaluable; thus, the evaluation needs be regularly conducted (Good & Brophy, 1984; MacBeath, 1994). All educators should view learners' remarks as a form of quality control and not as personal attacks. Learners' opinions gathered from the questionnaires can be acted upon openly and freely without any bias to any individual, and for educators to consider all opinions equally and collectively. Therefore, all learners' wants need be taken into consideration to be used as markers for curriculum planning. Once students understand that free-flowing opinions are unbiased and taken seriously, the idea of learner-centeredness would be established (Nunan, 1999).

## Managerial Implications

According to Mooij (2011), culture, which can influence and explain how customers process information and the way customers think, is learned behavior. Because students at AU have different backgrounds, it is likely that their communication, information processing, and decision-making as well as ideology vary. Therefore, the university, particularly university administrators and university marketers, needs to recognize the differences which are greatly important to the

international education market. The basis of understanding is that the stakeholders understand the message the university sends.

In order for the university to maintain its existing customers, thereby increasing the retention rate, AU needs to understand the needs of stakeholders and ascertain what actions should be taken so that the stakeholders' expectation can be met. In other words, to cater excellent quality service, it is challenging for the university to demystify the following issues: the nature of present students, and the stakeholders' needs and expectations (Hextall & Mahony, 1998). Effective communication plays a key role in establishing understanding between the university and its stakeholders. While attempting to provide quality service, the educational institution also has to regularly assess the level of satisfaction, take students' suggestions for improvement into consideration, and recognize potential threat, which may cause negative word-of mouth.

Walsh (1994) emphasizes that customers will exit the service even if they are satisfied with the present service they are currently receiving on the provision that the other service will exceed their expectation. With the current fierce competition and international programs offered by other Thai universities, AU needs to strive for academic excellence and, at the same time, improve the level of satisfaction and loyalty.

Education services are experience goods or credence goods; that is, customers decide to receive the services because they believe that they are receiving good ones (Walsh, 1994). Consequently, judgments on alternative education service providers are formed and based on the availability of information.

Both IELE instructors and other support units have to understand that to provide better service and subsequently increase the level of satisfaction, effective communication has to be developed. Simply put, the message we send should be precisely understood by the students. The service provider, nevertheless, needs to keep in mind that the intended message sometimes can be misinterpreted. Hence, clarification might be needed.

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# Appendix

SPSS Output of Multiple Linear Regression's Model Summary

## Model Summary

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | .704 | .496 | .486 | .3972400 |

# Conversation Analysis of Thai Politicians' Answers during Television News Interviews

**Kornkamol Waiyaraphutra, M.L. Jirapa Abhakorn**

## Abstract

While a number of empirical studies conducted in the international context show that interviewees (IEs) in television news interviews orient to various discursive techniques in order to respond to and, in some cases, sidestep the questions of the interviewers (IRs), few studies have been conducted in a Thai context. Through the thorough and detailed analysis of the sequential development of several interviews, this Conversation Analysis (CA) study aims to explain various structures in which different types of relevant and irrelevant responses are produced, rather than grossly identifying different types of the IE responses.

Data from the live interviews of five candidates for the election of Bangkok governor in 2013 were collected, transcribed and analyzed applying the CA approach. More specifically, the IEs' responses were examined and described according to their relevancy to the topic and action agenda set by the IR's questions. The findings reveal that the questions are actually responded to with a variety of techniques for answering, evasion, or non-answering. The study's findings provide understandings and an insights into patterns and processes of news interviews concerning political issues in Thailand. Moreover, it could serve as a guidance for those in political careers to develop and improve their discursive practices for political gain in public interviews.

**Keywords:** Conversation Analysis, news interview, institutional talk, political discourse, question and answer

## บทคัดย่อ

แม้ว่าจะมีงานวิจัยเชิงประจักษ์ที่เผยให้เห็นว่าผู้ให้สัมภาษณ์ในรายการสัมภาษณ์ข่าวทางโทรทัศน์ใน ปริบทนานาชาติใช้เทคนิคทางวาทกรรมที่หลากหลายเพื่อตอบโต้กับผู้สัมภาษณ์เช่นการหลบเลี่ยงคำถาม สัมภาษณ์   ในบางกรณี การศึกษาเช่นนี้ยังมีไม่มากนักในปริบทไทย งานวิจัยนี้จึงวิเคราะห์ลำดับการพัฒนา ของบทสัมภาษณ์โดยใช้การวิเคราะห์บทสนทนา (Conversation Analysis) เพื่ออธิบายโครงสร้างอัน หลากหลายของการโต้ตอบผู้ให้สัมภาษณ์ที่สอดคล้อง และการโต้ตอบที่ไม่สอดคล้อง นอกเหนือจากการจำแนก ประเภทการโต้ตอบของ        ผู้ให้สัมภาษณ์แบบต่างๆเท่านั้น ข้อมูลที่ใช้ในงานวิจัยนี้ได้มาจากการถอดความ บทสัมภาษณ์จากผู้สมัครชิงตำแหน่งผู้ว่าราชการกรุงเทพมหานครในปี พ.ศ. 2556 จำนวน 5 คน ตามแนวทาง การวิเคราะห์บทสนทนา โดยวิเคราะห์และอธิบายการโต้ตอบของผู้ให้สัมภาษณ์โดยอิงจากความสอดคล้องกับ

หัวข้อคำถาม (topic) หรือวาระปฏิบัติ (action agenda) ของคำถามจากผู้สัมภาษณ์ ผลการศึกษาพบว่าผู้ให้
สัมภาษณ์ตอบคำถามสัมภาษณ์ด้วยเทคนิคหลากหลาย ทั้งนี้รวมถึงการเลี่ยงตอบ และการไม่ตอบคำถาม ซึ่งผล
การศึกษานี้ช่วยให้เกิดความเข้าใจ     และเกิดมุมมองต่อรูปแบบและกระบวนการสัมภาษณ์ข่าวทางโทรทัศน์ที่
เกี่ยวกับประเด็นทางการเมืองในประเทศไทย และยังเป็นแนวทางสำหรับผู้มีอาชีพทางการเมืองเพื่อพัฒนาและ
ปรับปรุงการใช้วาทกรรมเพื่อความได้เปรียบทางการเมืองในการสัมภาษณ์สาธารณะ

**คำสำคัญ:** การวิเคราะห์บทสนทนา   รายการสัมภาษณ์ข่าวทางโทรทัศน์   บทสนทนาระดับองค์กรหรือ
สถาบันคู่คำถามและคำตอบ

## Introduction

Television news programs at present have applied more live news interviews in order to highlight the originality of the information. Montgomery (2008) pointed out two distinctive features of television news interviews compared to other broadcasting genres of interaction. First, the interview functions as a discussion for a large audience. Also, roles for the participants (i.e., the interviewer [IR] and the interviewee [IE]) are explicitly pre-allocated. These roles involve specific activities of discussion for each participant to pursue. Despite the differences, one of the features that all types of interview have in common is that they are socially organized on the basis of turn-by-turn interaction, and the turns then form question-answer sequences (Clayman & Heritage, 2002, as cited in O'Connell et al., 2004).

As one of several types of news interview, interviews with public figures especially politicians, receive considerable attention from viewers as well as researchers possibly because they are accountable for the affairs being discussed and also they are public representatives. In the early development of the live news interview, the interviewers were "respectful prompters" (Wedell, 1968, as cited in Heritage, 1985) who questioned the famous public figures whose responses were usually prepared and simultaneously delivered to the audience. At present, the news interview has gradually developed into a form of interactive and investigative style of interview in which the answer given is no longer treated as a stated fact by the IV but the object for further challenging and probing. Thus, politicians as IVs are often found employing certain strategies to avoid providing answers to some interview questions. Regarding Thai politicians, Theamsomboon (1998) found that they tended to provide responses ranging from relevant and non-evasive answers, partial evasive answers to irrelevant or full evasion in both impromptu and prepared interviews, while irrelevant and fully evasive strategies were found more frequently in impromptu interview. Furthermore, in addition to only giving responses to questions asked, the interview is sometimes purposively used for promoting public relations with a wide range of audiences. Chaidaroon (2010), for example, analyzed the former Thai Prime Minister Abihisit's interview on a British television program to reveal his use of image building strategy. He was found using two image restoration techniques to regain the nation's image: provocation and transcendence strategies. These strategies were used to lead the audience's perception

toward the current situation in Thailand. The provocation technique was employed to defend his decision to approve the counterattack made on the protesters in Bangkok in 2009, pointing out that his action was responsive to violence and threats initiated by the protesters. Moreover, the transcendence strategy was used to emphasize his attempt to resolve the political turmoil through law enforcement and democratic processes. This action thus led the audience to see the protest as unlawful and unjustified.

The previous studies which explored the social activities of interviews show that the television interview, notably in political contexts, provides useful data for understanding discursive devices as well as interactional strategies employed and oriented to by the interview participants in order to achieve the interview goals. However, none have provided a clear account of how the interview is sequentially organized, and how the interactional goals are accomplished. Furthermore, a large number of previous studies on political interviews focus on the questioning act and little attention has been paid to the part of answering; or the discursive strategies used by Thai politicians as the IEs in television news interviews to respond to different characteristics of the question. To fill those gaps, this study aims to uncover, through Conversation Analysis (CA), how Thai politicians as IEs design their answers to respond to the IR's interrogative television news interviews. The results are expected to provide an insight into patterns and processes of news interviews concerning political issues in Thailand.

## Literature Review

The development of the news interview has been intertwined with the evolution of journalism and politics. In the United States, journalistic interviews with national government officials were not permitted until in the early twentieth century. With advancing technologies and increasing frequencies of broadcasting, the news interview has become considered a means of presenting live and spontaneous interaction readily available for public exposure and consumption. Schudson (1988, as cited in Clayman, 2004.) claims that the news interview has grown to be considered a normative practice for political units and professional journalists due to the increasing respect and popularity of journalistic institutions. Thus, the ongoing exchange of information in interviews becomes a prime source of data that could potentially be used later as a representation of news stories (Ekström, 2001).

Interviews in any format are considered a significant social interactional institution mutually accomplished by IRs and IEs in a form of question and answer sequences. The interactional difference of interview talk compared to ordinary conversation is that the participants' behavior and practice are systematically tied to the institutional norms, that only the IR is legitimate for initiating the talk whereas the IE is obliged to respond (Ekström, 2007). The other unique characteristic which distinguishes news interviews from other media interactions is that the interview is usually conducted by professional journalists whose opinions or actions could affect issues of social interest and thereby influence the public at large. In addition, journalists in interviews follow two main professional roles of (1) being objective, and (2) adversarial (Heritage & Clayman, 2010). For being objective, journalists must position

themselves as neutral and unbiased during the interview despite their professional assumption to presume a role of public watchdog. At the same time, the journalists should challenge public figures' interest through adversarial questions.

Clayman (2001) suggests that questioning in journalistic interviews has become more and more adversarial and aggressive over years. Thus, public figures or officials (the IEs) have to use more sophisticated strategies in answering, often with assistance from a media consultant (Jones, 1992, as cited in Clayman, 2004, p. 36). The IE's use of resistant or evasive response strategies not only allows him/her to deal with adversarial questions but also enables him/her to steer the talk into a more desirable direction. Although the IE constructs evasion during the live interview, they do it in a strategic way to show that the questions are answered. Such action proves that the normative practice which requires the IE to provide an answer remains a significant and salient feature of the contemporary news interview (Clayman, 2001), though there is no definite way to assure what act of answering is to be provided.

Most of the previous research on interactional features of news interviews unfolds different designs that are treated as the act of questioning in news interviews. For example, Heritage and Roth (1995) studied instances of news interviews in British and U.S. contexts by analyzing questioning turns. Threes forms of questions were defined. First, the design of question that is grammatically based. Another form of the IRs' turns which elicit responses from IEs is directives as question substitutes or the directive turn. The final form of statements which also calls for responses is known as B-event statements – declarative utterances that seek to question issues that the IEs presumably have primary knowledge of. Only a few studies focus on the answering design. Clayman (1993) analyzed the data obtained from various settings where intensive journalistic interrogation was conducted such as the 1988 U.S. presidential debate, news interviews and press conferences. He discusses that the IEs empirically develop a discursive technique called reformulating the question which not only allows them to pursue more desirable topical talk, but also forestalls every possible negative opinion or feeling of the audience. Based on his analysis and data, the IEs reformulated the IR's questions by referring back to the previous question, focusing on certain parts of it or repeating what has been stated. It is noted that although the paraphrase is common here, the reformulated question often changes the essence of what is previously asked. With the question reformulations to single out or combine various aspects asked, the IEs could signal which aspect would be dealt with while giving corresponding answer, for example:

**Extract 1**

Nixon Press Conference 8/29/72; 836-837 (RN is the IE)

| 1 | IR: | Mister President, the majority you talked about a |
| 2 | | minute ago, what kind of majority will it be, |
| 3 | | a Nixon majority or a Republican majority, |
| 4 | | an will it bring a Congress along with it? |
| 5 | RN: →First, with regard to the majority, |
| 6 | | the thrust of our campaign, I have tried to emphasize |
| 7 | | to our campaign people, should be to make it a positive |
| 8 | | majority rather than a negative majority… |

From this extract, the IR's question comprises two aspects, i.e., the presidential election and how the coalition could balance the Congress. In response, the IE firstly attends to the first part of the question that concerns the election campaign by pointing out the subject of talk therein.

In a more recent study, Clayman (2001) examined a large corpus of data from various political interviews in the U.S. and Britain including extracts from U.S. presidential campaign and debates. Besides the reformulating the question previously proposed, Clayman explores different alternatives for evasions that are practiced both in a covert and overt manners. In part of covert evasion, the IE's alternative techniques include: 1) subversive word repeats and anaphoric pronounce; and 2) operate on the question. According to Clayman (2001, p. 424), the covert practice of resistance is usually seen as more advantageous than using overt evasion because it serves to manage undesirable questions discretely. As a result, the IEs are at less risk of being criticized as unresponsive yet are able to introduce information that might shift the topic of talk.

For the political discourses in Thailand, they have been examined in both television and radio contexts. Most studies (Theamsomboon, 1998; Geerapatr, 2008; Chaidaroon, 2010) focus on the design of speech, the results have shown that discourses were produced in order to convince the audience in different ways. There are still limited studies that explore in detail how Thai politicians as IEs respond during interaction to handle journalistic interviews. Among the very few studies, Theamsomboon (1998) points out that in news interviews with Thai politicians, responses range from fully relevant responses to evasive and irrelevant ones; more details are left to be explored regarding the nature of the interview responses-in-interaction within political context. Accordingly, it is crucial that this study adopts the framework of CA to explore structures of ongoing talk mutually displayed by the interactants' emic perspective and how such understanding is sequentially developed.

**The Study**

This study was conducted based on a methodological framework of CA with a focus on institutional talk of news interview. The study aims to explore the IEs' use of

discursive and interactional techniques to respond to IRs' interrogatives in television news interviews in Thailand. The corpus of data were collected from five interview sessions of "เจาะข่าวเด่น (cho-khwao-den)"; an evening news program broadcast on Thailand's Channel Three. Each session was an interview with a candidate running for Bangkok governor in the election of 2013. Each session lasted approximately 20 minutes and the total corpus of the data is approximately 102 minutes and 33 seconds. The live conversations were then transcribed in accordance with Jeffersonian transcription conventions (see Appendix) and analyzed based on conversation analytic approach. The data obtained during the time of the election could be seen as part of the political mayhem in Thailand due to a series of accusations and conflicts between two major political parties. The competition over the governorship escalated and the victory of a candidate nominated by these parties was said to reflect their political bastion in Bangkok metropolitan.

## Conversation Analysis (CA)

CA is a research approach developed in late 1960s by Harvey Sacks, Emmanuel Schegloff, and Gail Jefferson to investigate humans structure and operate their social interactions. The approach was originally used for making organization of ordinary conversation explicit through analysis of recurrent patterns of conversation such as turn-taking and sequence organization which are logically produced by the participants (Heritage & Clayman, 2010). CA principally believes that the social interaction could be understood via the detailed analysis of natural ongoing talk. According to Sacks (1998), there is an order to all interaction (Ekström, 2007, p. 21), the production of verbal or non-verbal acts are not random but are strategically produced for specific purposes. The acts are also perceived as an attempt to cope with certain conversational problems, to achieve specific action, or to perform particular roles of the speaker in the interaction (Schegloff & Sacks, 1973, as cited in Ekström, 2007, p. 966). Thus, the focus of CA mainly covers patterns of interaction, form and the function of utterances and non-verbal actions performed during the process of interaction. The analysis is based on theory of the next turn proof procedure (Sacks et al., 1974, p. 729, as cited in Seedhouse, 2004) or the procedure of interpretation which believes that the next turn of talk could be used as a proof of meaning for the prior turn.

The CA framework has later been applied to study institutional talk to explore how particular institutional setting influences participants to conduct talk in action and to enforce specific roles and relationships through their talk (Liddicoat, 2011). For example, in news interview, CA results have primarily shown that the IR is determined to ask questions during the interview whereas the IE is expected to provide response (Heritage & Clayman, 2010). However, the pattern of talk could be more complex relative to the different settings and goals of the news interview. To practically apply CA in the study, Seedhouse (2004) suggests that researchers approach naturally occurring data of social interaction obtained by means of recording. Then the data must be thoroughly transcribed using transcription convention. Next, the researchers should identify distinctive phenomenon of talk based on how the interactants manage their turns of talk. Once the focus is established the researchers inductively scrutinize the

data to gather various instances of such phenomenon and then they could unfold the sequential organization which regularly occurs in the phenomenon and explicate how such phenomenon is actually produced. In addition, the researchers may propose deviant case analysis as a measurement of the validity of the normative organization of the sequence of the phenomenon (Sidenell, 2004).

## Results

In this section, the data is analyzed, and the results are discussed critically. The analysis of the IE's response is described according to three designs of the IR's interrogatives: neutral interrogatives; follow-up interrogatives; and negative follow-up interrogatives.

*Responses to Neutral Interrogatives*

Neutral interrogative is the interrogative used in an impartial tone, seeking for a wide range of information (e.g., confirmation, elaboration, and explanation). The data is from the context of Thai television interviews in which the IR is asking questions to IEs who are candidates for Bangkok governor in the year 2013. As part of the interview, the IR asks the IE to address his weakness, using a neutral interrogative. The question is formed in a neutral tone to initiate responses from the IEs.

**Extract 2**

| 1 | IR: | อื้อฮะจุดอ่อนมีมั้ย |
| | | *Umm, weakness, (do you) have any?* |
| 2 | IE$_1$: → | ผมพูดไม่ค่อยชอบพูดอ่ะ |
| | | *I talk less, don't like to talk[* |
| 3 | IR: | อื้อ[จุดอ่อน |
| | | *Uhh [weakness* |
| 4 | IE$_1$: → | [แล้วพูดไม่ค่อยเป็นอ่ะ |
| | | *[and (I am) not good at talking* |
| 5 | IR: | พูดไม่ค่อยเป็นนะฮะ[แล้วจะปรับยังไง |
| | | *Not good at talking, right [and how will you improve* |
| 6 | IE$_1$: | [อื้อ ((พยักหน้า)) ก็ผมคือผมอ่ะครับ |
| | | *[Umm ((nodding)) I am what I am* |

In line 1, the IR uses a neutral interrogative to ask whether the IE has any weaknesses or not. Instead of giving a yes or no answer, the IE (line 2) gives a descriptive response to address his specific trait "*I don't like to talk*" ("ผมพูดไม่ค่อยชอบพูดอ่ะ"), without indexing the question asked. The answer is accredited as topic relevant because it is accepted by the IR in line 3. The IE continues addressing his lack of talking skills in line 4 using the conjunction "*and*" ("แล้ว") that shows continuity of his previous response. The continued response is also seen as topic relevant through the IR's repetition and follow-up in line 5 asking for the way to overcome the weakness.

As shown in extract 2, rather than expressing affirmation of having weakness via regular yes-form, the IE's answer in the form of an explanation could effectively

decrease the degree of explicit acceptance of having weakness. Because an explicit yes or no is considered a normative form to respond to the interrogatives that seek confirmation (Raymond, 1998), the IE's form of descriptive response is seen as indirect acceptance. The indirect acceptance not only gives the IE an opportunity to avoid direct acceptance, but also allows him to control the direction of the answer rather than conforming to the IR's question in direct way. However, without indexing the question asked, the response may be implicit, and it may be difficult for the audience to recognize this indirect response as topically relevant to the question asked. In a slightly different way, the IE in extract 3 is found using the technique of repeating of words from the IR's previous turn, thus clearly linking the IR's turn and the IE's response.

**Extract 3**

| 1 | IR: | สุดท้ายผมถามพูดมาเป็นจุดเด่นทั้งนั้นเลยตัวเองมีจุดอ่อนมั้ย |
| | | *Lastly I'd asked, what you have talked are all positive traits, any weakness?* |
| 2 | IE$_2$: → | จุดอ่อนเหรอครับ(.)ไม่มีทุน |
| | | *Weakness? (.) Have no money to invest* |
| 3 | IR: | °อื้อ° |
| | | *Uhh* |
| 4 | IE$_2$: → | ไม่มีทุนเท่ากับคนอื่นเขา |
| | | *Don't have as much amount of investment as others* |
| 5 | IR: | อ้าทุนแล้ว[ก็- |
| | | *Ok, investment [and-* |
| 6 | IE$_2$: | [งบน้อยกว่าแล้วก็ตั้งใจจะไม่ใช้ |
| | | *[Less investment and intent not to use it* |

Instead of saying yes or no, the IE starts the turn with a confirmation check and a descriptive statement. To respond to the IR's question (line 1) on the IE's weakness, the IE indexes the question through lexical repetition "*weakness*" ("จุดอ่อน") before pointing out his weakness of having no investment. After the IR's acceptance (line 3), the IE provides further details of his answer in lines 4 and 6. Similar to the answer in Extract 2, the use of an explanation of what could be understood as weakness to respond to the interrogative allows the IE to answer the question without having to admit explicitly that he has a weakness. However, indexing the question by repeating a certain keyword from a prior turn might help the IE to create, in the explicit sense, continuity and connectivity between the previous and current turn. Moreover, that the IE selects specific keywords and adopts them is an indication that the responses might remind the audience of the directional point he wants to discuss. Also, Clayman (2001) discusses that the use of repetition allows the IE to avoid answering in an implicit manner, because lexical repetition simply shows the audience that the IE is responsive to the issue raised by the IR, and at the same time enables him to pursue, or discreetly alter, the course of talk.

*Responses to Follow-Up Interrogatives*

Follow-up questions enable the IR to follow up on information produced by the IE. These questions regularly seek for confirmation or clarification from the IE. In the extract below, the IR produces follow-up questions that allow him to act as an animator

(Goffman, 1981, as cited in Clayman, 1992) who makes a summary and question based on the IE's previous discussions of his campaign. Apparently, the use of a direct answer with yes to confirm the interrogative provides a clear and direct answer for the audience to quickly understand the issue under discussion. However, the IE sometimes provides *confirmation in part* as shown in extract 4, which shows that the IR's interpretation is not totally accurate.

**Extract 4**

| 1 | IR: | คุณสุหฤทคิดว่าถ้าสมมติว่าเป็นผู้ว่ากทม.เปลี่ยนกรุงเทพได้เฉียบพลัน(ใช่)มั้ย |
|   |     | *You believe that if you are a governor you could change the city at once* |
| 2 | IE₅: → | หลายอย่างเฉียบพลันหลายอย่างไม่ได้ครับ |
|   |     | *Many things could be changed immediately whereas others couldn't be* |
| 3 | IR: | อะไรที่เฉียบพลันเลย |
|   |     | *What can be changed immediately* |
| 4 | IE₅: → | เฉียบพลันคือการ[− |
|   |     | *What can immediately done is[-* |

Based on the IR's interpretation of the IE's discussion on fast-track schemes of development, his question in line 1 presumes that the IE believes that the city could be altered by his plans at once. The IE (line 2) replies with a confirmation in part "*Many things could be changed immediately whereas others couldn't be*" ("หลายอย่างเฉียบพลัน หลายอย่างไม่ได้ครับ"). By indexing the question with a keyword "*immediately*" ("เฉียบพลัน"), he provides a topic relevant response, which suggests the quick success of some proposals, but not all. The use of a partial confirmation could benefit the IE in the sense that he does not have to fully commit to the success of his proposals, although it is not action relevant. As a result, the IR seeks more information through a follow-up question asking for clarification of what could be changed (line 3). In this case, it is obvious that the IE successfully determines a new direction of talk from line 2 after providing partial confirmation.

The result from Extract 4 is similar to Clayman (2001) who found that the IE sometimes employs agreement or disagreement to firstly connect his/her turn with that of the IR's before adding more information that may shift the topic of talk. This technique is termed *minimal answer plus elaboration*. However, from the analysis of extract 4, the use of a partial confirmation also influences the IR to switch from a close-ended question that requires only a yes or no answer to a *wh-question* which more varieties of possible answers are relevant. As a result, the IE can further give detailed information and held the floor of talk for a longer time than just overtly accepting or rejecting the follow-up question.

However, the IE is also found using overt forms of denial as shown in Extract 5, to signal that the presuppositions embedded in the IR's follow-up questions are not acceptable.

**Extract 5**

| 1 | IE₃: | แต่กระบวนที่จะให้[คนนั่งรถเมล์[ >(XXX)< |
|---|---|---|

1　IE₃:　แต่กระบวนที่จะให้[คนนั่งรถเมล์[ >(XXX)<
　　　　　*But the plan to let [people use public buses [ >(XXX)<*

2　IR:　　　　　　　　　　[นั่นล่ะฮะ　　[คือจะบอกว่าเป็นผู้สมัครเพื่อไทยประชานิยมแล้วเหรอ
　　　　　　　　　　　　*[that's　　　[you are telling that the party is populism?*

4　IE₃: →　ครับไม่ใช่ประชานิยมครับแต่ว่าอะไรที่มันเป็นปัญหาของพี่น้องประชาชน[ที่เราจะคืน
　　　　ความสุข=
　　　　*Krub (Thai particle) this is not populism, but if there are problems that we*
　　　　*can solve and  bring back happiness for them=*

6　IE₃:　=เราจะสร้างรอยยิ้มแม้จะเป็นความสุขเพียงเล็กๆน้อยๆ[แต่ก็สร้างกำลังใจ=
　　　　*= we will put smiles on the people's face although it's just for a while but it*
　　　　*encourage them*

7　IR:　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　[อื้อ
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　*[Uhh*

Listening to the IE's discussion on how his campaign would positively impact a number of poor people, the IR (line 2) initiates a presupposition that the IE is attempting to implement populism in the same way his affiliating party did. The IE (line 4) provides a token of acknowledgment in the first turn construction unit (TCU), followed by his explicit denial via *no*-form *"this is not populism"* ("…ไม่ใช่ประชานิยมครับ…"). The IE's action of overt denial which clearly repairs (other-initiated other-repaired) the IR's interpretation of his statement might result from an attempt to avoid the extant criticism of prodigal populism. The IR's follow-up question is seen to accuse the IE directly. This is because populism has been widely debated among groups of scholars and knowledgeable persons in the country regarding its true effectiveness in developing the country (Phongpaichit & Baker, 2008). Though the following declaration of his goal (lines 6) may reflect some ideas from the presupposition, the effect of the previous direct denial helps signal that the presupposition is already rejected. The suggestion is that the IE should proceed to reject the question directly without giving acknowledgment since it might cause confusion. Based on the data, though the first TCU "krub" ("ครับ") or final particle used by Thai males is intentionally used to acknowledge the question, it is similar to the act of acceptance which could lead the audience to perceive that the IE already accepted the presupposition.

*Responses to Negative Follow-Up (Judgment) Interrogatives*

There are times when the IR produces the questions based on his interpretative point of view without any mitigating device, therefore, enhancing the adversarial nature of the questions. One such example is the use of negative questioning such as "Don't you know…?" which shows a negative judgment toward the IE and increases the level of adversarial-ness to the question.

**Extract 6**

1    IR:    คุณสุหฤทไม่รู้เหรอว่าการแก้นิสัยคนยากที่สุด

*Don't you know that behavior is difficult to change*

2    IE₅: → เราจะทำอะไรล่ะครับ [(.) เราจะยอมอย่างนี้ไปเรื่อยๆ[แล้วก็จะขอแต่รถไฟมันไม่มีทาง

*what are we supposed to do then thing will never be changed if we are doing*

*nothing and keep asking for more trains*

3    IR:                    [อื้อ                    [ฮะ|

                    [*Uhh*                    [*right*

Facing the IR's flat and hostile question, the IE in extract 6, counters the accusation by producing a topic and action irrelevant response through a shift in footing using "*we*" ("เรา") in a rhetorical question "*what are we supposed to do then…*" ("เราจะทำอะไรล่ะครับ…") (line 2). By using shift in footing (Goffman, 1974, as cited in Clayman, 1992), i.e., using 'we' instead of 'I' to respond to the question directed to him only, the IE successfully changed his position from the candidate who was blamed for not understanding the problem to one of the people who knew and was responsible for solving the problem. The responding act of the IE not only rejected but also counteracted the IR's negative judgment in an implicit way.

In addition, he further initiates a sequence on behalf of the general public "*thing will never be changed if we are doing nothing and keep asking for more trains*" ("… เราจะยอมอย่างนี้ไปเรื่อยๆ [แล้วก็จะขอแต่รถไฟมันไม่มีทางหรอก") when counteracting the IR's attacking question, and implying his awareness of the habits of Thai people. Through the use of shift in footing, this device allows him to respond on behalf of the people in general, or that he is not the only person responsible for answering this question.

In addition, the following extract shows another example of the IE's use of overt denial to negate the IR's negative judgment.

**Extract 7**

1    IR:    ไม่มีนโยบายหรือก่อนหน้านี้
         *Don't you have the policy before*

2    IE₅: → มีนโยบายมา:ตั้งนาน::แล้วครับ[ตั้งแต่ตอนที่ผมเริ่มประกาศเมื่อเดือนสิงหา:[ปลายสิงหาไป
         ทางกันยาน่ะ=
         "*[I've] the policy planned out for long [since I started announcing the policy*
         *in [end of August through September*

3    IR:                    [อื้อ                    [อื้อ
                    [*Uhh*                    [*Uhh*

4    IE₅:    =ครับเราก็ (.) พอประกาศตัวเสร็จปั๊บเราก็มาพร้อมนโยบายนะครับทีนี้เราก็ต้องค่อยๆปรับ
         *yes and we (.) when announce the policy then we have to adjust*

After the introductory part the IR (line 1) initiates a question which seems to threaten the IE's public face since it accuses the IE of not having finalized proposals

and being ready for the campaign. This accusation implies that the IE is unprepared for the competition; thus it might affect a certain social image of the IE. The IE's response *"[I've] the policy planned out for long"* ("มีนโยบายมา:ตั้งนาน::แล้วครับ…") in line 2 is action and topic relevant. It is initiated with a strong insistence of having a planned proposal for a long time, thus directly rejecting the IR's judgment. Moreover, the IE relates his response with the IR's accusation with an index *"policy"* ("นโยบาย"). The entire TCU directly negates the IR's accusation. Therefore, the use of explicit rejection of the judgment not only helps restore the IE's face but also makes the talk simple and clear for the audience to understand. In the following TCUs, the IE provides elaboration describing lengthy preparation which is possibly aimed at creating the sense of readiness. Accordingly, the IE attempts to reverse the IR's accusation into a misunderstanding based on his explicit form of denial and the account on timely developed policies. The IE's long response is collaboratively uninterrupted, and the IR merely provides a confirmation check toward the end of sequence (line 11). From the data, it seems easy for the audience to understand when the IE provides a clear form of acceptance or denial. However, such case occurs rarely in this interview.


**Conclusion**

      This study begins with the premise that, while the answering of the IE is obligatory, evasion strategies are ubiquitous in the political interview context. It explores the ways in which Thai politicians as the IEs discursively designed their responses to broadcasting news interview questions. The data show that Thai politicians as the IEs employed different discursive techniques to fully answer, partially evade and sidestep the IR's questions. It revealed that the relevance of IEs' responses varied according to the level of their involvement in the issues asked. That is, when the IR's questions were related to the IE's personal issues in a negative way, the IEs were likely to evade answering, or to answer indirectly. The IEs tended to answer directly to the questions that were not related to their personal realm. In addition, levels of negative judgment of the IR's questions could influence the IEs' designs of answering as well. It is shown from the data that the IEs tended to produce direct denial when they desired to explicitly show a complete detachment from the IR's statement or accusation that is undoubtedly inaccurate (to the IEs). In other cases, when the IR's questions were perceived as partly accurate, the IEs provided confirmation in part. This technique allows the IEs to commit to a certain aspect of the topic discussed and to justify other aspects with which they disagree.

      The IEs' use of confirmation in part technique seems most practical in the news interview focusing on politics especially for promotional purposes. Such a technique serves to maintain the IR's face while the IE could alternately shift to discuss his argument or launch a counterattack. While the IE could retain an answer's relevancy to the IR's prior turn with the use of confirmation in part technique, it also effects the IR to request more elaboration or justification for the answer. Finally, such a technique could be useful to the IE for avoiding full commitment to certain issue and expressing his different viewpoint.

The results from this study could contribute to methodological and professional improvement of talk especially in speech exchange. For methodological contributions, CA is applicable to the study of natural and ongoing talk for practical as well as critical purposes. Moreover, the interactional organizations found in this study could be further investigated in comparison with those from different but related political aspects such as general elections, political debates and panel interviews. For professional development, the findings and discussion on different techniques and their effect on ongoing interaction of news interviews could serve as a guidance for interested people especially those in a political career. The certain discursive techniques from the empirical findings could practically be applied to improve their talk during speech exchange sessions in order to gain endorsement from listeners, achieve mutual understanding or even avoid answering possible unpleasant questions.

Further studies could be conducted on television news interviews in Thailand where the participants are from different sociocultural background, for example, interviews with foreign embassies with a focus on political issues in Thailand. In addition to the studies of interactional patterns of the IE's response, future researchers using the CA method could explore power relationships between the interactants on the way in which the asymmetry of power predetermined by the institutional norms are achieved, challenged, negotiated, and maintained.

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**Appendix**

Adapted from Heritage & Clayman, 2010; Du Bois, 2006, 1991
Transcription Conventions

| | |
|---|---|
| [ ] | overlap |
| = | (1) connected line by the same speaker |
| | (2) one line starts shortly after another |
| (( )) | description of events; e.g. ((nodding)), ((laughter)) |
| ºwordsº | attenuated speech |
| : | prolonged or stretching sound, more colons indicate longer stretching sound. |
| **w**ord | stress or emphasis, more stress represents greater degree of stress |
| wor- | cut-off word |
| (word) | uncertainty on the transcriber's part, yet presenting the likelihood |
| >word< | compressed or rushed talk |

# Perceived Problems and Needs of English Usage of Thai Caddies

**Suthinun Chanthatira, Kasma Suwanarak**

## Abstract

This study aims at investigating the needs of English usage of the Thai caddies working in a golf course in Ban Chang district, Rayong province; the major problems the Thai caddies have encountered when using English; and the characteristics of a required English training course. The data were collected by questionnaire consisting of closed-ended questions and open-ended questions. The quantitative data from the closed-ended questions were analyzed by descriptive statistics and the qualitative data from open-ended questions were analyzed by coding. It was found that English usage needs of local caddies involve English for General Purposes and English for Specific Purposes. Listening and speaking skills, in particular, which directly affect their work performance, are extensively required while writing and reading are considered unnecessary.

**Keywords**: English for Specific Purposes, caddies, English usage of the Thai caddies, the needs of English usage, English training course

## บทคัดย่อ

การศึกษานี้มุ่งเน้นการสำรวจความต้องการในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในที่ทำงานของพนักงานถือถุงไม้กอล์ฟ (แคดดี้) ของสนามกอล์ฟแห่งหนึ่งในอำเภอบ้านฉาง จังหวัดระยอง รวมทั้งปัญหาหลักในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษของแคดดี้ชาวไทย และ ลักษณะของหลักสูตรการอบรมภาษาอังกฤษที่แคดดี้ต้องการเข้าร่วมอบรม ผู้วิจัยได้รวบรวมข้อมูลโดยใช้แบบสอบถามซึ่งประกอบด้วยคำถามปลายปิด และ คำถามปลายเปิด ผู้วิจัยวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเชิงปริมาณจากคำถามปลายปิดโดยใช้สถิติเชิงพรรณนา (Descriptive Statistics) ได้แก่ ร้อยละ ค่าเฉลี่ย และส่วนเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐาน ในด้านข้อมูลเชิงคุณภาพจากคำถามปลายเปิดวิเคราะห์ด้วยการถอดรหัส (coding) จากการศึกษาพบว่าแคดดี้ชาวไทย มีความต้องการในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษทั้งในด้านภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับวัตถุประสงค์ทั่วไป (English for General Purposes) และ ภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับวัตถุประสงค์เฉพาะ (English for Specific Purposes) ทักษะมีผลกระทบโดยตรงต่อการปฏิบัติงานในสนามกอล์ฟคือทักษะการฟังและการพูด ในขณะที่ทักษะการเขียนและการอ่านไม่มีความจำเป็นโดยตรง จากการศึกษาในครั้งนี้ ผู้วิจัยสามารถสรุปได้ว่าทักษะภาษาอังกฤษมีความจำเป็นต่อแคดดี้ชาวในการปฏิบัติงานได้อย่างมีประสิทธิภาพและสามารถพัฒนาไปสู่ระดับมืออาชีพ

**คำสำคัญ:** ภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อวัตถุประสงค์เฉพาะ พนักงานถือถุงไม้กอล์ฟ แคดดี้ ภาษาอังกฤษสำหรับพนักงานถือถุงไม้กอล์ฟ ความต้องการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ ปัญหาในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ หลักสูตรอบรม สนามกอล์ฟ

## Introduction

At present, many foreigners travel to Thailand and each year the number of tourists has increased (Department of Tourism, 2015). Specifically, "Golf is one of the most popular sports" (Kowsurat, 2008) that has attracted tourists from other countries (Esichaikul & Songsonthonwong, 2009; Kulapalanon, 2012). The important factor for international tourists in choosing a golf course is the caddy (Brand Matrix Research Co., Ltd., 2010; Wasinghon, 2013). However, the major problem of Thai caddies is English proficiency (Brand Matrix Research Co., Ltd., 2010; Korn, 2012) which may cause dissatisfaction and misunderstanding (Brand Matrix Research Co., Ltd., 2010).

To improve the English skills of the caddies, the knowledge and the understanding of English usage needs as well as the problems they have encountered are significant (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Yet, there are few studies focusing on English for caddies. The English usage needs of Thai caddies, the major problems that they have encountered and the characteristics of an English training course for caddies have received little consideration because of the limited research on this issue. Moreover, there are very few studies focusing on the caddies in provinces where the caddies are local people, especially for the caddies in the golf course in Ban Chang district in Rayong Province which is regularly visited by international tourists (Department of Tourism, 2011).

Therefore, this study focuses on the present English usage needs at work of local caddies in a golf course in Ban Chang district in Rayong province, the major problems they have encountered when using English, and the characteristics of the English training course they require. This study aims at addressing these three research questions:

1) What are the present English usage needs of local caddies?
2) What are the major problems local caddies have encountered when using English at work?
3) What characteristics of an English training course do local caddies require?

The findings of this study may shed light on their needs, situation, as well as problems in using English at work and might be able to provide primary information for designing an English training course for local caddies working in this golf course.

## Literature Review

English is divided by purpose of use into two types: English for General Purposes (EGP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Kitkauskienė, 2006). EGP usually refers to English teaching and learning for educating in school and responding to English acquisition of general learners (Popescu, 2010). ESP is English teaching and

learning that corresponds to different contexts and learner needs to achieve specific goals and particular purposes (Day & Krzanowski, 2011; Dudley-Evans & ST. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). ESP can be divided into two major divisions: English for Academic Purposes and English for Occupational Purposes (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). The main focus of this study is English for tourism which is a part of English for Occupational Purposes.

In terms of English for tourism, the most interesting issues are in vocational areas (Simion, 2012), particularly the English language used by staff in the tourism industry in specific contexts (Cravotta, 2010). Xhaferi (2010; as cited in Penelopi, 2015) points out that the main focus in English for tourism is English communicative skills which are used to communicate with people who do not share the native language. In the tourism industry, there are many groups of people performing different work, so the use of English is different depending on the situation (Cravotta, 2010).

Meanwhile, many golf courses in Thailand need to accommodate many international tourists each year (Kulapalanon, 2012; Tuptim, 2014). Consequently, the staff in the golf course, especially caddies, cannot avoid using English to communicate with customers. If a caddie can communicate in English, they will be able to provide golfers useful information and earn more tips (Rattanaphumma, 2009). To develop their English proficiency, English usage needs and their problems should be investigated. The needs analysis approach and ESP course design are the useful tools for data analysis.

Needs analysis is one of the main issues for designing ESP courses, materials, tests or other evaluation tools (Prachanant, 2012). Needs analysis is defined as "the process of identifying and evaluating needs" of a particular group of people, or target population (Titcomb, 2000). Needs can be divided into "target needs" and "learning needs". "Target needs" is "what the learner needs to do in the target situation" including "necessities", "lack" and "wants" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 54). Necessities are what the learners have to know to perform their work. Lack means the gap between learners' current proficiency and their necessities. The last term in target needs, "wants", means learners' desire (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Titcomb, 2000). The other is "learning needs" which is the expectations and motivation of the learners toward the courses. This is the factor within learners which contrast to the target needs that focus on the outside factors. After performing a needs analysis, the practitioners can perform ESP course design which is the process of interpreting information about learning needs to build an ESP course for the particular groups of learners (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Dudley-Evans and ST. John (1998) suggest that there are some parameters which have to be investigated in designing ESP courses including type of course (intensive or extensive), evaluation (assessed or non-assessed), needs (immediate or delay), teacher (provider or consultant), contents (broad or narrow focus), experiences of the learners (pre-experience or in parallel), materials (common-core or specific), groups of learners (homogeneous or heterogeneous groups) and the flexibility of the course design (fixed course or flexible course design) (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, pp. 145-154).

## Participants

Participants of this research are all 180 local caddies employed at The Emerald Golf Club in Banchang district in Rayong. This group of caddies consists of male and female workers having 2 months to 15 years of experience and using English to perform their work. As the current study aims at investigating needs and problems in using English as well as the characteristics of an English training course, the findings of this study might be primary information for designing a useful English training course. Therefore, the researcher realized that every local caddie in this golf course should be allowed to participate.

## Research Method

The data were collected by using a questionnaire with closed-ended questions using five point Likert scale, and open-ended questions. The structure of questionnaire was adopted from Waidarp (2011) who studied the demand of English skills for Thai nurses in an international hospital. The question items were adapted from other studies including Prachanant (2012), Waidarp (2011), Srisuwan and Kardkarnklai (2014) and Tuptim (2014) because these studies focus on English usage needs for specific occupations. The questionnaire was divided into five parts: general information of participants; English usage needs of the local caddies; problems in English usage of the local caddies; opinions and suggestions on characteristics of an English training course for local caddies; and opinions and reasons concerning English usage needs and needs for improving English skills to perform the job.

## Data Analysis

The data from closed-ended questions in Part One to Part Four of the questionnaire was analyzed by using descriptive statistics including frequency, percentage, mean and standard division to describe the subjects' general information, needs, major problems in using English and the characteristics of an English training course that they would desire.

The value of "means" in these parts was interpreted in five intervals which were adapted from Aunruen (2005) and Supanatsetakul (2014) as follows:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1.00 – 1.80 | = | Very Little need/ Very low/ Strongly disagree |
| 1.81 – 2.60 | = | Little need/ Low/ Disagree |
| 2.61 – 3.40 | = | Moderate need/ Moderate/ No opinion |
| 3.41 – 4.20 | = | Extensive need/ High/ Agree |
| 4.21 – 5.00 | = | Very extensive need/ Very high/ Strongly agree |

The descriptive data from the open-ended questions in part five about their opinions regarding the importance of English and their demand of developing their English proficiency was analyzed by coding.

## Findings

After sending 180 questionnaires to the golf course in Ban Chang district in Rayong, the researcher received 150 questionnaires, 83.33 percent of questionnaires distributed. The findings are divided into five parts corresponding to the five sections.

*Part 1 General Information of Participants*

The majority of the local caddies at the Emerald Golf Club (126 participants, 84%) are female workers. The remaining 27 participants (26%) are male workers. The local caddies were aged between 20–50 years old (45 participants, 30%) and most of them were aged between 31–35 years old (32 participants, 21.33%). Most of the local caddies (57 participants, 38%) had finished junior high. They have job experience from less than a year to ten years. Regarding English education and training, the majority had never taken a training course before working at this golf course or they had only taken a basic English conversation course. However, many are still studying English at tutorial schools, at the workplace or studying by themselves. The major activities that they do to improve their English are listening to international music and reading and writing on the Internet.

*Part 2 English Usage Needs of Local Caddies*

In general, listening (Mean = 4.01 ± 0.79) and speaking (Mean = 3.91 ± 0.92) skills were needed at the extensive level while reading skills (Mean = 2.67 ± 0.88) were needed at the moderate level and writing skills (2.50±0.86) were least required as shown in Table 1.

**Table 1** Opinion on English Usage Needs in General

| Skills | Needs | | |
|--------|-------|------|----------------|
| | **Mean** | **S.D.** | **Level of Needs** |
| Listening | 4.09 | 0.79 | Extensive |
| Speaking | 3.91 | 0.92 | Extensive |
| Reading | 2.67 | 0.88 | Moderate |
| Writing | 2.50 | 0.86 | Little |

As for the opinion on English listening needs in specific situations shown in Table 2, the value of mean shows that the participants have extensive needs in listening to a greeting (3.84±0.88). This is followed by listening to a conversation related to golf (3.58±0.95), a self-introduction (3.53±0.0.84), a request (3.50±0.91), and opinions and recommendations of the customers about the golf course's services (3.45±0.89). The other activities are at a moderate level. In total, English listening needs are at the extensive level with a mean of 3.45±0.92.

**Table 2** Opinions on English Listening Needs in Specific Situations

| Situations | Problems | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | Mean | S.D. | Level of Problems |
| Greetings | 3.72 | 0.89 | **Extensive** |
| Self-introduction | 3.48 | 0.84 | **Extensive** |
| Making daily conversations | 3.10 | 0.89 | Moderate |
| Making conversations about golf | 3.43 | 0.93 | **Extensive** |
| Making offers for help | 3.37 | 0.85 | Moderate |
| Giving information about the golf course's services | 3.28 | 0.93 | Moderate |
| Explaining the landscape of the golf course | 3.49 | 0.96 | **Extensive** |
| Giving advice about playing golf | 3.29 | 0.98 | Moderate |
| Explaining the regulations of the golf course | 3.28 | 0.91 | Moderate |
| Explaining the rules of golf | 3.12 | 0.96 | Moderate |
| Tell lines and scores in English | 3.07 | 10.5 | Moderate |
| Giving advice to players while playing golf | 3.22 | 0.93 | Moderate |
| **Total** | **3.32** | **0.93** | **Moderate** |

With regard to English speaking needs in particular situations, the results from Table 3 show that four activities of speaking were rated at the extensive level including greetings (3.72±0.89), self-introduction (3.78±0.84), explaining the landscape of the golf course (3.49±0.96), and making conversations about golf (3.43±0.93). Other activities in speaking were rated at the moderate level. In total, the English speaking needs for particular situations is at the moderate level with a mean of 3.32±0.93.

**Table 3** Opinions on English Speaking Needs in Specific Situations

| Situations | Problems | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | Mean | S.D. | Level of Problems |
| Greetings | 3.72 | 0.89 | **Extensive** |
| Self-introduction | 3.48 | 0.84 | **Extensive** |
| Making daily conversations | 3.10 | 0.89 | Moderate |
| Making conversations about golf | 3.43 | 0.93 | **Extensive** |
| Making offers for help | 3.37 | 0.85 | Moderate |
| Giving information about the golf course's services | 3.28 | 0.93 | Moderate |
| Explaining the landscape of the golf course | 3.49 | 0.96 | **Extensive** |
| Giving advice about playing golf | 3.29 | 0.98 | Moderate |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Explaining the regulations of the golf course | 3.28 | 0.91 | Moderate |
| Explaining the rules of golf | 3.12 | 0.96 | Moderate |
| Tell lines and scores in English | 3.07 | 10.5 | Moderate |
| Giving advice to players while playing golf | 3.22 | 0.93 | Moderate |
| **Total** | **3.32** | **0.93** | **Moderate** |

According to the results shown in Table 4, almost all of the English reading needs in particular situations are at the moderated level. Only reading English newspapers or magazines (2.43±0.79) is at a low level, with the mean of 2.43±0.79.

**Table 4** Opinion on English Reading Needs in Specific Situations

| Situations | Needs | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | **Mean** | **S.D.** | **Level of Needs** |
| Reading equipment manuals | 3.14 | 0.94 | Moderate |
| Reading rules and principles of golf | 3.08 | 0.93 | Moderate |
| Reading English newspapers or magazines | 2.43 | 0.79 | **Little** |
| Reading comments or recommendations from the customers about services | 3.01 | 0.97 | Moderate |
| Reading comments or recommendations from the customers about playing golf | 2.94 | 0.97 | Moderate |
| Reading English service manuals | 2.91 | 0.90 | Moderate |
| **Total** | **2.92** | **0.93** | **Moderate** |

Concerning the respondent's needs for writing skills, Table 5 shows that more than half of the writing activities are needed "little" including writing letters and emails, short notes in English for other staff, short notes about the golf course's services for customers and brief reports, while writing skills for completing an English form and writing short notes or advice for golfers in English are at the moderate level.

**Table 5** Opinions on English Writing Needs in Specific Situations

| Situations | Needs | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | **Mean** | **S.D.** | **Level of Needs** |
| Filling in English forms | 2.81 | 0.89 | Moderate |
| Writing letters and e-mails | 2.47 | 0.79 | **Little** |
| Writing short notes in English for other staff | 2.56 | 0.89 | **Little** |
| Writing short notes or advice for golfers in English | 2.81 | 0.96 | Moderate |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Writing short notes about the golf course's services for customers | 2.25 | 0.86 | **Little** |
| Writing brief reports about work | 2.37 | 0.82 | **Little** |
| **Total** | **2.54** | | **Little** |

*Part 3 Problems in English Usage of the Local Caddies*

As for the major problems in general, the skill that the participants have a problem with the most is listening skills with a mean score of 3.45±0.88 which is at the high level followed by problems with speaking (3.32±0.95), reading (3.25±0.98) and writing (3.05±0.98) at a moderate level as shown in Table 6.

**Table 6** Problems in the Four English Skills

| Skills | Problems | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | **Mean** | **S.D.** | **Level of problems** |
| Listening | 3.45 | 0.88 | **High** |
| Speaking | 3.32 | 0.95 | Moderate |
| Reading | 3.25 | 0.98 | Moderate |
| Writing | 3.05 | 0.98 | Moderate |

As for the details in each skill, the researcher found that the participants have high levels of problems with understanding fast speech, understanding unfamiliar accents, understanding long sentences, choosing appropriate words for service and lack of knowledge about slangs and idioms. The lack of knowledge about golf vocabularies is at a low level.

*Part 4 Opinions and Suggestions on Characteristics of an English Training Course for Local Caddies*

In the fourth part of the questionnaire asking about the characteristics of an English training course, the participants agree that the course should emphasize listening and speaking, and contain both common vocabulary and vocabulary related to golf. Moreover, the participants agree that the course should be a pure lecture, include multiple types of material and have an evaluation at the end of the course. Furthermore, the participants disagree with having an English training course focusing on reading and writing and encouraging learners to participate in the class.

*Part 5 Opinions and Reasons about English Usage Needs and Needs for Improving English Skills to Perform the Job*

In these open-ended questions which are the final part of the questionnaire, the local caddies gave the opinion that English is very necessary for their job because they have to communicate with foreign customers and it affects the level of their service. Moreover, they want to improve their English listening and speaking proficiency because they want to communicate with foreign customers effectively and improve their

job performance. The skills that they desire to improve the most are listening and speaking.

## Discussion

*Research question 1: What are the present English usage needs of local caddies?*

The researcher found that English is used as a medium to communicate with people who do not share the same native language as stated in Nomnian (2014). When considering communication skills, the researcher found that the skills which are extensively required are listening and speaking which is different to the study of Rattanaphumma (2009). The reason for this might be that the caddies have to be with the golfers for a long time during the match and have to interact with the golfers (Brand Matrix Research Co., Ltd., 2010). As for the details, the local caddies extensively need listening skills for understanding, greeting, self-introducing, making conversations about golf, requesting and recommending about services, and explaining the landscape of the golf course. This is because these activities are the major duties of the caddies. However, it was found that the other skills including reading and writing are also sometimes required because they sometimes use English for reading the equipment manuals, rules and principals of golf, comments and filling in English forms.

*Research question 2: What are the major problems local caddies have encountered when using English?*

The important skill they have the most difficulty with is listening. As for other skills including speaking, reading and writing, they also have problems at a moderate level. These are additional information from Rattanaphumma (2009) who focused only on problems with listening and speaking. However, the problems in listening and speaking affect job performance and services directly. The major problems of the local caddies are that they are unable to understand fast speech, unfamiliar accents and long sentences and are unable to choose appropriate words for services. This point appears interesting and useful for designing an English training course to develop the English proficiency of the local caddies.

*Research Question 3: What characteristics of an English training course do local caddies require?*

In this study, the researcher designed the primary outline and characteristics of the course by using the parameters of Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998). As for type of course and duration, this course could be an extensive course, which takes a small part of caddies' time, once a week for duration of two months because the caddies have to work almost every day. The course could be held in the evening once a week as the caddies require. Moreover, the extensive course could be parallel with the experience of the caddies and also respond to their immediate needs. The content of the course could be broadly focused consisting of listening and speaking in both general situations and related to golf and other content such as vocabulary and sentence structure. The material of the course could be designed specifically for this group of learners who have the same motivation toward learning English in a training course (homogeneous groups

and motivation). Furthermore, this course could be an assessed course having some tests at the end of the course to track their changes in English proficiency. As for the teacher and the flexibility of the course, the caddies prefer a native-speaker to design and teach the class. Moreover, the course could be a flexible course that allows the learners to give feedback because the teacher and the course designer might not be caddies and might not have much experience in this context.

## Conclusion

From the discussion, the researcher understood that the necessary skills which are extensively needed for the local caddies are listening and speaking. On the contrary, reading and writing are seldom required for them to perform their jobs adequately. The major problems of the caddies are the understanding of fast speech, unfamiliar accents and long sentences. The English training course designed for the caddies should emphasize listening and speaking taught by native-speaking teachers assisted by a Thai teacher who can help the learners to understand the native-speaking teacher. Finally, in the open-ended questions, the local caddies stated that English is very necessary for their job and they want to improve their English proficiency, especially listening and speaking.

## Implications

The researcher found that the skills which are the most important are listening and speaking. Major problems are also related to these skills. Therefore, the golf course should provide an English training course based on the requirements of the local caddies in the golf course. The first requirement is that the course should emphasize listening and speaking skills about greeting, self-introduction, conversation related to golf, understanding request and explaining golf course landscape, and should contain practice for listening to fast speech, unfamiliar accents, and long sentences. Moreover, the course should contain general and golf-related vocabulary, sentence structure as well as slang and idioms which seldom appear in the school standard curriculum. Secondly, the course should take place once a week for two months. It should be taught by a native-speaking teacher assisted by a Thai teacher. Furthermore, the course should start as soon as possible because English is very necessary for caddies.

Nevertheless, because of the limited time for the study, the researcher did not conduct a follow-up interview after using the questionnaire to provide in-depth information of English usage needs, the major problems and the desire for an English training course of the local caddies. Instead, the researcher used open-ended questions to collect data about their opinions and their suggestions. However, this method might not reveal information regarding every viewpoint. Therefore, further research should include follow-up interviews after using a questionnaire in order to obtain more information which could give explanations for the closed-ended questions from many points of view. Moreover, this study focuses on local caddies in a golf course in Ban Chang district in Rayong. As a result, the information is from a small group of local

caddies. Therefore, further research should focus on local caddies in other tourism provinces in order to investigate English usage needs of Thai caddies in other regions of Thailand.

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# Developing English Speaking Ability for Historical-Information Communication from Lessons based on Genre Approach for Thai EFL Adolescent Learners

**Patspat Praneenararat**

## Abstract

Currently, many English lessons have problems in furnishing linguistic guides to engage Thai adolescent learners to develop their speaking ability meaningfully for real-world situations. This research therefore has an objective to develop speaking lessons based on genre approach, focusing on how to produce and use the second/foreign language appropriately regarding purpose, organization, and language features. With a purpose to enhance ELT on this point, this research, thus, aims to: (1) design creative speaking lessons to develop speaking ability for conveying historical information, and (2) analyze the effectiveness of the lessons in developing the learners' speaking ability regarding linguistic elements by classroom observation with video recordings. The participants were a class of Thai EFL adolescent learners at Bangkokthonburi University. The findings revealed that the designed lessons could engage the participants in speaking development. Even though the lessons did not advance the participants' speaking ability to the level of mastery, the outcomes uncovered what the participants can or cannot do which is valuable for developing new lessons to advance the participants' speaking ability to the mastery level later on. The research demonstrated that English speaking pedagogy can be more beneficial and purposeful for Thai EFL adolescent learners by genre approach.

**Keywords:** oral communication practices, genre approach, materials development, discourse analysis and professional development

## บทคัดย่อ

เนื่องจากบทเรียนภาษาอังกฤษจำนวนมากในปัจจุบันยังประสบปัญหาในการให้แนวทางด้าน ภาษาศาสตร์เพื่อให้ผู้เรียนระดับเยาวชนสามารถเข้าถึงและนำไปพัฒนาความสามารถทางการพูดสื่อสาร ใจความสำคัญได้ในสถานการณ์จริง งานวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อพัฒนาบทเรียนตามหลักการสอนแบบอรรถ ลักษณะซึ่งมุ่งเน้นให้ผู้เรียนคำนึงถึงวัตถุประสงค์ของการพูด การจัดเรียงข้อมูล และ ลักษณะทางภาษาศาสตร์ เพื่อใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาที่สองหรือภาษาต่างประเทศได้อย่างเหมาะสม สืบเนื่องมาจากวัตถุประสงค์ที่ มุ่งหมายพัฒนาการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ งานวิจัยนี้จึงมีวัตถุประสงค์สองประการคือ เพื่อออกแบบบทเรียน ภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อยกระดับความสามารถทางการพูดเพื่อสื่อสารข้อมูลที่ปรากฏในอดีตและเพื่อวิเคราะห์ ประสิทธิภาพของบทเรียนในการพัฒนาความสามารถทางการพูดโดยคำนึงถึงลักษณะทางภาษาศาสตร์โดยการ สังเกตการณ์ในห้องเรียนจากการบันทึกวีดีทัศน์ กลุ่มตัวอย่างคือ ผู้เรียนจำนวนหนึ่งห้องของมหาวิทยาลัย

กรุงเทพธนบุรี ผลของการสืบค้นพบว่า บทเรียนที่ได้รับการออกแบบในงานวิจัยนี้สามารถพัฒนาความสามารถ
ทางการพูดของกลุ่มตัวอย่าง แม้ว่า บทเรียนดังกล่าวจะยังไม่สามารถพัฒนากลุ่มตัวอย่างให้มีความสามารถ
ทางการพูดให้เข้าสู่ระดับเชี่ยวชาญ แต่ผลลัพธ์ได้แสดงให้เห็นถึงสิ่งที่กลุ่มตัวอย่างสามารถทำได้และทำไม่ได้
วิจัยนี้จะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อการพัฒนาบทเรียนอื่นๆ เพื่อนำไปสู่การยกระดับความสามารถทางการพูดของกลุ่ม
ตัวอย่างให้เข้าสู่ระดับเชี่ยวชาญต่อไป งานวิจัยนี้ได้แสดงให้เห็นว่า การสอนพูดภาษาอังกฤษนั้นมีประโยชน์
และเป้าหมายต่อผู้เรียนไทยระดับเยาวชนในฐานะผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศได้มากขึ้นด้วย
หลักการสอนแบบอรรถลักษณะ

**คำสำคัญ:** การฝึกการสื่อสารโดยการออกเสียง, การสอนแบบอรรถฐาน, การพัฒนาสื่อการสอน, การ
วิเคราะห์ระดับข้อความ และการพัฒนาความเป็นมืออาชีพ

## Background

     To develop English speaking proficiency of Thai adolescent learners from high school up to university, no one would argue that English lessons in the coursebooks are not one of the primary tools of teachers. As stated in Conlon (2009: 65-67), lessons in these coursebooks consist of eye-catching information, appearance and content which teachers may not have any difficulties with teaching during class. Indeed, many teachers may not realize that these traditional ready-made lessons are somehow incapable of making the learners improve their speaking ability effectively. A number of learners are still unable to provide meaningful and purposeful information orally in real-world situations. Assuming the learners are asked or assigned to give historical information, it is questionable whether the learners will be capable of doing so. Fundamentally, the main causes of the problems that result in the majority of learners or speakers having difficulties originate from the following factors.

     First, pedagogical approaches, regarding the teacher-centredness principle, a number of English lessons especially in the Western-country coursebooks are designed with the main aim for the learners to build up knowledge from ready-made information by rote-memorization (Ratanakul & Than, 1990: 246-247). Conceptualizing the education as "banking", the teacher is the person positioned to be the only knower; on the other hand, the learners are assumed to be the persons who do know nothing (Freire, 1994: 52). Learning is "repetitive imitating," with the learners not required to think beyond the boundary of what the teacher knows to comprehend, investigate with curiosity, and produce a new idea (Berendt, 2008: 89). The learners have to admit the passive knowledge delivered by the teacher without criticism so as to acquire ability to deal with the formal examinations in which the learners are expected to perform excellently to gain social status, respect and acceptance as "knowers" (Ha, 2004: 51; McDevitt, 2004: 4-5).

     Second, linguistic purposes, as pointed out by Ratanakul and Than (1990: 246-247), learners are required to acquire knowledge in linguistic forms, patterns or rules,

and practice using them consciously with the belief that the habits of using the target language would be generated from the correct responses. Teachers only need to deliver such knowledge by assigning the learners to work on the exercises in the lessons (Conlon, 2009: 130). The learners possess no opportunity to develop the ability to communicate the information in an organized context purposefully.

## Research Rationale

For the objective to develop the learners' effective speaking, it can be articulated from the principle of materials development that: (1) the English lessons should be developed from an approach/approaches that mainly emphasize providing language-usage training, not the language knowledge; and (2) the English lessons should comprise clear communicative purposes for speaking practices. Referring to the learner-centredness concept of Tudor (1996: 1), English speaking lessons are supposed to be replete with a variety of learning activities to encourage learners on the linguistic-communicative enhancement.

## Research Objectives

To advance the learners' speaking proficiency which, in this case, is to be capable of conveying the historical information, it is theoretically clear that English lessons should consist of learners' communicative needs or linguistic/communicative purposes based on the genre approach, which, in this case, is the recount (Derewianka, 1990). To develop speaking lessons and pedagogy for the learners at this certain point, a study which is a part of the Ph.D. research, hence, has the objective of attaining the following:

1. Developing English lessons based on the genre approach for the information-report speaking practices for the Thai EFL adolescent learners at university levels

2. Revealing the outcomes of using the developed lessons for developing Thai EFL adolescent learners' recount speaking ability at the initial phase

## Research Question

*What are the outcomes of the materials designed for oral communication for Thai EFL learners at the university level in terms of communicative purposes, organization and language features of recount based on the genre approach?*

## Literature Review

### Genre Approach

The genre approach in second/foreign language learning, as identified by Cheng (2007: 288), was originally developed from the Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) primarily by M.A.K. Halliday plus some related ideas by other genre theorists. Theoretically, the approach has a key concept to develop learners' communication skills by furnishing frameworks for learners to produce contextual information in organized ways, not just isolated sentences. As explained by Foley (2011: 19) "genre is located at the level of context of culture", the language is specified as an instrument that the communicators as a member of culture and society may use for distributing contextual information for specific objectives and circumstances under specific culture and society (Myskow & Gordon, 2010: 291). Under the framework specified by a genre, the learners may consider what particular organization including specific communicative functions in order (interpersonal metafunction) and information arrangement in detail (textual metafunction) and language features (ideational metafunction) that they ought to apply in the contextual information (Connor 1996: 127). As indicated by Derewianka (1990), the fundamental genres that the learners should acquire are information report, instruction/process, explanation, argument, recount and narrative, each of which comprises its own distinctive communicative purpose, organization (interpersonal metafunction and textual metafunction) and key language features (ideational metafunction). Regarding the recount, its communicative purpose, organization and key language features can be identified as follows:

**Recount** (Derewianka, 1990: 15-16) and (Foley, 2011: 195)

a) Communicative Purpose – "Tell what happened" in the past

b) Organization – In achieving the communicative purpose:

   b1) Interpersonal Metafunction – The information is presented through orderly stages under the following communicative functions:

   - Orientation – Presenting initial background information of what happened, what and/or who were engaged, "where it happened" and "when it happened"
   - Events – Presenting the detail of the information as a series of incidents
   - Re-Orientation (Optional) – Presenting some personal comment at the end

   b2) Textual Metafunction – The detail of the information as a series of incidents is presented in a chronological sequence

c) Language Features (Ideational Metafunction)

   - Adverbs of time or any connecting items to link ideas chronologically

- Past tense
- Adverbs of purpose, reason, result, concession, condition to give logical explanations, justifications, or outcomes
- Adverbs of place/position, accompany, manner, frequency, degree, duration
- Adjectives, particularly numeratives, epithets, and classifiers, to give specific detail about quantity, characteristics, atmosphere, and feeling
- Specific participants – humans, things, and animals

Pedagogical practice under Communicative Language Teaching focuses on English lessons under genres that are in the form of situational and content-based material centered on social issues (Thu, 2009: 17). Based on Vygotsky's ideas of "cycle supports or scaffolds", pedagogy is implemented through the processes of modeling, analysis, joint performance and independent construction (Johns, 2003: 200). Practically, for classroom teaching based on the genre approach, the teaching/learning process for English lessons can be divided into two major sections. The first section is to provide the relevant input knowledge of the learning genre involving a communicative purpose, a framework for organization, and the use of relevant language features. The second section is to give a chance for the learners to practice producing and presenting contextual information from the assigned speaking topic of the learning genre.

## Research Design

An action-research case study on small groups of participants (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007: 255) was the approach to evaluate the outcomes of using the lessons developed for oral communication practices. Data were collected through classroom observation by video recordings. Qualitatively, the pieces of language including words, phrases, chunks and clauses applied for presenting organization (interpersonal metafunction and textual metafunction) and the language features (ideational metafunction) and meaning in context speaking were explored. Quantitatively, the frequencies of using the language features (ideational metafunction) were explored in percentages to reveal what language features to what degree the participants used.

## Research Participants

The target participants were Thai undergraduate students in English major in a class at Bangkokthonburi University (BTU) as identified in Table 1. However, only 17 students out of the 25 registered students participated.

**Table 1 Study Participants**

| Class | Participants | Code | Major | Course |
|-------|-------------|------|-------|--------|
| 1EN/55 | 25 | A1-A25 | English | Advanced Integrated English Language Skills 2 (EN 412) |

Two recount lessons were developed as illustrated in Table 2. The lessons included: (1) a warm-up activity, and (2) a speaking activity. Considering modeling, analysis and joint performance, a reading text was selected and designed for the target participants to read as a warm-up activity and also for the teacher to use as a speaking theme to manipulate the participants to initially be stimulated, generate, perceive or acquire some relevant ideas before the speaking activity. For independent construction, a speaking activity, which is an individual presentation, from a topic related to the warm-up activity was then assigned for the participants to practice speaking.

**Table 2 Speaking Activities of Recount Lessons**

| Lesson | Speaking Activity |
|---|---|
| Lesson 4: Original Siamese Twins | Talk about your self-development for the last 15 years to your friends in the classroom. |
| Lesson 9: My Earth My Reflection | Assume that the picture in front of you is the artwork of nowadays earth from the Save the Earth Foundation, from your imagination to the picture, recount what happened to the Earth in the past to your friends in the classroom. |

From the assigned speaking activity, the participants were engaged to apply schema and systemic knowledge featuring organization (interpersonal metafunction and textual metafunction), and language features (ideational metafunction) particularly for the communicative purpose of the learning genre.

## Data Collection

Classroom observation was the method to collect data so as to reveal the outcomes of the participants' speaking performance as well as obtain ideas for further improvement. The data were the participants' speaking presentations in the speaking session in the form of video.

## Data Analysis

The video recordings were analyzed to evaluate the outcomes of the lessons to answer the research question. The information that the participants presented while speaking was the main focus. After the records were transcribed, the spoken information was analyzed with the support of the designed observational checklists as illustrated in Example 1. Regarding the genre approach as mentioned in the literature review, the elements in the information including: (1) organization (interpersonal metafunction and textual metafunction), and (2) language features (ideational metafunction). The recount were checked, analyzed and evaluated. The purpose was to reveal to what extent the participants could speak for the specific communicative purpose when encountering a subject matter in a social situation, which, in this case, is to give historical information in chronological sequence.

## Example 1 – Participants' Overall Speaking Performance based on Recount
### (by Participant A14 in Lesson 4)

### Transcription

||hi| my name is ratikarn fusang|| ||i was born on november ninth nineteen ninety three|| ||i i live with my mother|| |||ah my father dead| when i was young||| |||ah i remember that|| ah when i six year old|| i saw the ghost|| ah i saw a white spirit i saw a white spirit||| |||it same ah human same ah a man and|| but i don't know|| i ask him..i ask him|| who are you|| but he not reply me||| |||ah suddenly he rans he ran into into my bathroom|| and i ran follow him|| ah but he lost but he lost||| |||i feel ah frighten|| but i didn't show my mother||| |||ah when i twelve years old| i join ah with my my parade||| ||ah i receive the position ah play play music|| ||i play a drum ahh i play a drum with my friend|| |||i was funny|| and i i was happy with my friend||| |||ah and the when i fifteen years old| i learn art social study with my friend and the monk ah|| but the monks ah learn another building||| ||ah i have ah i have three my friend that i very love|| |ahh they cute clever and friendly with me| |||i love them|| because them help me everything ah such as take homework take an activity and learning||| ||||ahh but finally i must ah seperate with my friend|| because the the difference between study||| ||ahh now i connect connect my friend by facebook line and telephone|| ||thank you||

### Data Analysis

| Organization | Information | Language Features |
|---|---|---|
| Orientation | ||hi| my name is ratikarn fusang|| ||*i was born on november ninth nineteen ninety three*|| ||*i i live with my mother*|| |||*ah my father dead| when i was young*|||| | Background-Info. Indicators |
| Events | |||ah i remember that|| ah when i six year old|| i saw the ghost|| ah i saw a white spirit i saw a white spirit||| |||it same ah human same ah a man and|| but i don't know|| i ask him..i ask him|| who are you|| but he not reply me||| |||ah suddenly he rans he ran into (into my bathroom)|| and i ran follow him|| ah but he lost but he lost||| |||i feel ah frighten|| but i didn't show my mother||| |||ah [when i twelve years old]| [i join] ah with my my parade||| ||ah i receive the position ah play play music|| ||i play a drum ahh i play a drum (with my friend)|| |||i was funny|| and i [i was] happy with my friend||| |||ah and the when i (fifteen years old)| i learn art social study with my friend and the monk ah|| [but the monks ah learn another building]||| ||ah i have ah i have three my friend that i very love|| |ahh they cute clever and friendly with me| |||i love them|| because them help me everything ah such as take homework take (an activity) and learning||| ||||ahh but finally i must ah seperate with my friend|| because the the difference between study||| ||ahh now i connect connect my friend (by facebook line and telephone)|| ||thank you|| | Indicators of Time-Sequence Information |
| Re-Orientation | | Personal-Comment Indicators |
| | | Time-Sequence Indicators |
| | | Subject + Potential Verb 2 + ……. |
| | | Subject + Verb 2 + ……. |
| | | Adverbs of Purpose, Reason, Result, Concession, Condition |
| | | Adverbs of Place |
| | | Adverbs of Accompany |
| | | Adverbs of Manner |
| | | Adverbs of Degree, Frequency, Duration |
| | | Adjectives in Noun Group |
| | | Specific Participants |

| | | **Ideational Metafunction (Language Features)** | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Item** | **Relevant Language Features** | **Words/Chunks/Clauses** | **No.** |
| 1 | Time-Sequence Indicators | i was born (on november ninth nineteen ninety three)<br><br>ah (when i twelve years old)\| i join ah with my my parade<br><br>ah and the (when i fifteen years old)\| i learn art social study with my friend and the monk ah\|\| but the monks ah learn another building<br><br>ahh but finally i must ah seperate with my friend\|\| because the the difference between study<br><br>ahh now i connect connect my friend by facebook line and telephone | 5 |
| 2 | Subject + Potential Modal Verbs to Display Possibility (in the Past) + ……. | xxxxx | ✗ |
| 3 | Subject + Potential Modal Verbs to Display Confirmation (in the Past) + ……. | xxxxx | ✗ |
| 4 | Subject + Modal Verbs to Display Possibility (in the Past) + ……. | xxxxx | ✗ |
| 5 | Subject + Modal Verbs to Display Confirmation (in the Past) + ……. | xxxxx | ✗ |
| 6 | Subject + Potential Verb 2 + ……. | [i live] with my mother<br><br>it same ah human same ah a man and\|\| but i don't know\|\| i ask him..[i ask] him\|\| who are you\|\| but [he not reply] me<br><br>ah when i twelve years old\| [i join] ah with my my parade<br><br>ah [i receive] the position ah play play music<br><br>i play a drum ahh [i play] a drum with my friend<br><br>ah and the when i fifteen years old\| [i learn] art social study with my friend and the monk ah\|\| but [the monks ah learn] another building<br><br>ah i have ah i have three my friend that [i very love] | 11 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | [**i love**] them‖ because [**them help**] me everything ah such as take homework take an activity and learning | |
| 7 | Subject + Verb 2 + ……. | [**i was**] born on november ninth nineteen ninety three<br><br>ah my father dead\| when [**i was**] young<br><br>ah i remember that‖ ah when i six year old‖ [**i saw**] the ghost‖ ah [**i saw**] a white spirit i saw a white spirit<br><br>ah suddenly he rans [**he ran**] into into my bathroom‖ and [**i ran follow**] him‖ ah but [**he lost**] but he lost<br><br>i feel ah frighten‖ but [**i didn't show**] my mother<br><br>[**i was**] funny‖ and i [**i was**] happy with my friend | 10 |
| 8 | Adverbs of Purpose, Reason, Result, Concession, Condition | it same ah human same ah a man and‖ [but i don't know]‖ i ask him..i ask him‖ who are you‖ [but he not reply me]<br><br>ah suddenly he rans he ran into into my bathroom‖ and i ran follow him‖ ah [but he lost] but he lost<br><br>i feel ah frighten‖ [but i didn't show my mother]<br><br>ah i receive the position (ah play play music)<br><br>ah and the when i fifteen years old\| i learn art social study with my friend and the monk ah‖ [but the monks ah learn another building]<br><br>i love them‖ [because them help me everything] ah such as take homework take an activity and learning<br><br>ahh but finally i must ah seperate with my friend‖ (because the the difference between study) | 8 |
| 9 | Adverbs of Place/Position | ah suddenly he rans he ran into (into my bathroom)‖ and i ran follow him‖ ah but he lost but he lost<br><br>ah and the when i fifteen years old\| i learn art social study with my friend and the | 3 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | monk ah|| but the monks ah learn (another building)<br><br>ahh but finally i must ah seperate (with my friend)|| because the the difference between study | |
| 10 | Adverbs of Accompany | i live (with my mother)<br><br>ah when i twelve years old| i join ah (with my my parade)<br><br>i play a drum ahh i play a drum (with my friend)<br><br>i was funny|| and i i was happy (with my friend)<br><br>ah and the when i fifteen years old| i learn art social study (with my friend and the monk) ah|| but the monks ah learn another building<br><br>ahh they cute clever and friendly (with me)<br><br>i love them|| because them help me everything ah (such as take homework take an activity and learning) | 7 |
| 11 | Adverbs of Manner | it (same ah human same ah a man) and|| but i don't know|| i ask him..i ask him|| who are you|| but he not reply me<br><br>i feel ah frighten|| but i didn't show my mother<br><br>ahh now i connect connect my friend (by facebook line and telephone) | 3 |
| 12 | Adverbs of Degree, Frequency, Duration | ah i remember that|| ah when (i six year old)|| i saw the ghost|| ah i saw a white spirit i saw a white spirit<br><br>ah suddenly he rans he ran into into my bathroom|| and i ran follow him|| ah but he lost but he lost<br><br>ah when i (twelve years old)| i join ah with my my parade<br><br>ah and the when i (fifteen years old)| i learn art social study with my friend and the monk ah|| but the monks ah learn another building | 5 |

| | | ah i have ah i have three my friend that i very love | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 13 | Adjectives in Noun Group | november ninth nineteen ninety three<br><br>my mother<br><br>my father<br><br>six year old<br><br>the ghost<br><br>a white spirit<br><br>a man<br><br>my bathroom<br><br>twelve years old<br><br>my parent<br><br>a drum<br><br>my friend (5)<br><br>fifteen years old<br><br>art social study<br><br>the monks (2)<br><br>another building<br><br>three my friend that i very love<br><br>an activity<br><br>the difference between study | 24 |
| 14 | Specific Participants | i<br><br>my mother<br><br>my father<br><br>the ghost<br><br>my friend<br><br>the monks | 6 |

The data analysis was systematically evaluated for reliability with the use of a designed checklist evaluation. The evaluator was a foreign English teacher having a Ph.D in ELT and direct ELT education background and knowledge in Genre Approach

and Systemic Functional Grammar. As stated by Dörnyei (2001: 224) and Dörnyei (2003: 74), 30 percent of the collected data in each lesson were selected as the samples for the evaluation to affirm the statistical significance. Again, as presented by Dörnyei (2001: 204), the data analysis on each piece of data in the samples is supposed to earn a total score (reliability-coefficient value) of at least 70 percent to prove reliable. In other words, the data analysis conducted by the researcher should be agreed with by the evaluator at least 70 percent to identify that the data was appropriately analyzed.

From the reliability evaluation, it was found that, for 1EN/55 Class, the evaluator agreed 100 percent with the data analysis for Lesson 9: My Earth My Reflection, and 99 percent for Lesson 4: Original Siamese Twins. Thus, it was confirmed that the data analysis for the research was reliable.

## Findings, Analysis and Discussion

From the data analysis as illustrated in Example 1, these are the brief results of the participants' speaking performances in giving historical information for Lesson 4 – Original Siamese Twins, which is self-development for the last 15 years and Lesson 9 – My Earth My Reflection, which is on the Earth's environment in the past.

### 1. Organization (Interpersonal Metafunction and Textual Metafunction)

The following are the outcomes on the organization in both interpersonal metafunction and textual metafunction when the participants were presenting the historical information based on the recount in Lesson 4 and Lesson 9. The outcomes can be discussed as follows:

### 1a) Interpersonal Metafunction

**Table 3 Participants' Presenting Communicative Functions in Recount Lessons**

| 1EN/55 Class | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Lesson 4 | % | | | Lesson 9 | % |
| O | P | A14 | 6 | O | P | xxxxx | x |
| | N | A1, A2, A3, A4, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, A10, A11, A12, A20, A22, A23, A24 | 94 | | N | A1, A2, A3, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, A10, A12, A14, A19, A20, A21, A22, A23, A24 | 100 |
| E | P | A1, A2, A3, A4, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, A10, A11, A12, A14, A20, A22, A23, A24 | 100 | E | P | A1, A2, A3, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, A10, A12, A14, A19, A20, A21, A22, A23, A24 | 100 |
| | N | xxxxx | x | | N | xxxxx | x |
| R | P | A6, A9, A11, A22, A24 | 29 | R | P | A23 | 6 |

| | N | A1, A2, A3, A4, A5, A7, A8, A10, A12, A14, A20, A23 | 71 | | N | A1, A2, A3, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, A10, A12, A14, A19, A20, A21, A22, A24 | 94 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|

**O = Orientation**                    **P = Produced**

**E = Events**                           **N = Not Produced**

**R = Re-Orientation**

From the participants' performance on the interpersonal metafunction, in both Lesson 4 and Lesson 9, most participants were imperfect in presenting the required communicative functions to encounter the specific purpose of the recount. All of them could provide the events, but not many participants could also provide the orientation and re-orientation for the historical information that they created. This could be due to the following reasons:

1. Good Awareness, Prior English Learning and Experience: One of the reasons that most participants produced only the events would be the lack of awareness in generating a proper beginning and ending of the historical information during the period of information creation. The primary cause of losing awareness in creating the orientation and the reorientation would be the lack of experience in presenting the recount information due to the participant's prior English learning and experience which had never provided this specific lessons and practices before.

2. Creativity: Another factor that causes participants to be unable to produce both the orientation and the re-orientation is the creativity and proficiency in generating ones. Again, the possible origins of this difficulty is from the participants' prior English learning which had not provided this idea, inadequate speaking-presentation experiences in the past both in Thai and English, and/or personal motivation and activeness to produce ones during that moment.

**1b) Textual Metafunction**

**Table 4 Participants' Presenting Time-Sequence Information in the Events in Recount Lessons**

| 1EN/55 Class | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Lesson 4** | | **%** | | **Lesson 9** | | **%** |
| **P** | A1, A2, A3, A4, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, A10, A11, A12, A14, A20, A22, A23, A24 | | **100** | **P** | A1, A2, A3, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, A10, A12, A14, A19, A20, A21, A22, A23, A24 | | **100** |
| **N** | xxxxx | | **x** | **N** | xxxxx | | **x** |

**P = Produced**                          **N = Not Produced**

From the participants' performance on the textual metafunction, in both lessons, all the participants had no problems in presenting the time-sequence information in the events for the recount. This may be due to the following reasons:

1. Awareness and Ability to Create In-detail Information: The participants seemed to have awareness and perceive the ways to generate the time-sequence information from the original idea that they created. One primary possibility that helped support the participants to be able to do so could be from the other lessons supplied in the classes before these two lessons, which promoted the participants to pay more attention at this particular point.

2. Focus of Information Arrangement: Besides awareness and ability to generate the time-sequence information, the participants seemed to have no problems to work on the process of the information arrangement and outline to be in a proper timeline. Again, one possibility likely to support the participants to overcome this particular point could be the learning experience from the previous lessons.

### 2. Use of Language Features (Ideational Metafunction)

The followings are the outcomes of using the language features of the recount when the participants were presenting the historical information in Lesson 4 and Lesson 9 as follows:

### 2a) Time-Sequence Indicators

**Table 5 Participants' Applying Time-Sequence Indicators in Recount Lessons**

| 1EN/55 Class | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Lesson 4** | **%** | | **Lesson 9** | **%** |
| **P** | A1, A2, A3, A4, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, A10, A11, A12, A14, A20, A22, A23, A24 | 100 | **P** | A1, A2, A3, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, A10, A12, A14, A19, A20, A21, A22, A23, A24 | 100 |
| **N** | xxxxx | x | **N** | xxxxx | x |

**P = Produced**                    **N = Not Produced**

From the participants' performance on the use of the time-sequence indicators, in both lessons, participants had no problems in applying the time-sequence indicators to organize the time-sequence information in the events while presenting the historical information for the recount. For the participants having the time-sequence indicators, the ways that they mainly applied the time-sequence indicators are by producing the adverbs of time and/or the step/sequence indicators in the forms of words, nominal groups, phrases, unorganized chunks or clauses. The possible causes that the participants produced such a positive outcomes could be because of the following reasons:

1. Necessary Language Knowledge and Ways to Apply: One of the reasons that almost all the participants could produce and apply the time-sequence indicators could be because of their language knowledge. This is normally the set of input knowledge that the participants had accumulated from their previous English learning, mostly in the high-school level.

2. Experience and Good Awareness: Another reason could be the participants' presentation experience from the previous lessons provided in the class, which supported the participants to acquire more awareness in applying the time-sequence indicators as necessary for the information. Also, it could be because the participants seemed to be more careful about making mistakes.

**2b) Clause Forming**

**Table 6 Participants' Applying Clauses in Recount Lessons**

| 1EN/55 Class | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Item** | **Lesson 4** | **%** | **Item** | **Lesson 9** | **%** |
| 2 | A1 (3), A2 (1), A5 (1), A9 (2), A12 (1), A24 (1) | 3 | 2 | A5 (1), A8 (1), A24 (1) | 1 |
| 3 | A10 (3), A23 (2) | 1 | 3 | A5 (1) | 0.5 |
| 4 | A8 (1), A20 (2), A23 (1) | 1 | 4 | A23 (1) | 0.5 |
| 5 | A3 (1), A4 (1), A20 (1), A23 (3) | 2 | 5 | A12 (1), A20 (1), A23 (1) | 1 |
| 6 | A1 (5), A2 (5), A3 (7), A4 (1), A5 (12), A6 (12), A7 (6), A8 (5), A9 (2), A10 (10), A11 (12), A12 (10), A14 (11), A20 (10), A22 (8), A23 (5), A24 (5) | 35 | 6 | A2 (1), A5 (5), A6 (1), A7 (1), A10 (1), A12 (3), A14 (1), A20 (2), A21 (2), A22 (3), A23 (4) | 11 |
| 7 | A1 (1), A2 (2), A3 (2), A4 (2), A5 (5), A6 (9), A7 (1), A8 (5), A10 (9), A11 (5), A12 (5), A14 (10), A20 (5), A23 (13), A24 (2) | 21 | 7 | A2 (2), A3 (3), A5 (9), A7 (1), A8 (2), A10 (5), A12 (7), A14 (4), A19 (2), A20 (9), A22 (12), A23 (11), A24 (3) | 32 |
| X | A1 (3), A2 (9), A3 (2), A4 (3), A5 (10), A6 (2), A7 (4), A8 (16), A9 (10), A10 (1), A11 (21), A12 (4), A14 (7), A22 (9), A23 (9), A24 (23) | 37 | X | A1 (13), A2 (5), A3 (3), A5 (7), A6 (7), A7 (3), A8 (5), A9 (7), A10 (8), A12 (6), A14 (18), A19 (4), A20 (2), A21 (6), A22 (8), A23 (11), A24 (6) | 54 |

Item 2  =  Subject + Potential Modal Verbs to Display Possibility (in the Past) + …….

Item 3  =  Subject + Potential Modal Verbs to Display Confirmation (in the Past) + …….

Item 4  =  Subject + Modal Verbs to Display Possibility (in the Past) + …….

Item 5  =  Subject + Modal Verbs to Display Confirmation (in the Past) + …….

Item 6  =  Subject + Potential Verb 2 + …….

Item 7  =  Subject + Verb 2 + …….

Item X  =  Other Clause Forms

*** (Number)                = Frequency Number Produced by Participant on Item
        Overall, many participants still have difficulties in forming the relevant clauses for the recount speech due to their low number of relevant-clause production and high number of irrelevant clauses. For the relevant clauses, 'Subject + Potential Verb 2 + …….' and 'Subject + Verb 2 + …….' are those that the majority of participants mainly produced while presenting the recount speech. On the producing clause 'Subject + Potential Modal Verbs to Display Possibility (in the Past) + …….' and 'Subject + Modal Verbs to Display Possibility (in the Past) + …….', the verbs 'could', 'would', 'intend to', 'like to', 'like to', 'dislike to', 'try to', 'use to' and 'want to' are those used by participants. The verbs 'must', 'be to', 'begin to', 'decide to', 'get to', 'go to', 'have to', 'move to', 'need to', 'start to' and 'use to' were used in 'Subject + Potential Modal Verbs to Display Confirmation (in the Past) + …….' and 'Subject + Modal Verbs to Display Confirmation (in the Past) + …….'.  The possible causes for this result could due to the following:

1. L1 Interference: The possible reason that many participants could not come up with a combination of the past-tense clauses effectively could be that they were not familiar with how to use these specific clause forms although they have learnt these types of clauses in their previous English lessons. This unfamiliarity highly seems to be from Thai language, the participants' native language (L1), that the participants speak outside of class on a daily basis. Thai language has no past tense clauses to use for presenting past information.

2. Awareness in Applying Relevant Clause Forms: The participants still had low awareness in applying the appropriate clause forms, which, in this case, are the past tense clauses, into their information regarding the communicative purpose. From the high number of other clauses applied in the information by many participants implies that participants also had low awareness to avoid applying the irrelevant clauses that they should not apply, which, in this case, are the timeless or present tense clauses.

**2c) Adverbial Groups**

**Table 7 Participants' Applying Adverbial Groups in Recount Lessons**

| 1EN/55 Class | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Item** | **Lesson 4** | **%** | **Item** | **Lesson 9** | **%** |
| **8** | A1 (3), A2 (6), A4 (1), A5 (6), A6 (6), A7 (1), A8 (7), A9 (4), A11 (9), A12 (3), A14 (8), A20 (2), A22 (5), A23 (6), A24 (3) | 21 | **8** | A1 (4), A2 (6), A3 (1), A5 (1), A6 (10), A7 (4), A8 (3), A9 (6), A12 (5), A14 (10), A19 (3), A20 (7), A21 (6), A22 (5), A23 (10), A24 (4) | 36 |
| **9** | A1 (4), A2 (6), A3 (4), A4 (2), A5 (12), A6 (14), A7 (9), A8 (6), A10 (7), A11 (6), A12 (10), A14 (3), A20 (15), A22 (5), A23 (17), A24 (5) | 37 | **9** | A1 (5), A2 (3), A3 (5), A5 (17), A6 (4), A7 (2), A8 (2), A10 (5), A12 (4), A14 (10), A19 (2), A20 (9), A21 (4), A22 (2), A23 (11), A24 (7) | 39 |
| **10** | A1 (1), A2 (2), A3 (1), A4 (3), A5 (3), A6 (3), A7 (4), A8 (1), A9 (2), A10 (4), A12 (2), A14 (7), A20 (3), A22 (2), A24 (2) | 12 | **10** | A1 (1), A5 (1), A6 (2), A7 (1), A9 (1), A10 (2), A12 (2), A14 (1), A19 (2), A22 (2), A24 (1) | 6.5 |
| **11** | A1 (1), A2 (3), A4 (1), A8 (1), A9 (1), A10 (4), A11 (1), A14 (3), A23 (2) | 4 | **11** | A1 (1), A2 (1), A6 (1), A7 (1), A9 (1), A10 (3), A14 (3), A20 (1), A23 (4) | 6.5 |
| **12** | A1 (2), A2 (3), A3 (5), A4 (2), A5 (4), A6 (9), A7 (5), A8 (9), A9 (4), A10 (6), A11 (10), A12 (3), A14 (5), A20 (2), A22 (4), A23 (8), A24 (8) | 26 | **12** | A1 (1), A2 (1), A3 (2), A5 (2), A6 (3), A7 (1), A8 (3), A10 (2), A14 (1), A19 (1), A20 (2), A21 (1), A22 (2), A23 (6) | 12 |

Item 8   =   Adverbs of Purpose/Reason/Result/Concession/Condition

Item 9   =   Adverbs of Place/Position

Item 10 =   Adverbs of Accompany

Item 11 =   Adverbs of Manner

Item 12 =   Adverbs of Degree/Frequency/Duration

*** (Number)                =   Frequency Number Produced by Participant on Item

Overall, in both Lesson 4 and Lesson 9, most participants had no difficulties in producing some of the adverbs of place/position and the adverbs of degree/frequency/duration. Furthermore, at least half of participants were, more or less, able to produce some adverbs of accompany and adverbs of manner together. For the adverbs of purpose/reason/result/ concession/condition, in both Lesson 4 and Lesson 9, most participants had no problems in producing such adverbs to provide logical support

for the recount; however, not everyone could produce a good number. This outcome may be the result of the following:

1. Awareness in Applying Adverbs: One reason that participants could perform well in applying adverbs of place and adverbs of degree/frequency/duration could be from participants' awareness in adding more in-depth detail taught in previous lessons. However, such learning experiences cannot cause the participants to apply adverbs of manner and adverbs of accompany to add more in-depth detail into their contextual information effectively yet.

**2d) Use of Adjectives**

    Regarding using adjectives in the forms of the nominal groups, there are 53 to 55 nominal group combinations that participants produced in a lesson. However, only 26 to 32 are grammatically appropriate.

**Table 8 Top 5 Nominal Groups Participants Produced from Recount Presentation**

| | 1EN/55 Class | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Lesson 4** | | **%** | | **Lesson 9** | | **%** |
| **1st** | D+HN | **Ex.** the frog (A12) | 30 | **1st** | D+HN | **Ex.** the forest (A24) | 39 |
| **2nd** | C+HN | **Ex.** english major (A22) | 14 | **2nd** | N+HN | **Ex.** many people (A24) | 13 |
| **3rd** | N+HN | **Ex.** eight years (A22) | 12 | **3rd** | D+HN+PP | **Ex.** the forest in the past (A24) | 7 |
| **4th** | HN+N | **Ex.** pratom one (A12) | 7.5 | **4th** | C+HN | **Ex.** polar bear (A12) | 5.5 |
| **5th** | E+HN | **Ex.** free time (A24) | 6 | **5th** | E+HN | **Ex.** green forest (A2) | 5 |
| | | | | **5th** | D+E+HN | **Ex.** a little mermaid (A5) | 5 |
| **X** | ICNG | | 5 | **X** | ICNG | | 11 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| D | = | Deitic | HN | = | Head Noun |
| N | = | Numerative | CL | = | Relative Clause |
| E | = | Epithet | PP | = | PP+NG |
| C | = | Classifier | | | |
| ICNG | = | Inappropriate Nominal Groups | | | |

Overall, the majority of participants had no problems in producing at least five to eight types of appropriate nominal group combinations for the recount speech in both lessons. 'Deitic + Head Noun' is the nominal group combination most frequently produced by most participants from both classes. Likewise 'Deitic + Head Noun', the nominal group combinations, 'Numerative + Head Noun', 'Classifier + Head Noun', 'Epithet + Head Noun', 'Head Noun + Numerative', 'Deitic + Epithet + Head Noun' and 'Deitic + Head Noun + PP+NG', were also frequently produced along with some to many participants depending on the speech. This outcome may be the result of the following:

1. Accumulated Adjective Vocabulary Knowledge: Many of the adjectives utilized to form the nominal groups by many participants are only basic vocabularies, which are occasionally inappropriate for the context. Moreover, the choices of adjective vocabularies applied into the contexts are not varied, thus it can be inferred that adjective vocabulary knowledge applied by participants were not advanced.

2. Accumulated Nominal Group Knowledge and Awareness in Applying: The participants' language technique, creativity and awareness were only enough to form simple appropriate nominal group combinations. Moreover, some were still lack awareness of how to avoid producing inappropriate nominal groups.

### 2e) Specific Participants

**Table 9 Participants' Applying Specific Participants in Recount Lessons**

| 1EN/55 Class | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **Lesson 4** | **%** | | **Lesson 9** | **%** |
| **P** | A1, A2, A3, A4, A5, A6, A7, A8, A9, A10, A11, A12, A14, A20, A22, A23, A24 | **100** | **P** | A1, A2, A3, A5, A6, A8, A10, A12, A14, A19, A22, A23 | **71** |
| **N** | xxxxx | **x** | **N** | A7, A9, A20, A21, A24 | **29** |

**P = Produced**                    **N = Not Produced**

From the participants' performance in producing the specific participants, participants could identify the specific participants for the recount speech in both lessons. In-depth, it seems to be that many participants did not had enough capability of making the specific participants packing with more in-depth detail for the better identification and recognition for the audience. The possible causes could be for the following reasons:

1. Language Knowledge and Creativity: One possible factor that causes many participants to be unable to identify the specific participants clearly would be from the participants' inadequate language knowledge to produce one. Factually, the language

knowledge to identify the specific participant is the nominal group production. Because the participants' language knowledge of this is low, their creativity or technique to generate the specific participants for the context is also limited.

2. Awareness in Applying: Further to the lack of language knowledge and creativity, it seemed to be that many participants also had low awareness to introduce the specific participants appropriately in the information they created. The possible cause of this problematic point would be from the lack of experience in presenting the recount information, in which the participants have practiced only twice in the two lessons.

## 3. Summary of the Outcomes in Speaking Performance

Considering the genre approach, the outcomes revealed that both lessons could engage the participants in initial speaking practices as to convey the contextual information by the organization (interpersonal metafunction and textual metafunction) and the use of the language features (ideational metafunction) for the recount (give historical information in chronological sequence) as initially expected. Yet, the lessons could have not improved the participants' speaking ability to the level of mastery in this initial phase of practices. There were some specific points that the participants could and could not do.

On the interpersonal metafunction, the majority of the participants could present the events; however, they had difficulties in presenting the orientation and the re-orientation. On the textual metafunction, most participants had no problems in presenting the time-sequence information in the events. On the ideational metafunction (the use of language features), the participants organized the time-sequence information in the events mainly by using the time-sequence indicators together with some step-by-step indicators. For clause forming, however, the majority of the participants had difficulties in applying the relevant clauses as they used only a few of 'Subject + Potential Verb 2 + …….' and 'Subject + Verb 2 + …….' while presenting the information. For the adverbial groups, most participants could produce the adverbs of place/position and the adverbs of degree/frequency/duration. Furthermore, several participants could, more or less, produce the adverbs of accompany and the adverbs of manner along with. Regarding the use of adjectives, most participants could produce five to eight types of the appropriate nominal group combination in both lessons. Nevertheless, only a few participants produced a high number of the inappropriate nominal group combinations. The combinations that the participants produced most frequently were 'Deitic + Head Noun', 'Numerative + Head Noun', 'Classifier + Head Noun', 'Epithet + Head Noun', 'Head Noun + Numerative', 'Deitic + Epithet + Head Noun' and 'Deitic + Head Noun + PP+NG'. For the creation of the specific participants, many participants could identify the specific participants; however, they have not acknowledged the ways to add the elements to enhance their specific participants to be significant enough for the target audience to recognize easily.

**4. Recommendation for Materials Development and Pedagogy**

**4.1 Recommendation for Awareness and Further Improvement**

To improve the recount speaking practice and the speech production of the participants to be more effective in future, these are the criteria that should be considered:

1. Orientation and Re-Orientation: Since many participants presented only the events in their speeches, creating and presenting the orientation and re-orientation should be encouraged. The idea of creating the orientation and also the re-orientation (optional) along with some models should be facilitated to the participants. Supposing that this particular idea is appropriately furnished, it will not only help the participants enhance input knowledge, creativity and can-do belief in creating the orientation and re-orientation, but also awareness in doing so while that they are preparing the information.

2. Clause Forming: Because several participants used the clauses presenting the present time, the clause 'Subject + Verb 2 + …….' or any other clauses presenting the past time should be reminded to the participants to have an awareness to apply in the speech. At the same time, the participants should also be reminded to avoid using any clauses conveying the present time, if the part that the participants are talking is not belonged to the present period.

3. Adverb Groups: Some examples which explore the ways to apply the adverbs of manner and the adverbs of accompany into the recount context should be presented to increase this initial idea and awareness to the participants. Again, the examples of words, phrases, chunks and clauses that can be used as the adverbs of accompany and manner, should be provided to the participants if this action has not been done in the lessons before, or there may be extra interesting cases to point out. Since the adverbs of purpose, reason, result, concession and condition are also relevant adverbs for this recount, participants may optionally be encouraged to apply more on these adverbs to upgrade the quality of the information from the regular recount to be the recount with logical supports. If enough time is available, there should be an explanation in detail to help the participants perceive the ways to produce these particular adverbs and have awareness of applying them into the speech.

4. Nominal Groups: The idea of producing a large number of nominal groups for the information should still be promoted. Furthermore, the explanation about the methods to produce the nominal groups with the more advance combinations should be operated together with some examples if the explanation has not been conducted before, or be carried on if the explanation has already been provided.

5. Specific Participants: To help the students be able to provide clearer or more recognized specific participants, a modeling explanation on the ways to give more in-depth detail and better identification for the specific participants should be presented to the students. For the recount speech, ones of the simple ways are by giving a specific

name to some specific characters and/or adding some pre-modifiers and/or a post-modifier. In addition, some examples that show the creative ways to introduce the specific participants to the audience during the presentation should also be presented to make the students perceive more idea and also awareness to work on this specific point.

## 4.2 Future Materials Development and Pedagogy

Considering the materials development and pedagogy, teaching recount speaking can be further developed based on the genre approach as follows:

The lesson plan for the recount can be separated to be two segments: (1) logical recount development, and (2) pre-narrative development, considering building the continuous learning process and maximizing learners' speaking ability. In the first segment, the learners may start practicing from the basic recount lessons which require the learners to apply only the adverbs of place/position, accompany, exception, manner, degree, frequency and duration similar to the information-report and the instruction/ procedure lessons. Subsequently, a set of advanced recount lessons, which also encourage the learners to apply the adverbs of purpose, reason, result, concession and condition, are supposed to be provided to the learners to continue practicing. The speaking practices from this segment should be very beneficial to the learners who plan to practice the argumentative speaking in the future because the historical information with logical supports can also be used as a type of analytical interpretation in the argument. In the second segment, the learners may start practicing from a set of the recount lessons which the learners only try to present the historical information from the beginning to the end in the chronological sequence. Later on, a set of advanced recount lessons, which also encourage the learners to present at least a twist in the information, is supposed to be provided to the learners to continue practicing. The practices from this segment should be able to help develop the learners' sense and ability to produce a twist when they go for the narrative-speaking practices in the future.

## Study Limitations

Although this study has revealed several points of beneficial and interesting information about the materials development and pedagogy for speaking development in linguistic aspects, this study comprises two major limitations. Firstly, there are only two lessons designed for the study. In addition, this study is limited by external factors including the grammatical knowledge at the micro level, vocabulary, and pronunciation or sound production because they were not a major focus of the teaching programs.

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# Intergenerational Variation in Lawua (Bo Luang Dialect)

**Rakkhun Panyawuthakrai**

## Abstract

Lawua of Bo Luang dialect varies according to different speakers of different generations: old aged, middle aged, and young aged. The old generation better keeps archaic forms of language, i.e., [ɲ, l̩, ŋ] initially, [ɲ, m] finally, and double vowel clusters [iə, uə, əi, əo, ao] in syllables. The young aged generation are leading to new forms of language, i.e., [a] to replace [iə]. The middle aged generation opt for either the old or the new. The phonology of Lawua is also restudied and it is found that (1) the consonant inventory consists of 28 initial consonants, six consonant clusters, and 10 final consonants; (2) the vowel inventory consists of nine monophthongs, 14 diphthongs, and one triphthong [iao] which is realized as a variant of [ɛo]; (3) two pitches contrast in the meanings and grammatical forms of words: the high pitch marks the adjectives and/or the verbs, the low pitch marks the noun; and (4) four syllables are monosyllables, sesquisyllables, disyllables, and trisyllables which are rarely found. The variation is also found in choice of words, i.e., one Lawua word to mean several as [cuəŋ] to mean 'leg, thigh, knee, calf, shin, foot, heel' and shift to the influential NT. The lexical variation is more often found in the young generation.

**Keywords**: intergeneration, variation, Lawua, dialect

## บทคัดย่อ

ภาษาเลอเวือะสำเนียงถิ่นบ่อหลวง แปรตามวัยที่แตกต่างกันของผู้พูด คือสูงวัย กลางคน และหนุ่ม สาว โดยผู้สูงวัยเก็บภาษารูปแบบเก่าได้ดีกว่า เช่น เสียงต้นพยางค์ [ɲ, l̩, ŋ] เสียงท้ายพยางค์ [ɲ, m] และ เสียงสระประสมสองเสียง [iə, uə, əi, əo, ao] ในพยางค์ วัยหนุ่มสาวสะท้อนภาษารูปแบบใหม่ เช่นใช้เสียง สระ [a] แทนเสียง [iə] วัยกลางคนใช้ทั้งภาษารูปแบบเก่าและใหม่ นอกจากนี้ยังพบว่า (1) ระบบเสียง พยัญชนะประกอบด้วย เสียงต้นพยางค์ 28 หน่วยเสียง เสียงควบกล้ำ 6 หน่วยเสียง และเสียงท้ายพยางค์ 10 หน่วยเสียง (2) ระบบเสียงสระประกอบด้วย เสียงสระเดี่ยว 9 หน่วยเสียง เสียงสระประสมสองส่วน 14 หน่วย เสียง และเสียงสระประสมสามส่วน 1 เสียง และเป็นเสียงแปรรูปหนึ่งของสระประสม [ɛo] (3) ระดับเสียง 2 ระดับมีความต่างกันในการสื่อความหมายและรูปแบบทางไวยากรณ์ของคำศัพท์ กล่าวคือ เสียงระดับสูงบ่งถึง คำวิเศษณ์และ/หรือคำกริยา เสียงระดับต่ำบ่งถึงคำนาม (4) พยางค์มี 4 ลักษณะคือพยางค์เดี่ยว พยางค์ครึ่ง สองพยางค์ และสามพยางค์ซึ่งค่อนข้างพบได้น้อย การแปรยังปรากฏในการเลือกใช้คำ คือ คำหนึ่ง มีหลาย

ความหมาย เช่น [cuɔŋ] "ขา สะโพก เข่า น่อง หน้าแข้ง เท้า และส้นเท้า" การปรับเปลี่ยนใช้คำไทยเหนือและการแปรศัพท์มักพบในวัยหนุ่มสาว

**คำสำคัญ**: ระหว่างอายุ, การแปร, เลอเวือะ, ภาษาถิ่น

# 1. Introduction

Lawua (LW) is generally called by outsiders 'Lua or Lawa' is a Waic language in Mon-Khmer language family (Diffloth, 1982, cited in Hopple (SIL) 1986). LW is neither a tone nor register language unlike its sister languages namely Phalok and Wa which both are register (phonation typed languages) where there normally are two lexically contrastive phonation types: clear (normal, modal) voice vs. breathy voice (Thongkum, 1988: 28). However, it is noted that there might have some contrastive vowel features in creakiness (tense) and breathiness (lax) (Block, 2013: 17). Nevertheless, it needs further studies. LW language actually has a variety of dialects across the regions of Chiang Mai (CM) province and Mae Hong Son (MHS) province of Thailand (TH). Particularly, the LW language for this study is spoken in Bo Luang (BL) and Bo Pawaen (BP) adjacent villages of CM's Hot district in which BL dialect is commonly spoken. One other neighboring village called Bo Sa-ngae (BS) is not included since the dialect spoken therein is not the same dialect as spoken in BL and BP. For example, [saŋaiʔ] 'sun' of Bo Luang dialect is [saŋa e] of Bo Sa-ngae dialect. It is also possible for one to hear other distinct languages in the community as well: Northern Thai (NT), in particular and Central Thai (CT) with much less frequency.

## *1.1 BL and BP villages*

**Names:** BL village is represented in Thai as 'Bann Bo Luang' as 'Baan' [baːn] means 'village', 'Bo' [bɔː] means 'well (noun)' and 'Luang' [lǔəŋ] means 'big' has been called in LW as [juəŋ] 'village' [rɨʔ] 'big' while BP village is represented in Thai as 'Baan Bo Pawaen' as 'Pawaen' has its old name 'Pawen' [paweːn] meaning that it was full of 'Pops' (raw meat eating persons under control of a ghost) so it was suggested to avoid passing this village. As time passed by, that name changed (personal communication with the community head 'Kamnan' (rank) 2016).

However, Bo Luang village used to be a very large village combined with three separate villages (Lipsius 1970): 1) with older names [juəŋ nɔom] 'present BL village', [juəŋ kʰwiən] 'present BP village', and [juəŋ tiən] 'Bo Sangae (BS) village' which have been growing together.

**Location**: BL and BP villages are located at an approximate altitude of 1,300 meters in the west high plateau area of CM's Hot district which is approximately 40 kilometers from Hot town and 150 kilometers from CM city to the north on Route 108 (Hot – Mae Sariang). Under normal traffic conditions, it takes approximately 2.5 hours from CM city.

**Population**: The population of BL is 930 in 234 households. The number of LW speakers is approximately at 820, calculated according to the average of 3.5 (rather than 4.4) persons per household (Nahhas, 2011: 150) which is more logical. It can be noted that if the ratio of 4.4 persons per house were to be taken then the approximate number of LW speakers would be higher than that of real population The number of BP population is nearly double that of BL at 1,551 in 434 households (Registry Office of BL Municipal District, 2014) and the number of LW speakers is approximately 1,519 persons.

**Settlement**: BL village and neighboring villages started to settle approximately 120 years ago in nineteenth century (1900 C.E.). Most BL LW emigrated from San Pa Tong district of Chiang Mai province which is in the northeast of BL. Presently, they are under BL local administrative organization 'BL Municipal District' and officially separated into 13 villages (Registry Office of BL Municipal District, 2014).

**Social facts**: BL and BP are actually separate villages and linguistically diverse areas where there live other ethnic groups of small numbers (the exact number is not known) living together such as some NT, Karen, few Lahu (Nahhas, 2011) and some CT groups. Almost all LW are Buddhist and live their lives as with NT cultures (Registry Office of BL Municipal District, 2014). In BL and BP (as well as BS) communities, they share one community kindergarten and one BL local school which provides pre-school and junior secondary education. There were approximately 50 nursery children cared by three female nursery maidens in the community kindergarten and approximately 350 school children in the local school. Later, after junior secondary education, most children have to go to larger towns for higher education such as Hot Secondary School or CM city.

**Language situation**

BL and BP villages have shared the same dialect of Eastern LW − BL dialect for a long period of time in their communities so it is BL dialect that refers to the dialect spoken in both BL and BP villages. Also, it seems most LW are bilinguals with NT (and/or trilingual with CT or other language). LW and NT in BL and BP are not precisely different in hierarchy or prestige as the outsider view as low language (LW) and high language (NT). Since LW for LW speakers is more obviously motivated by most of its speakers in everyday circumstances, thus bilingualism without diglossia is concerned and the interlocutors (speakers and hearers). CT is an exception for it is often used in formal situations such as having conversation with school teachers, with local hospital officers, and with local government staff (who surely are not LW as the speakers). More importantly, they are proud of speaking LW in their communities particularly. Thus most of greetings are LW with acquaintances. Almost every child of preschool-age speaks LW at home with their family members – that means they cannot speak (probably understand) NT before they start compulsory school education. There are a few of monolingual elderly LW speakers. The LW speakers of high educated young generation are likely to speak fluent NT, better in CT, and shift to NT can be noticed; the language shift and language borrowings are examples of language contact

( McMahon, 1994: 200 and the speech community lead to bilingualism and multilingualism (Lehiste, 1988).


## 2. Theoretical Background

Kullavanijaya et. al. (1994: 14-15) defines 'linguistic variation' as a particular term for a synchronic 'variety of a single language' when it changes or differentiates or is changed or differentiated from its older form by one or another causes or factors without having changed its significance or meaning. Variation in language results in the occurrence of variants which refer to linguistic different forms as a subset of a larger set. The variety or the variation (of language) is of synchronic language features or events, not limited to the happenings in the past or at apparent time.

Kullavanijaya et. al. (1994: 14-45) gives two main factors that cause the language to vary: internal (linguistic) factors and external (social) factors. The internal factors are described in (1) the variation in pronunciation such as /s/ in Thai phonology for some people is pronounced [θ] (th-) so [θ] is a linguistic variable of /s/ as in [sôm] or [θôm] '(an) orange', (2) lexical variation when two or more words mean the same thing such as 'lift' (UK) and 'elevator' (US), 'lorry' (UK) and 'truck' (US), and 'petrol' (UK) and 'gasoline or gas' (US) in English, (3) variation in forms of phrase or sentence such as 'It needs washing' and 'It needs washed.', (4) variation in form of writing alphabet and spelling such as 'color' (UK) and 'colour' (US).

The external factors that contribute in language variation mainly are: (1) variation due to speakers' differences in a society, and (2) variation due to language use and situation (domain of use). The variation due to the speakers' differences in a society is subject to gender (sex), age, education, occupation, ethnicity, social class, and habitat. The variation due to domain of use and situations is in relation with (a) the relationship between the interlocutors (speaker and hearer), (b) the situation and occasion (time and personal space), (c) subject of conversation, and (d) speakers' purposes.

More importantly, the language that varies due to speakers' age (generation) can reflect the view of such language that has been varying from the past to the present and into the future. In this regard, the old age generation represents the language that was used in the past; the middle age generation represents the language that is presently used; and the young age generation represents the future language. In other words, the study of the language variation by generation is exactly the same as the study of the language in progress of the past, present, and future (Kullavanijaya et. al., 1994: 23). In the rest of this paper, phonological variation through three different age-grouped LW speakers will be illustrated, analyzed, and discussed.


## 3. Methodology

Concerning language variation in Lawua generations, the SEA wordlist of 503 items developed by Research Institute for Language and Culture of Asia (RILCA), Mahidol University for LCLG509.2 Course (RILCA, 2015) with some additional words

was employed to interview 15 Lawua natives of BL and BP, believed to be BL dialect strongholds.

The criteria for selecting the informants were as follows: (1) age − they must be over 65 so as to be classified into the old generation group (O), between 45-55 years for the adult generation group (A), and between 18-30 years for the young generation group (Y) presuming that a) elderly LW better conserve old LW than other LW age groups and young LW tend to less conserve their LW, and b) intervals between each generation was fixed at least 10 years to assure obvious age differences; (2) language − they must be able to speak LW fluently as their first language at home and in their communities; (3) ethnicity − they must be (considered by others in their communities as) LW (Eastern Lawua) by birth; (4) living − they must not have ever lived continuously outside their communities for more than 10 years since this might negatively affect their ability to speak LW; and (5) health −  they must be healthy since unhealthy informants may invalidate the results.

The subjects were personally and directly interviewed and asked to say out loud each word three times (3 seconds to hold a single word each time). Data were collected by auditory method and recorded into International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) updated 2005, transcription through hand and digital files. Data from personal observation was also collected and recorded in a notebook. This study however was not intended to quantify, rather to qualify the results as to investigate the general variation between generations.

## 4. Data Analysis

Data derived from the direct interviews and observation notes were analyzed, aurally judged and described in terms of consonants, vowels, pitches, syllables and syllable structures, and lexis.  Tables, examples, and notes illustrated the analyzed data (information). This study applied IPA symbols to transcribe the phonetic and phonemic data. Any suspicious datum which was found difficult to analyze, resulted in more interviews and personal conversation \to recheck the data and confirm the findings.

## 5. Results

The research findings were discussed in terms of consonants – initial, initial cluster, final consonants, and initial consonant variation; vowels – monophthongs, diphthongs, triphthongs, and vowel variation; pitches; syllables; and lexical variation.

### 5.1 Consonants
The consonants of BL dialect of LW were discussed in terms of initial consonants, initial clusters, final consonants, and initial consonant variation. The consonant system is shown in Table 1.

**Table 1**: Consonant system.

| | | | bilabial | labio-dental | alveolar | palatal | velar | glottal |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| stops | oral | voiceless unasp. | p | | t | c | k | ʔ |
| | | voiceless asp. | pʰ | | tʰ | cʰ | kʰ | |
| | | voiced | b | | d | | g | |
| | | prenasal | (ᵐb) | | (ⁿd) | | (ᵑg) | |
| | | preglotalized | (ʔb) | | (ʔd) | | | |
| | nasal | voiced | m | | n | ɲ | ŋ | |
| | | prenasalized | | | | ᵑɲ | | |
| | | voiceless | m̥ [hm] | | n̥ [hn] | | ŋ̊ [hŋ] | |
| | | preglotalized | (ʔm) | | (ʔn) | | (ʔŋ) | |
| trill | | | | | r | | | |
| fricatives | | voiceless | | f | s | | | h |
| | | voiced | | (v) | | | | |
| Approximants | | voiced | w | | l | j | | |
| | | preglottalized | | | | (ʔj) | | |
| | | voiceless | | | l̥ [hl] | | | |

Note. 'unasp.' refers to 'unaspirated' and 'asp' to 'aspirated'

The consonants in parentheses are the variants (preconsonants) of main consonants: b ~ ᵐb, ʔb, d ~ ⁿd, ʔd, m ~ ʔm, n ~ ʔn, ŋ ~ ʔŋ, j ~ ʔj, and w ~ v. Except for /ᵑɲ/ is not a variant of any of /ɲ, g, ŋ/ as in /ᵑɲap/ 'early in the morning' and /ɲap/ 'to cut (hair with scissors)', /gap/ 'chin', /ᵑɲiəŋ/ 'pregnant' and /ɲiəŋ/ 'short (in length)'. Totally, there are 28 phonological consonants as shown in Table 1.

5.1.1 Initial consonants

Initial consonants are the consonants which occur initially in a syllabus. Table 2 gives examples of initial consonants.

**Table 2**: Initial consonants.

| Initial consonants | Example | Meaning | Initial consonants | Example | Meaning |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| p | puən | to eat (meat/vetgetable) | pʰ | pʰuən | five |
| t | to | shallow | tʰ | tʰaɪk | to spit |
| c | cuəŋ | foot | cʰ | cʰuəŋ | light (weight) |
| k | kɔ | hard (younger sister of father) | kʰ | kʰuə | clothes |

| ʔ | ʔiəŋ | stools | b | bəo | round |
|---|------|--------|---|-----|-------|
| d | kadɔm | right (side) | g | gɔ | back |
| m | mɔŋ | to wait | n | nambreʔ | thunder |
| ɲ | ɲoʔ | to drink | ŋ | ŋuət | stream |
| ᵑɲ | ᵑɲap | early in the morning | m̥ | m̥ɔŋ | to hear |
| n̥ | n̥am | blood | ŋ | ŋap | to yawn |
| r | rɔm | to borrow | f | fiək | dark |
| s | sɔoʔ | rainbow | h | hɛ | bee |
| w | wiək | belly | l | lɔŋ | black |
| j | joʔ | to see | l̥ | l̥ɔŋ | cold |

Note. These consonants are pertinent sound units (phonemes) in minimal pair analysis.

## 5.1.2 Initial consonant clusters

There are six consonant clusters /pr, pʰr, br, kr, kʰr, gr/ of which the second consonant [l] as a variant commonly substitutes [r]. However, /r/ and /l/ can stand alone initially as in words such as /raʔ/ 'great (power)' in comparison with /laʔ/ 'a kind of final particle for acceptance'.

**Table 3**: Initial consonant clusters.

| Initial clusters | Examples | Meaning |
|------------------|----------|---------|
| pr ~ pl | pria ~ plia | liquor |
| pʰr ~ pʰl | pʰruʔ ~ pʰluʔ | cloth |
| br ~ bl | brəɨk ~ bləɨk | chili |
| kr ~ kl | kraic ~ klaic | fast |
| kʰr ~ kʰl | kʰriŋ ~ kʰliŋ | to hate |
| gr ~ gl | gralao ~ glalao | to hunt |

## 5.1.3 Final consonants

Only 10 out of 28 consonants can occur finally: /p, t, c, k, ʔ, h, m, n, ɲ, ŋ/ in Table 4.

**Table 4**: Examples of final consonants.

| Final consonants | Examples | Meaning | Final consonants | Examples | Meaning |
|------------------|----------|---------|------------------|----------|---------|
| p | ɢap | chin | t | kat | thorn |
| c | klaic | fast | ʔ | klaiʔ | lazy |
| k | kak | stick | h | juh | to work |
| m | kam | paddy husk | n | kan | job |
| ɲ | kaɨɲ | head | ŋ | raɨŋ | termite |

*5.2 Initial consonant variation*

The initial consonant variation is not fixed to occur between different generations only, but also within the same generation. The variants are bolded in the tables.

The initial voiceless lateral consonant / l̥ / which is followed by a low vowel or vowel cluster such as /a, ɔ/ in open or close syllable and is spoken in the old (O) and adult (A) generations can be heard either voiced [l] or voiceless [l̥] in the young (Y) generation's speech as shown in Table 5.

**Table 5**: The variation of [l̥] in three generations.

| Items | O | A | Y |
|---|---|---|---|
| 'husk, skin, bark' | l̥ɔʔ | l̥ɔʔ | l̥ɔʔ ~ **lɔʔ** |
| 'leaf' | l̥aʔ | l̥aʔ | l̥aʔ ~ **laʔ** |
| 'afraid' | l̥at | l̥at | l̥at ~ **lat** |
| 'deaf' | l̥aɪk | l̥aɪk(suək) ~ **la suək** | l̥aɪk ~ **laɪk** ~ l̥ak |
| 'rain' | l̥ɛʔ ~ l̥aiʔ | l̥aiʔ | l̥aiʔ ~ **laiʔ** |

Note. The bold examples are the variants of the initial /l/.

The initial voiceless velar nasal [ŋ̥]which is followed by a single low vowel such as [a, ɔ] in open or close syllable and spoken by the old generation (O) can become the glottal fricative [h] in the adult (A) and young (Y) generations' speech as shown in Table 6.

**Table 6**: The variation of [ŋ̥] and in three generations.

| Items | O | A | Y |
|---|---|---|---|
| 'husked rice' | ŋ̥ɔʔ | **hɔʔ** | **hɔʔ** |
| 'to yawn' | ŋ̥ap | ŋ̥ap ~ **hap** | ŋ̥ap ~ **hap** |
| 'to dry' | ŋ̥ɔk ~ **hɔk** | **hɔk** | **hɔk** |

The initial aspirated alveolar stop [tʰ] followed by a single low vowel such as [a, ɔ] in open or close syllable and spoken by the old generation (O) can become the voiceless unaspirated alveolar stop [t] and even voiceless glottal fricative [h] in the adult (A) and young (Y) generations' speech as shown in Table 7.

**Table 7**: The variation of [tʰ] in three generations.

| Items | O | A | Y |
|---|---|---|---|
| 'that' | tʰɔ | tʰɔ ~ **tɔ** | **hɔ** |
| 'they' | mutʰɔ | mutʰɔ ~ **muhɔ** | mutʰɔ ~ **muhɔ** |

Note. The variation of [tʰ] between [t] and [h] was found in rare examples. Somewhere else, it also varies in [cʰ] since the old (O) generation speech downwards as in [tʰɔoʔ] ~ [cʰɔoʔ] ~ [cʰaoʔ] 'to sell'.

People can vary between [ⁿt] ~ [t] ~ [ⁿd] or [t] ~ [ⁿd] ~ [d] initially in syllables as shown in Table 8.

**Table 8**: The variation of [d] in all generations.

| Items | O | A | Y |
|---|---|---|---|
| 'to buy' | **ⁿti ~ ti ~ ⁿdi** | **ti ~ ⁿdi** | **ⁿdi ~ di** |
| 'short in length' | **ⁿtɛm ~ ⁿtam** | **ⁿdɛm** | dɛm |
| 'short in height' | **ⁿtiəm ~ tiəm** | **ⁿdiəm** | diəm |
| 'near' | **saⁿtaiʔ ~ saⁿdaiʔ** | **saⁿdaiʔ** | **saⁿdaiʔ** |

The final alveolar nasal consonant [n] spoken by A and Y varies in [m] by O (and even within the O's speech) as in LW questions for 'what, when, why, how, and how much (many)' as shown in Table 9.

**Table 9**: The variation of final [n] in all generations.

| Items | O | A | Y |
|---|---|---|---|
| 'what' | mahmam ~ **mahman** | **man** | **mahman ~ ʔaman** |
| 'when' | saŋmam ~ **saŋman** | **saŋman** | **saŋman ~ sɔŋman** |
| 'why' | juhmam | **juhman** | **juhman** |
| 'how' | jaŋmam | **jaŋman** | **jaŋman ~ ʔjiəŋman** |
| 'how much/many' | mɨənmam | **mɨənman** | **mɨənman** |

However, there are still some other initial consonant variation which possibly are 'idiolect' or the forms a particular subject speaks. It can be described that this form of variation cannot be found systematically in other syllables or words alike as shown in Table 10.

**Table 10: Idiolect.**

| Items | O | A | Y |
|---|---|---|---|
| 'house lizard' | saᵑgla | saᵑgla | saᵑgra ~ **caᵑgla** |
| 'red' | sakʰrak ~ **cakʰrak** | sakʰrak | sakʰrak |
| 'spider, spider web' | ɲiəŋrəi | **jaŋrəi** | **jaŋrəi** |

*5.3 Vowels*

For vowel system, there are 9 monophthongs and 14 diphthongs. There are no triphthongs. Table 11 shows the vowel system.

**Table 11**: Vowel system.

| | unrounded | | rounded |
|---|---|---|---|
| | front | central | back |
| high | i | ɨ | u |
| mid | e | ə | o |
| low | ɛ | a | ɔ |

5.3.1 Single vowels (monophthongs)

Table 12 shows lexical examples of single vowels and meanings.

**Table 12**: Examples of single vowels in words with their meanings.

| Vowel | Example | Meaning |
|---|---|---|
| i | wi | 'comb' |
| ɨ | jɨt | 'to distinguish' |
| u | jum | 'to die' |
| e | weʔ | 'left (side)' |
| ə | ŋə | 'absent-minded' |
| o | to | 'shallow' |
| ɛ | wɛ | 'trousers' |
| a | taʔ | 'grand fathers' |
| ɔ | tɔ | 'to run' |

Table 13 shows proof of single vowels (monophthongs) in comparison with suspicious vowels (minimal pairs).

**Table 13**: Single vowel minimal pairs.

| Vowels | Example | Meaning | Example | Meaning |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| i - ɨ | piŋ | 'white' | pɨn | 'to sleep' |
| i - e | ti | 'to buy' | te | 'arrow' |
| e - ə | ʔaɲe | 'gum' | ŋə | 'absent-minded' |
| ɨ - u | pɨn | 'to sleep' | pun | 'lime (for betel chew)' |
| u - o | tu | 'intestines' | to | 'shallow' |
| e - ɛ | te | 'arrow' | tɛ | 'sweet' |
| ɛ - a | tɛ | 'sweet' | ta | 'grand fathers' |
| a - ɔ | ŋa | 'twenty' | ŋɔ | 'fire' |
| ɔ - o | tɔ | 'to run' | to | 'shallow' |
| ə - a | ŋə | 'absent-minded' | ŋa | 'twenty' |

5.3.2 Vowel clusters (diphthongs)
Table 14 shows the vowel cluster system.

**Table 14**: Vowel cluster system of LW (BL dialect).

| Diphthongs | | |
|---|---|---|
| iə | ɨə | ui |
| | | uə |
| | əi əɨ | oi |
| | əo | |
| ɛo | ai aɨ | ɔi |
| | ao | ɔo |

Note: (ia) is a variant of [iə], (ua) of [uə], (ei) of [əi], (əu) of [əo], and (au) of [ao]. Table 15 shows some examples of vowel clusters in words with their meanings.

**Table 15**: Examples of vowel clusters (diphthongs).

| Vowel clusters | Example | Meaning |
|---|---|---|
| iə (ia) | liək | 'direction' |
| ɨə | pʰrɨə | 'coconut' |
| ui | ʔakui | 'crested' |
| uə (ua) | kaduəŋ | 'north' |
| ɛo | mɛo ~miao (NT) | 'cat' |
| əi (ei) | kʰəiʔ | 'the moon' |
| əɨ | bəɨɲ | 'to hit' |
| əo (əu) | səom | 'to grow (rice)' |
| oi | soic | 'to whistle' |
| ai | saŋaiʔ | 'the sun' |
| aɨ | maɨ | 'money' |
| ao (au) | saom | 'night' |
| ɔi | dɔih | 'fingers' |
| ɔo | sɔom | 'to eat (rice)' |

Note: the vowel clusters in parentheses are the variants of the ones outside and because of limited data only one triple vowel cluster [iao] was found in [miao] 'cat' which is assumed to derive from /mɛ̄ɛw/ 'cat' of NT and CT and in [tiaoʔ] 'small'. So it is analyzed to be a variant of /ɛo/ that it has two variants [ɛo] and [iao].

### 5.4 Vowel variation

It seems that young generation (Y) often produces lower back rounded vowel [ɔ] instead of mid rounded back vowel [o]. Table 16 shows the variation of [ɔ] in all generations.

**Table 16**: The variation of [ɔ] in all generations.

| Items | O | A | Y |
|---|---|---|---|
| 'lake' | n̥oŋ | n̥oŋ ~ **n̥ɔŋ** | **n̥ɔŋ** ~ n̥oŋ |
| 'to dye' | ɲom | ɲom ~ **ɲɔm** | ɲom ~ **ɲɔm** |
| 'back' | ᵑgo | **ᵑgɔ** | ᵑgo ~ **ᵑgɔ** |
| 'to tell' | ⁿdo | **ⁿdɔ** | ⁿdo ~ **ⁿdɔ** |
| 'out, east' | ʔok ~ **ʔɔk** | **ʔɔk** | **ʔɔk** |
| 'armpit' | tokliək | tokliək ~ **tɔkliək** | **tɔkliək** ~ takliək |

Note. It is likely for the young speakers to assimilate the vowel [o] more often in some LW words into CT or NT sounds such as [noŋ] 'lake' to sound like [nŏɔŋ] in CT and NT, [ɲɔm] 'to dye' to sound such as [ɲɔ́ɔm] in NT, and [ʔɔk] 'out, east' to sound such as [ʔɔ̌ɔk] in CT.

It seems that some vowel clusters such as [ia, iə, ɨə, ao, ɔo] in the old generation's speech are less heard in the younger generation's speech. They seem to prefer using a single vowel sound [a] instead as shown in Table 17.

**Table 17**: The variation of [a] in all generations.

| Items | O | A | Y |
|---|---|---|---|
| 'flower' | tiakʰro ~ **takʰro** ~ sakʰro | tiakʰro ~ **takʰro** ~ **takʰrɔ** | tiakʰro ~ tiakʰrɔ |
| 'spider, spider web' | ɲiəŋrəi | **jaŋrəi** | **jaŋrəi** |
| 'eyes' | tɔoʔjia ~ taoʔjia | tɔoʔjia ~ taoʔjia | taoʔjia ~ **taʔjia** |
| 'palm (hand)' | dɨəktaiʔ ~ tɨəktaiʔ | dɨəktaiʔ ~ **taktaiʔ** | **taktaiʔ** ~ tɔktaiʔ |
| 'when' | mɨə- | **ma-** | **ma-** |
| 'scorpion' | ⁿdɔoʔkok ~ tɔoʔkok | tɔoʔkok ~ **takɔk ~ tɔkɔk** | **taoʔkok** ~ takok |

### 5.5 Pitches

BL dialect of LW is generally regarded as the non-tonal and non-register language in that its tones and registers do not contrast in lexical meanings of words. However, in many words there appear to be two distinct types of contour: low pitch, and high pitch which distinguish lexical meanings of words. The low pitch marks the noun with one meaning while the high pitch of the same word marks the adjective or verbs with a different meaning. Consider the following words in Table 18.

**Table 18**: Examples of pitches: high pitch and low pitch.

| Items | With low pitch [ ` ] for nouns | With high pitch [ ´ ] for adjectives or verbs |
|---|---|---|
| nəom | year (noun) | real (adjective) |
| ɲɪə? | house (noun) | married, to marry with (adjective/verb) |
| tɨə | duck (noun) | bored (adjective) |
| l̥ai? | rain (noun) | rainy, raining (adjective) |
| sɔo? | rainbow (noun) | painful, ill (adjective) |
| saɪɲ | bird (noun) | cooked, well done (adjective) |
| cak | deer (noun) | blind (adjective) |
| kɔ | sister of mother (noun) | hard, healthy (adjective) |
| haɨk | hair (noun) | to smell (verb) |
| jɨə | medicine (noun) | to cure (verb) |
| te? | one (noun) | already (adjective) |
| kaɪɲ | head (noun) | to talk in sleep (verb) |
| sat | mat (noun) | to comb/brush hair (verb) |

### 5.6 Syllables

Most LW words are monosyllables, many are sesquisyllables (one and a half syllables) (Jenny & Sidwell, 2014: 15), many are disyllables, and trisyllabic words are rare. Table 19 shows some examples of monosyllables, sesquisyllables, disyllables, and trisyllables and their syllable structures.

**Table 19**: Examples of monosyllables, sesquisyllables, disyllables, and trisyllables.

| Syllable structure | Examples | Meanings |
|---|---|---|
| Monosyllables ((C) C V (V) (C)) | pɛ (CV) | 'mango' |
| | həi (CVV) | 'here' |
| | juk (CVC) | 'dirty' |
| | taih (CVVC) | 'mushroom' |
| | (CCV) | not found |
| | plia (CCVV) | 'liquor' |
| | pʰraŋ (CCVC) | 'roof' |
| | plaom (CCVVC) | 'land leech' |
| Sesquisyllables (C V (V). (C) C V (V) (C)) | sakʰrak (CV.CCVC) | 'red' |
| | katɔm (CV.CVC) | 'right (side)' |
| | la?aom (CV.CVVC) | 'water' |
| | tiakʰro (CVV.CCV) | 'kapok' |
| | tɔo?jia (CVV.CVV) | 'eye' |
| | ?akaɨ (CV.CVV) | 'dust' |
| Disyllables ((C) C V (V) C. (C) C V (V) (C)) | pukprak (CVC.CCVC) | 'lightning' |
| | cutwu (CVC.CV) | 'mist' |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| | kuənpʰa (CVVC.CV) | 'son-in-law' |
| | kuənmɨŋ (CVVC.CVVC) | 'daughter-in-law' |
| | kampʰrɨk (CVC.CCVC) | 'wing' |
| | naknɨŋ (CVC.CVVC) | 'jackfruit' |
| | hɔɔmbiŋ (CVVC.CVC) | 'garlic' |
| | kʰrakkrɨŋ (CCVC.CCVVC) | 'animal' |
| | puʔməo (CVC.CVV) | 'friend' |
| Trisyllables<br>(C V (V) (C).C V (V) (C). (C) C V (V) (C)) | sakəɲbraʔ<br>(CV.CVVC.CCVC) | 'galangal' |
| | ʔadɨəkcʰuəŋ<br>(CV.CVVC.CVVC) | 'foot' |
| | ŋaoʔawɨəŋ<br>(CVV.CV.CVVC) | 'thigh' |
| | wɨəksaʔaic<br>(CVVC.CV.CVVC) | 'centipede' |
| | saʔaŋpʰruək<br>(CV.CVC.CCVVC) | 'rib' |
| | piʔamaiʔ (CV.CV.CVVC) | 'man' |
| | talaibi (CV.CVV.CV) | 'plate' |

Note. (a) the period (.) is used to break between syllables in the sesquisyllables, disyllables, and trisyllables, (b) CCV pattern for the monosyllable structure was not found, and (c) no other patterns for the trisyllable structure were found.

### 5.7 Lexical variation
5.7.1 Borrowings

There are many words that the young generation borrows from Tai languages: Central Thai (CT) and Northern Thai (NT). This might be because of language contact rather than negative attitudes toward using their language (Nahhas, 2011). Some words have been archaic since some of the elderly relatives have stopped using them long ago or switched to using Tai language which likely sound the same. Nevertheless, I noticed that some young interviewers suspiciously did not know some of those words spoken by the elderly villagers, while others they were not sure about. Table 20 shows some example variety of word choices.

**Table 20**: The lexical variation.

| Items | O | A | Y |
|---|---|---|---|
| 'east' | kalut saŋaiʔ ~ ʔɔk saŋaiʔ~ ʔok saŋaiʔ | ʔɔk saŋaiʔ | ʔɔk saŋaiʔ~ tʰit tawan ʔɔɔk (CT) |
| 'west' | kaliək saŋaiʔ | liək saŋaiʔ | kaliək saŋaiʔ ~ tʰit tawan tòk (CT) |
| 'north' | kaduəŋ | kaduəŋ ~ tʰit nɨ̌ə (CT) | tʰit nɨ̌ə (CT) |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 'south' | kasaiʔ | kasaiʔ ~ tʰit tái (CT) | tʰit táI (CT) |
| 'fruit' | pləiʔ | pləiʔ ~ pʰɔ̌nlamái (CT) | pʰɔ̌nlamáI (CT) |
| 'areca' | pləiʔ ~ samak ~ màak | noŋ pləiʔ ~ màak (CT, NT) | màak (CT, NT) |
| 'rattan' | ⁿdaɨk | ⁿdaɨk | wǎai (CT, NT) |
| 'porcupine' | kaoʔ | kaoʔ | mên (CT) |
| 'arrow' | te | te | lûuksɔ̌ɔn (CT) |
| 'spear' | pleih | pleih | hɔ̀ɔk (CT) |
| 'to play' | lahaʔ | lahaʔ | lɛn |
| 'short (object)' | ʔŋiəm | ʔŋiəŋ ~ ʔŋiəm ~ ĥin (NT) | ĥin (NT) |

Note. CT stands for Central Thai and NT stands for Northern Thai (Khammueng)

5.7.2 Polysemous words

Polysemous words are words with more than one meaning. This phenomenon is happening in the young generation's speech and in some limited words as action words (verbs) and parts of the body words as shown in Table 21.

**Table 21**: Examples of polysemous words.

| Items | O | A | Y |
|---|---|---|---|
| 'to eat (meat)'<br><br>(vegetables)<br>(snack)<br>(fruit) | puən<br>puən<br>kok<br>kok | puən<br>puən<br>kok<br>kok | **kok** ~ puən<br>**kok** ~ puən<br>kok<br>kok |
| 'leg' | ʔawɨəŋ ~ cuəŋ | ʔawɨəŋ | cuəŋ ~ **cuəŋ** |
| 'thigh' | ŋaoʔawɨəŋ ~ ʔawɨəŋ | ʔawɨəŋ ~ cuəŋ | ʔawɨəŋ ~ **cuəŋ** |
| 'knee' | ŋoŋ | ŋoŋ | ŋoŋ ~ **cuəŋ** |
| 'calf' | tuʔcuəŋ | tuʔcuəŋ ~ nɔŋ | tuʔcuəŋ ~ **cuəŋ** |
| 'shin' | ⁿgoŋcuəŋ ~ ŋoŋcuəŋ ~ cuəŋ | ⁿgoŋcuəŋ ~ cuəŋ | ⁿgoŋcuəŋ ~ **cuəŋ** |
| 'foot' | ʔadɨəkcuəŋ ~ ʔatɨəkcuəŋ | cuəŋ | cuəŋ ~ **cuəŋ** |
| 'heel' | badɨəkcuəŋ ~ soncuəŋ | cəo | cəo ~ **cuəŋ** |

Note. The bolded words are example polysemous words.

One hypothesis on how words become polysemous is the influence of larger languages such as CT and NT in which there are many polysemes so the young generation especially adopts Thai polysemy in their own language with some basic vocabulary such as [kok] 'to eat snack or fruit' to mean more widely covering 'to eat meat and vegetables' which originates in [puən]. Another hypothesis can be that less used words are likely to accidentally become polysemous such as words for parts of the

body [cuəŋ] with its old meaning 'shin'. Presently, for some young subjects it is used to mean every part of one's leg from thigh to heel.


## 6. Conclusion and discussion

Due to the fact that within the LW communities, there are still a number of language speakers of at least three generations: old, middle, and young generations, language variation is unavoidable. As LW is living among other prestige languages – NT and CT, linguistic variation of LW can be observed over and over through phonological and lexical variation as in Table 16 Note.

Phonologically, the variation in younger speech tends to have apparent simplicity as found in the variation of [l̩] ~ [l] and [ŋ] ~ [h] or the variation of six consonant clusters [pr, pʰr, br, kr, kʰr, gr] ~ [pl, pʰl, bl, kl, kʰl, gl] in all generations' speech. While the young generation prefers the ease of articulation of speech, the middle aged generation is likely to take either the old and the new forms of language in variation, and the old generation is more likely to better retain the old linguistic form. The variation of vowel clusters for example when the younger would rather choose the single vowel instead of vowel cluster.

There is also an inclination to the view that LW pitches are developing to become contrasting in lexical words as reported by Mitani (1978), that there are contrastive pitches contours occurring between certain words: rising pitch or contour occurring with nouns and falling contour with adjectives. Similarly, at least two pitches can be recognized: the high pitch to indicate the adjectives and/or the verbs, i.e., [háɨk] 'to sniff', and the low pitch to indicate the nominal meaning [hàɨk] 'hair'. Further studies in long utterances as in natural speeches could probably find more information about the LW developing pitches. More or less, LW in BL dialect would feasibly generate the being of tonal language. It is also interesting to learn that LW has four types of syllables: monosyllables, sesquisyllables, disyllables, and trisyllables. It is suggested that its syllables of all types should be further studied for more details because the 503 item word list for the study of syllables seems insufficient. In this study, the trisyllables are very rare.

Lexically, it is obviously found that the variation is likely to be the opting for another choice of words in CT and NT which are the languages of higher societal prestige. Commonly, CT and NT words are mostly found in the young generations. Language contact and education could influence such lexical variation of LW.

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# Exploring Chinese and Korean Non-native English-speaking Teachers' Perceptions of Their Beliefs and Values in ELT

J. Jaime Chung

## Abstract

This article explores the perceptions of Chinese and Korean non-native English-speaking teachers (NNESTs) teaching at private after-school academies on how they view themselves as foreign language instructors. Learning and teaching English is perceived as crucial in most East Asian countries; the 'English feverish' East Asian societies, driven by educational success, pressure people to study and master this global language from cradle to grave. This research focuses on listening to the voices of English language teachers, one of the main stakeholders of the language education sector, to understand their thoughts and beliefs on being a teacher whose mother tongue is not English. The data reveal that NNESTs have two different perceptions toward themselves; they feel anxious for not being able to display the nativeness generally expected of English language teachers; however, at the same time, they are proud of their skills in teaching test-related English to increase students' grades. Teacher performativity is discussed in accordance with pressures NNESTs receive from the educationally driven meritocratic societies. By focusing on their voices through a qualitative method, this study sheds light on how a particular group of East Asian NNESTs understand selves and furthermore, how they should be understood as foreign language teachers in such competitive contexts.

**Keywords**: East Asia, NNESTs, perceptions, nativeness, performativity

## บทคัดย่อ

บทความนี้ศึกษาทัศนคติของครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษชาวจีนและเกาหลีที่สถาบันกวดวิชาเอกชนว่าพวก เขามองตัวเองในฐานะครูภาษาต่างประเทศอย่างไร ในประเทศเอเชียตะวันออกส่วนมากให้ความสำคัญกับการ เรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ "ความคลั่งไคล้ภาษาอังกฤษ" ในสังคมเอเชียตะวันออก ซึ่งมีที่มาจากความเชื่อว่า ภาษาอังกฤษนำมาซึ่งความสำเร็จทางการศึกษา ได้สร้างแรงกดดันให้ผู้คนหันมาศึกษาและสร้างความเชี่ยวชาญ ภาษาสากลนี้ตั้งแต่เกิดจนตาย การวิจัยนี้เน้นการรับฟังเสียงของบรรดาครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษ ผู้เป็นหนึ่งในผู้มี ส่วนได้ส่วนเสียที่สำคัญในภาคส่วนการศึกษาภาษาต่างประเทศ การวิจัยนี้มุ่งทำความเข้าใจความคิด ความเชื่อ เกี่ยวกับประเด็นการเป็นครูสอนภาษาที่ตัวเองไม่ได้พูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาแม่ ข้อมูลการวิจัยแสดงว่า ครู สอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ได้พูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาแม่ มีทัศนคติที่แตกต่างกันสองประการ พวกเขามีความ กังวลใจที่ไม่สามารถแสดงความเป็นผู้พูดภาษาแม่ ซึ่งมักถูกคาดหวังจากการเป็นครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษ อย่างไร ก็ตาม พวกเขาก็ภูมิใจว่าพวกเขามีทักษะสามารถสอนภาษาอังกฤษที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการสอบช่วยให้นักเรียนมีผล

การเรียนที่ดีขึ้น บทความนี้จึงนำเสนอประเด็นบทบาทความเป็นครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ได้พูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาแม่ ซึ่งได้รับแรงกดดันจากสังคมที่สนใจแต่เรื่องผลการศึกษา บทความนี้เน้นให้บรรดาครูเหล่านั้นพูดถึงตัวเองผ่านระเบียบวิธีวิจัยเชิงคุณภาพ งานศึกษานี้ให้สะท้อนให้เห็นว่าครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษชาวเอเชียตะวันออกที่ไม่ได้พูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาแม่เข้าใจตัวตนอย่างไร และเสนอว่าสังคมควรมองพวกเขาว่าเป็นครูสอนภาษาต่างประเทศอย่างไรในบริบทที่แข่งขันสูงเช่นนี้

**คำสำคัญ**: เอเชียตะวันออก ครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ได้พูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาแม่ ทัศนคติ ความเป็นผู้พูดภาษาแม่ บทบาทความเป็นครู

## Introduction

In the meritocratic East Asian countries (in this study, East Asian countries refer to the eastern sub-region of the Asian continent which includes China, Korea, and Japan) where education is perceived as a steppingstone for success, it is not an exaggeration to assert that one's worth is valued through his/her academic attainment which is in accordance with the neoliberal education policies. In order to survive and/or stand out in such a competitive environment, numerous people pour their energy into attaining the best education possible since education is deemed as the fastest and the most efficient way towards societal success (Cheng, 2008; Song, 2011). In the middle of this 'education fever' stands English language education; English, as the dominant global language, is considered as the core subject to master so as to gain admission to the top universities (Hu & McKay, 2012). This is perceived as the best way to earn membership into elite society that eventually leads to upward social mobility in East Asian societies. Therefore, it is not surprising to witness that English is commonly used as a device to gain fortune and maintain status rather than a practical communication tool in various societies (Lee, 2006).

Moreover, English language fluency plays an important role in global positioning of a nation; English is used as a medium of communication and documentation in major businesses, international organizations, and world class educational institutions. To become involved as a global citizen and position oneself and his/her country on the global stage, mastering the dominant language spoken in the international arena is seen as a basic yet crucial requirement.

Due to the English language holding such important position in East Asian countries, it is not a surprise that people flock into private academies, and/or hire tutors to learn this foreign language. Strong drive toward academic achievement and success has forced people to attend after-school private academies for even more intense programs to master this language (Park, 2009). This has caused competition amongst teachers due to private after-school academies discriminating against them based on their performance. Many East Asian private academies use 'star tutors' to attract students; these 'star tutors' are perceived as distinctive celebrities to the student population (Koh, 2014). Consequently, demands on English language teachers with the best commodities to offer have soared in East Asia; this includes both native (NESTs)

and NNESTs. Numerous studies on students' outcome, assessment, and policy changes related to English language education have shed light on unearthing the issues and concerns students and teachers have in learning and teaching this language (Park, 2007). Though there are abundant studies conducted on understanding the differences between NNESTs and NESTs and whom students perceive as better, self-perceptions of NNESTs' professional identity and anxieties are scarce in the context of East Asian private academies. How they think of themselves as English language teachers and how they cope with expectations from society are important factors shaping these teachers' lives and affecting their pedagogical practices. Furthermore, according to Moussu and Llurda (2008) and Braine (2005), Chinese and Korean students express the most negative attitudes towards their NNESTs. Therefore, it is not difficult to assume that Chinese and Korean NNESTs are the most anxious and stressed teachers amongst all NNESTs. Attitudes of students largely affect NNESTs' confidence as language teachers (Ling & Braine, 2007). Working in societies where academic success is highly valued and where students hold the most negative feelings towards NNESTs, these teachers struggle to meet the high expectations assigned to them. This study intends to listen to these teachers' voices on how they view themselves and what issues they face as NNESTs.

Language and culture are closely related to forming national philosophy and individual characteristics; these come as "unified package" (Pavelenko, 2006, p. 12) in constructing identities. NNESTs living in East Asian cultural contexts using a Western language to educate students are strongly affected by different degrees of emotions (Kövecses, 2000). These teachers are often confronted by uncertain feelings due to their unique position as experts, teachers, whose mother tongue is not the language they teach. This study unveils these feelings of NNESTs teaching particularly in China and Korea, to understand their perceptions of themselves as well as to offer a space to consider their needs.

## Research Methodology

A qualitative research method was employed to explore NNESTs' perceptions. The qualitative approach serves well in investigating human thoughts and behaviors and since the focus was on listening to the participants' stories, semi-structured interview was a favorable choice due to its conversational configuration. The aim was to comprehend the meanings of the stories shared by the participants which I believe generated credibility and gained trustworthiness (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

The research method was designed based on understanding the participants and probing their thoughts, values, and perceptions (Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007). Ten NNESTs currently teaching at various private after-school academies and/or similar educational institutions in China and Korea were interviewed for the study (see Table 1).

**Table 1: Participants' Profile**

| Name | Nationality | Education | Work experience as NNEST at private language institutions |
|------|-------------|-----------|-----------------------------------------------------------|
| Bo | Chinese | BA (USA) | 2 years |
| Jing | Chinese | BA (China) | 4 years |
| Xiu | Chinese | MA (UK) | 4 years |
| Yun | Chinese | MA (China) | 7 years |
| Haesoo | Korean | BA (USA) | 1 year |
| Jaein | Korean | BA (UK) | 3 years |
| Kayoung | Korean | BA (Korea) | 5 years |
| Minhee | Korean | BA (Korea) | 5 years |
| Sera | Korean | MA (USA) | 8 years |
| Yumi | Korean | MA (Korea) | 12 years |

This study did not intend to generalize all Chinese and Korean NNESTs working at private academies based on the interviews conducted with the ten participants; rather, the focus was on comprehending each participants' thoughts on themselves and share their stories in order to present a snapshot of these NNESTs' perspectives that were captured in the moment of the interviews.

To interpret and communicate the research findings, thematic analysis approach was adopted to effectively and systematically code data and look for patterns (Schwandt, 2007); broad themes were categorized into two main themes which are discussed below.

**Findings and Discussion**

The first central theme that derived from analyzing the interview data was on the dual professional identity construction of NNESTs. Formation of their identities as foreign language teachers relied greatly on displaying "native speakerism" (Holliday, 2005, p. 16).

The second main theme derived from the data was on NNESTs' performativity. Teachers perceived themselves to be educational performers where they had to compete with one another to bring in more 'customers'. To do so, they said they must perform well; by 'performance' they meant producing and delivering interesting yet effective lectures that will not only increase students' grades but also boost their enthusiasm. They said that to be successful performers, teachers should have both the skills to deliver the content as well as the nativeness expected of English language teachers.

## 1. Dual Self-perceptions of NNESTs at Private After-school Academies

The ten participants elaborated on how they felt delivering English language lectures as NNESTs in the classrooms of their own countries; they all agreed that as an English language teacher whether one is a native speaker or not, he/she should demonstrate competency and fluency particularly if he/she teaches at private after-school academies. In line with Sharifian's (2009) claim, the majority of the participants equated language competency with native accentuation and pronunciation since these features are noticeable even to those who do not know the language well. Moussu and Llurda (2008) add to this notion by agreeing that the general debate on being a native or non-native speaker largely depends on accents. It was a common perception that holding an 'authentic' or 'standard' Western accent gives credibility to one who claims to be a native speaker of English even amongst teachers themselves. Braine (1999, p. 98) also supports this preconception by claiming that learners prefer "White accents" and this preference is largely shown in hiring processes and teaching materials. Due to general preference towards native teachers and their accents, especially in the private education sector, NNESTs suffer from lack of competence when it comes to speaking in English. The issue of equating competence to accent is clearly illustrated by the participants from both China and Korea:

Sera-
*I once said I lived in America for a while and a student asked me to pronounce a certain word. When I did, the student said, 'But that's not American accent!' I was a bit embarrassed ... in front of all my students <laughs> I know my accent and pronunciation are not exactly native but as an English language teacher I was ashamed. Students expect me to speak like a native, especially the younger ones. I feel confident in teaching English grammar to my students and I'm proud of it. But when it comes to spoken and written English, I feel ... hmmm ... I feel a bit intimidated ... particularly when I have students in my class who have lived abroad.*
Jaein-
*One day I received a phone call from a mother of one of my students saying that my accent was not exactly clear. She asked me if I really studied in the UK. I was shocked! I never thought my accent would be a problem. I never had any British friends confronting me with my accent. I started attending private classes where they teach American style English. I tried hard to acquire American accent and evidently failed.*
Yun-
*Usually parents and students think speaking a language with perfect accent means mastery of the language and they evaluate us on this criterion. They think if we speak English well, we can teach it well, too.*
Kayoung-
*There are quite a lot of mothers who ask the head of the academy if they can enroll their children in classes which are taught by teachers who studied abroad in America or the UK. So, for those of us who don't have that quality, uhh, I mean that distinct native accent ... we feel somewhat ... down, you*

*know. That's why we try our best to develop skills that native or near-native teachers do not possess.*

As English language teachers, NNESTs were frustrated with accentuation and pronunciation since these components are considered the most important values of being competent language experts in Chinese and Korean contexts. Interestingly, at the same time, they were proud of their ability to teach grammar more effectively and efficiently than NESTs in their national contexts where mastery of English grammar is seen as crucial to gaining good marks and exam scores. The unique factor that was observed from the interviews was that these participants had two different ways of understanding themselves as foreign language teachers which also influenced their teaching pedagogy. Generally as English language teachers, they struggled to meet the demands of speaking with near-native or native-like accent. Some of the participants even revealed that they attended private academies themselves to learn how to speak like natives. This lack of self-assurance in accent and pronunciation sometimes leads to losing confidence in front of the class and feeling intimidated which is well shown from the stories shared by the participants. However, as teachers with the goal of sending their students to renowned universities based on their test scores, NNESTs displayed confidence and pride in their abilities to do so.

Jing-
*I know I am a better teacher than most native teachers when it comes to teaching grammar. The students know this, too. It's a good thing to us NNESTs that the English language curriculum in middle and high schools focus on learning and teaching grammar… I mean, I know it's not so practical, but it is necessary to have this knowledge to learn this language more effectively as foreigners you know. We have a stern place to stand in the midst of native speakers because we know how to teach this important component.*

This difference has led to NNESTs keeping company with one another and native teachers forming their own groups thus dividing themselves according to their area of expertise. Haesoo's experience clearly illustrates this point:

*I'm a bit weak in teaching grammar compared to other Korean NNESTs. I went to school in the USA and have not experienced the Korean way of learning and teaching English grammar. I feel like those teachers who concentrate on teaching grammar are not interested in sharing their know-hows and resources with the rest of us. I mean, I'm not a native teacher but I am considered as a near-native in my institution. Native teachers and NNESTs have their own groups and do not mingle so well unless they are paired up as co-tutors. I am seen as… neither a real Korean NNEST nor quite native. I feel a bit left out in the teacher community.*

As elaborated above, in China and Korea, English competency is largely based on accent and pronunciation and even experts, the English language teachers themselves,

conform to this notion. For them, their accentedness is a negative feature in selling themselves as English language teachers. Another fascinating point here is that these teachers consider teaching grammar as a skill, not language competency. They come to believe that they are skillful grammar teachers rather than proficient English language teachers which has a psychological impact on them; they feel they are 'half' teachers meaning they are not fully considered as true language experts due to their non-nativeness. They also mentioned that they sometimes feel anxious and uncomfortable when they communicate with native teachers.

Mahboob (2010) affirms that by and large NESTs hold higher professional status than NNESTs; however, this assertion does not perfectly fit into the East Asian context. According to the participants, in China and Korea where grammar comes as the most important part of teaching and learning test-based English, NNESTs who have expertise in effectively teaching this section of the language hold a more important status. Though they are respected as experts in teaching English grammar, these NNESTs still feel they lack certain qualities as language teachers in some sense that their pronunciation and accentuation are not up to the native level standard. This "actual experience of vulnerability can trigger intense emotions" (Kelchterman et al., 2009, p. 216). They feel that people see them as grammar experts rather than real language teachers; this drives them to feel vulnerable when they stand in front of students and the mixed emotion they have on their professional identity influences their teaching style and methods.

In sum, they feel confused with their identity as English language teachers; the participants agreed that they were proud and content with their skills in teaching test-based English, but at the same time they felt they were complete foreigners when it came to the spoken part of the language. These two separate feelings affect their perception of themselves as experts; they do not wholly accept themselves as 'true' language teachers largely due to their non-native accents and pronunciations. Holliday (2005, p. 16) backs this notion by claiming that "native speakerism" clouds NNESTs in forming positive images of themselves. Adding to this, variety of World Englishes are still not fully accepted in the main stream education sector and students tend to avoid other varieties of English; therefore, English language teachers are pressured into acquiring the 'standard' or 'authentic' version of this international language.

Students' preferences on teachers vary due to situational and contextual environment (Kasai, Lee, & Kim, 2011); learners prefer NESTs when they want to focus on learning spoken and written English and favor NNESTs when it comes to grammar and test-based English skills. This claim is supported by Chun (2014) and Sung (2014) whose studies were conducted in Korea and Hong Kong. In their studies, data were gathered from learners on how they perceive NNESTs and NESTs and the results were surprising; learners did not have distinct preferences. Learners' inclination largely depended on the specific areas they wanted to master; they did not choose teachers base on accent or fluency. Ling and Braine's (2007) research also back this conception; their study shows that university students in Hong Kong rated both their NNESTs and NESTs equally. The interesting fact was that it was the school officials and parents who held negative attitudes towards NESTs. During the interview, the interviewer mentioned some of these results of past researches, however, NNEST participants of this study still believed that having native-like accentuation and pronunciation were necessary to be perceived as an ideal language teacher. Based on

previous studies and the findings from this research, it can be argued that students and teachers have different perceptions toward NNESTs depending on the contexts and purposes of studying this language.

Simply put, East Asian NNESTs tend to hold dual professional identities. They view themselves as proficient test-based English grammar experts who are proud of their skills in delivering effective lectures yet feel vulnerable when it comes to their accent and pronunciation; they perceive themselves to be 'half' teachers rather than an ideal language teacher who can teach both test-based English and the practical language altogether. Yumi elaborates on this issue in a deliberate manner:

> *This is what people want… a teacher who can be both non-native and native at the same time. I know it sounds ridiculous, but I feel like they want me to be able to assist them and raise their test scores like what most of the non-native teachers are good at and at the same time, they expect me to speak the language like a native to display my legitimacy as an English language teacher.*

## 2. Neoliberal Values Embedded in Education: Performativity of NNESTs at Private Academies

Due to socio-economic factors, East Asians favor American English and/or British English and largely consider these two versions to be the 'standard' English (Kim, 2003). English has a symbolic meaning in many East Asian societies; mastery of the 'standard' version of it demonstrates one's status in a globalized competitive society. The notion of accepting American and/or British accented English as a powerful tool towards success comes from the neoliberal market ideology that governs society. This is conception is strongly related to the second theme of this study. Native accent in many Asian countries means, 'you speak good English' which may indicate one's socio-economic status. This global language has such power that it gives one access to certain group membership. English is not only a global language to acquire but a central tool for education which is the shortcut to power and success (Song, 2011) and this affects NNESTs' formation of identity as English language teachers. 'White accent' has become a commodity, an asset, one can sell to customers who wish to acquire the nativeness. Minhee and Bo's experiences illustrate how native accents are received as a key element of language performativity in this society:

Minhee-
*You know, I must be honest. Yes, I do envy those teachers who are
NNESTs but have that perfect American accent. To me, they are bilinguals
and I dare say we all strive to be like them.*
Bo-
*Before class started, I introduced myself in front of my students. As soon
as I said I studied in the UK, one of my students said in a loud voice,
'wow, then teacher can speak GOOD English!' I just smiled.*

Performativity is a notion strongly emphasized by neoliberal ideology that focuses on the market value of commodity resulting from limitless competition (Locke, 2015). The value created by liberal competition pressures agents to be performative rather than relying on one's beliefs and devotion (Ball, 2003). By being performative language teachers demanded by society, NNESTs are pressed into becoming exceptional performers who bring in profit to the institution for which they work.

English, in neoliberal societies, is treated as an essential commodity towards success (Song, 2011) and teachers are regarded as suppliers providing this important product to students. Especially in East Asian societies where 'examination-oriented knowledge' (Kwok, 2004) is valued, teachers are shoved into transferring knowledge as goods in efficient and effective manner. They are constantly evaluated by their consumers and institutions on their performance not only as educators but as sellers of a well-made product.

Each of the ten participants strongly agreed that due to the performative nature of the education industry, they somehow conform to the curriculum which focuses on increasing students' grades instead of teaching English as a language for global communication. Participants Bo, Xiu, and Yumi elaborate on this issue:

> Bo-
> *I want to be a good teacher…a good teacher who cares for her students. I want to share my experience and guide them to be enthusiastic citizens. But these days, I feel like that's not what the students want from me. All they want out of me is better grades and good enough exam scores to get them into top universities. I sometimes feel empty though I'm always busy teaching. And the sad thing is … I have to accept what the students and their parents want.*
> Xiu-
> *That's what they want! The academies, schools, parents, and students, all they want is good results; they don't care so much for our convictions and beliefs as teachers as long as we deliver what they want.*
> Yumi-
> *We have to be great actors. I mean, students don't like teachers who just teach. We need to entertain them and help raise their grades at the same time. Teachers these days have to be actors.*

It is clearly demonstrated from the interviews that the pervasive neoliberal market ideology on education stimulated teachers to become 'performers'; they are constantly pressed into bringing social and market value through their work. NNESTs struggle to meet the demands of the educational market by constantly developing their skills and delivering the academic commodity for the students to succeed in society. By being performative teachers, they secure their position as successful instructors as well as leading students to gain academic attainment. Still, the anxiety and stress of not being able to perform the nativeness lingers on tormenting their formation of identity as English language teachers. Teachers' 'terrors of performativity' (Ball, 2003) is clearly revealed by the NNEST participants.

**Conclusion**

This study intended to understand how East Asian NNESTs working at private academies perceive themselves as English language teachers living in societies where English is deemed as a crucial part of success. The findings demonstrate that the way these teachers view themselves are greatly influenced by the context in which they live and work. Working as NNESTs, these teachers perceive themselves through pervasive neoliberal ideologies deeply embedded in societies where even academic attainment is seen as a market commodity. NNESTs strive to stand out as English language teachers; knowing their handicap as non-natives, they recognize that performing well by raising exam scores for students and being effective counselors for parents are the ways to keep their status as teachers of one of the most important subjects. The construction of professional identity of NNESTs relies heavily on the neoliberal market that seeks and demands teachers who are willing to sell their knowledge to students in catchy ways. Neoliberal society pressures teachers to regard their knowledge and know-hows as skilled commodities and treat students and parents as consumers. By conforming to the societal pressure of delivering effective lectures that can increase students' test scores, NNESTs gain their confidence that is somewhat lost due to their not-so-native accent and pronunciation. They struggle to acquire nativeness but at the same time, they take pride in their knowledge and skills that native teachers normally do not hold; this is how they fretfully balance their pride with their anxiety and maintain their emotional stance.

The participants agreed that there were problems with teaching English as a subject to excel in exams and succeed in society. They also elaborated that they wanted to teach English as a communication tool so that students can arm themselves as global citizens displaying their fluent English at the international stage. Yet, the reality is that though they see problems with the current curriculum focusing on grammar for exam purposes, they hold a stern position as NNESTs by virtue of this problematic curriculum. They do realize that this could gradually change and hence, they are constantly preparing themselves by attending classes, brushing up on their accentuation and pronunciation, and adding other skills such as counseling to their resume.

By exploring Chinese and Korean NNESTs' perceptions of themselves on working at private after-school academies, this study may have shed light on how these particular group of teachers construct their dual identities as English language instructors and how a neoliberal market ideology, performativity, to be specific, greatly influences the status of these teachers. Further studies on self-perceptions of NNESTs working in private education sector in other countries are recommended due to the rapidly growing number of NNESTs in various socio-cultural contexts. It is crucial to comprehend teachers' perception of themselves since it not only affects their professional identity but also their teaching pedagogy and the whole of the education sector as well as the culture. Therefore, it is recommended that studies on teachers, especially those who are teaching foreign languages, should be conducted not only to better the learning and teaching experiences but also to suggest ways to improve NNESTs' collective identity. This study may add to the knowledge of identifying hidden needs and concerns of foreign language teachers by understanding and accepting these particular NNESTs' perception of dual selves. Furthermore, it is anticipated that the general society comprehend the situation these teachers are in and appreciate how

they overcome their anxieties in order to suit the palate of their students and institutions and devote selves to contributing knowledge to improve societies.

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# Book Review: Language and Culture
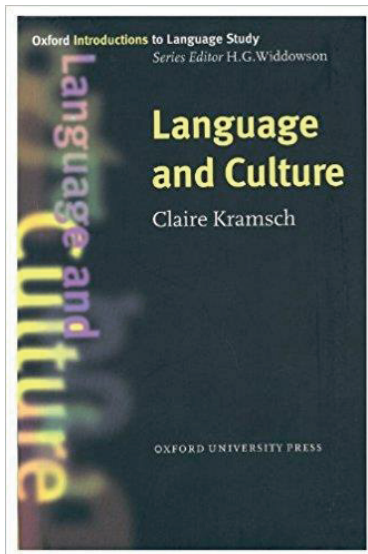
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|---|---|
| Author: | Claire Kramsch |
| Series Editor: | H. G. Widdowson |
| Publication Year: | 1998 |
| Edition: | Reprint (2016) |
| Publication House: | Oxford University Press |

**By Jaray Singhakowinta**

Having authored numerous books and journal articles on applied linguistics, second language acquisition and language pedagogy for almost 40 years, Claire Kramsch, Professor of German and Education at The University of California, Berkeley, brings together key theoretical thoughts necessarily important for learners of language study. This book highlights the intricate relationship between language and culture while offering accessible insights and illustrative samples of how social institutions such as family, educational system and media explicitly and implicitly influence the ways we define ourselves and construct our social realities through language. This book also pays attention to currently debated issues including social contexts and cultural authenticity, cultural identities and politics of recognition drawing on distinguished and recognized scholars from linguistics, sociology and anthropology.

Chapter 1 - The relationship of language and culture - explores the indispensable roles of language in the ways "we conduct our social lives" (Kramsch, 1998, p. 3). Being the most salient communication medium, language *expresses*, *embodies* and *symbolizes* cultural realities. Using Emily Dickinson's poem, Kramsch epistemologically elucidates the cultural intervention of language whilst pointing out the contentious nature of culture as "a constant site of struggle for recognition and legitimation" (Kramsch, 1998, p. 10). The chapter concludes with the discussion of Sapir-Whorf hypothesis outlining the relative influence of culture on thoughts and language use (Lucy, 1997).

Chapter 2 - Meaning as sign - reviews the arbitrary association between a given linguistic signifier and a signified object. The signification of linguistic signs produces three semantic relations: *denotation, connotation and iconicity*. Closely tied to speakers' lived experiences and affective economies, the semantic meanings of linguistic signs reflect the ways speakers define their subjective positions and their relationships to their respective speech/ discourse communities (Ochs & Schieffelin, (2008). The signifying practices of these linguistic codes are, however, not arbitrary, but rather motivated by the speech community's "desire for recognition, influence and power" (Kramsch, 1998, p. 23).

Chapter 3 - Meaning as action - discusses the way meaning is created through verbal exchanges delivered by speakers in interaction with one another. Analogous to Hegelian *Dialectical* relationship of subjectivities (1977/1807), speakers partaking in the verbal interaction are required to have the interpretative access to the *situated and cultural contexts* in which the conversation occurs. The meaning is therefore produced when dialogue partners manage to draw meanings from given *contextualization clues* and *frames of expectation* mutually shared between the interlocutors. Based on the notion of *co-operative principle*, successful verbal interactions, according to Kramsch (1998, p. 31), require conversation partners to use these linguistic clues to maintain the pragmatic coherence of the verbal exchanges.

Chapter 4 - Spoken language, oral culture - explores the nature of speech in juxtaposition with writing. Compared to expository writing, conversational speech is marked by seven characteristic features; speech is *transient, rhapsodic, aggregative, copious, loosely structured, people-centred and context-dependent* (Kramsch,1998, p. 38-40). These features are, nevertheless, inessential to neither the spoken nor written forms of communication since cultural practices of both orality and literacy are "more or less orate" in one context and "more or less literate" in another depending on the way members of the speech community make use of the spoken and written language. By adopting appropriate cultural face values available to speakers within their discourse communities, speakers negotiate their *interpretative frames* and *footings* with members of given social groups in verbal interactions (Goodwin & Goodwin, 2006).

Chapter 5 - Print language, literate culture - retraces the historical and cultural impacts of print technologies on the relationship between language and culture. The invention of writing and the technological development of print have strengthened the authority's interpretative monopolization of historical tradition and social memory making textual culture socially superior to oral culture. Written language can, however, be regarded as "fixed and stable product, i.e., text", and as "highly inferential process between a text and its readers", i.e., discourse (Kramsch,1998, p. 64). This interaction of readers with the texts is subject to the standardization of the appropriate forms and *genres* of writing shaped and policed by social institutions such as educational system, the media and the political institutions.

Chapter 6 - Language and cultural identity - examines the intricate relationship between language and cultural identity, particularly the way language influences the social construction of cultural identities (Nunan & Choi, 2010). Being "*the* most sensitive indicator of the relationship between an individual and a given social group" (Kramsch,1998, p. 77), language performs an essential role in shaping our thoughts and worldview. On the one hand, using the same linguistic signs can denote the membership of a discourse community, on the other, failing to acquire such necessary marker of the group solidarity can lead to social exclusion and discrimination. This symbolic value of language therefore leads to the social naturalization of language making language a natural index of a given culture or society. The cultural signification of language is not confined by the geographical borders of nation states, but is politically cultivated as the

"*cultural totem*" or *cultural identity* of speakers who commonly share socially recognizable *discourse accents* or *cultural stereotypes*.

Chapter 7 - Current issues - problematizes contested issues often taken for granted by language learners and linguists such as the role of native speakers, the concept of cultural authenticity and the politics of recognition. Often based on a rather essentialist definition of native speaker, the cultural association of language with cultural/ national identity to an extent obscures the multifaceted nature of language and its relationship to its speech community (Kramsch,1998, p. 79). The changing global demographics have made monolingual communities almost non-existent. The authoritative claim of cultural authenticity has subsequently become obsolete as the common belief that native speakers represent the "*original*" forms of language use has theoretically been proved doubtful. The decentralization of language from socially constructed features such as race, ethnicity and gender demystifies the false assumption of one-to-one relationship between language and culture.

This book is a must-read for beginners of language study. Not only does it offer an accessible and concise overview of key language theories, but it also accompanies each chapter with a range of language use in various contexts including everyday conversations, classic poems and novels allowing readers to connect theoretical concepts with the actual language use in *cultural and situated contexts*. Intended to encourage readers to continue their independent study on interested topics, the book contains twenty-four short readings taken from the literature mentioned in each chapter. Glossary or important jargons are also explained in the index section at the end of the book. Reading this book is then a preliminary preparation for students of language study as reviewing the theories presented in the book is essentially prerequisite for students undertaking linguistic courses.

Initially planned as an introductory survey to language study, this book precisely encompasses different areas of thoughts rather too broad for experts or those who seek academically oriented texts in language study. The book, however, addresses controversially debated topics such as the obscure and essentialist definition of native speaker, the cultural authenticity, the politics of recognition, etc. To reflect the cultural impacts of the changing geo-political landscapes on language learners, more recently contested issues such as the relationship between language and gender, the relationship between language and sexuality, the increasingly influential queer theory and the cultural diversity of language users, the economic democratization of language learners are nevertheless needed as these issues would complement what is already explored in this text and would offer more critical thoughts in addition to the familiar constructionist approach to language study.

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## Contact and Mailing Address:

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## In-text citation

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

## Long quotations

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

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

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

## Summary or paraphrase

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

**Examples of References**

Books
Butler, J. (1993). *Bodies that matter: On the discursive limits of sex.* London: Routledge.
Butler, J. (1999). *Gender trouble: Feminism and the subversion of identity* (10th anniversary ed.). London: Routledge. (Original work published 1990)
Articles in Periodicals
Lau, H. H. (2004). The structure of academic journal abstracts written by Taiwanese PhD students. *Taiwan Journal of TESOL*, *1*(1), 1-25.
Li, L.J., & Ge, G.C. (2009). Genre analysis: Structural and linguistic evolution of the English-medium medical research articles (1995-2004). *English for Specific Purposes*, *28*(2), 93-104.
Articles in Edited Books
Mulvey, L. (1985). Visual pleasure and narrative cinema. In B. Nichols (Ed.), *Movies and methods* (Vol. 2). Berkley: University of California Press.
Tonkiss, F. (1998). Analysing discourse. In C. Seale (Ed.), *Researching society and culture.* (pp. 245-260). London: Sage.
Unpublished Theses
Kojchakorn Sareechantalerk. (2008). *A discursive study of Thai female beauty: Multidimensional approach* (Unpublished master's thesis). Thammasat University, Bangkok, Thailand. [in Thai]

**Notes on Thai Language References**

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

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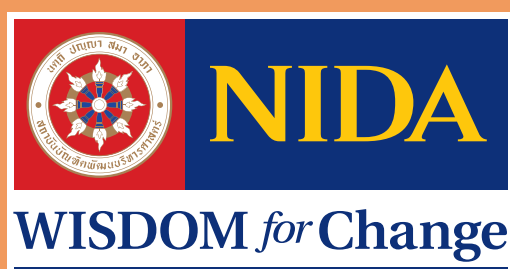
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