

วารสารภาษาปริทัศน์

เป็นวารสารวิชาการด้านการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษและภาษาศาสตร์ภาษาอังกฤษ
ของสถาบันภาษา จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

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เรียนท่านผู้อ่านที่เคารพ

วารสารภาษาปริทัศน์ฉบับที่ 31 ปี 2559 ประกอบไปด้วยบทความวิจัยและวิชาการด้านการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ การวัดและประเมินผล และภาษาศาสตร์ภาษาอังกฤษที่น่าสนใจรวม 9 บทความ โดยด้านการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษนำเสนอบทความวิจัยที่ศึกษาด้านทักษะการพูด การอ่าน และการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษ โดยในด้านทักษะการพูดนั้นมีบทความวิจัยที่ศึกษาการใช้คำแสดงจุดยืนในการกล่าวสุนทรพจน์ภายในห้องเรียนของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษระดับปริญญาตรี ส่วนด้านทักษะการอ่านมีงานวิจัยที่ทดลองใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อเพิ่มพูนทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนชาวไทยและงานวิจัยที่ทดลองใช้ Reader's Theater เพื่อพัฒนาความคล่องแคล่วในการอ่านของผู้เรียนชาวไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศ

ในด้านทักษะการเขียนประกอบด้วยบทความวิชาการที่นำเสนอศักยภาพของการนำงานเขียนในสื่อดิจิทัลต่างๆ มาเป็นกิจกรรมเสริมในการเรียนการสอนการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษ นอกจากนี้ยังมีบทความวิจัยที่ศึกษาผลกระทบของข้อผิดพลาดทางไวยากรณ์และผลกระทบของหลักการเขียนอีเมลภาษาอังกฤษธุรกิจต่อความคิดของผู้อ่านที่เป็นเจ้าของภาษา รวมทั้งงานวิจัยที่ศึกษาอัตถภาคและการเรียงตัวของอัตถภาคในบทความภาษาอังกฤษด้านวิศวกรรมคอมพิวเตอร์และวิศวกรรมไฟฟ้า และบทความวิชาการเกี่ยวกับแนวการสอนแบบอรรถฐานกับการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษเชิงวิชาการซึ่งบทความนี้นำเสนอแนวทางการใช้โครงสร้างทางอรรถฐานและลักษณะทางภาษาของอรรถฐานในการสอนการเขียนเชิงวิชาการ

ท่านผู้อ่านที่สนใจงานด้านการประเมินผลการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษสามารถอ่านบทความวิชาการเกี่ยวกับการนำการวิเคราะห์ Verbal Protocol ไปใช้ในงานวิจัยด้านการทดสอบภาษาที่สองหรือภาษาต่างประเทศ ส่วนบทความด้านภาษาศาสตร์ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นงานวิจัยที่ศึกษาการรับหน่วยคำบ่งชี้ความเป็นพหุพจน์ในภาษาอังกฤษโดยผู้เรียนที่มีภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาแม่

กองบรรณาธิการวารสารภาษาปริทัศน์หวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่า บทความที่ได้รับรวบรวมไว้ในฉบับนี้จะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อนิสิตนักศึกษา ครู อาจารย์ และนักวิจัยด้านการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษและภาษาศาสตร์ภาษาอังกฤษรวมทั้งศาสตร์อื่นๆที่เกี่ยวข้อง กองบรรณาธิการวารสารมีความตั้งใจที่จะทำให้วารสารภาษาปริทัศน์มีคุณภาพดียิ่งขึ้นในฉบับต่อไป

นอกจากนี้ ในนามของบรรณาธิการวารสารภาษาปริทัศน์ฉบับที่ 31 ขอขอบพระคุณคณาจารย์ในคณะที่ปรึกษา กองบรรณาธิการ ผู้ทรงคุณวุฒิ ผู้เขียนบทความทุกท่าน ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ชลธิช ชาญชัยฤกษ์ นางสาวธัญญารัตน์ นักพิณพาทย์ และทีมงานทุกท่าน มา ณ ที่นี้ ที่มีส่วนช่วยให้วารสารภาษาปริทัศน์ฉบับนี้สำเร็จลุล่วงถึงมือท่านผู้อ่านได้ตามกำหนด

วรวรรณ เพ็ชรกิจ

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The Application of Verbal Protocol Analysis in Second/Foreign Language Testing Research

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Abstract

Verbal protocol analysis (VPA) is a research method that has been used quite extensively in second/foreign language (SL/FL) testing research. Its perceived value comes from its potential to reveal cognitive processes employed by test takers or raters, which can provide key insights into how one actually takes a test or rates test responses. This article aims to demonstrate how VPA has been applied in SL/FL testing research and propose other potential applications of the method. The article describes verbal protocol analysis in terms of its characteristics, use in language testing research, and procedures for data collection and analysis. Concerns about its validity are also presented. Finally, the article concludes with recommendations for further use of VPA in other areas.

Keywords: verbal protocol analysis, language test validation

การใช้การวิเคราะห์ Verbal Protocol ในงานวิจัยด้านการทดสอบ ภาษาที่สองหรือภาษาต่างประเทศ

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การวิเคราะห์ Verbal Protocol เป็นวิธีวิจัยที่มีการใช้กันค่อนข้างกว้างขวางในงานวิจัยด้านการทดสอบภาษาที่สองหรือภาษาต่างประเทศ คุณค่าของวิธีการนี้ที่เป็นที่รู้จักกันคือวิธีการนี้สามารถใช้แสดงให้เห็นถึงกระบวนการทางปัญญาที่ผู้ทำแบบทดสอบหรือผู้ประเมินความสามารถของผู้เข้าสอบใช้ ซึ่งสามารถทำให้เกิดความเข้าใจอย่างถ่องแท้ถึงกระบวนการที่เกิดขึ้นจริงในการทำแบบทดสอบหรือการประเมินผู้เข้าสอบ บทความนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อแสดงให้เห็นว่ามีการนำการวิเคราะห์ Verbal Protocol ไปใช้ในงานวิจัยด้านการทดสอบทางภาษาที่สองหรือภาษาต่างประเทศกันอย่างไร และเพื่อให้ข้อเสนอแนะเกี่ยวกับความเป็นไปได้ในการนำการวิเคราะห์ Verbal Protocol ไปใช้ในด้านอื่นๆ บทความนี้เริ่มต้นด้วยการอธิบายลักษณะของการวิเคราะห์ Verbal Protocol การใช้วิธีการนี้ในการวิจัยด้านการทดสอบทางภาษา และขั้นตอนการเก็บและการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูล นอกจากนี้ยังได้มีการนำเสนอปัญหาด้านความตรงของวิธีการ ในตอนท้ายบทความนี้สรุปด้วยการเสนอข้อแนะนำเกี่ยวกับความเป็นไปได้ในการใช้วิธีการนี้ในด้านอื่นๆ

คำสำคัญ: การวิเคราะห์ Verbal Protocol การศึกษาความตรงของการทดสอบทางภาษา

Introduction

Verbal protocol analysis (VPA) is a methodology that has recently received much attention in second/foreign language (SL/FL) testing research as it can offer insightful information which may not be available through other research methods. It has been used in SL/FL testing since the 1980s (e.g. Cohen, 1984a; Grotjahn, 1986) to explore the processes and strategies employed in test taking and rating.

The application of VPA in SL/FL testing research has been largely used in language test validation. The aims of the article are to demonstrate how the method has been used for this purpose and to suggest other potential uses of the method. First, the characteristics of VPA, its use in language testing research, and data collection and analysis procedures will be demonstrated. Then, concerns about its validity will be presented. Finally, recommendations for further applications of VPA in other areas will be discussed.

What is verbal protocol analysis?

Verbal protocol analysis is a qualitative methodology which asks participants to “think aloud” or “talk aloud” as they are performing a task (concurrent reports), or verbalize after they finish a task (retrospective reports) (Green, 1998). According to an information processing model proposed by Ericsson and Simon (1993), these verbal protocols (or verbal reports) are generated by “a subset of cognitive processes that generate any kind of recordable response or behavior” (p. 9). This model holds that the information that is stored in short-term memory (i.e. thoughts) while one is performing a task is the information that is reportable. In addition, information that is kept in long-term memory can also be reported after it has been retrieved. Based on this assumption, it is claimed that these types of verbal protocols, either concurrent or retrospective, are “the closest reflection of the cognitive processes” (Ericsson & Simon, 1993, p. 16), and that they can accurately reflect cognitive processes if appropriate techniques are used to elicit them (Ericsson & Simon, 1993).

Types of verbal protocols

Verbal protocols can be classified based on different criteria. As stated previously, verbal protocols comprise concurrent and retrospective reports (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). Concurrent reports are produced at the same time participants are carrying out a task. For example, a participant is asked to think aloud as s/he is reading a passage. Retrospective reports, on the other hand, are generated after participants finish a task. In the case of a reading task, a participant reads the passage first. After finishing reading, s/he will report their thoughts. Retrospective reports can be conducted with some stimuli to help participants retrieve their cognitive processes. This type of retrospective report, called stimulated recall (Gass & Mackey, 2000), can make use of such stimuli as the test taker's test booklet (Phakiti, 2003) and a video of the test taker performing a test task (Barkaoui, Brooks, Swain & Lapkin, 2013).

To elicit valid concurrent or retrospective reports, the researcher should ask participants to either talk aloud or think aloud, but not to explain or justify their thoughts (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). For talking aloud, participants are asked to say out loud everything that they say to themselves silently while they are doing a given task. Therefore, what is reported is already in verbal form. However, when doing some tasks, participants may also pay attention to non-verbal information such as that about a text (Green, 1998). When reporting their thoughts, participants then have to transform this type of information into a verbal form before verbalizing. This characterizes thinking aloud.

In addition to the categories described above, verbal protocols may differ in the way prompting or mediation is used (Green, 1998). In a non-mediated procedure, a participant is asked to talk aloud or think aloud and is prompted only when pausing for a period of time. The prompts will be non-intrusive; for example, the researcher may say "Keep talking" to remind the participant to continue thinking aloud. In a mediated procedure, in contrast, the researcher will ask participants to explain, justify, etc. their thinking processes in addition to talking or thinking aloud. Both non-mediated and mediated procedures may be used for concurrent and retrospective reports.

In SL/FL research, verbal reports can also be categorized in a somewhat different but overlapping way. That is, they can be classified as self-report, self-

observation or self-revelation (Cohen, 2000; Cohen & Hosenfeld, 1981). In the context of language testing, self-report is “learners’ description of what they do, characterized by generalized statements” (Cohen, 2000, p. 127) about test-taking strategies. That is, participants describe the way they usually take a test. Self-observation is “the inspection of specific, not generalized, language behavior” (Cohen, 2000, p. 127) either introspectively (i.e. within 20 seconds of the cognitive event) or retrospectively (20 seconds or so after the cognitive event) (Cohen, 1984b). This type of data involves reference to some actual language testing event. Both self-report and self-observation can be elicited by asking participants to speak about the strategies they use or by other means such as questionnaires and diaries.

The last type of verbal report, self-revelation, or think-aloud, is defined as “stream-of-consciousness disclosure of thought processes while the information is being attended to” (Cohen, 2000, p. 128). Self-revelation differs from self-observation in that self-revelation data are participants’ thoughts that are not analyzed; however, self-observation data are thoughts which are analyzed then reported by the participants. When comparing the three types of data, Cohen (2000) points out that self-observation and self-revelation data might be more valid than self-report, due to it being a description of generalized behavior and does not concern the description of what participants actually do during or after the task performance.

Use of VPA in language testing research

The literature indicates that VPA can be a useful tool for language research. Its value is derived from its ability to reveal information on cognitive processes underlying performance that cannot be obtained by other research techniques (Buck, 1991; Camps, 2003; Kormos, 1998; Weigle, 1999). The method makes it possible to investigate cognitive processes more directly (Cohen, 2000; Wigglesworth, 2005) such as processes in composing (Smagorinsky, 1989), reading (Crain-Thoreson, Lippman & McClendon-Magnuson, 1997; Hosenfeld, 1984; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995), listening (Goh, 2002) and speaking (Cohen & Olshtain, 1993).

The literature also shows that VPA continues to play an increasingly significant role in language testing research. This is evident from the number of studies which have

used VPA independently (e.g. Buck, 1991; Orr, 2002; Sakyi, 2000), and with other qualitative or quantitative methods (e.g. Anderson, Bachman, Perkins & Cohen, 1991; Cohen, 1994; Milanovic, Saville & Shuhong, 1996; Phakiti, 2003; Sasaki, 2000; Weigle, 1999).

The increased use of VPA in research may be in response to a call for greater application of VPA as well as other qualitative methods in language test validation (e.g. Bachman, 2000; Banerjee & Luoma, 1997; Grotjahn, 1986; Lazaraton, 2008). The growing interest in VPA and other qualitative approaches may reflect “the introduction of the view of language as communication and the consequent rise of performance assessment; the increased importance of process in theories of learning and teaching; and more recently, the legitimacy of multiple perspectives and constructions” (Banerjee & Luoma, 1997, p. 275).

The current thinking on validity, which has changed the way validation research is carried out, also has led to increased use of VPA in language testing research. For example, Messick’s (1989) unified validity framework has been greatly influential in educational and language assessment research (see Chapelle, 1999, for review on validity in language assessment). Using Messick’s (1989) work as a foundation, Bachman (1990) describes types of evidence which can be used to support the interpretation of test scores and test use. To investigate construct validity, one of the several approaches that can be taken is analysis of processes underlying test performance, which includes verbal protocols among other methods. In language test validation processes, VPA can be used to answer such questions as:

Does the test in question actually measure the set of skills it purports to measure?

Do two different versions of the same test measure the same skills?

Do the raters heed the marking criteria in assessing performance on the task in question?

(Green, 1998, pp. 14-15)

The literature has revealed that VPA can be employed to investigate a variety of issues in SL/FL testing. The following section presents the topics that have been studied through VPA. However, it should be noted that several topics may be examined in the same study.

Nature of constructs:

Constructs that have been examined are, for example, those of reading (e.g. Rupp, Ferne & Choi, 2006), listening (e.g. Buck, 1991), speaking (e.g. Sato, 2014) and strategic competence (e.g. Phakiti, 2003). For instance, Sato (2014) examined the construct of interactional oral fluency between peers by using VPA, correlation and regression analysis. VPA was employed to compare raters' perceptions of individual and interactional oral fluency, and the two quantitative analyses to examine the relationship between the rated scores and the temporal aspects of speech. The analysis of verbal protocols revealed that an important component of interactional oral fluency was scaffolding. In addition, another component, pauses, was viewed differently in the two types of performance. With regard to the quantitative analyses, it was found that individual oral fluency was a weak predictor of oral fluency in the interactional context. These findings indicate that individual and interactional oral fluency may be different constructs, and that the latter should be considered a joint performance between speakers.

Another study of constructs demonstrated the use of VPA along with another qualitative method rather than quantitative ones as used in Sato's (2014) study. Rupp et al. (2006) analyzed interview and concurrent verbal reports of 10 ESL learners while responding to a reading test with multiple choice (MC) questions. They found that the construct of reading comprehension in a testing context is shaped by item design and text selection, which makes it different from the construct of reading in non-testing situations. In a testing context, test takers relied on key word matching when responding to MC questions. Their response processes were also affected by the difficulty of the text or the questions and were not linear as the processes proposed in a model of reading comprehension in a non-testing context were.

How test takers approach a test:

A number of studies have looked into what test takers attend to when taking a test (e.g. Bax, 2013; Wagner, 2008; Xu & Wu, 2012). For instance, Wagner (2008) investigated how eight ESL learners attended to and used nonverbal information in a video listening test to process the video text and answer comprehension questions. The

participants gave concurrent verbal reports while watching a video text and while answering test questions. The results showed that the participants made a reference to nonverbal information in the video texts. However, they varied in their ability to process and use the nonverbal behaviors to understand the video texts and answer comprehension questions. Based on the findings, the researcher argued that nonverbal information is important in processing spoken language. Therefore, to test listening ability, a video listening test should be used rather than an audio-only test as the former allows the listener to use components of spoken language that are part of real-life listening tasks.

Another study employed a different type of VPA to examine test taking processes. In a study on reading tests conducted by Bax (2013), stimulated retrospective recall interviews were used to supplement eye-tracking data to investigate cognitive processing of test takers performing a reading test. The data for eye tracking were collected from 38 participants, 20 of which were randomly selected for a stimulated recall interview. The study found that proficient and less proficient test takers significantly differed in their ability to read expeditiously and in attention paid to some aspects of test items and reading texts.

In a study that explored test taking strategies for a high-stakes writing test with picture prompts, Xu and Wu (2012) combined two types of VPA with other research techniques. That is, they collected think aloud and retrospective interview protocols from 12 students, analyzed their writing and interviewed four of the students' teachers. It was found that students employed a variety of test-taking strategies as coached in their classrooms. Moreover, for fear of losing points, they avoided expressing their own ideas in one of the writing tasks, which contradicts what the test task aims to measure.

Processes test takers employ in integrated tests:

As integrated tests have become more widely used, studies of test taking processes in such tests have received more attention during the past several years (e.g. Barkaoui et al., 2013; Plakans, 2008, 2009; Plakans & Gebril, 2012; Weigle, Yang & Montee, 2013). For example, Barkaoui et al. (2013) employed stimulated recalls to 30 test takers to examine their strategic behaviors in performing integrated and independent speaking tasks in the TOEFL iBT and the relationship between these behaviors and their

test scores. After completing each task which was video-recorded, the test takers watched the video and reported what they were thinking while performing the test. The analyses showed that test takers used more strategies when taking the integrated tasks than the independent tasks. In addition, the strategies used in different integrated tasks were similar to each other and differed from the independent tasks. Finally, there were no significant relationships found between strategies and total test scores. The researchers concluded that the findings provide support for the inclusion of integrated tasks in a speaking test.

In a study of reading-into-writing tasks, Weigle, Yang & Montee (2013) explored the reading processes test takers used when they performed a reading test in which they responded to test questions by writing short answers. Similar to Barkaoui et al. (2013), this study used a variety of data, that is, they collected think-aloud data, retrospective interviews, semi-structured interviews and test scores. The results revealed that the test takers engaged in reading processes that appeared in the real world context and they needed to apply a high level of language proficiency to successfully understand the texts and respond to short answer questions. These findings provide evidence for the validity of the test.

Factors that can affect test-taking processes:

Several studies have examined factors that influence test-taking processes, for example, the effects of test method (e.g. Buck, 1991; Yi'an, 1998), test task difficulty (e.g. Babaii & Moghaddam, 2006), topic familiarity (e.g. Lee, 2015), and cultural schemata (e.g. Sasaki, 2000). Babaii and Moghaddam (2006), for instance, examined the effect of test task difficulty on test takers' macro-level processing when doing a C-test. Four test tasks were used; each was different in terms of text difficulty (low vs high level of syntactic complexity and abstraction), and the presence of clues about the number of missing letters (presence vs absence of clues). 119 students took the test and 36 of them gave retrospective think aloud protocols. Students' scores were analyzed with ANOVA and the frequency and percentage of protocols with chi-square analyses. The results showed that texts that had a high level of syntactic complexity and abstraction and had

no clues increased the difficulty of test tasks. This, in turn, elicited more macro-level processing.

Like Babaii and Moghaddam (2006), Lee (2015) used both quantitative and qualitative methods for a study which looked into the impact of topic familiarity on strategies used in reading tests. 36 EFL students took a reading test with familiar and unfamiliar topics, produced retrospective protocols and were interviewed. The analysis of verbal protocols showed that students used six categories of strategies: general approaches, discourse structure, vocabulary/sentence-in-context, multiple-choice test management strategies, test wiseness and background knowledge. In addition, results of ANOVA analysis showed that strategies used in taking the test with familiar and unfamiliar topics were not statistically significant.

Test development or revision:

Some studies have incorporated verbal protocol analysis in their test development or revision processes (e.g. Liu, 2007; Uiterwijk & Vallen, 2005). Liu (2007), for example, developed a pragmatic test for Chinese EFL learners with a focus on the speech act of apology. The test development consisted of several stages. First, a group of Chinese EFL learners were asked to provide examples of situations which involved apologies and state how likely they felt the situations were to occur. Then, a metapragmatic assessment was used to find out whether the variables in the situations the learners provided were perceived by Chinese university students and native speakers of English in the same manner. Next, the resulting situations were incorporated into a questionnaire and pilot tested. After that, multiple choice options were created for the items. Finally, the construct validity of the new questionnaire was investigated through Rasch analysis and VPA. The findings showed that the data from verbal protocol analysis supported those from the Rasch analysis, which indicated that the test was a useful instrument to measure pragmatic knowledge.

In another study, VPA was also employed along with other techniques to alert test developers to possible item bias against immigrant students in a Dutch achievement test (Uiterwijk & Vallen, 2005). The procedures included (1) statistical differential item functioning (DIF) detection methods, (2) an investigation of sources of DIF which

consisted of literature search, content analysis, expert judgements, and students' think aloud data, and (3) identification of biased item. It was found that 17.4% of test items may cause DIF and possible DIF sources were, for example, the use of idioms, low-frequency words, and subject matter that involved Dutch culture. However, only some of these items that contained elements that were not part of the construct to be measured were considered biased items, which constituted 4% of all items.

In addition to data obtained from test takers, verbal protocols can provide rich evidence about raters' performance. The following are topics that have been examined by verbal reports from raters.

Raters' decision making process:

Several studies have looked at how raters judge the quality of test takers' performance and determine scores, for example, of writing (e.g. Cumming, 1990; DeRemer, 1998; Gebril & Plakans, 2014; Wiseman, 2012), speaking (e.g. Ang-Aw & Goh, 2011; Brown, Iwashita & McNamara, 2005; Weigle, 1999) and of vocabulary (e.g. Li & Lorenzo-Dus, 2014). For instance, Li and Lorenzo-Dus (2014) used think aloud to investigate how raters assessed vocabulary in a speaking test. The analysis of verbal protocols of 25 raters showed that raters focused on both vocabulary and non-vocabulary features when assigning vocabulary scores. The vocabulary feature that was most frequently attended to was lexical sophistication and the test taker's use of advanced words had a direct impact on the vocabulary scores s/he received. In addition, the non-vocabulary features that raters paid attention to, for example, pronunciation, fluency and grammar had an impact on their vocabulary rating. These findings indicate that it may not be possible to rate vocabulary as a discrete construct in a speaking test.

Gebril and Plakans (2014) investigated raters' decision-making behaviors while they rated reading-to-write tasks, the way they approached source use, features that influenced their scoring, and the challenges they faced when scoring. The study did not only collect data from think aloud like the previous study but also from interviews of two raters. It was found that in terms of decision-making behaviors, raters reported more judgment behaviors (the processes of evaluating essay quality) than interpretation behaviors (strategies used to make sense of the essay). As for the way raters approached

source use, raters located source information, checked citation mechanics and judged the quality of source use. With regards to features that influenced scoring, linguistic features and citation mechanics were reported as critical when raters scored lower level essays. As score levels were higher, raters shifted their attention to organization and development issues and quality of source use. Finally, raters reported several challenges in rating: difficulties in identifying text from source materials and that produced by the test takers, difficulty in scoring texts that contain copied source materials or overuse of quotations, and difficulty in scoring borderline essays. It was concluded that integrated tasks are complex and require rater training and rubrics that address these challenges in order that scores derived from such tasks will be justifiable.

How raters interpret oral interaction:

As many speaking tests now use pair or group test tasks, research has been conducted to explore the rating processes of this task type. For instance, Ducasse and Brown (2009) investigated what raters focused on when they assessed paired interaction in a speaking test. The researchers asked 12 experienced teacher-raters to give both retrospective reports and stimulated recall after watching videos of test performance. The findings showed that the raters focused on three interactional features when rating a paired oral test: non-verbal interpersonal communication, interactive listening and interactional management. The researchers suggest that the results can be used to define what interaction is and to develop interaction-based rating scales for speaking.

Factors that can affect variability in rating processes:

The factors that have been investigated which can affect variability in rating processes include those such as test takers' first language (e.g. Winke & Gass, 2013), task characteristics (e.g. Weigle, 1999), rating scales types (e.g. Barkaoui, 2007, 2010; Li & He, 2015), rater experience (e.g. Barkaoui, 2010; Connor-Linton, 1995; Isaacs & Thomson, 2013; Joe, Harmes & Hickerson, 2011; Weigle, 1999), rater training (e.g. Weigle, 1994) and raters' first language (e.g. Zhang & Elder, 2014). For instance, Winke and Gass (2013) examined the influence of raters' knowledge of test takers' L1 on rating their oral proficiency. In the study, 26 raters were videotaped while rating test

takers from three L1 backgrounds. Then, they watched the videos of themselves and reported what they were thinking at that time. The data from the stimulated recall revealed that a test taker's accent and L1 can affect the rating of some raters, which can lessen score reliability.

Unlike Winke and Gass (2013), Li and He (2015) incorporated VPA with other techniques to investigate the use of holistic and analytic rating scales by 9 raters assessing essays. That is, the study used concurrent think aloud, questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The findings showed that when using the holistic scale, raters more frequently used self-monitoring-interpretation strategies, the strategy of considering local language features and some self-monitoring-judgment strategies. However, with the analytic scale, self-monitoring-judgement strategy, error-classifying strategy and quality-assessing strategy were more often used. In terms of text focus, with the holistic scales, the features that raters paid more attention to were the general quality of language use and non-scale-related language features. However, with the analytic scale, the features that received more attention were coherence and grammar. The study shows that scoring rubrics have an influence on rating processes and that raters interact with rubrics in different ways.

Another study looked into the effect of raters' first language employing not only VPA but also quantitative methods. Zhang and Elder (2014) compared native and non-native English speaking raters' behaviors when they judged oral performance of test takers using Many-facet Rasch measurement and content analysis of their stimulated recall protocols. The quantitative analysis showed that the scores assigned by both groups of raters were similar in terms of score consistency and rating severity. Similarly, the qualitative analysis revealed that raters were not different in terms of the features that they focused on when they applied the rating scale. These findings led to the conclusion that raters' L1 may not affect rating outcomes in oral assessment given that appropriate training in the use of rating scale has been provided. The finding also supports the claim that native and nonnative raters do not apply different standards in assessing oral language performance.

Development of a framework or model of scoring processes:

Some studies using VPA have aimed to construct a model which describes raters' behavior and criteria they use in essay rating (e.g. Cumming, Kantor & Powers, 2002; Sakyi, 2000). Cumming et al. (2002), for instance, conducted three coordinated studies that aimed to develop a framework to describe raters' decision making processes while holistically evaluating ESL/EFL compositions. All studies collected and analyzed concurrent verbal reports from experienced raters. The finalized framework consisted of 27 decision making behaviors which fell under self-monitoring focus, rhetorical and ideational focus, and language focus.

Development of scoring rubrics:

Some studies have used VPA to develop scoring rubrics (e.g. Zhao, 2012). For instance, Zhao (2012) aimed to develop and validate an analytic scale of voice in L2 argumentative writing by using both qualitative and quantitative analysis of rater performance. The qualitative data analysis which involved think aloud of four raters followed by interviews supported the quantitative data analysis which found that the construct of voice includes three subcomponents: the presence and clarity of ideas in the content, manner of idea presentation, and writer and reader presence. The qualitative data also yielded valuable information on what raters viewed as important in measuring voice, which was not present in the scoring rubric. The data from both analyses led to the revision and validation of the new rubric of voice. It was found that the revised rubric could be useful in measuring voice in L2 argumentative writing.

Data collection procedure for verbal protocol analysis

The following points should be considered when collecting verbal protocols (Bowles, 2010; Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Gass & Mackey, 2000; Green, 1998):

Determining the appropriateness of a task:

Before using VPA, the researcher should first determine whether or not the task proposed is suitable for the methodology (Green, 1998). Reading, listening, writing or speaking tasks are generally suitable for protocol studies. However, the following tasks

are not likely to yield useful information on thought processes: tasks that involve guessing, tasks that require Yes/No or True/False responses, tasks that are too simple for the participants, perpetual-motor tasks and visual encoding tasks, and speaking tasks where the participants are asked to give concurrent reports (Green, 1998).

Task analysis:

The next step involves analyzing the task to identify a set of possible strategies that participants may use to carry it out (Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Green, 1998). This can help the researcher to construct a coding scheme for data analysis.

Procedure selection:

In this step, the researcher chooses between talk aloud and think aloud methods, concurrent and retrospective reports as well as mediated and non-mediated procedures (Green, 1998). Green (1998) recommends concurrent reports, except for listening, speaking and simple reading test tasks. In cases where retrospective reports are chosen, the shorter the delay, the more likely the verbal reports can reflect the actual processing (Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Gass & Mackey, 2000; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). Ericsson and Simon (1993) also prefer concurrent protocols over retrospective ones; however, they recommend using both sets of data. This is because even though retrospective reports can be incomplete, they can provide the general structure of the thought processes; thus complementing data obtained from concurrent reports. Other researchers also agree with this idea as the data obtained from concurrent reports alone may indicate that some participants do not use the target processes. However, when retrospective reports are also collected, the data can reveal that more participants actually do use the processes, reflecting a more accurate number (Alavi, 2005; Camps, 2003). In addition to using more than one type of VPA in a study, the combination of VPA with other data collection method is also recommended (Barkaoui, 2011; Gebril & Plakans, 2014). For example, think aloud protocols can be collected with a follow-up interview to gain multiple perspectives about rating behaviors (Gebril & Plakans, 2014).

Instructions:

The researcher should prepare clear instructions and pilot test them before use (Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Gass & Mackey, 2000; Green, 1998). The instructions should be standardized (Gass & Mackey, 2000) and should specify clearly that the participants should focus solely on completing the task given as this can ensure that they use the same thinking processes as when they do the task silently (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). In addition, the instructions should emphasize that participants are to report thoughts as they occur without trying to make their reports more coherent. As for retrospective reports, the instructions should tell the participants to start their retrospective reports with “I first thought of...” to help them recall their thoughts.

Some tasks involve automatic processes which are not stored in short-term memory, and therefore are not reportable. In order to make the processes reportable, the researcher should design the instructions so that the processing is slowed down (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). For example, in a reading task, participants may be required to pause between sentences to verbalize their thoughts before reading the next sentence (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). Or they may be asked to read a passage that has been marked; whenever they see a mark, they will stop reading and start thinking aloud (Crain-Thoreson et al., 1997). Another way to facilitate the participants in the case of a listening or speaking test is to pause the VDO when discourse boundaries occur (Wagner, 2008) or to segment a spoken text after 20-25 seconds (Li & Lorenzo-Dus, 2014).

As for the language used for verbal reports, participants should be allowed to use their first language (Kormos, 1998). Reporting in the SL/FL may be problematic because it may interfere with task performance. Also, the reports may not reflect the thought processes accurately if the participants are not proficient in that language.

Generally researchers should not tell participants what thinking processes they are interested in as this can influence the way participants verbalize (Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). However, if the research objective is to investigate whether participants use a particular process or not, or is to understand how particular processes are used, then researchers can state specifically what processes they are focusing on to elicit the processes of interest (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995; Weigle et al.,

2013). Researchers may remind the participants to focus on specific processes by repeating or bolding the key processes in instructions (Li & Lorenzo-Dus, 2014).

Practice:

After the instructions are given, participants should do some practice in giving the report to ensure that they understand the procedure and can perform as instructed. Participants should practice an easy and general task such as multiplying numbers or solving an anagram (Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Green, 1998). After these tasks are completed, participants should practice the task and the technique that the researcher aims to use in the study. For instance, participants may practice thinking aloud while reading short paragraphs before reading longer ones in the main data collection procedure (Weigle et al., 2013).

Verbal reporting:

During verbal reporting, the researcher should clarify the instructions if participants do not give the verbal report as instructed (Green, 1998). When participants pause, researchers should remind them to continue talking by saying “Keep talking” (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). If the participants say they do not remember their thoughts, it is suggested that researchers accept that answer and move on. Also, the researcher should not sit opposite or beside the participant as this may create social interaction which may cause changes in the sequence of thoughts in task performance (Ericsson & Simon, 1993).

With regards to collecting retrospective reports, the researcher may use supplementary data such as notes the participants wrote while doing a reading test or a video recording of their speaking task, to help participants retrieve their thought processes (Gass & Mackey, 2000; Green, 1998).

Data analysis procedure for verbal protocol analysis

The data analysis procedure consists of data transcription, coding and analysis.

Data transcription:

There are several recommendations for data transcription (Green, 1998). For example, recorded protocols should be transcribed as they are without any modification even though they may be incomplete or contain grammatical errors. Time markers as well as prosodic and paralinguistic elements should also be indicated in the transcripts as they are informative. For instance, time markers can show the length of time spent on a particular cognitive activity and pauses can be used to segment protocols to a single process.

Coding:

The next step is to develop a coding scheme and assign a code to each segment of protocol (Green, 1998). There are several ways to develop a coding scheme; one or more methods may be used in a study. For example, one can do task analysis as mentioned earlier (Ericsson & Simon, 1993; Green, 1998). Another method is to develop a coding scheme based on the protocols collected in one's study. The coding scheme can then be piloted with samples of data and refined afterwards (Cumming, 1990). Finally, one can use a coding scheme that has been developed by other researchers with or without modifications (Anderson et al., 1991; Barkaoui et al., 2013; Gebril & Plakans, 2014; Goh, 2002; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995).

After a coding scheme is developed, verbal protocols can next be segmented and coded; each segment represents a single cognitive process. Therefore, segments may vary in length ranging from a single word to a phrase or paragraph (Li & Lorenzo-Dus, 2014; Xu & Wu, 2012).

After coding, the researcher should establish inter-coder reliability and intra-coder reliability (Green, 1998). A small random sample of data is usually selected to be coded by a second coder (inter-coder) or the same coder after the first coding (intra-coder). Then, reliability coefficients are calculated, for example, through percentage of agreement and Cohen's kappa (Anderson et al., 1991; Barkaoui et al., 2013; Bowles,

2010; Cumming, 1990; Gebril & Plakans, 2014; Green, 1998; Weigle et al., 2013; Zhang & Elder, 2014).

Analysis:

After the data are coded, they may be reported qualitatively or quantitatively or using a combination of both depending on the research questions or hypotheses (Gass & Mackey, 2000; Green, 1998). For example, verbal reports of rating processes can be analyzed and presented qualitatively (e.g. Rupp et al., 2006; Orr, 2002). Or codings may be tallied, and percentages or frequencies presented (e.g. Gebril & Plakans, 2014; Wagner, 2008; Weigle et al., 2013). In addition, statistical analyses can be performed. For example, *t*-tests can be conducted to find out whether groups of participants differ in their cognitive processes (e.g. Cumming, 1990; Sasaki, 2000). Or chi-square can be conducted to examine relationships between strategy use and other factors (e.g. Anderson et al., 1991). Correlational analyses can also be performed to investigate the relationships between reported strategies and other variables such as test scores (Barkaoui et al., 2013).

Concerns about verbal protocol analysis

Although VPA has been well accepted by many researchers, it has also been criticized in a number of areas. The major concerns about using VPA are in regards to reactivity and veridicality (Barkaoui, 2011; Ellis, 2001; Polio, 2012). Reactivity happens when concurrent verbal protocols affect the process of doing a task or the product of a performance. For example, thinking aloud while rating was found to affect the rating processes, and severity as well as self-consistency in scoring by some raters (Barkaoui, 2011). Reactivity may also be found in a verbal reporting procedure that requires participants to explain or describe while verbalizing or interpret their task performance (Fox, Ericsson & Best, 2011).

Another problem, veridicality, concerns not only concurrent but also retrospective verbal protocols. That is, the information obtained from concurrent verbal protocols can be limited since it is not possible for participants to verbalize every thought (Nisbett & Wilson, 1977). Some participants are more articulate than others in reporting

their thoughts, and some people may find it difficult to report thoughts while performing a task (Weigle, 1994). Similarly, retrospective reports may be incomplete because there is a delay between task performance and verbal reports (Bowles, 2010). In addition, participants giving retrospective protocols are supposed to report only what they were thinking while doing the task. However, they may also report thoughts that occur after the task has been completed.

Another challenge of the methodology is the interactive and social nature of protocol data (Barkaoui, 2011; Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995; Sasaki, 2008; Smagorinsky, 1989, 2001). These features can be seen in think aloud data in which the participants address the researchers despite their absence during the data collection (Barkaoui, 2011; Sasaki, 2008). This suggests that the content and types of verbal protocols may be influenced by the awareness of the audience. Therefore, researchers should also take this into consideration when collecting, analyzing and interpreting verbal reports (Barkaoui, 2011; Sasaki, 2008). In addition, involving an interviewer in data collection may affect the quality of thinking (Norris, 1990), and task performance and sophistication of retrospective reports (Leighton, 2013). Apart from the involvement of interviewers, item difficulty was also found to have a significant effect on the consistency of response processing in concurrent and retrospective reports (Leighton, 2013).

Other criticisms on the methodology are that it is labor and time intensive (Wolfe, 1997). This also leads to low statistical power when statistical analysis is applied to think aloud data due to small sample sizes.

This section has reviewed concerns and empirical studies of the validity of VPA in several fields. As the number of studies on its validity conducted in the SL/FL testing is not large and they address a variety of different issues, it is difficult to draw any useful conclusions in regards to SL/FL testing. Despite some criticism, for example, in terms of incompleteness and interactive features, a significant number of researchers feel that this does not invalidate the verbal protocols obtained (e.g. Barkaoui, 2011; Goh, 2002). VPA is regarded as a useful tool as it can reveal data on cognitive processes and strategies used by test takers and raters (e.g. Barkaoui, 2011; Crisp, 2008; Green, 1998; Leighton 2013). Therefore, guidelines for the data collection and analysis procedures that have

been presented earlier should be strictly followed to address these challenges and maximize the quality of verbal protocols.

Recommendations for further use of VPA in SL/FL testing

The literature has shown that VPA has been extensively used for SL/FL test validation purposes. However, the present author would like to point out that the methodology has potential in other areas of SL/FL testing. For example, it can be applied to validation of other assessment instruments such as self-assessment, which is a valuable tool in improving learning as it can provide learners with an understanding of their current ability and the target performance (Fulcher, 2010; Oscarson, 2014). As can be seen in the case of self-assessment, its validity has been investigated widely through the comparison of students' self-assessment with their test scores, teachers' ratings or peer assessment (e.g. Brantmeier, Vanderplank & Strube, 2012; Matsuno, 2009; Saito & Fujita, 2004).

However, little research thus far has employed VPA to explore this issue. Since VPA can elicit cognitive processes in test performance as demonstrated in earlier sections, the method then can play an important role in addressing the validity of self-assessment as well. For example, researchers may ask students to assess their English writing abilities by responding to a self-assessment questionnaire and to give retrospective reports about their cognitive processes while completing the questionnaire. The researchers can then compare the processes they aim the questionnaire will elicit with those reported by the students. The analysis can provide evidence about the validity of the self-assessment instrument.

Another potential use of VPA is in rater training. As previously discussed, studies that involve raters' think aloud or retrospective reports have shown what raters attend to when evaluating and assigning scores. If VPA is implemented during rater training sessions, raters may benefit from the knowledge of their own decision-making processes. They can become more aware of how well the strategies they use correspond with those that are specified in rating scales. In addition, they can compare their strategy use with others and discuss ways to avoid bias and improve rating consistency and accuracy, which in turn can improve the validity of test score interpretation and use.

Conclusion

In conclusion, VPA has been applied quite extensively in studying language test validation; however, the validity of the method itself has been criticized, for example, in terms of its completeness and social nature. Nevertheless, it is still considered to be of value in studying test taking processes and rating processes as it may be the only tool that can directly reveal these cognitive processes and strategies (e.g. Barkaoui, 2011; Crisp, 2008; Green, 1998; Leighton 2013). Researchers, however, must be aware of its limitations and, as suggested by Ericsson and Simon (1993), Gass and Mackey (2000) and Green (1998) to name a few, care should be taken in data collection as well as analysis in order to maximize its value in language testing studies.

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Biodata

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Effects of Grammatical and Mechanical Errors on E-mail Readers' Perceptions toward E-mail Writers

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to explore how native speakers of English perceive the non-native writers who made grammatical and mechanical errors in their business e-mails. Convenience and snowball samplings were used to recruit five native speakers of English: two American teachers of English, one British teacher of English, one Canadian executive, and one American executive. All the participants worked and lived in Bangkok, Thailand. In-depth interviews were conducted to elicit data. The data was transcribed and coded to create the main themes. The results indicated that some participants perceived the e-mail writers negatively while others still had positive perceptions toward the writers, regardless of the errors. Moreover, the results revealed that some characteristics of the e-mails such as the tone, wordiness, and word choices bothered the participants and negatively affected the participants' perceptions toward the e-mail writers. The effects of errors in the e-mails on the perceptions toward the writers varied depending on factors such as the participants' age and familiarity with non-native speakers of English. Since the results show that errors and some e-mail characteristics can cause readers to perceive writers negatively, businesspeople should focus on grammar and mechanics as well as other characteristics when composing business e-mails in order to create and maintain goodwill and good impressions in business communications.

Keywords: Business e-mails, errors, grammar, mechanics, perception.

ผลกระทบของข้อผิดพลาดทางไวยากรณ์และหลักการเขียน ที่มีต่อความคิดที่ผู้อ่านมีต่อผู้เขียนอีเมล

พชร อยู่สวัสดิ์ และ สุพงศ์ ตั้งเคียงศิริสิน
สถาบันภาษา มหาวิทยาลัยธรรมศาสตร์

บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยนี้มีจุดประสงค์เพื่อสำรวจแนวคิดของเจ้าของภาษาว่าคิดเห็นอย่างไรต่อผู้ที่ไม่ใช่เจ้าของภาษาและเขียนอีเมลเชิงธุรกิจผิดพลาดหลักไวยากรณ์และหลักการเขียน การเลือกกลุ่มตัวอย่างแบบสะดวกสบาย (Convenience Sampling) และแบบลูกโซ่ (Snowball Sampling) ถูกนำมาใช้ในการเลือกเจ้าของภาษาจำนวนห้าคนที่ทำงานและอาศัยอยู่ในกรุงเทพฯ ประกอบด้วย อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษชาวอเมริกันสองคน อาจารย์สอนภาษาอังกฤษชาวอังกฤษหนึ่งคน ผู้บริหารชาวแคนาดาหนึ่งคน และผู้บริหารชาวอเมริกันหนึ่งคน งานวิจัยนี้ใช้การสัมภาษณ์เชิงลึกเป็นเครื่องมือในการหาข้อมูล โดยผู้วิจัยได้บันทึกการสัมภาษณ์ทั้งหมดและถอดเทปบันทึกเสียงเพื่อนำข้อมูลมาจัดกลุ่มและสร้างความเข้าใจของผลงานวิจัย และผลวิจัยบ่งชี้ว่าผู้ให้สัมภาษณ์บางคนมีความคิดเชิงลบต่อผู้เขียนอีเมลขณะที่บางคนยังคงมีความคิดเชิงบวกต่อผู้เขียน แม้ว่าอีเมลเหล่านั้นมีข้อผิดพลาดทางไวยากรณ์และหลักการเขียนก็ตาม ผลงานวิจัยยังเผยให้เห็นอีกว่าลักษณะอื่นๆของอีเมล เช่น น้ำเสียง การใช้คำฟุ่มเฟือย และการเลือกใช้คำ อาจมีผลต่อความคิดของผู้อ่านให้เป็นไปในเชิงลบ อย่างไรก็ตามผลกระทบที่เกิดขึ้นจากข้อผิดพลาดทั้งทางไวยากรณ์และหลักการเขียนนั้นขึ้นอยู่กับปัจจัยอื่นๆด้วย เช่น อายุของผู้อ่านและความคุ้นเคยกับผู้ที่ไม่ใช่เจ้าของภาษาอังกฤษ ดังนั้นผู้เขียนอีเมลทางธุรกิจจึงควรให้ความสนใจและระมัดระวังเกี่ยวกับไวยากรณ์และหลักการเขียน และนอกจากนี้ยังต้องใส่ใจลักษณะอื่นๆของอีเมลด้วย เพื่อสร้างความประทับใจและเสริมสร้างมิตรภาพกับผู้อ่านซึ่งเป็นจุดประสงค์หลักในการติดต่อสื่อสารทางธุรกิจ

คำสำคัญ: อีเมลเชิงธุรกิจ, ข้อผิดพลาด, ไวยากรณ์, หลักการ เขียน, แนวความคิด

Introduction

E-mail is a prevalent communication channel in business. More than 50% of the Internet users in Thailand send and receive e-mails (National Statistical Office [NSO], 2012, p. 11). Creating and maintaining goodwill is one of the objectives of business communication (Means, 2001, pp. 2-3; Satterwhite & Olson-Sutton, 2007, pp. 4-5); therefore, people who regularly use e-mails for business purposes should consider factors that can damage goodwill and create a bad impression. Since errors in written business communication can damage writers' image and credibility (Guffey, 2006, p. 88; Hartley & Bruckmann, 2002, p. 165; Kolin, 2001, pp. 136-137; Krizan, Merrier, Logan, & Williams, 2008, p. 17; Lesikar, Flatley, & Rentz, 2008, p. 101; Locker, 2006, p. 12; Means, 2001, p. 159), they might also cause the same effects in business communication via e-mails. Therefore, the present study aimed to investigate how native speakers of English perceive the non-native writers who produce errors in business e-mails.

Business Writing Process:

The business writing process consists of planning, drafting, and revising (Heintz & Parry, 2011, p. 14). At the planning stage, writers analyze the objectives of the message and the audience, gather information for the message, and organize the information for later use. Writers should analyze the audience's demographic information since people in the same groups are likely to behave and think similarly (Marsen, 2007, p. 4). Then writers compose the message according to audience analysis (Guffey, 2006, p. 145; Guffey & Du-Babcock, 2010, p. 34; Marsen, 2007, p. 3; Means, 2001, p. 108). After that, they gather the information and organize it according to the sequence or importance of the information for drafting (Guffey, 2006, pp. 167-168; Guffey & Du-Babcock, 2010, p. 157; Kolin, 2001, p. 40). Next, at the drafting stage, writers begin to draft the message using the organized information from the previous stage. At the final stage, they revise, edit, and proofread the message. Writers should revise to improve the content, organization, and tone (Locker, 2006, p. 120). The use of numeric and bulleted items are promoted for a well-organized message (Guffey, 2006, p. 198). Finally, writers edit and proofread the message so that the message is error-free (Ober, 2009, pp. 121-122).

Business E-mails:

E-mail is a speedy communication channel. According to Sproull and Kiesler (1986), e-mails are non-simultaneous, fast, and text-based. E-mails consist of the opening, body, and closing. The opening or salutation is important for business e-mails, especially when the messages are sent to an outsider, since it can create a warm and friendly tone (Ober, 2009, p. 60; Wong, Connor, & Murfett, 2004, p. 81). In the body section of an e-mail message, when the subject matter is neutral or good news, the message starts with the main idea. This approach is called the direct approach and is normally applied in most e-mails. However, if the e-mail contains bad news, the indirect approach is used instead, i.e. the message states the reasons first to delay the bad news. When writing e-mails, writers should analyze the audience to create the message that is appropriate for the audience (Kolin, 2001, p. 136).

In addition, a good e-mail message should be short and concise to save readers' time (Lesikar et al., 2008, p. 100). Further, since errors can hinder readers' comprehension and create a bad impression, writers should proofread their e-mails (Kolin, 2001, pp. 136-137; Means, 2001, p. 159; Krizan et al., 2008, p. 17; Ober, 2009, p. 120). Correct choices of words are also important for creating a good impression (Wong et al., 2004, p. 77). One of the netiquette rules that e-mail senders should follow is avoiding flaming – sending angry messages – which can cause a negative perception (Kolin, 2001, p. 139; Krizan et al., 2008, p. 127; Means, 2001 p. 167). Finally, the closing is stated at the end of the e-mail to show gratitude and promote goodwill.

Error and Perception:

Grammatical errors occur when the rules of grammar are infringed (Olsson, 1972, p.7). Grammatical errors include incorrect tenses, subject-verb agreement errors, and pronoun errors. Errors that occur in the process of writing including misspelling, punctuation, and capitalization are mechanical errors (Means, 2001, p.128). Both types of error can cause negative perceptions in written business communication (Ober, 2009, p.120).

Ludwig's Theory of Judgment on Non-natives' Errors:

Errors can cause irritation and a negative perception toward writers; however, how much readers feel irritated or how negative the perception is can be subjective.

Factors that may vary the interlocutor's judgment on errors include age, sex, education, profession, social class, and familiarity with non-native speakers of English (Ludwig, 1982, p. 275). In addition, native-speakers of English, especially non-teachers, are more likely to accept non-native speakers' errors while non-native teachers tend to focus on grammatical accuracy and have less tolerance toward errors (Ludwig, 1982, p. 279-80).

Relevant Research:

Over the past twenty years, many research studies have found that grammatical errors in different writing genres can cause a negative perception toward writers (Beason, 2001; Charney, Rayman, & Ferreira-Buckley, 1992; Jessmer & Anderson, 2001; Stephens, Houser, & Cowan, 2009). Similarly, mechanical errors can also negatively affect how readers perceive writers' English writing ability (Figueredo & Varnhagen, 2005; Kreiner, Schankenberg, Green, Costello, & McClin, 2002; Lea & Spears 1992; Varnhagen, 2000). However, how seriously different readers rate errors in writing can vary. Nationalities are one of the characteristics that might indicate how much the raters are tolerant of errors. Unlike native English speaking teachers and non-teachers who tend to rate errors leniently, non-native speakers of English are likely to judge writers who make errors more harshly (Hughes & Lascaratou, 1982; Hyland & Anan, 2006; Schmitt, 1993). Janopoulos's study (1992) reveals that native speakers of English do not perceive non-native students negatively because of their errors. In contrast, when native English students make errors, they are judged more harshly. A person's characteristics such as age can also play an important role in terms of perception toward errors. Some studies show that older people are not as intolerant of errors as people of younger age (Santos, 1988; Vann, Meyer, & Lorenz, 1984).

Although e-mail has become a prevalent communication channel in today's business, little research has been conducted on how errors in e-mails might create a bad impression. Beason (2001) conducted a qualitative study on how readers react to errors in business documents; however, more research on errors, especially those committed by non-native speakers of English, in business e-mails was needed. The aim of the present study, therefore, was to explore how native English readers perceive the non-native speaking writers who commit errors in business e-mails.

Methodology

Research Design:

The method employed in this study was the in-depth interview since it can elicit rich data such as perceptions and attitude (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Participants:

Five native speakers of English: one Canadian executive, two American teachers of English, one British teacher of English, and one American executive were recruited by convenience and snowball samplings.

Instruments:

The instruments used in the study were four business e-mails written by students as assignments in CR 610 Written Business Communication in the English for Careers program at Thammasat University. The assignments are from the exercises in Essentials of Business Communication (Guffey & Du-Babcock, 2010). The four e-mails are of different types: an information request, a persuasive claim, a claim request, and a request refusal, respectively.

The first e-mail is an information request (see appendix). The direct pattern should be used since this is a straightforward message. The content of information request e-mails should be presented in an organized way so that readers can understand the message quickly. In this study, the writer sent this e-mail to obtain information about a coffee brewing system. Persuasive requests, on the other hand, require the indirect approach since resistance is expected. Writers should start with an agreement or compliment and precisely explain the reasons for their request. Evidence such as invoice or orders should also be attached. It is advised that angry messages must be avoided (Guffey & Du-Babcock, 2010, pp. 174-176).

The second e-mail was sent in order to correct a charge from a hotel. The third e-mail is a claim request. Simple claim request messages are generally straight forward and do not require persuasion (Guffey & Du-Babcock, 2010, pp. 136-138). A copy of relevant documents should also be attached. The writer wrote this e-mail to claim reimbursement from a supplier. The direct approach was used in this e-mail since a

mistake was clearly made by the receiver's company. This e-mail did not require persuasion because reimbursement was expected to be authorized without resistance.

The fourth e-mail is a request refusal. The purpose of this type of e-mail is to announce bad news. Bad news should be delayed to prevent negative reactions, so the indirect approach should be used; the e-mail should start with a buffer – a statement of agreement, compliment, or appreciation. Writers should explain the reasons and then deliver the bad news afterward. In the fourth e-mail, the writer announced a new policy which affected the reader's business.

The number and types of the errors in the first three e-mails were controlled in order to find out whether the e-mail that contains more errors would be perceived more negatively, and whether types of errors would affect readers' perception toward writers. Grammatical errors are structures that do not follow the rules of grammar (Olsson, 1972, p.7) such as incorrect tense and subject-verb agreement. Mechanical errors are writing errors such as misspelling, punctuation, and capitalization (Means, 2001, p.128). The first e-mail contained ten errors; five grammatical errors and five mechanical errors. The second e-mail contained ten grammatical errors, and the third e-mail contained ten mechanical errors. The fourth e-mail was originally from the key of the textbook, and was replaced with an assignment written by a student in the same class due to the results of the pilot study. However, the number of the errors in the fourth e-mail was not manipulated because it was supposed to be the best e-mail, in terms of grammar and mechanics. The fourth e-mail, therefore, contained nine errors. All the errors and the sentences in which the errors occur can be seen in the tables 1-4.

Procedure:

Individual interviews were conducted and each lasted 45-60 minutes. The participants were given one e-mail to read and then were asked what their perception toward the writer was. The process was repeated until all the e-mails were read, and the questions were asked and answered. All the interviews were recorded.

Data Analysis:

All the interviews were recorded digitally using an MP3 recorder. The recorded files were manually transcribed into content-based texts with the help of InqScribe transcription software. The data was analyzed by coding the similar data into the same group. Finally, the codes were reduced to the main themes. The coding process model was adapted from Creswell (2002, p. 251)'s model.

Table 1 Errors in the First E-mail (Information Request)

Grammatical Errors	Sentences Containing Errors
Sentence fragment	Because I saw your flavia beverage system in an office.
Dangling modifier	I thought that serving them freshly brewed coffee, our staffs' productivity and morale can be improved.
Missing auxiliary	How much the system cost?
Tense and missing auxiliary	What kind of warranty you offered?
Incorrect auxiliary verb and sentence form	Is your brewing system requires plumbing?
Mechanical Errors	Sentences Containing Errors
Number	Can Flavia Brewing System provide beverage systems for twenty staff of Thai Books Co., Ltd.?
Capitalization	Because I saw your flavia beverage system in an office.
Missing comma after a transition	Therefore I am collecting information for our committee.
Misspelling	Answers to these questions and any other information you can provide will help us decide whether your systems are suitable for our company.
Missing period	Your response before January 25 would be appreciated since the committee meeting is on January 31

Table 2 Errors in the Second E-mail (Persuasive Claim)

Grammatical Error	Sentences Containing Errors
Incorrect preposition	The Merry Hotel is famous at good service.
Incorrect tense	We always appreciated your accommodations, and your service has been excellent.
Sentence fragment	When our department's assistant made the reservations.
Incorrect auxiliary verb for a negative sentence	However, we weren't have buffet breakfast and no champagne since we got there early, and no buffet had been set up.
Double negative	However, we weren't have buffet breakfast and no champagne since we got there early, and no buffet had been set up.
Incorrect pronoun	We ordered pancakes and sausages, and for this, we were billed \$25 each.
Dangling modifier	Exceeding the expected rates, our company may charge us personally.
Missing relative pronoun	Since our assistant made the reservations told we that we could order breakfast at the hotel restaurant, we expected that it would be included in the room rates.
Incorrect word form	Since our assistant made the reservations told we that we could order breakfast at the hotel restaurant, we expected that it would be included in the room rates.
Subject - verb agreement	We believe that your hotel are famous and hope that you will solve this problem quickly.

Table 3 Errors in the Third E-mail (Claim Request)

Mechanical Errors	Sentences Containing Errors
Misspelling	Please reimburse us for \$655.50 to Swiss Bank account no. 793-529-0418 due to the wrong size of double-glazed teak French doors
	It was impossible to send them back because my client needed the door installation completed immediately.
Missing period	Please reimburse us for \$655.50 to Swiss Bank account no. 793-529-0418 due to the wrong size of double-glazed teak French doors
	Attached is a copy of the carpenter's bill. Please call me at my Office when the reimbursement is authorized
Number	We have already received twenty double-glazed teak French doors from pacific timber.
	However, we found that the actual size of the doors was 9 feet instead of ten feet that we required.
Capitalization	We have already received twenty double-glazed teak French doors from pacific timber.
	Attached is a copy of the carpenter's bill. Please call me at my Office when the reimbursement is authorized
Missing comma after a transition word	Therefore our carpenter had to rebuild the opening instead.
Comma splice	We understand that mistakes sometimes occur, we are still interested in using your products and will continue to buy your hardware products as usual.

Table 4 Errors in the Fourth E-mail (Request Refusal)

Grammatical Errors	Sentences Containing Errors
Wrong uses of expressions	Your support to Carnival is always in our mind.
Inconsistency in voice	Recently, the partying of high school and colleges students has been reported to us “drunken, loud behavior” and we consider this might negatively affect other travelers on cruises.
Wrong preposition	Your support to Carnival is always in our mind.
Missing preposition	Recently, the partying of high school and colleges students has been reported to us “drunken, loud behavior” and we consider this might negatively affect other travelers on cruises.
Wrong word forms	Recently, the partying of high school and colleges students has been reported to us “drunken, loud behavior” and we consider this might negatively affect other travelers on cruises.
	Family would love to spend time together on the fun-filled, carefree cruises destined for sunny, exotic ports of call that remove each member from the stresses of everyday life.
	I will call you on January 5 to help you plan special family tour package since it is the real market of Carnival.
Wrong article	Family would love to spend time together on the fun-filled, carefree cruises destined for sunny, exotic ports of call that remove each member from the stresses of everyday life.
Mechanical Errors	Sentences Containing Errors
Missing comma	Recently, the partying of high school and colleges students has been reported to us “drunken, loud behavior” and we consider this might negatively affect other travelers on cruises.

Findings

The present study yielded both positive and negative results. The findings are reported from the first e-mail to the fourth e-mail as follows:

The First E-mail:

The first e-mail is an information request and contains five grammatical errors and five mechanical errors. The participants who had a positive perception toward the writer thought that the writer had good English and writing ability because of how the e-mail was organized. The information in the first e-mail was presented in bulleted items which can facilitate the organization of the message (Guffey, 2006, p. 198). All the five participants noticed the errors in this e-mail, but they could still comprehend the message well. Three participants reported that they had a positive impression because they could understand the message well. All of the verbatim quotes in this section are taken from the interviews. A participant stated,

“I think I understand what they're asking, what they want. The errors are noticeable, but they're not impactful.”

(Participant 5)

Many research studies also found that native English speakers are likely to focus on intelligibility when they rate errors and do not judge the writer harshly if the message is understandable (Hughes & Lascaratou, 1982; Hyland & Anan, 2006; Schmitt, 1993). However, two participants perceived the writer as a person who had poor English writing ability due to the grammatical errors. The writer was also viewed as a careless person because of the mechanical errors in the e-mail. One of the participants stated that he understood that grammatical errors can occur if writers are not good at English grammar, but he thought that mechanical errors such as misspelling and capitalization can be corrected easily.

The Second E-mail:

The second e-mail is a persuasive claim and contains ten grammatical errors. Only one participant had a positive perception toward the writer; however, he reported that the second e-mail was worse than the first e-mail because the second e-mail was more difficult to read. The rest of the participants perceived the writer negatively. The errors in the e-mail were one of the reasons for the negative perception, and only one participant reported that he perceived the writer negatively solely because of the errors. Two participants viewed the writer negatively because of the tone and wordiness of the email, and one participant had negative perception toward the writer partly because of the errors and partly because of the aforementioned characteristics. It was reported that the tone sounded demanding and the e-mail was wordy because it contained too many unnecessary details. For example, one of the participants who thought that this e-mail was demanding noted,

“I think they could have explained the problem a little bit more calmly. You know, I don't like this: ‘Attached is a copy of the credit statement. Please credit our account...,’ give me the number to correct. I'd rather it be a little bit more gentle and say that, ‘We'd appreciate it very much if you *could* credit our account.’ But ‘please credit our account’ is an order. And then to finish an order and say, ‘We believe that your hotel are famous...’ It came on very strong with the demand and then you try to flatter me at the end, try to make me do what you want me to do. No, I don't really like this person very much.”

(Participant 2)

The tone in this e-mail could be considered demanding, and it is suggested that writers should avoid sending flaming messages which can be a cause of negative perception (Kolin, 2001, p. 139; Krizan et al., 2008, p. 127; Means, 2001 p. 167). Moreover, writers should write a short and concise message since it can save readers' time (Lesikar et al., 2008, p. 100). Therefore, wordy messages are not recommended. The information in the second e-mail was not well-organized since it was not based on any sequence or importance of ideas (Guffey, 2006, pp. 167-168; Guffey & Du-Babcock, 2010, p. 157; Kolin, 2001, p. 40).

The Third E-mail:

The third e-mail is a claim request, and contains ten mechanical errors. Two participants had a positive perception toward the writer, and one of them reported that the writer was professional and favored the straightforward approach. Since the e-mail contains only mechanical errors, the two participants considered that the errors were minor. They perceived that the writer was proficient in English. In the words of one of the participants,

“This is somebody who's very proficient in English. The level of the English is about the other two. It could even be a native speaker with a few careless errors, or an advanced non-native speaker. It's somebody who works in an international company for quite a while, used to write this kind of letters, lives abroad. It's a step up from the other two, the English.”

(Participant 2)

However, three participants had negative perception toward the writer. Two participants thought that the tone was demanding. Furthermore, two participants thought that the writer was careless because the mechanical errors in the e-mail were obvious, and the writer seemed to know proper English but did not proofread. One participant reported,

“They know how to do it. They don't check. They don't even care. There are quite a few of full-stops missing in places.”

(Participant 4)

The Fourth E-mail:

The fourth e-mail is a request refusal and contains nine errors. Three of the participants perceived the writer positively while the other two perceived the writer negatively. It is very interesting that one of the participants reported a very negative impression of the writer because of the word choices for the context of the e-mail. In his view, the writer used inappropriate wording. He explained,

“However, I'm happy to tell you. You're not happy to tell me. I'm not a happy person right now. You probably hurt my business, so you should not tell me how you're happy because I'm not happy. You should not promise a solution when obviously you don't have one. You have

an alternative business proposition: Maybe you should sell the families. But it's not a solution to the spring break problem. So, I guess you could say it's word choice or inappropriate messaging. The terms happy to tell you and solution are inappropriate words because they're incorrect.”

(Participant 5)

The result is in line with Wong et al. (2004, p.77)’s statement that the writer should carefully choose words when composing a business e-mail to create a good impression.

Discussion

Since e-mail is one of the main communication channels in business today, understanding of what might cause negative impressions can be useful for business people as well as business teachers and students. This study was conducted to examine how errors, both grammatical and mechanical, in business e-mails can affect the readers’ perception toward the e-mail writers. The results revealed both positive and negative responses from the participants. Participants reacted to the errors and the writers differently. That is, the participants’ degrees of negative feelings toward the writers varied. Some of the participants found the errors deeply irritating while some did not find them bothersome at all.

Ludwig (1982, pp. 275-297) suggests that readers’ expectations and characteristics might influence how much they feel irritated by errors, that many factors such as familiarity with non-native speakers of English might also affect their judgement, and that readers sometimes may not judge writers’ personality by the texts they write. Since all the participants in this study were long-term residents who had been living in Thailand for more than five years and were familiar with English written by Thais, some of them were not bothered by the errors. In addition, the participants who were older were more likely to be more forgiving of errors and perceived the writers more positively than those who were younger. This is supported by previous studies suggesting that older interlocutors may be less critical of errors (Santos, 1988; Vann et al., 1984). Moreover, the participants realized that the writers of the e-mails in this study were Thais because they were familiar with the writing style. Therefore, some of the participants did not judge the writers harshly. Janopoulos (1992) indicates that native

speakers of English may not perceive non-native speakers of English negatively when they commit errors because errors are expected.

Although not all the participants had negative perception toward the writers, business communicators should still be careful when composing e-mails since this study suggests that some of the participants view the writers who commit errors in their e-mails very negatively. The results are consistent with Ober (2009, p. 120)'s theory that errors can create a bad impression in written business communication. The e-mail writers committing mechanical errors in the present study were also viewed as careless writers. The participants thought that the writers were careless because they did not proofread their e-mail messages. The findings are in line with the previous studies showing that readers' perception toward writers can be negatively affected by grammatical errors (Beason, 2001; Charney et al., 1992; Jessmer & Anderson, 2001; Stephens et al., 2009) and mechanical errors (Figueredo & Varnhagen, 2005; Kreiner et al., 2002; Lea & Spears 1999; Varnhagen, 2000).

Other characteristics of business e-mails such as tone and organization should also be recognized as important factors since they affect how the participants perceive the e-mail writers in the present study. The participants formed their opinions about the writers based on the errors as well as other characteristics of the e-mails. For example, some of the participants did not like the tone of the second e-mail because it sounded angry and demanding. Many scholars advise that writers should avoid flaming which can create negative impression (Kolin, 2001, p. 139; Krizan et al., 2008, p. 127; Means, 2001 p. 167). Further, the organization of e-mails can also play an important role. For instance, the participants mentioned that the second e-mail was not well-organized; therefore, it was difficult to follow.

Consequently, the writer of this e-mail was viewed negatively. It is suggested that business messages should be organized according to the time sequence or importance so that the messages are easy to read (Guffey, 2006, pp. 167-168; Guffey & Du-Babcock, 2010, p. 157; Kolin, 2001, p. 40). According to these results, writers should consider grammar and mechanics as well as other elements of their messages in order to create positive impression in business e-mails.

Implications

As the results of this study reveal that errors and other factors, such as organization and tone, might cause a negative perception toward writers, they should follow the writing process – planning, drafting, and revising. It is worthwhile to encourage audience analysis in the planning stage since different readers can prefer different styles of writing. Writers, therefore, should analyze the audience and compose according to the audience's needs (Guffey, 2006, p. 145; Guffey & Du-Babcock, 2010, p. 34; Marsen, 2007, p. 3; Means, 2001, p. 108). After that, writers should gather needed information and organize it for drafting (Guffey, 2006, pp. 167-168; Guffey & Du-Babcock, 2010, p. 157; Kolin, 2001, p. 40). Finally, they should proofread their e-mails to ensure that they contain as few errors as possible (Ober, 2006, pp. 121-122).

Conclusion

The objective of this study was to explore how errors in business e-mails can negatively affect readers' perception toward the e-mail writers. The results reveal that errors can cause a bad impression. Other characteristics of e-mails such as the organization, tone, and wordiness are also confirmed to strongly influence readers' judgement. While errors in business e-mails should be of concern, other characteristics mentioned are also not to be overlooked. Further research is needed to investigate these factors which might cause a negative perception toward writers and damage goodwill in business communication.

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Appendix

The First E-mail (Information Request)

Subject: Brewing “Coffee Shop” Beverages in the Office

Dear Mr. Stone:

Can Flavia Brewing System provide beverage systems for twenty staff of Thai Books Co., Ltd.? Because I saw your flavia beverage system in an office. I thought that serving them freshly brewed coffee, our staffs’ productivity and morale can be improved. Therefore I am collecting information for our committee. Please answer these questions regarding Flavia Brewing System:

- ☐ How much the system cost?
- ☐ What kind of warranty you offered?
- ☐ Is your brewing system requires plumbing because our company has cold water available but does not have plumbing?
- ☐ Are other drinks such as tea and hot chocolate available?
- ☐ Is a coin operation available?

Answers to these questions and any other information you can provide will help us decide whether your systems are suitable for our company. Your response before January 25 would be appreciated since the committee meeting is on January 31

Sincerely yours,

Human Resources, Manager

The Second E-mail (Persuasive Claim)

Subject: Outrageous Charge for Breakfast

Dear Mr. Jones:

The Merry Hotel is famous at good service. We always appreciated your accommodations, and your service has been excellent.

When our department’s assistant made the reservations. She was sure that we would receive the weekend rates which include hot breakfast in the hotel restaurant.

After we received the credit statement, we saw a charge of \$79 for buffet breakfast and champagne in the Atrium. However, we weren’t have buffet breakfast and no champagne since

we got there early, and no buffet had been set up. We ordered pancakes and sausages, and for this, we were billed \$25 each. Exceeding the expected rates, our company may charge us personally. Since our assistant made the reservations told we that we could order breakfast at the hotel restaurant, we expected that it would be included in the room rates.

Attached is a copy of the credit statement. Please credit our account, No. 000-0099-3555-7593, to correct an error charge of \$154. We believe that your hotel are famous and hope that you will solve this problem quickly.

Sincerely,

Sales Manager

The Third E-mail (Claim Request)

Subject: Reimbursement for Wrong Size of Double-Glazed Teak French Doors

Dear Mr. Rupe:

Please reimburse us for \$655.50 to Swiss Bank account no. 793-529-0418 due to the wrong size of double-glazed teak French doors

We have already received twenty double-glazed teak French doors from pacific timber. However, we found that the actual size of the doors was 9 feet instead of ten feet that we required. It was impossible to send them back because my client needed the door installation completed immediately. Therefore our carpenter had to rebuild the opening instead. He charged us \$655.50, and I feel that you should take this responsibility.

Attached is a copy of the carpenter's bill. Please call me at my Office when the reimbursement is authorized

We understand that mistakes sometimes occur, we are still interested in using your products and will continue to buy your hardware products as usual.

Sincerely,

DesignSpectrum

The Fourth E-mail (Request Refusal)

Subject: Carnival New Policy Announcement

Dear Ms. Corcoran,

Counselor Travel has been one of our best customers and we have been working with each other well. Your support to Carnival is always in our mind.

Recently, the partying of high school and colleges students has been reported to us “drunken, loud behavior” and we consider this might negatively affect other travelers on cruises. Therefore, we decided to create a new policy to avoid that situation, effective immediately. No one under 21 may travel unless accompanied by an adult over 25.

We understand that our new policy directly affects your special spring-and-summer-break packages you sell for college and high school students. However, I’m happy to tell you that I have a solution for you. I will call you on January 5 to help you plan special family tour package since it is the real market of Carnival.

Family would love to spend time together on the fun-filled, carefree cruises destined for sunny, exotic ports of call that remove each member from the stresses of everyday life.

I hope to talk to you in detail soon.

Cordially,

Marketing Manager

Biodata

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The Acquisition of the English Plural Morpheme by L1 Thai Learners: A Case of the Failed Functional Features Hypothesis

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Abstract

This paper examines the acquisition of the English plural morpheme ‘-s’ by L1 Thai learners. The study hypothesized that, in line with the Failed Functional Features Hypothesis (FFFH), whereby functional features unselected in learners’ L1 are not accessible in second language acquisition (Hawkins & Chan, 1997; Hawkins & Liszka, 2003), but not with the Missing Surface Inflection Hypothesis (MSIH), whereby functional categories non-existent in learners’ L1 do not by necessity mean that learners cannot acquire these features since it is assumed that inappropriate L2 production is due to syntax-morphology mapping problems (Lardiere, 1998; Prévost & White, 2000), variable production of the English plural morpheme would occur, possibly due to impaired syntactic representation of the said feature in the native Thai language. Two groups of L1 Thai learners -- high and low English proficiency groups -- performed a grammaticality judgment task (GJT) and a cloze test. The results indicated that both proficiency groups displayed relatively low correct judgment and suppliance rates of the English plural marking, and that variable production of the English plural ‘-s’ was found across obligatory plural contexts. The findings indicated asymmetries of the plural morpheme use, i.e. the L2 learners supplied the English plural morpheme more particularly when some linguistic cues were present than when these cues did not exist. Overall, the results of both tasks confirmed the hypothesis, thus supporting the FFFH and confounding the MSIH. The findings contribute to the ongoing debate on L2 variability of functional morphology.

Keywords: Acquisition, English plural morpheme, L2 English, L1 Thai learners, Failed Functional Features Hypothesis

การรับหน่วยคำบ่งชี้ความเป็นพหูพจน์ในภาษาอังกฤษโดย ผู้เรียนชาวไทย: กรณีศึกษาสมมติฐานแสดงลักษณะหน้าที่ที่ล้มเหลว

ศิวนนท์ นิลพาณิชย์ และ ณัฐมา พงศ์ไพโรจน์
ภาควิชาภาษาอังกฤษ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยฉบับนี้ศึกษาการรับหน่วยคำบ่งชี้ความเป็นพหูพจน์ในภาษาอังกฤษโดยผู้เรียนที่มีภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาแม่ โดยมีสมมติฐาน คือ การใช้หน่วยคำบ่งชี้ความเป็นพหูพจน์จะมีลักษณะแปรเปลี่ยน อาจเกิดจากรูปแทนทางไวยากรณ์ที่บกพร่องของหน่วยคำบ่งชี้ความเป็นพหูพจน์ในภาษาไทย ซึ่งสอดคล้องกับสมมติฐานแสดงลักษณะหน้าที่ที่ล้มเหลว (Failed Functional Features Hypothesis) ที่ว่าหน่วยคำแสดงหน้าที่ทางไวยากรณ์ซึ่งไม่ปรากฏในภาษาแม่ของผู้เรียนภาษาที่สองนั้น จะไม่สามารถรับได้ (Hawkins & Chan, 1997; Hawkins & Liszka, 2003) แต่ผลการศึกษาขัดแย้งกับสมมติฐานการผันคำระดับพื้นผิวที่หายไป (Missing Surface Inflection Hypothesis) ที่ว่าหน่วยคำแสดงหน้าที่ทางไวยากรณ์ แม้ไม่ปรากฏในภาษาแม่ของผู้เรียน ก็ไม่ได้หมายความว่าผู้เรียนภาษาที่สองจะไม่สามารถรับได้ เนื่องจากมีสมมติฐานว่าการผลิตในภาษาที่ 2 ที่ไม่ถูกต้อง เกิดจากปัญหาการเชื่อมโยงวากยสัมพันธ์ไปยังหน่วยคำ (Lardiere, 1998; Prévost & White, 2000) กลุ่มผู้เรียนที่ใช้ภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาที่หนึ่ง 2 กลุ่ม ซึ่งมีสมิทธิภาพภาษาอังกฤษระดับสูงและระดับต่ำทำแบบทดสอบ 2 ชุด ได้แก่ Grammaticality Judgment Task (GJT) และ Cloze Test ผลการวิจัยชี้ให้เห็นว่าผู้เรียนทั้งสองกลุ่มตัดสินใจการใช้ รวมทั้งใช้หน่วยคำบ่งชี้ความเป็นพหูพจน์ได้อย่างถูกต้องในระดับต่ำ และการใช้หน่วยคำบ่งชี้ความเป็นพหูพจน์มีลักษณะแปรเปลี่ยนไปตามบริบทที่บังคับการใช้ คำนามรูปพหูพจน์ ผลวิจัยยังชี้ให้เห็นถึงอสมมาตรในการใช้หน่วยคำบ่งชี้ความเป็นพหูพจน์ กล่าวคือกลุ่มผู้เรียนจะใช้หน่วยคำบ่งชี้ความเป็นพหูพจน์โดยเฉพาะเมื่อมีคำบ่งชี้ความเป็นพหูพจน์ปรากฏร่วมมากกว่าเมื่อไม่มีคำบ่งชี้ความเป็นพหูพจน์ปรากฏ โดยรวมแล้ว ผลการวิจัยจากแบบทดสอบทั้ง 2 ชุด ยืนยันสมมติฐานแสดงลักษณะหน้าที่ที่ล้มเหลวและขัดแย้งกับสมมติฐานการผันคำระดับพื้นผิวที่หายไป ผลการวิจัยนี้มีส่วนต่อการอภิปรายที่ยังไม่มีข้อสรุปเกี่ยวกับเรื่องการใช้หน่วยคำทางไวยากรณ์อย่างแปรเปลี่ยนโดยผู้เรียนภาษาที่สอง

คำสำคัญ: การรับภาษาที่สอง หน่วยคำบ่งชี้ความเป็นพหูพจน์ในภาษาอังกฤษ ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาที่สอง ผู้เรียนชาวไทย สมมติฐานแสดงลักษณะหน้าที่ที่ล้มเหลว

Introduction

The plural morpheme ‘-s’ is one of the eight inflectional morphemes in English, and it is used to denote the ‘more-than-one’ aspect of the language (Clark & Nikitina, 2009). For native English speakers, the English plural morpheme is primarily acquired around the age of three (Jia, 2003). According to Brown (as cited in Lightbown & Spada, 2006), it is acquired as early as the present progressive ‘-ing’ (e.g. walking) and the irregular past form (e.g. went).

However, for L2 learners of English, the acquisition of this plural morpheme is controversial. According to Krashen’s acquisition order of English grammatical morphemes (as cited in Lightbown & Spada, 2006), L2 learners could acquire the English plural morpheme in a similar way to native English speakers. Despite this result, post-puberty or adult L2 learners exposed to English for many years in an English speaking country have still been reported to encounter difficulty mastering English plural morphology (Jia, 2003). Among different language backgrounds, speakers from L1s that do not have a plural morpheme or treat it as optional or non-obligatory like Japanese, Korean, and Chinese were found to have difficulty with this functional feature, according to Dulay & Burt, Hakuta, Izumi & Isahara, Nuibe, Pak, Shin & Milroy, and Shirahata (as cited in Luk & Shirai, 2009). Having Thai as a native language, whose plural markers are non-existent, L1 Thai learners of English have been reported to omit the English plural morpheme (Ar-lae & Valdez, 2011; Pongpairroj, 2002; Pongsiriwet, 2001; Riewthong & Pimsarn, 2013; Viriyaaksonsakul, 2008; Watcharapunyawong & Usaha, 2012 among others), showing that the English plural morphology is problematic.

To the best of our knowledge, there has been no research on the L2 acquisition of English plural morphology by utilizing obligatory plural contexts among L1 Thai learners. This study will thus create the contexts where plural forms of nouns in question are required so as to see if Thai learners can acquire the English plural feature or not.

This study is organized as follows. Section 2 outlines the two opposing views related to variable production of L2 functional morphemes and presents the differences between the concept of plurality in English and Thai, obligatory plural contexts as well as previous studies. Sections 3 and 4 provide the hypothesis and the objectives of the study. Section 5 describes the methodology including participants and research

instruments, followed by the prediction of the results in Section 6. Section 7 concerns results and discussion. Section 8 draws a conclusion of the study.

Literature Review

This section reviews the two opposing views concerning variable production of L2 functional morphology (2.1), the differences between the plural marking in English and Thai (2.2), obligatory plural contexts (2.3), and previous research studies on the English plural morpheme related to this study (2.4).

Two Views of Variable Production of L2 Functional Morphology

Variable L2 production by post-childhood and adult L2 learners of English is common. It refers to a phenomenon whereby L2 learners sometimes correctly supply grammatical morphemes in an appropriate context, but other times omit or mark them in an inappropriate context. Such variability results in the search of its cause. Two opposing accounts pertinent to variable L2 production are, thus, proposed. They are described below. There are two divergent views relevant to the production of L2 functional features. The first view is target-like syntactic representations or the Missing Surface Inflection Hypothesis (MSIH) (Lardiere, 1998; Prévost & White, 2000).

The MSIH postulates that variable production of L2 functional categories stems from a mapping problem from abstract syntactic representations to morphological instantiations. L2 learners' underlying syntactic representations are not, in other words, reflective of impairment. Variability concerning L2 production of functional morphemes is attributed to the processing problem that occurs only at a surface level. Universal Grammar (UG) is, for the MSIH, fully available for L2 learners to make full use of. Therefore, L2 learners are assumed to be able to reach targetlikeness, even if their performance is not completely identical to that of native speakers (Lardiere, 2006).

In her longitudinal study, Lardiere (1998) concluded that, even though English verbal markings of past tense and third person singular present tense were omitted a great deal in her participant's oral production, she was able to acquire finiteness due to her syntactic representation of verb raising and case marking.

The opposing view is called non-target-like syntactic representations or the Failed Functional Features Hypothesis (FFFH) (Hawkins & Chan, 1997; Hawkins &

Liszka, 2003). The FFFH posits that non-existent functional morphemes in L1 have a negative influence on L2 acquisition. That is to say, learners' use of parameterized functional features not specified in L1 tends to diverge from those used by native speakers. Such features are inaccessible to L2 learners and are also subject to the critical period. Variable production of L2 functional morphemes is, thereby, inevitable. In addition, the FFFH is composed of two strands: 'global' and 'local' impairments. The global impairment holds that Universal Grammar (UG) exists in L1 acquisition, but not in L2. By contrast, the local impairment argues that variability in L2 functional morphology arises especially when L1 and L2 grammars are different. In other words, functional categories not instantiated in L1 cannot be attained by L2 learners. UG is, as a consequence, assumed to be partially available in the acquisition of functional morphology. This paper focuses exclusively on the local impairment.

Franceschina (2005) argued that, among her near-native second language learners of Spanish, the English speakers, the [-gen] group, and the French, Arabic, Italian, Greek, German, and Portuguese speakers, the [+gen] group, varied in performance with respect to the grammatical gender feature. That is, by comparison with native Spanish speakers, the [-gen] group performed less satisfactorily than the [+gen]. The difference is, thus, assumed to be due to the absence and presence of the said feature in the participants' L1s.

Plurality in English and Thai

This section discusses plurality in English and Thai.

English Plurality:

Chierchia (as cited in Lardiere, 2009) proposes the Nominal Mapping Parameter which indicates that English has the feature of a noun phrase (NP) [+arg, +pred]. That is, [+arg] or argumental setting refers to the possibility of bare NP arguments, i.e., mass nouns like 'furniture' and plural nouns like 'chairs' which can stand alone, and the [+pred] or predicative setting makes reference to the use of plural marking like '-s' and the distinction between count/ mass nouns like 'ring(s) vs. jewelry' without the use of classifiers.

The common plural marking in English is the plural '-s' which is used with countable nouns such as 'dogs'. The English plural morpheme '-s' can become '-es'

when nouns end with sibilants or the sounds (/s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /tʃ/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/) (Davenport & Hannahs, 2010) as in ‘buses’ and ‘oranges’, or ‘-ies’ as in ‘countries’. There are also other rules and exceptions related to the plural marking in English which are beyond the scope of the study. Furthermore, the English plural morpheme ‘-s’ has to be exploited when it appears in obligatory plural contexts (Jia, 2003). For instance, when countable nouns occur after linguistic cues such as cardinal numbers like ‘two’ or ‘three’ and quantifiers like ‘few’ or ‘many’, the English plural morpheme must be attached to those count nouns. Aside from the linguistic cues, there are contextual cues where explicit measure words such as cardinal numbers are not available, for example, in front of countable nouns. Thus, the plural marking has to be interpreted by employing the sentential or the discourse contexts.

Thai Plurality:

Thai nouns have no form identifying plurality, and there are no plural suffixes like the plural ‘-s’ in Thai (Lekawatana, Littell, Scovel and Spencer, 1969). While English selects the [+plural] feature, Thai does not. That is, Thai is a numeral classifier language as are Chinese and Japanese (Yamashita, 2011); that is, it indicates the ‘more-than-one’ aspect through numeral classifiers (CLS) (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005). Classifiers in these languages mentioned are used to quantify people, objects, and so on. Moreover, numeral classifiers are commonly found in languages without obligatory plural contexts (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005). For example, in Thai, classifiers cannot be omitted in a counting context (Nomoto, 2013). Clark and Nikitina (2009) point out that the occurrence of languages that do not have the plurality system or do not mark plural on nouns is at 9%. These languages instead mark, represent, or signal plurality elsewhere. Certainly Thai has a possible plural marker like cardinal numbers, but its system in terms of pluralized nouns does not select the [+plural] feature by means of plural marking. In actuality, Thai indicates the ‘more-than-one’ aspect through a common pattern which, according to Iwasaki and Ingkaphirom (2005), is Head noun + [Number + Classifier (CL)].¹ An example is shown below.

¹ There is another way to signal plurality in Thai, that is, reduplication (Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005). However, nouns that can be reduplicated are limited. For example, the noun ‘children’ in English can be pluralized in Thai by reduplicating the noun ‘dèk’ (child) twice, thus becoming

- (1) thoorasàp [sǎam khrǎaŋ]
 telephone three CL
 ‘Three telephones’

(Iwasaki & Ingkaphirom, 2005, p. 62)

In (1), the head noun ‘thoorasàp’ (‘telephone’) is followed by the cardinal number ‘sǎam’ or ‘three’ and then by the classifier ‘khrǎaŋ’. Unlike in English where the number appears before the head noun, the cardinal number in Thai instead appears after it.

Additionally, Greenberg (1972) shows that, in Thai, some nouns appear as their own classifiers. That is, the same word can function as both noun and classifier, thereby occurring twice in one noun phrase. For instance, the noun ‘khon’ (person/human) in Thai can be expressed as ‘khon sǎaŋ khon’ (two people) where the first ‘khon’ is a noun but the second ‘khon’ is a classifier.

If following the Nominal Mapping Parameter above, Thai has the same nominal mapping parameter as Chinese and Japanese, that is, having the feature [+arg, -pred] (Chierchia, 1997). Chierchia (1997) proposes that languages selecting the feature [+arg, -pred] of NP allow bare arguments, lack plural morphology, do not combine numbers directly with nouns, and are classifier languages. To illustrate, Thai lacks plural markers of any kind, allows the noun ‘rót’ (‘car’) to stand alone, does not normally use or accept the ‘number + noun’ structure to denote plurality like ‘*sǎam rót’² or ‘three cars’ in English, and always uses numbers after nouns such as ‘rót sǎam’ plus a classifier which often varies from noun to noun, thereby becoming ‘rót sǎam khan’ or ‘three cars’.

Besides the difference of the parameter settings between the two languages, Thai requires a classifier to minimize vagueness resulting from a number interpretation. Piriyaawiboon (2010) illustrates this point by providing the following readings of a bare noun in Thai without a classifier and with a number before a classifier, respectively.

² Even though Thai does not normally allow ‘number + noun’ like ‘sǎam rót’, there are some exceptions such as ‘sǎam nùm’ (three young men) or ‘sǎam sǎaw’ (three young women) in actual use of the language.

- (2) nũu khâu maa nai bân
 rat enter come in house
 ‘The/a rat(s) came in the house.’

(Piriyawiboon, 2010, p.6)

- (3) chãn hẽn nũu sãm tua nai bân
 I see rat three CL in house
 ‘I saw three rats in the house.’

(Piriyawiboon, 2010, p.6)

In (2), the bare noun ‘rat’ in Thai is vague as far as the number of rats is concerned while in (3) the noun ‘rat’ is quantified with the number three ‘sãm’ and the classifier ‘tua’ giving a clear number interpretation.

Obligatory Plural Contexts:

The idea of obligatory plural contexts was adopted from Jia (2003). It refers to the contexts where plural morphemes are required. There were three obligatory plural contexts for the English plural morpheme consisting of two cues, linguistic and contextual. The first context includes the linguistic cues, namely (a) determiners or quantifiers like ‘both’ and ‘many’, (b) cardinal numbers such as ‘five’ and ‘nine’, and (c) plural demonstrative adjectives, such as ‘these’ and ‘those’. As for the contextual cues, they refer to the sentential context and the discourse context. In the sentential context, plural realization of nouns can be implied without linguistic cues.

For example, the phrases like ‘break into pieces’ or ‘use chopsticks’ when used in sentences indicate that the nouns ‘pieces’ and ‘chopsticks’ should be in plural forms to make sense. For the discourse context, it shows that a noun has to be pluralized after a previous sentence in the discourse indicates the ‘more-than-one’ aspect of that noun. For example, the noun ‘stepsisters’ in “her stepsisters were jealous of her beauty” has to be marked with the English plural morpheme ‘-s’ after the previous sentence shows that Cinderella’s stepmother has two evil daughters (Jia, 2003, p. 1301).

It should be noted that, in this study, the three obligatory plural contexts restricted only nouns that take the English plural ‘-s’ and its variants ‘-es’ or ‘-ies’ to be recognized and produced in the two tests. Other clues for plural marking such as some forms of the verb to be (‘are’, ‘were’) or verb to have (‘have’) were purposely excluded

from the test items in order for the participants not to guess the plural marking of the nouns under consideration.

Previous Studies Related to L2 English Plural Morpheme Acquisition:

Studies on acquisition of functional morphemes by native English speakers have been prevalent. They have shown that the English native speakers can fully acquire the English plural morpheme in obligatory plural contexts around the age of three (Jia, 2003). For L2 learners of English, there have not been many studies specifically identifying the acquisition of the English plural morpheme, especially among L1s that do not select the [+plural] feature. Still, there are some studies that are worth mentioning, as shown below.

Jia (2003) investigated L2 acquisition of the English plural morpheme by 10 native Mandarin children (five boys and five girls) who immigrated to America. Their age range was from 5 to 16. The duration of L2 English plural morpheme acquisition of the subjects was over the course of five years. Two tasks were employed to test the subjects' production of the English plural morpheme: a picture description (an elicitation task) and a spontaneous speech task. The results revealed that, as opposed to native English speaking children, seven out of ten native Chinese counterparts had a full mastery of the English plural morpheme system within five years.

In the beginning, however, variable production of the L2 English plural morpheme occurred but decreased gradually. Moreover, the omission of the English plural morphology was frequently found, together with overgeneralization in singular or mass nouns. Age of arrival in the United States was a likely impact on L2 English plural morpheme acquisition by the subjects. That is, the older children performed well on the picture description task, while the younger children tended to do well on the spontaneous oral production task and therefore follow the acquisition of the English plural morpheme by native English speakers.

The rationale for the older children's better performance on the elicitation task was that they developed higher metacognitive skills to deal with the task than those of younger children. On the other hand, the reason why the younger children performed better on the production task was ascribed to the fact that they commenced their English

acquisition early on and were then exposed to richer English-oriented environments than the adolescents who were likely to be dominated by their L1 and weakened by increasing maturational constraints.

Widiatmoko (2008) examined the acquisition of grammatical morphemes by a Vietnamese learner of English. In Vietnamese, there is no suffix indicating plural. Plurality is instead indicated by words. Data was taken from an audio recording of a 28-year-old Vietnamese EFL learner of English who had been studying English at the fundamental level for three months at a language center in Manila, Philippines. The results showed that the learner entirely omitted the English plural ‘-s’ and the third person singular ‘-s’ from her spoken language samples, whereas the copula ‘be’, the progressive ‘-ing’, and the irregular past forms were marked more frequently. The reason behind this result was probably that there is no inflectional marking of plurality or numbers in Vietnamese.

In the Thai context, few studies have focused exclusively on the acquisition of the English plural morpheme. Still, there have been morpheme order studies on this issue. For example, Sridhanyarat and Chaengchenkit (2013) suggested that their high proficiency university learners were able to acquire the English plural morpheme, among the other three functional morphemes (the present progressive ‘-ing’, third person singular ‘-s’, and possessive ‘-s’). The English plural morpheme was ranked the first in a translation task and the second in a grammaticality judgment task according to the mean scores.

As for the present study, it aims to bridge a gap in the research works related to the acquisition of the English plural morpheme in the Thai context with an application of the Failed Functional Features Hypothesis, whereby grammatical or functional features not instantiated in learners’ L1 are unresettable in second language acquisition and with creation of obligatory plural contexts adopted from Jia (2003), to test L1 Thai learners with an 80% criterion for acquisition (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Slabakova, 2006) of the English plural morpheme.

Hypothesis

The hypothesis is as follows:

Because the [+plural] feature is non-existent in Thai, L1 Thai learners' representation of L2 English plural morpheme is impaired irrespective of English proficiency levels. The local impairment subsumed under the FFFH can thus account for variable production of L2 English plural morpheme, and the MSIH is confounded.

Objectives of the Study

The present study sets out to investigate the acquisition of English regular plural marking/ morpheme by L1 Thai learners of English and to demonstrate that variable production of the said feature is caused by the non-target-like syntactic representation (FFFH), not by the target-like syntactic representation (MSIH).

Methodology

This section describes the participants, the research instruments, and data collection involved in the study.

Participants:

The eleventh graders from Chomsurang Upatham School, Ayutthaya, Thailand were recruited to participate in the current study. They were selected from two classes and were then divided into two proficiency groups. The high proficiency group ($n = 10$) came from the special program in English and mathematics, while the low proficiency group ($n = 10$) was from the regular program. The students in the high proficiency group had already passed examinations in their school subjects including English and achieved certain scores to be eligible for the special class. Thus, it was assumed that their English proficiency was higher than that of the students from the regular class. The students from the special program had received more intensive English instruction since the tenth grade. Their amount of time learning English in a classroom setting was approximately 10 years. The students' primary language is Thai. Their age range was around 16-17.

Research Instruments:

There were two research instruments in this present study, i.e., a grammaticality judgment task (GJT) and a cloze test.

Grammaticality Judgment Test (GJT)

The GJT was selected to test the learners' underlying representation of the English plural morpheme. The total number of test items was 40 divided into 18 target items and 22 distracters. The 18 target items were further separated into three obligatory plural contexts consisting of one linguistic cue and two contextual cues. In each context, there were three grammatical and three ungrammatical test items.

The nouns under study in the GJT were drawn from the sixth grade and the ninth grade vocabulary lists provided by the National Institute for Educational Testing Service (NIETS) in Thailand. They are all countable nouns in English and are pluralized by adding either the English plural '-s', or other variants like '-es' or '-ies'. The nouns used in each context are shown in Table 1.

Table 1 The distribution of the nouns used in the GJT

Obligatory plural context	Nouns in grammatical items	Nouns in ungrammatical items
Linguistic	earring, lifeguard, language	gorilla, handkerchief, kingdom
Sentential	sock, cherry, bubble	crayon, statue, bracelet
Discourse	employee, passenger, weapon	daughter, stepmother, disaster

The test items were not placed next to each other if they were from the same context or cue. Some examples of the test items are provided below.

- (4)Polyglots are those who can speak many languages fluently.
- (5)The statue I have collected over the years will be put in this yard tomorrow.
- (6)Hana's mother died last month, so her father had two new wives. Her new stepmother, however, really loved her and took good care of her.

The participants were asked to mark ✓ in the space given if a test item was grammatical, or mark ✕ if a test item was ungrammatical. If they judged it

ungrammatical, the students had to provide a correct version above that incorrect underlined part. In case the students could not make a correction, they would not receive any points.

With regard to the scoring, one point was given for each item. The highest score for each context was 60. The maximum score for this test was 180 (See the GJT in Appendix A).

Cloze Test

The cloze test was chosen as a production task and was made up of nine test items and 11 distracters. Of the nine items, there were three test items pertaining to the English plural morpheme in each obligatory plural context. The nouns used in this test are displayed in Table 2 below, all of which were also drawn from the NIETS basic vocabulary words that sixth graders and ninth graders should know. They take the English plural ‘-s’ and its variants like ‘-es’ or ‘-ies’ when pluralized.

Table 2 The distribution of the nouns used in the cloze test

Obligatory plural context	Nouns
Linguistic	vacancy, footprint, guest
Sentential	prize, tomb, questionnaire
Discourse	bird, ostrich, accident

The test items of the same context were not arranged next to each other. Some of the test items are shown below.

- (7) I was surprised that only five.....(guest) showed up at his party.
- (8) The.....(tomb) of powerful warriors in our country had been dug by the archeologists.
- (9) My dog caught a few unfortunate sparrows last week. So, I decided to keep the.....(bird) in the cage.

The participants were asked to fill in the blank with the word given in parentheses. Meanwhile, they had to choose whether to alter that word to its grammatical form or not.

In terms of the scoring, the participants would receive one point as long as they produced the nouns under investigation with the English plural ‘-s’. The highest score for each obligatory plural context was 30. The maximum score for this test was 90 (See the cloze test in Appendix B).

Data Collection:

The two tasks were administered to the students in class. The students were given 20 minutes to do each task. The researcher gave the test directions in Thai and showed the students how to do the tests. The students were asked to immediately submit the two tests to the researcher after finishing them. They were also told not to use any dictionaries during the tests.

Prediction:

Based on the hypothesis mentioned, the FFFH predicts that, because the plural morpheme is not specified in the L1 Thai, variability of English plural morphology on the reception test (GJT) and the production test (cloze test) would occur.

Results and Discussion

Table 3 below illustrates the overall results obtained from the GJT and the cloze test and figure 1 below shows the overall accuracy scores of the two tests.

Table 3 Accuracy scores on plural marking in the GJT and the cloze test by the L1 Thai low proficiency group compared to the L1 Thai high proficiency group

Proficiency level	GJT		Cloze test	
	Scores	%	Scores	%
Low	96/180	53.3	21/90	23.3
High	125/180	69.4	59/90	65.5

According to Table 3 and Figure 1, the low proficiency group scored lower than the high proficiency group at the percentage of 53.3 against 69.4 on the GJT and of 23.3 against 65.5 on the cloze test respectively. Even though the high proficiency learners’ accuracy scores were higher than those of the low proficiency counterparts, their scores

were still at low rates. The accuracy scores even in the high proficiency group could not reach the 80% criterion for acquisition (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Slabakova, 2006). The overall findings suggested that the learners could not fully and consistently activate and then supply the English plural morpheme, which does not exist in their native language.

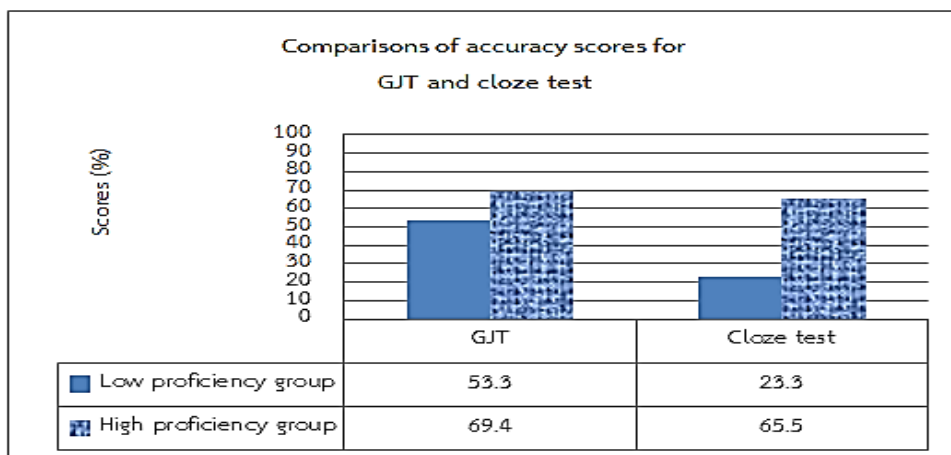


Figure 1 Accuracy scores on plural marking in the GJT and the cloze test by the L1 Thai low proficiency group compared to the L1 Thai high proficiency group

In order to get comprehensive pictures regarding the acquisition of the English plural morpheme, the scores for the GJT and the cloze test were broken down by the three obligatory plural contexts. The accuracy scores on the three obligatory plural contexts for the GJT are shown in Table 4 below.

Table 4 Accuracy scores on plural marking in each obligatory plural context for the GJT by the L1 Thai low proficiency group compared to the L1 Thai high proficiency group

Proficiency level	GJT					
	Obligatory plural context					
	Linguistic		Sentential		Discourse	
	Scores	%	Scores	%	Scores	%
Low	36/60	60	28/60	46.6	32/60	53.3
High	45/60	75	37/60	61.6	43/60	69.4

The low proficiency group's accuracy scores on the English plural marking stood at 60% when linguistic cues were present, at 46.6% when linguistic cues were absent in the sentential context, and at 53.3% when in the discourse context. By contrast, the high proficiency group scored higher with 75% in the context where linguistic cues were present, 61.6% in the sentential context, and 69.4% in the discourse context. The accuracy scores on each obligatory plural context are presented according to the accuracy scores in Figure 2.

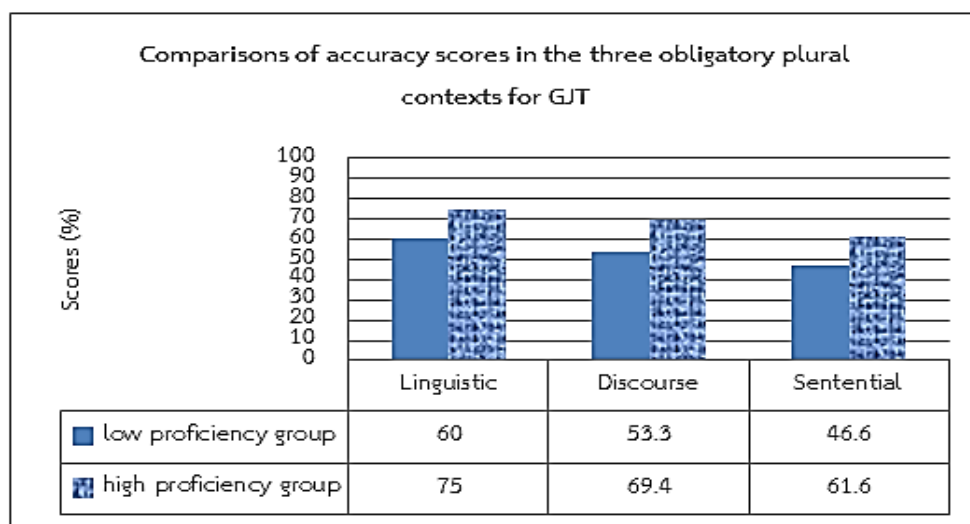


Figure 2 Accuracy scores on plural marking in each obligatory plural context for the GJT by the L1 Thai low proficiency group compared to the L1 Thai high proficiency group

Figure 2 shows that the accuracy scores on the three obligatory plural contexts increased with respect to the proficiency levels. Still, the accuracy scores even in the high proficiency group could not meet the 80% criterion for acquisition (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Slabakova, 2006). Moreover, both low and high proficiency students' performance seemed to be variable across the three obligatory plural contexts. As for the cloze test, its accuracy scores are shown in Table 5.

Table 5 Accuracy scores on plural marking in each obligatory plural context for the cloze test by the L1 Thai low proficiency group compared to the L1 Thai high proficiency group

Proficiency level	Cloze test					
	Obligatory plural context					
	Linguistic		Sentential		Discourse	
	Scores	%	Scores	%	Scores	%
Low	10/30	33.3	4/30	13.3	7/30	23.3
High	25/30	83.3	15/30	50	19/30	63.3

The low proficiency group's accuracy scores in this production task were at 33.3% in the context where linguistic cues were present, 13.3% in the sentential context, and 23.3% in the discourse context. On the contrary, the high proficiency group performed much better in the three obligatory plural contexts, that is, 83.3% in the context containing linguistic cues, 50% in the sentential context, and 63.3% in the discourse context. The results from the cloze test are presented according to the accuracy scores in Figure 3 below.

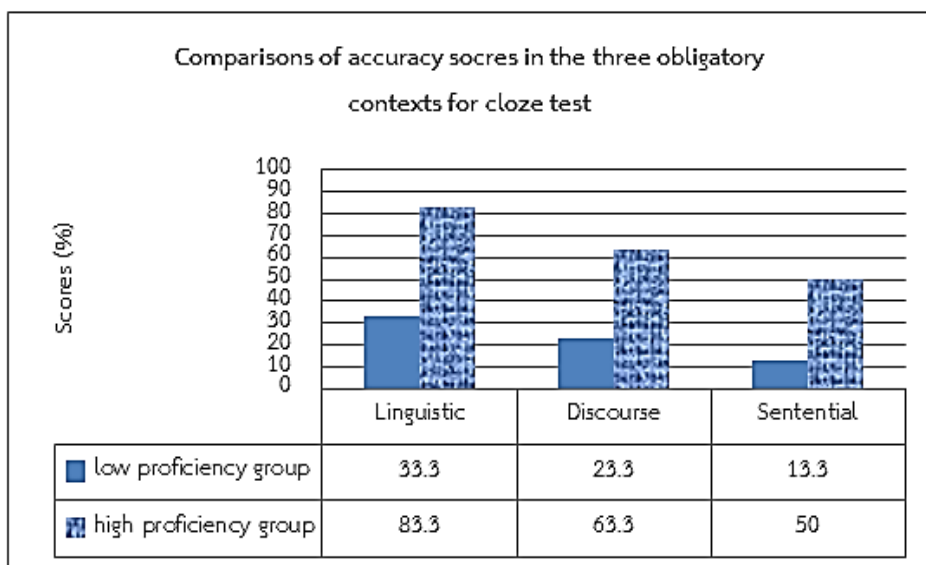


Figure 3 Accuracy scores on plural marking in each obligatory plural context for the cloze test by the L1 Thai low proficiency group compared to the L1 Thai high proficiency group

As previously shown, with increasing proficiency, the learners were able to mark the English plural ‘-s’ frequently. Nonetheless, they tended not to omit it only in the presence of linguistic cues.

To elaborate on the results obtained, the L1 Thai learners in this present study were inclined to predominantly mark the English plural ‘-s’ in the presence of linguistic cues, namely cardinal numbers, quantifiers, and plural demonstrative adjectives in both tasks compared to the discourse context where cues are present elsewhere in discourse and the sentential context where cues are not available. It is likely that when the linguistic cues for plurality were absent, the students were less certain whether to mark the English plural morpheme ‘-s’. To illustrate the aforementioned points, the following three test items of each context (linguistic, discourse, and sentential contexts, respectively) in the cloze test are given below.

- (10) I was surprised that only five.....(guest) showed up at his party.
- (11) My dog caught a few unfortunate sparrows last week. So, I decided to keep the.....(bird) in the cage.
- (12) The.....(tomb) of powerful warriors in our country had been dug by the archeologists.

It can be clearly seen that, in (10), the noun ‘guest’ has to be pluralized because it is immediately preceded by the cardinal number ‘five’. The students may thus find the nouns in the linguistic context easier to trigger the concept of plurality. Compared to the linguistic context, the discourse context ranked the second in both GJT and cloze test. This may due to the fact that, in the discourse context, the existence of some linguistic cues such as ‘a few’ or ‘sparrows’ in (11) is still established, albeit in the previous sentence. The students could thus, to some extent, pluralize the noun ‘bird’.

Among the three contexts, it was the sentential context where the learners omitted the English plural marker the most. The reason behind this phenomenon is possibly due to the absence of linguistic cues either in a preceding position of a noun or in previous discourse. The students might not have figured out that the noun ‘tomb’ in (12) needs to be pluralized for the fact that there should be more than one tomb for many warriors buried in the ground. Therefore, asymmetric suppliance rates of the English plural morpheme ‘-s’ in the three obligatory plural contexts were observed.

As exemplified above, it can be generalized that, based on the results, the L1 Thai learners were more likely to pluralize nouns in the obligatory plural contexts, especially when some linguistic cues indicating plurality were present. Nonetheless, in the absence of linguistic cues, the learners were less likely to pluralize nouns.

This asymmetry of plural marking suppliance rates also lends support to the FFFH rather than the MSIH. This is because, if the MSIH had been correct, whether linguistic cues were present or not should not have exerted any influence on marking the English plural morphology. Variability concerning the presence of linguistic cues in the GJT and the cloze test could potentially undermine the validity of the MSIH. Additionally, if the problem had occurred at the morphophonological level, variable production of the English plural morpheme should have been found in all the obligatory plural contexts according to the MSIH. However, the results showed the asymmetric rate of suppliance of the English plural morpheme depending on whether or not linguistic cues were present.

There might be a pertinent question posed by the proponents of the MSIH. That is, if the plural morphology was non-existent in Thai or absent in the learners' mental grammars, the presence of linguistic cues should not influence the ability to mark plural nouns. This very question might be argued by an explanation suggesting that the learners may look for some linguistic cues to represent the English plural aspect in their minds. This is probably because the presence of cardinal numbers such as 'two' and 'five' or quantifiers like 'many' unambiguously determines plurality (Birdsong & Flege, 2001).

This phenomenon was borne out by other research findings. For instance, Hong Kong English speakers were subject to pluralize nouns, particularly when some pre-nominal elements, namely numerals (except for one) and plural demonstratives were present (Carol, 1989). Linguistic cues are, first and foremost, a requirement for plurality (Cazden, 1968). Put differently, they make plurality particularly vivid for the learners.

Under the non-target-like syntactic representations or the FFFH, the question why the learners can judge the English plural morphology with the presence of some linguistic cues such as cardinal numbers and quantifiers can be answered. That is to say, the learners may call upon or resort to cognitive strategies or metalinguistic rules developed through years of learning English to compensate for their underspecified syntactic features (Franceschina, 2005; Khumdee, 2013; Pongpairroj, 2007; Trenkic,

2007), thus showing non-random plural marking, especially when linguistic cues are present. This may be the reason why the high-proficiency learners outperformed the low-proficiency counterparts in both GJT and cloze test since they tended to be more familiar with a particular strategic decision in locating plurality cues. As a result, they were able to correctly judge and produce plurality which is not syntactically triggered to a certain degree. Nevertheless, the scores of both L2 learner groups were still low.

In general, the findings lend support to the hypothesis in that the L1 Thai learners in this study could not acquire the plural morpheme which is absent in Thai. Their correct judgment and production were relatively low and did not reach the 80% criterion for acquisition (Dulay & Burt, 1974; Slabakova, 2006). Variable plural marking also was found across the three obligatory plural contexts when linguistic cues were present or absent. Hence, the results confirmed the FFFH hypothesis in that the learners showed impaired judgment in the use of the English plural ‘-s’ in their perception and tended to frequently omit it in their production.

What is more, the FFFH could account for the variable production across the three obligatory plural contexts. Since the plural morpheme does not exist in Thai, the acquisition of the English plural morpheme is assumed to be impaired. The L1 Thai learners were found not to fully and consistently activate the plural feature which is absent in their L1. Therefore, the [+plural] feature may not be available in the L2 learners’ mental representation, thereby bearing out the FFFH.

Conclusion

Variable judgment and production evidenced by the results come to a conclusion that the non-existent English plural morpheme cannot be fully attained by L1 Thai learners because such a feature is not instantiated in their native language, and UG is partially available to them. The results thus support the non-target-like syntactic representation or the Failed Functional Features Hypothesis (FFFH), but falsify the target-like syntactic representation or the Missing Surface Inflection Hypothesis (MSIH).

Despite such a conclusion, the results of this study should be interpreted with a caveat. That is, owing to the small sample size, the results cannot be generalized to the wider population. However, it is hoped that the results of this study provide some useful insight into the acquisition of the English plural morpheme and also the ongoing debate

over the variability of L2 functional morphology. Future research can be conducted in a similar vein with end-state learners or advanced L2 learners of English by utilizing other kinds of tasks such as an oral production task and a picture elicitation task. It can also be carried out to compare and contrast the acquisition of the English plural morpheme by L1 learners whose native languages select the [+plural] with [-plural] feature.

This study has some pedagogical implications which are worth considering. English teachers should place more emphasis on plural nouns when they do not appear with linguistic cues. Students should also find evidence in a context as to why plural nouns are employed, what they are referring to, and whether or not a noun to be written should be pluralized. This will later minimize variability of the English plural morpheme.

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Appendix A: Grammaticality Judgment Task

Direction: Check the underlined part in each sentence. If you think it is correct, mark ✓ in the blank given; but if you think it is incorrect, mark × in the blank given and then provide a correct version above the incorrect underlined part.

Examples

- 1)....✓...Tom is waiting for his girlfriend outside in the snow. fast
- 2)....x...When he was young, Natsu always drove his car pretty fastly.

1.My sister bought two pairs of earrings which cost her 1,000 baht.
2.When water boils, bubbles rise to the surface.
3.As the only employer at the company, I decided to hire Maria and Susan to work with me. Surprisingly, my new employees had dated my current boyfriend before.
4.Those lifeguards will be standing by to help a swimmer who is in danger.
5.Polyglots are those who can speak many languages fluently.
6.Jennifer took off her sneakers and her white socks to let her feet dry.
7.This bus was crowded with students, workers, and sellers. However, the passengers behaved decently on the bus.
8.Put the pot on the stove over medium-low heat, and cook the cherries until the sugar melts.
9.The police found knives, bombs, and guns inside that house last week. The weapons will be destroyed tomorrow.
10.The hunter often goes to the forests in Africa in order to hunt several gorilla living there.
11.My niece was sitting at the desk with her box of crayon and coloring book spread out before her.
12.My wife was pregnant with twin female babies. At the age of 18, our daughter went to the same university, Oxford University, to be more precise.
13.I always stuff two handkerchief in my pocket for wiping my face and removing dirt.
14.Hana's mother died last month, so her father had two new wives. Her new stepmother, however, really loved her and took good care of her.
15.Sukhothai and Ayutthaya were once prosperous because these kingdom traded with other countries.
16.The statue I have collected over the years will be put in this yard tomorrow morning.
17.Floods, volcanic eruptions, earthquakes, and tsunamis hit many countries last year. The natural disaster mentioned also hit my city when I was young too.
18.My girlfriend wears the gold bracelet around her feet.

Note: Appendix A includes only the test items.

Appendix B: Cloze Test

Direction: Fill in the blank using the correct form of the word given in the parentheses.

Examples

- 1) Then door of this classroom was.....*broken*.....(*break*) by the storm yesterday.
- 2) The doctor found the patient in.....*good*.....(*good*) health.

1. There will be many job.....(*vacancy*) available at the company next month.
2. The.....(*prize*) will be awarded every year to students who have got the highest scores.
3. See these.....(*footprint*) here, a policewoman said to her colleagues.
4. My dog caught a few unfortunate sparrows last week. So, I decided to keep the.....(*bird*) in the cage.
5. I was surprised that only five.....(*guest*) showed up at his party.
6. The.....(*tomb*) of powerful warriors in our country had been dug by the archeologists.
7. That guy illegally kept a couple of large flightless birds at home. Unluckily, his.....(*ostrich*) had been killed the day before. Guess what kind of animals he keeps now-- a giraffe!
8. The new teacher is distributing the.....(*questionnaire*) to the students to assess their in-class performance.
9. The newscaster reported that there had been a car crash, a plane crash, and a shipwreck last month. The.....(*accident*) had been supposed to occur because of human carelessness.

Note: Appendix B includes only the test items.

Biodata

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Implementation of literature circles to enhance Thai EFL learners' critical thinking skills

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Abstract

This study investigates the impact of the implementation of literature circles on the enhancement of critical thinking skills in Thai university students who study English as a foreign language. The study took place during the first semester of the 2013 academic year at Mae Fah Luang University, Thailand. Ninety students who enrolled in the English Literature 2 course comprised the population of the current study. The effect on critical thinking skills was assessed through five reading responses per student. Content analysis with the priori coding approach was used for data analysis of the responses. The results showed that all three levels of students' critical thinking skills – description, analysis and evaluation – according to the Linear Model of the University of Plymouth - progressively developed throughout the five reading texts assigned to students. Therefore, it was strong that literature circles were effective in promoting critical thinking skills in Thai EFL learners.

Keywords: critical thinking skills, literature circles and reading response

การใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมเพื่อเพิ่มพูนทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ ของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษชาวไทย

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บทคัดย่อ

การวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อสำรวจผลของการจัดการเรียนรู้โดยการใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมต่อการพัฒนาทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนระดับอุดมศึกษาชาวไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศ โดยเป็นการวิจัยเชิงคุณภาพที่มีการเก็บข้อมูลในภาคการศึกษาที่ 1 ปีการศึกษา 2556 ณ มหาวิทยาลัยแม่ฟ้าหลวง จังหวัดเชียงราย จากผู้ให้ข้อมูลจำนวน 90 คนที่เรียนรายวิชาวรรณคดีอังกฤษ 2 ในการวิจัยนี้มีการประเมินทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนแต่ละคนจากงานเขียนสะท้อนการอ่านจำนวน 5 งาน โดยใช้การวิเคราะห์เนื้อหาแบบ *Priori coding* ในการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลโดยใช้หลักการด้านการคิดวิเคราะห์ *Linear Model* ของ University of Plymouth ที่แบ่งระดับของการคิดวิเคราะห์ออกเป็น 3 ระดับ คือ การอธิบาย (*Description*) การวิเคราะห์ (*Analysis*) และการประเมินค่า (*Evaluation*) โดยพิจารณาจากพัฒนาการของทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนจากงานชิ้นแรกจนถึงงานชิ้นสุดท้าย ผลของการวิจัยนี้แสดงให้เห็นว่าผู้เรียนมีพัฒนาการทางการคิดวิเคราะห์มากขึ้นทั้งสามระดับตามลำดับของเรื่องที่อ่าน ดังนั้นจึงสามารถยืนยันได้ว่าการใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมช่วยพัฒนาทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนชาวไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศได้เป็นอย่างดี

คำสำคัญ: ทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ กลุ่มวรรณกรรม การเขียนสะท้อนการอ่าน

บทนำ

การจัดกระบวนการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษในประเทศไทยในปัจจุบันมักจะเน้นไปที่ 4 ทักษะหลัก คือ การฟัง การพูด การอ่านและการเขียนเท่านั้นเพื่อมุ่งให้ผู้เรียนสามารถใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อการสื่อสารเป็นหลัก กอปรกับความต้องการบัณฑิตที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษได้ในสายงานต่างๆ ทำให้หลักสูตรการสอนภาษาอังกฤษมุ่งเน้นไปที่การสอนภาษาอังกฤษเพื่ออาชีพ ซึ่งโดยแท้จริงแล้วการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษนั้นยังมีเนื้อหาส่วนอื่นที่มีความสำคัญและช่วยพัฒนาทักษะส่วนอื่นๆ ของผู้เรียน เช่น การอ่านงานวรรณกรรมอังกฤษ ที่นอกจากจะช่วยพัฒนาทักษะการอ่านแล้ว ยังช่วยให้ผู้เรียนได้เรียนรู้วัฒนธรรมของเจ้าของภาษาได้โดยทางอ้อม อีกทั้งยังช่วยส่งเสริมทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ เนื่องจากผู้เรียนจำเป็นต้องใช้การคิดวิเคราะห์ในหลายระดับเพื่อเข้าใจงานวรรณกรรมอย่างถ่องแท้และเชื่อมโยงกับประสบการณ์ของตนเอง แต่เนื่องจากวัตถุประสงค์ของการจัดการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษที่เน้นการสื่อสารเป็นหลักดังที่กล่าวข้างต้น ทำให้รายวิชาวรรณกรรมอังกฤษด้อยความสำคัญลงไป (Kaowiwattanakul, 2012) คือไม่มีอยู่ในหลักสูตร หรือกลายเป็นเพียงส่วนหนึ่งของรายวิชาการอ่าน

นอกจากนี้รายวิชาวรรณกรรมอังกฤษยังไม่เป็นที่นิยมของผู้เรียนเนื่องจากความน่าเบื่อของการอ่านงานวรรณกรรมที่มีขนาดยาวและเนื้อหาที่ไม่สอดคล้องเชื่อมโยงกับผู้เรียน อีกทั้งกระบวนการเรียนการสอนในรายวิชาการอ่านหรือรายวิชาวรรณกรรมอังกฤษเป็นแบบเน้นผู้สอนเป็นสำคัญ นั่นคือผู้สอนเป็นผู้ให้ข้อมูลโดยที่ผู้เรียนเป็นผู้รับข้อมูลอย่างเดียว จึงทำให้ผู้เรียนขาดทักษะการเรียนรู้แบบร่วมมือกับผู้เรียนคนอื่น และขาดทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ (Critical Thinking Skills) ซึ่งเป็นทักษะที่มีความจำเป็นอย่างมากในสังคมโลกปัจจุบันที่มีการแข่งขันสูงทั้งทางด้านเศรษฐกิจ การเมืองและสังคม เนื่องจากการคิดวิเคราะห์เป็นทักษะที่สำคัญสำหรับการแก้ปัญหา การค้นคว้าหาข้อมูล และการค้นพบสิ่งใหม่ๆ (Thompson, 2011) ทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์จึงไม่ได้มีความจำเป็นเฉพาะในระดับบุคคลเท่านั้น แต่ยังมีความจำเป็นต่อการพัฒนาในระดับชาติและนานาชาติ เนื่องจากมีความจำเป็นต่อการตัดสินใจในการบริหาร การแก้ปัญหา เพื่อหาทางออกหรือวิธีแก้ปัญหาที่ดีที่สุดโดยการวิเคราะห์ถึงปัจจัยที่เกี่ยวข้องอย่างรอบคอบและรอบด้าน (Carter, 1973; Facione, 2009; Ganly, 2010; Haase, 2010; Lipset, 1995)

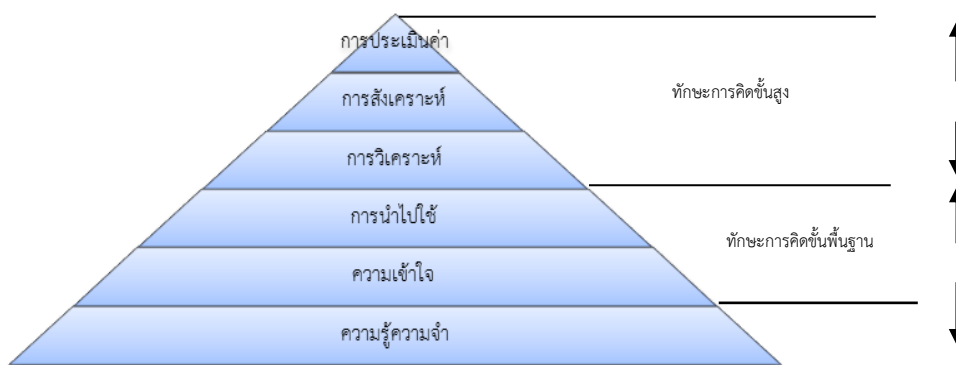
อย่างไรก็ตามแวดวงของการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษในประเทศไทยมีงานวิจัยจำนวนมากที่มุ่งพัฒนาเรื่องการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียน ทั้งที่เป็นปัญหาของผู้เรียนชาวไทยอยู่ในขณะนี้ ซึ่งเห็นได้จากผลการจัดอันดับความสามารถในการแข่งขันด้านการศึกษาโดย IMD ใน ปี 2554 พบว่า

ประเทศไทยอยู่ในอันดับที่ 51 ตกลงจากอันดับที่ 46 ในปี 2550 จาก 57 ประเทศทั่วโลก นอกจากนี้คะแนนสอบการประเมินผลนักเรียนนานาชาติ (Program for International Student Assessment - PISA) ด้านวิทยาศาสตร์และด้านคณิตศาสตร์ ของประเทศไทยยังอยู่ในระดับรั้งท้ายอย่างต่อเนื่อง สะท้อนให้เห็นถึงกระบวนการเรียนการสอนของไทยที่ไม่สร้างกระบวนการคิด ทำให้เด็กไทยขาดการคิดวิเคราะห์ (Bangkok Biz News, 2012) ซึ่งสอดคล้องกับการศึกษาของมหาวิทยาลัยราชภัฏสวนดุสิต เรื่องการศึกษาไทยในสายตาครู พบว่าจุดด้อยของการศึกษาไทย คือผู้เรียนไทยขาดทักษะด้านการคิดวิเคราะห์และไม่เก่งด้านภาษาอังกฤษ (Thairath Online, 2013) การคิดวิเคราะห์เป็นพฤติกรรมหนึ่งในพฤติกรรมด้านพุทธิพิสัย (Cognitive Domain) ซึ่งเป็นพฤติกรรมทางการศึกษาซึ่งแบ่งออกเป็น 6 ด้านคือ ความรู้ความจำ ความเข้าใจ การนำไปใช้ การคิดวิเคราะห์ การสังเคราะห์และการประเมินค่า โดยมีลักษณะเป็นกระบวนการทางปัญญาที่เป็นลำดับขั้น เพิ่มความซับซ้อนขึ้นเรื่อย ๆ จากขั้นแรกจนถึงขั้นสุดท้าย (Bloom, Englehart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1974) ดังภาพ 1



ภาพ 1 กระบวนการทางปัญญา 6 ชั้น (Bloom et al., 1974)

ในเวลาต่อ Anderson & Krathwohl (2001) ได้ศึกษากระบวนการทางปัญญาของ Bloom et al. และได้เสนอแนวคิดที่จะแบ่งพฤติกรรมทางปัญญาทั้ง 6 ด้านดังกล่าวออกเป็น 2 ระดับใหญ่ ๆ คือ การคิดขั้นต่ำ (Lower-Order Thinking) และการคิดขั้นสูง (Higher-Order Thinking) ดังนั้นความรู้ความจำ ความเข้าใจ และการนำไปใช้ ถูกจัดอยู่ในการคิดขั้นพื้นฐานหรือระดับล่าง การวิเคราะห์ การสังเคราะห์ และการประเมินค่า ถูกจัดอยู่ในการคิดขั้นสูงหรือระดับสูง ดังภาพ 2



ภาพ 2 ระดับทักษะการคิด (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001)

จากภาพ 2 การคิดวิเคราะห์ซึ่งเป็นประเด็นของงานวิจัยนี้ถูกจัดอยู่ในกลุ่มทักษะการคิดขั้นสูง ซึ่งหมายถึง ความสามารถในการแยกแยะสิ่งของ เรื่องราวและเหตุการณ์ต่างๆ ออกเป็นส่วนย่อยโดยมี หลักการหรือกฎเกณฑ์ที่กำหนดไว้ เพื่อค้นหาความสำคัญ องค์ประกอบ ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่าง องค์ประกอบ เพื่อนำไปสู่การคิดหาหลักการ หรือข้อสรุปจากองค์ประกอบเหล่านั้นอย่างมีเหตุผล (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001; Bloom, 1974; Kneedler, 1985) และได้มีผู้นิยามผู้ที่มีทักษะ การคิดวิเคราะห์ไว้ว่าคือ ผู้ที่สามารถหาคำตอบให้แก่คำถามได้ด้วยตนเอง หาความรู้แก่ตนเอง ตรวจสอบความรู้ และสามารถหาหลักฐานเพื่อพิสูจน์ประเด็นหนึ่งๆ ได้อย่างเป็นธรรมและมีเหตุผล (Lipman, 2003; Pithers & Soden, 2000; Thompson, 2011; Zhang, 2003)

งานวิจัยที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการคิดวิเคราะห์มีอยู่จำนวนไม่น้อยโดยเฉพาะในงานวิจัยของประเทศ แถบตะวันตกแต่ผลการวิจัยนั้นมีหลากหลายทั้งที่ได้ผลดีและไม่ได้ผล เช่น ผลงานวิจัยของ Bijani (2012) ศึกษาการพัฒนาการคิดวิเคราะห์ของทั้งผู้สอนและผู้เรียน แสดงให้เห็นถึงพัฒนาการทางการ คิดวิเคราะห์ได้ชัดเจนโดยพบว่าการฝึกปฏิบัติทางด้านการคิดวิเคราะห์แก่ผู้สอนทำให้ผู้สอนมีทักษะการ คิดวิเคราะห์สูงขึ้น จาก 25.11 เป็น 31.29 โดยวัดจากแบบทดสอบทางการคิดวิเคราะห์ Cornell Critical Thinking Test (Level X) ในส่วนของผู้เรียนนั้นการใช้ e-learning และเทคโนโลยีที่ ทันสมัย เช่น ซีดี โปรแกรมสอนภาษาผ่านโทรศัพท์เคลื่อนที่ติดตามตัว อินเทอร์เน็ต ห้องสนทนาผ่าน ระบบอินเทอร์เน็ต การประชุมผ่านระบบอินเทอร์เน็ต และสื่อผสมอื่นๆ ในการสอนภาษาช่วยพัฒนา ความสามารถการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนได้ โดยการวัดด้วย California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) ผลปรากฏว่าผู้เรียนในกลุ่มวิจัยทำคะแนนเฉลี่ยได้ 18.69 และ 15.53 เป็นคะแนน ของผู้เรียนในกลุ่มควบคุม

อย่างไรก็ตามผลของงานวิจัยที่เกี่ยวกับการคิดวิเคราะห์ที่มีอยู่นั้นส่วนมากพบว่ามีส่วนต่อการพัฒนาทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนไม่มากนักหากพิจารณาจากนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ เช่น ในงานของ McGuire (2010) ใช้การวิเคราะห์วาทศิลป์เพื่อพัฒนาการคิดวิเคราะห์ และการรับรู้เรื่องการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียน พบว่าผู้เรียนมีการพัฒนาด้านการคิดวิเคราะห์เพียงเล็กน้อยเท่านั้นจากการเปรียบเทียบแบบทดสอบ CCTST 2000 ก่อนและหลังเรียน เช่นเดียวกับงานของ Gomez (2010) ที่เสริมสร้างการคิดวิเคราะห์โดยใช้บทเรียนการอ่านแบบ “Structured Reading” ไม่พบการเปลี่ยนแปลงเชิงสถิติเกี่ยวกับการพัฒนาทางการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียน และในการศึกษาการสอนการเขียนผ่านบทเรียนออนไลน์ของ Song (2012) พบพัฒนาการทางด้านการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนเพียงเล็กน้อยเท่านั้น ส่วนในการศึกษาของ Yang (2009) เรื่องการใช้บล็อกสนทนาเพื่อส่งเสริมการแสดงความคิดเห็นแบบคิดวิเคราะห์และการฝึกฝนทักษะทางด้านการชุมชนของผู้เรียน ผลการวิจัยชี้ให้เห็นว่าวิธีการดังกล่าวไม่ช่วยพัฒนาการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียน โดยมีจำนวนข้อความที่เป็นการแสดงความคิดเห็นทั่วไป 602 ข้อความ และข้อความที่แสดงการคิดวิเคราะห์เพียง 375 ข้อความเท่านั้น จากงานวิจัยที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการคิดวิเคราะห์ข้างต้นนั้นแสดงให้เห็นว่ามีจำนวนงานวิจัยจำนวนน้อยมากที่สามารถส่งเสริมทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนได้จริง

จากงานวิจัยเกี่ยวกับทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ที่ผ่านมาที่มีการใช้เครื่องมือที่หลากหลายแตกต่างกันและยังไม่ค่อยได้ผลมากนัก ผู้วิจัยจึงมีความสนใจในการใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมเนื่องจากงานวิจัยที่เกี่ยวกับการใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมในการจัดการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษมีแนวโน้มมากขึ้นเรื่อยๆ และได้ผลการศึกษาที่น่าสนใจ กลุ่มวรรณกรรม คือ การอภิปรายกลุ่มขนาดเล็กในหัวข้อที่เกี่ยวข้องกับงานวรรณกรรมชิ้นหนึ่งๆ ในเชิงลึก ซึ่งเนื้อหาในการอภิปรายเกิดจากความรู้สึกรู้สึก ความคิดเห็น การเชื่อมโยงประสบการณ์ของผู้อ่านกับงานเขียน (Chiang & Huang, 2005; Gilbert, 2000; Hill, Noe & Johnson, 2001; Noll, 1994) การสอนภาษาโดยใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมได้รับความสนใจมากขึ้นเนื่องจากผู้สอนต่างเห็นความสำคัญของกลวิธีการสอนนี้ที่ช่วยปรับรายวิชาที่เกี่ยวกับการอ่านให้มีการเน้นผู้เรียนเป็นศูนย์กลางมากขึ้น เช่น ในงานศึกษาของ Chiang & Huang (2005) ซึ่งเป็นการศึกษาการใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมในการอ่านบทอ่าน 2 ชิ้นในรายวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ พบว่ากลุ่มวรรณกรรมนี้ช่วยสร้างบรรยากาศการเรียนรู้ที่สนุกสนาน ทำให้ผู้เรียนเกิดทัศนคติที่ดีต่อการอ่านและปรับเปลี่ยนพฤติกรรมการอ่านของผู้เรียนให้ดีขึ้น ซึ่งปรากฏในคะแนนแบบทดสอบก่อนเรียนและหลังเรียนของแบบสำรวจด้านทัศนคติต่อการอ่าน (General Reading Attitude Survey) และแบบสำรวจ

พฤติกรรมกรอ่าน (Behavioral Domain of Reading Attitude Survey) คือ <0.047 และ <0.029 ตามลำดับ แสดงให้เห็นว่ากลุ่มวรรณกรรมช่วยส่งเสริมการเรียนรู้ทักษะการอ่าน อย่างไรก็ตามคะแนนของแบบทดสอบก่อนเรียนและหลังเรียนของแบบสำรวจด้านการคิด (Cognitive Domain of Reading Attitude Survey) ไม่มีการเปลี่ยนแปลงที่มีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ (.779) แสดงให้เห็นว่าผู้เรียนยังไม่รู้สึกว่าการอ่านวรรณกรรมช่วยพัฒนาการคิดมากนัก

อย่างไรก็ตามในงานของ Brown (2009) ซึ่งใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมในการจัดการเรียนการสอนรายวิชาทางสังคมศาสตร์ (Global Issues Classes) และวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลจากการสังเกตการณ์ชั้นเรียนการประเมินผลจากการทดสอบของผู้เรียน แบบสำรวจประเมินตนเองซึ่งมีทั้งคำถามปลายเปิดและปลายปิด พบว่าในการทดสอบผู้เรียนซึ่งผู้เรียนจะได้รับมอบหมายให้อภิปรายกลุ่มย่อยเกี่ยวกับหัวข้อที่เรียนนั้นผู้เรียนแสดงความคิดเห็นซึ่งแสดงถึงการมีทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ที่ได้เป็นอย่างดี และสอดคล้องกับงานวิทยานิพนธ์ของ Stabile (2009) ที่พบว่ากลุ่มวรรณกรรมเป็นกลวิธีการอ่านที่เกิดประสิทธิผลสำหรับผู้ที่มีปัญหาในการอ่าน ทำให้ผู้เรียนรู้สึกว่าการอ่านประสบความสำเร็จในการอ่านงานวรรณกรรม และสามารถแลกเปลี่ยนความคิดเห็นกับผู้อื่นได้ โดยเก็บข้อมูลจากการสังเกตการณ์ของผู้สอน

Brignolo (2010) ศึกษาการใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมในชั้นเรียนของกลุ่มวิชาศิลปะทางการใช้ภาษา เช่น รายวิชาวรรณกรรม เพื่อเสริมสร้างการคิดวิเคราะห์และทักษะการอ่านเพื่อความเข้าใจแก่ผู้เรียนโดยใช้เครื่องมือ 3 ประเภท คือ 1) KWL Chart เพื่อตรวจสอบความรู้ ความเข้าใจในเนื้อหา ก่อนและหลังเรียนด้วยกลุ่มวรรณกรรม 2) การเขียนบันทึกการอ่าน โดยมีเกณฑ์การให้คะแนนที่อิงจากทฤษฎี Bloom's Taxonomy ที่เกี่ยวกับการคิดวิเคราะห์ และ 3) การสังเกตการณ์การอภิปรายกลุ่มย่อยของวรรณกรรมกลุ่ม โดยใช้เกณฑ์การให้คะแนนที่อิงจากทฤษฎี Bloom's Taxonomy การศึกษาพบว่าจากทั้ง KWL Chart และการสังเกตการณ์ มีหลักฐานที่แสดงให้เห็นว่าผู้เรียนที่ใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมมีทักษะในด้านการคิดที่สูงกว่ากลุ่มผู้เรียนแบบมีผู้สอนเป็นศูนย์กลาง แต่พบว่าการเขียนบันทึกการอ่านนั้นคะแนนของผู้เรียนระหว่างกลุ่มทดลองที่ใช้วรรณกรรมกลุ่ม และกลุ่มผู้เรียนที่มีผู้สอนเป็นศูนย์กลางไม่มีความแตกต่างกัน

จากการทบทวนวรรณกรรมเรื่องกลุ่มวรรณกรรมข้างต้นพบว่า งานวิจัยที่มีอยู่นั้นแม้ว่าผลการวิจัยแสดงว่าการคิดวิเคราะห์เป็นสิ่งที่พัฒนาได้ แต่จะเห็นได้ว่ายังไม่ปรากฏวิธีการประเมินการคิดวิเคราะห์ที่เหมาะสม เช่น ในการศึกษาของ Chiang & Huang (2005) เป็นเพียงแบบสำรวจให้ผู้เรียนคิดว่าตนเองมีการพัฒนาทางการคิดหรือไม่ ไม่ได้สะท้อนจากทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ที่ผู้เรียนมีอยู่

จริง ส่วน Brown (2009) และ Stabile (2009) ใช้การสังเกตการณ์ของผู้สอนว่าผู้เรียนมีทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์หรือไม่ ซึ่งเป็นการประเมินที่เป็นอัตวิสัยอาจเกิดการคลาดเคลื่อน ไม่เที่ยงตรงได้ นอกจากนี้ในงานของ Brignolo (2010) ที่มีการใช้เกณฑ์เพื่อประเมินงานเขียนบันทึกการอ่านที่อิงจากทฤษฎี Bloom's Taxonomy ก็ยังไม่มี ความละเอียดมากพอ และอาจจะเกิดการประเมินที่เป็นอัตวิสัยได้เช่นกัน

ดังนั้นจึงควรมีการวัดผลประเมินผลที่มีความชัดเจนมากขึ้นเพื่อให้สามารถวัดทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนได้อย่างเป็นกาววิสัย โดยวิธีการหนึ่งที่เปิดโอกาสให้ผู้เรียนแสดงความเข้าใจ ความคิดเห็น หรือประสบการณ์ของตนได้อย่างเต็มที่ คือ การเขียนสะท้อนการอ่าน (Reading Response) ซึ่งคือการเขียนบันทึกอย่างไม่เป็นทางการจากการอ่าน การเขียนสะท้อนการอ่านนี้อ้างอิงจากทฤษฎีการตอบสนองของผู้อ่านโดย Louise Rosenblatt (Hirvela, 1996) ซึ่งทฤษฎีนี้จะสร้างความเชื่อมโยงระหว่างผู้อ่านกับสิ่งที่อ่านเพราะมุ่งเน้นไปที่ตัวผู้อ่าน ความรู้สึก ความคิดเห็น และความหมายที่ผู้อ่านแต่ละคนมีต่อสิ่งที่อ่านดังนั้นในการเขียนสะท้อนการอ่านผู้เขียนจะมุ่งเน้นที่ความรู้สึกนึกคิดของตนเองต่อสิ่งที่ได้อ่านมากกว่าการเน้นไปที่การวิเคราะห์เชิงวรรณกรรม (Dunkelblau, 2007) การใช้การเขียนสะท้อนการอ่านในการเรียนการสอนจะช่วยให้ผู้เรียนมีระดับความคิดที่ลุ่มลึกขึ้นมากกว่าการตอบคำถามหรือแสดงความคิดเห็นโดยวาจาเนื่องจากมีเวลาในการคิด เรียบเรียงความคิด และตรวจสอบความคิดของตนเองก่อนที่จะนำเสนอออกมา อีกทั้งการเชื่อมโยงสิ่งที่อ่านกับความรู้เดิมและประสบการณ์ที่มีเป็นปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่มีระหว่างผู้อ่านกับงานเขียนทำให้ผู้อ่านสามารถนำสิ่งที่ได้จากการอ่านไปประยุกต์ใช้กับสถานการณ์ในชีวิตจริงของตนได้ (Jones, 2013; Tomasek, 2009)

อย่างไรก็ตามงานวิจัยที่ใช้การเขียนสะท้อนการอ่านส่วนมากจะใช้เพื่อประเมินทักษะความจำและความเข้าใจเท่านั้น เช่น ในงานของ Buss (2005) และงานของ Pantaleo (1995) ที่ใช้การเขียนสะท้อนการอ่านเพื่อพัฒนาความเข้าใจและความจำระยะยาวของผู้เรียนต้องงานเขียนซึ่งตามการศึกษาของ Anderson & Krathwohl (2001) เกี่ยวกับกระบวนการทางปัญญาของ Bloom et al. ทักษะด้านความรู้ความจำ และความเข้าใจถูกจัดเป็นการคิดขั้นพื้นฐานเท่านั้นดังที่แสดงในภาพ 2 ส่วนทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ซึ่งถูกจัดเป็นการคิดขั้นสูงและเป็นประเด็นหลักในงานวิจัยครั้งนี้ยังไม่ได้รับการศึกษาเท่าที่ควร

ด้วยความสำคัญของทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ที่มีความจำเป็นทั้งปัจจุบันและอนาคตของผู้เรียนแต่มงานวิจัยมีมุ่งพัฒนาในประเด็นนี้ไม่มากนัก อีกทั้งงานวิจัยที่มีอยู่ก็ไม่ค่อยประสบผลในการพัฒนา

ทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ กอปรกับการใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมที่มีแนวโน้มสามารถพัฒนาการคิดวิเคราะห์ได้ แต่ยังมีวิธีการประเมินที่ไม่เหมาะสมชัดเจน ดังนั้นงานวิจัยนี้จึงมุ่งศึกษาการใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมในการส่งเสริมทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนโดยการประเมินจากการเขียนสะท้อนการอ่านของตนเอง (Reading Response) ตามเกณฑ์การประเมิน Linear Model ของ University of Plymouth (2010) เพื่อให้มีการประเมินทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนที่ชัดเจนและเป็นไปแบบทวิสัย

วิธีดำเนินการวิจัย

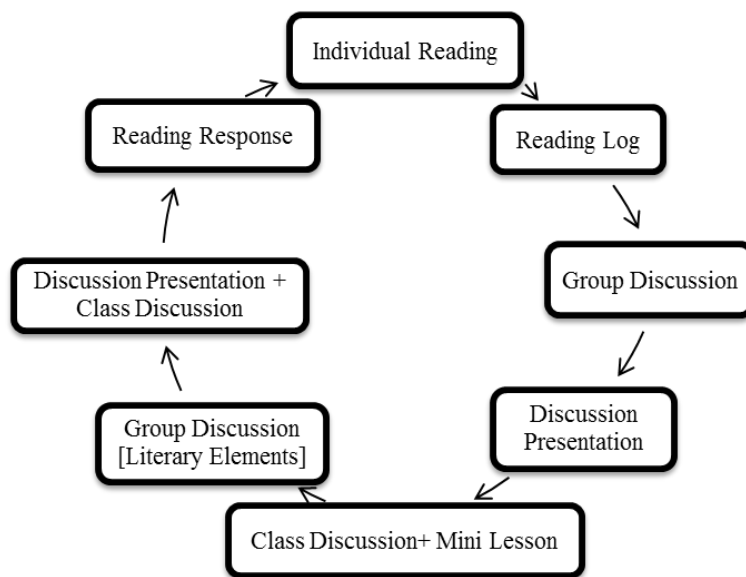
ประชากร:

นักศึกษาคณะศึกษาศาสตร์ สาขาภาษาอังกฤษชาวไทยชั้นปีที่ 3 สำนักวิชาศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยแม่ฟ้าหลวง ที่เรียนรายวิชาวรรณกรรมภาษาอังกฤษ 2 (1006398) ที่ผู้วิจัยเป็นผู้สอนในภาคการศึกษาที่ 1 ปีการศึกษา 2556 จำนวน 90 คน ซึ่งส่งงานการเขียนสะท้อนการอ่านครบถ้วน 5 ชิ้นงาน

เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการวิจัย:

1. การเรียนการสอนโดยใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรม

จัดการเรียนการสอนโดยใช้กระบวนการกลุ่มวรรณกรรมที่อ้างอิงจาก Panyasri (2013) ตามภาพ 3 เนื่องจากมีการศึกษากับผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษชาวไทยและพบว่าได้ผลดีในการพัฒนาทักษะภาษาอังกฤษของผู้เรียน โดยกระบวนการกลุ่มวรรณกรรมนี้จะถูกใช้ในการเรียนการสอนเรื่องสั้นทุกเรื่อง ผู้เรียนจึงมีโอกาสดูฝึกฝนใช้กระบวนการนี้ซ้ำ ๆ และในทุกขั้นตอนของกระบวนการกลุ่มวรรณกรรมนั้นผู้เรียนใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นสื่อกลางทั้งในการเขียน การอภิปรายกลุ่ม และการนำเสนอประเด็นต่อชั้นเรียน โดยกระบวนการกลุ่มวรรณกรรมเริ่มจากผู้เรียนอ่านงานวรรณกรรมเรื่องเดียวกัน (Individual Reading) พร้อมกับเขียนบันทึกการอ่าน (Reading Log) เพื่อเป็นข้อมูลหรือบันทึกช่วยจำในการอภิปรายกลุ่มย่อย (Group Discussion) และหลังจากการอภิปรายกลุ่มย่อยแต่ละกลุ่มส่งตัวแทนนำเสนอประเด็นที่ได้จากการอภิปรายกลุ่ม (Discussion Presentation) แล้วจึงอภิปรายร่วมกันทั้งชั้นเรียนเกี่ยวกับประเด็นที่แต่ละกลุ่มนำเสนอ ในช่วงนี้ผู้สอนอาจแทรกประเด็นต่างๆ หรือเนื้อหาที่เกี่ยวข้องที่จะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อผู้เรียนในการศึกษางานวรรณกรรมชิ้นนั้น ๆ (Class Discussion and Mini Lesson)



ภาพ 3 กลุ่มวรรณกรรม (Panyasri, 2013)

จากนั้นผู้เรียนจะอภิปรายกลุ่มย่อยอีกครั้งในประเด็นที่เกี่ยวกับองค์ประกอบทางวรรณกรรมของเรื่องสั้น (Group Discussion about Literary Elements) และส่งตัวแทนกลุ่มนำเสนอประเด็นที่ได้จากการอภิปรายของกลุ่มตัวเอง แล้วจึงอภิปรายร่วมกันทั้งชั้นเรียนเกี่ยวกับประเด็นที่แต่ละกลุ่มนำเสนอ (Discussion Presentation and Class Discussion) ในลำดับสุดท้ายของกลุ่มวรรณกรรม ผู้เรียนแต่ละคนจะต้องเขียนสะท้อนการอ่านของตนเอง (Reading Response) เพื่อแสดงความเข้าใจ ความคิดเห็น ประสพการณ์ ประเด็นต่างๆ ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการวรรณกรรมที่ได้อ่าน ในการจัดการเรียนการสอนโดยใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมนี้ ในทุกขั้นตอนผู้สอนจะไม่มีแนวทาง ตัวอย่าง หรือคำถามนำทางในการเขียนบันทึกการอ่าน (Reading Log) การอภิปรายกลุ่มย่อย (Group Discussion) การนำเสนอประเด็นที่ได้จากการอภิปรายกลุ่มย่อย (Discussion Presentation) และการเขียนสะท้อนการอ่าน (Reading Response) เพื่อให้ผู้เรียนได้แสดงความคิดเห็นได้อย่างเป็นอิสระมากที่สุด

2. วรรณกรรมภาษาอังกฤษประเภทเรื่องสั้นจำนวน 5 เรื่อง

ผู้วิจัยใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมในการเรียนการสอนเพื่อศึกษากระบวนการวรรณกรรมภาษาอังกฤษประเภทเรื่องสั้นจำนวน 5 เรื่อง โดยเลือกประเภทวรรณกรรมที่หลากหลายเพื่อให้ผู้เรียนเกิดความสนใจในการเรียน แต่มีการควบคุมระดับความยากง่ายของเรื่องสั้นให้ใกล้เคียงกันเพื่อจะได้วัดทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนได้อย่างแม่นยำ

- 1) “The Gift of the Magi” (O’ Henry, 1906)
- 2) “August 2026: There Will Come Soft Rains” (Bradbury, 1950)
- 3) “The Tell-Tale Heart” (Poe, 2008)
- 4) “The Necklace” (De Maupassant, 1930)
- 5) “A Rose for Emily” (Faulkner, 1930)

เกณฑ์ในการพิจารณาวัดระดับความยากง่ายของเรื่องสั้นคือ (Readability) Flesh Reading Ease ของ Rudolf Flesh เนื่องจากน่าเชื่อถือและได้รับการยอมรับโดยทั่วไป (Klare, 1963) โดยวัดจากจำนวนคำต่อประโยคและจำนวนพยางค์ต่อคำ ซึ่งระดับความยากง่ายขึ้นอยู่กับค่าที่ปรากฏ หากค่ามากแสดงว่าบทอ่านนั้นมีความง่าย ซึ่งจากตาราง 1 จะเห็นว่าเรื่องสั้นทั้งหมดมีค่าใกล้เคียงกันยกเว้นเรื่อง The Tell-Tale Heart ซึ่งมีค่าสูงที่สุด คือ 83.8 ดังนั้นจึงมีการใช้หลักเกณฑ์อื่นร่วมด้วยในการประเมินระดับความยากง่ายของเรื่องสั้น นั่นคือมีการใช้ Flesch-Kincaid Grade-Level พิจารณาร่วมด้วย ซึ่งเป็นที่นิยมใช้กันอย่างแพร่หลายมากที่สุดในการทดสอบบทอ่านสำหรับการอ่าน (DuBay, 2006) ซึ่งค่าที่ปรากฏเทียบเคียงได้กับความยากง่ายของเนื้อหาในชั้นปีทางการศึกษาของสหรัฐอเมริกา คือ เกรด 1-12 เช่น ถ้าตัวเลขปรากฏเป็น 5 แสดงว่าเหมาะกับนักเรียนในระดับเกรด 5 ซึ่งจะเห็นได้ว่าเรื่อง The Tell-Tale Heart มีระดับที่เหมาะสมกับผู้เรียนในเกรด 4 ใกล้เคียงกับเรื่องสั้นอื่น ๆ

ตาราง 1 เรื่องสั้น 5 เรื่องและระดับความยากง่ายของแต่ละเรื่อง

เรื่องสั้น (Short Story)	ประเภทวรรณกรรม (Genre)	Readability		Oxford 3000 word (%)
		Flesch Reading Ease	Flesch- Kincaid Grade level	
The Gift of the Magi	Romance / Drama	79.2	5.4	90
August 2026: There Will Come Soft Rains	Sci-Fi	77.7	4.8	85
The Tell-Tale Heart	Suspense / Horror	83.8	4.2	91
The Necklace	Drama / Tragedy	76.7	5.5	91
A Rose for Emily	Drama / Suspense / Gothic / Historical	72.9	6.9	90

นอกจากนั้นยังใช้เกณฑ์ของ Oxford 3000 ประกอบในการพิจารณาเรื่องสั้นด้วย ซึ่งเกณฑ์นี้แบ่งเป็น 3 ระดับ โดยที่ 100% คือระดับกลางตอนต้น 90-95% คือระดับกลางตอนปลาย และ 75-90% คือระดับสูง และพบว่าเรื่องสั้นทั้งหมดมีค่าใกล้เคียงกันคือร้อยละ 90-91 ซึ่งอยู่ในระดับกลางตอนปลาย ยกเว้นเรื่อง August 2026: There Will Come Soft Rains อยู่ในเกณฑ์ร้อยละ 85 ซึ่งจัดอยู่ในระดับสูง แต่เมื่อพิจารณาควบคู่ไปกับ Flesh Reading Ease และFlesch-Kincaid Grade level ซึ่งเรื่องสั้นเรื่องนี้มีค่าอยู่ที่ 77.7 และเหมาะสมกับนักเรียนในระดับเกรด 4 เท่านั้น

จากผลการพิจารณาทั้ง 3 เกณฑ์ประกอบกันแล้ว เรื่องสั้นทั้ง 5 เรื่อง มีระดับความยากง่ายที่ใกล้เคียงกัน แต่มีความแตกต่างกันทางด้านประเภทรณกรรม (Genre) โดยในเรื่องที่ 5 คือ A Rose for Emily มีความซับซ้อนหลากหลายของประเภทรณกรรม จึงเลือกไว้เป็นเรื่องสุดท้ายเนื่องจากผู้เรียนมีประสบการณ์การเรียนรู้โดยใช้วรรณกรรมกลุ่มและคุ้นเคยกับการอ่านเรื่องสั้นหลากหลายประเภทมาแล้วในระดับหนึ่ง จึงควรได้รับประสบการณ์ที่ท้าทายมากขึ้น

3. การเขียนสะท้อนการอ่าน (Reading Response) จำนวน 5 ชิ้น

ขั้นตอนสุดท้ายของกลุ่มวรรณกรรมคือการเขียนสะท้อนการอ่านเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ ผู้เรียนเขียนในระดับอนุเขต (paragraph) ความยาวประมาณ 100 – 150 คำ โดยไม่มีคำถามที่กำหนดให้โดยผู้สอนเพื่อให้ผู้เรียนสะท้อนความคิดเห็น ความรู้สึกหรือเชื่อมโยงประสบการณ์ต่อเรื่องสั้นที่ได้อ่านอย่างเป็นอิสระ โดยผู้วิจัยจะเก็บข้อมูลจากผู้เรียนที่มีงานเขียนครบ 5 ชิ้นเท่านั้น เพื่อศึกษาพัฒนาการทางการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนหลังจากผ่านกระบวนการเรียนการสอนแบบกลุ่มวรรณกรรม

การเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูล

1. เก็บข้อมูลเรื่องการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนจากงานเขียนสะท้อนการอ่านระดับอนุเขตจากเรื่องสั้น 5 เรื่องในรายวิชาวรรณกรรมภาษาอังกฤษ 2 (1006398) ที่ผู้วิจัยเป็นผู้สอนในภาคการศึกษาที่ 1 ปีการศึกษา 2556 จำนวน 90 คน
2. วิเคราะห์ข้อมูลจากงานเขียนอนุเขตสะท้อนการอ่าน (Reading Response) เพื่อตรวจสอบทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนที่สะท้อนออกมาทางงานเขียน โดยวิธีการวิเคราะห์เนื้อหา (Content Analysis) ใช้หน่วยนับของการวิเคราะห์เนื้อหาเป็นระดับประโยชน์จากงานเขียนอนุเขต โดยผู้วิจัยเป็นผู้วิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเพียงผู้เดียวเพื่อความเที่ยงตรงและความเชื่อมั่นในการวิเคราะห์เนื้อหา ใน

การวิเคราะห์เนื้อหานั้นใช้ *priori coding* (Weber, 1990) โดยยึดหลักการด้านการคิดวิเคราะห์ *Linear Model* ของ University of Plymouth (In *Learning Development*, 2010) ที่แบ่งระดับของการคิดวิเคราะห์ออกเป็น 3 ระดับ คือ การอธิบาย (Description) การวิเคราะห์ (Analysis) และการประเมินค่า (Evaluation) ซึ่งในแต่ละระดับจะมีคำถามสำคัญที่ใช้พิจารณาทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ในเนื้อหาของงานเขียนดังนี้ 1) ระดับการอธิบาย จะมีคำสำคัญคือ อะไร ที่ไหน ใคร เมื่อไร (Description - what, where, who, when) 2) ระดับการวิเคราะห์ มีคำสำคัญคือ อย่างไร ทำไมอะไรจะเกิดถ้าหาก (Analysis - how, why, what if) และ 3) ระดับการประเมินค่า มีคำสำคัญคือ ทำเพื่ออะไร จะเกิดอะไรต่อไป (Evaluation - so what, what next) ผู้วิจัยวิเคราะห์เนื้อหาในแต่ละประโยคในงานเขียนของผู้เรียน หากเนื้อหาในประโยคนั้นสะท้อนตอบคำถามสำคัญใด ประโยคนั้นก็จะได้รับการจัดให้อยู่ในระดับของการคิดวิเคราะห์ที่มีคำถามสำคัญนั้น ๆ ดังตัวอย่างต่อไปนี้

ตัวอย่างการวิเคราะห์เนื้อหา

ระดับการอธิบาย คำสำคัญคือ อะไร ที่ไหน ใคร เมื่อไร:

- a) “This story talks about the married couple that they try to buy a gift for their love one with a little money.”

ผู้เรียนสามารถอธิบายสิ่งที่เกิดขึ้นจากเรื่องที่ได้ว่าคู่แต่งงานนี้มีความพยายามซื้อของขวัญให้กับคนรักของตนจากเงินที่มีอยู่น้อยนิด ซึ่งเป็นการตอบคำถามว่า ใคร ทำอะไร

- b) “The writer chooses Allendale, California as the setting because California is a very big city.”

ผู้เรียนอธิบายถึงเมืองที่ผู้เขียนใช้เป็นสถานที่ของเรื่องสั้นได้ ซึ่งเป็นการตอบคำถาม ที่ไหน

- c) “The lady stayed in the old house with her slave and she failed in love with Homer.”

ผู้เรียนอธิบายถึงตัวละครหลักของเรื่องว่าเป็นหญิงสาวอาศัยอยู่กับคนรับใช้ในบ้านหลังเก่า และเธอได้ตกหลุมรักกับชายหนุ่มที่ชื่อ Homer ซึ่งเป็นการตอบคำถาม ใคร ที่ไหน

ระดับการวิเคราะห์ คำสำคัญคือ อย่างไร ทำไม อะไรจะเกิดถ้าหาก:

- d) “The narrator hides in the darkness, keeping his eyes on the old man since he waits the time to kill the old man.”

ผู้เรียนวิเคราะห์การกระทำของตัวละครเอกซึ่งเป็นผู้เล่าเรื่องว่ามีการวางแผนฆ่าชายชรา โดยการซ่อนตัวในความมืดและจับตามองเพื่อรอโอกาสลงมือฆ่า ซึ่งเป็นการตอบคำถาม อย่างไร และ ทำไม

e) “People are graded into different classes depending on their money.”

ผู้เรียนวิเคราะห์เรื่องการแบ่งชนชั้นในสังคมว่าคนถูกแบ่งโดยเงิน ซึ่งเป็นการตอบคำถาม อย่างไร

f) “The druggist dropped his eyes first because he was afraid of Emily; when we confront something that makes us feel bad or frightened we want to go away from that place.”

ผู้เรียนวิเคราะห์ถึงสาเหตุที่เภสัชกรหลบสายตาจาก Emily เพราะความกลัว เนื่องจากเมื่อคนเราต้องเผชิญหน้ากับสิ่งที่ทำให้เรารู้สึกแย่หรือหวาดกลัว เราอยากจะหนีไปให้พ้นจากตรงนั้น ซึ่งเป็นการตอบคำถาม ทำไม

ระดับการประเมินค่า คำสำคัญคือ ทำเพื่ออะไร จะเกิดอะไรต่อไป:

g) “The writer used special symbols, a set of comb and a fob chain, to show the care that the characters have for each other.”

ผู้เรียนอธิบายความหมายของการใช้สัญลักษณ์ของผู้เขียนในเรื่องคือหวีและสายคล้องนาฬิกาเพื่อหมายถึงความห่วงใยที่ตัวละครมีให้กัน เป็นการตอบคำถามว่า ทำเพื่ออะไร

h) “In my opinion the way that Emily did is wrong. If you really love someone, you will not even make him/her hurt. This is what I think in contrast with the act of Emily.”

ผู้เรียนประเมินการกระทำของตัวละครในเรื่องว่าผิด โดยโยงกับชีวิตจริงว่าหากเรารักใครจริงๆ เราคงจะไม่อยากต้องทำให้คนนั้นเจ็บปวด ผู้เรียนประเมินค่าการกระทำของตัวละคร

i) “After I read this story thoroughly, I think human can be destroyed from two causes – nature and ourselves.”

ผู้เรียนประเมินจากเรื่องสั้นที่อ่านและนำไปสู่ความน่าจะเป็นในชีวิตจริงว่าคนเราสามารถถูกทำลายได้จากสาเหตุสองประการคือธรรมชาติและตัวเราเอง เป็นการประเมินค่าโดยเทียบเคียงกับชีวิตจริงว่าคนเราก็คือถูกทำลายได้โดยสาเหตุ 2 ประการ นั่นคือ ธรรมชาติและตัวเราเอง เช่นเดียวกับในเรื่อง

3. นำคะแนนจากการวิเคราะห์เนื้อหาของทุกคนในเรื่องสั้นแต่ละเรื่องมาหาค่าเฉลี่ยและค่า SD เพื่อพิจารณาภาพรวมของการพัฒนาทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียน

ผลการวิจัย

จากการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลพบว่าผู้เรียนสามารถเขียนสะท้อนการอ่านในระดับอนุเขตได้ยาวกว่าความยาวที่กำหนดไว้ที่ 100-150 คำ โดยค่าเฉลี่ยความยาวที่ผู้เรียนเขียนได้คือประมาณ 300-400 คำ เนื่องจากผู้เรียนสามารถเขียนได้อย่างอิสระไม่มีคำถามเป็นตัวควบคุมคำตอบของผู้เรียน นอกจากนั้นในระหว่างการวิเคราะห์เนื้อหายังพบข้อมูลเชิงคุณภาพที่ผู้เรียนแสดงการเชื่อมโยงเนื้อหาของเรื่องสั้นที่อ่านกับชีวิตจริง ประสบการณ์ส่วนตัว ประวัติศาสตร์หรือสถานการณ์ในปัจจุบันของผู้เรียน ดังตัวอย่างต่อไปนี้ (ในตัวอย่างเป็นภาษาและไวยากรณ์ที่ปรากฏในข้อมูลจริง)

เรื่องที่ 1 “The Gift of the Magi”

แก่นของเรื่องคือ ความรัก การเสียสละและการให้ ผู้เรียนได้มีการสะท้อนถึงความรักจากประสบการณ์จริง ความรักของบิดามารดา เช่น “From the true love that the main characters have for each other, I realize that it’s similar to the unconditional love that I get from my parents” นอกจากนั้นผู้เรียนยังสามารถวิพากษ์การกระทำของตัวละครหลักได้ว่าเป็นการกระทำที่ไม่สมเหตุสมผลที่ขายของที่มีค่าที่สุดเพียงเพื่อซื้อของขวัญให้แก่คนรัก เช่น “Their actions are unreasonable according to their financial status; they should keep money for necessary things.” โดยผู้เรียนยังได้นำเสนอทางเลือกให้แก่ตัวละครอย่างหลากหลายในการให้ของขวัญ เช่น “If I were Della, I would create a small but meaningful gift such as a handmade card or gloves.” ผู้เรียนเสนอการแก้ปัญหาแก่ตัวละครจากประสบการณ์ของตน โดยให้ประติษฐ์ของตัวเองที่อาจไม่มีค่าทางเงินแต่มีค่าทางจิตใจ เช่น บัตรอวยพรหรือถุงมือ เป็นต้น

เรื่องที่ 2 “There Will Come Soft Rain”

ผู้เรียนสามารถโยงถึงบริบททางประวัติศาสตร์ของเรื่องสั้นว่าสะท้อนหายนะของสงครามโลกครั้งที่ 2 เช่น “Even though the time in the story was mentioned as 2026, it reminds the reader of when World War 2 happened due to destruction and death in the story.” ผู้เรียนยังสามารถอธิบายถึงความหมายโดยนัยของสถานที่ในเรื่องว่าหมายถึงสภาพของเมือง (ฮิโรชิมาและนางาซากิ) หลังถูกระเบิดปรมาณู เช่น “Silhouettes on the walls of the house presenting lifestyle of people who once lived there reflect the destructive power of atomic bombs in Hiroshima and Nagasaki in WWII.” นอกจากนั้นยังมีการวิเคราะห์ถึงประโยชน์และโทษของ

เทคโนโลยี และได้มีการโยงถึงโลกปัจจุบันว่าจะต้องมีการระมัดระวังการใช้เทคโนโลยีไม่ปล่อยให้เทคโนโลยีควบคุมชีวิตคน เช่น “Technology is a double-edge sword; giving both positive and negative impacts. We, therefore, have to be careful when we use technology. We should not let technology control our life.” และมีผู้เรียนได้ให้ข้อคิดว่าคนไม่ควรพยายามใช้เทคโนโลยีไปควบคุมธรรมชาติ เพราะสุดท้ายแล้วคนต้องอยู่ภายใต้กฎของธรรมชาติและไม่สามารถเอาชนะธรรมชาติได้ เช่น “From the story, I learned that human should not try to use technology to control the nature because human cannot overcome the nature, but live with the nature harmoniously.”

เรื่องที่ 3 “The Tell-Tale Heart”

ผู้เรียนส่วนใหญ่จะเน้นไปถึงแก่นของเรื่อง (Theme) หรือบทเรียนที่ได้จากเรื่อง (Lesson) โดยใช้คดีพจน์ภาษาอังกฤษมาอธิบายแก่นของเรื่อง เช่น “Don’t judge a book by its cover.” อย่าตัดสินคนจากภายนอก “What goes around, comes around.” กงเวียนกันมาเวียน “You can lie to others, but yourself.” โทกคนอื่นได้แต่โทกตนเองไม่ได้ อาจเป็นเพราะตัวละครหลักของเรื่องได้รับผลจากการกระทำของตนที่วางแผนฆ่าชายชราที่ตนเองดูแล และสุดท้ายเขาเป็นคนสารภาพต่อตำรวจเองว่าเขาคือฆาตกร ซึ่งเป็นการจบแบบหักมุม ทำให้ผู้เรียนตระหนักถึงแก่นของเรื่องที่ผู้เขียนต้องการจะสื่อได้อย่างชัดเจน

เรื่องที่ 4 “The Necklace”

เป็นเรื่องที่เข้าใจง่ายแต่การจบที่หักมุมทำให้เรื่องราวน่าสนใจผู้เรียนจึงสามารถเชื่อมโยงกับเรื่องของวัตถุนิยมในยุคปัจจุบันได้ว่าสามารถนำมาซึ่งความสูญเสียมากมายเพียงเพราะต้องการครอบครองวัตถุ เช่น “If the protagonist had not wanted to be a part of high society by wearing a diamond necklace, she would have not worked so hard to pay back her debt.” หรือ “The situation happened in the story is just similar to many students in the present time. If they want to use expensive things, many of them choose wrong ways to find money such as stealing or being a prostitute.”

นอกจากนั้นผู้เรียนยังได้เสนอทางเลือกอื่นให้กับตัวละครเพื่อหลีกเลี่ยงผลที่เกิดเช่นในเรื่องสั้น เช่น “If I were the main character, I would decorate my evening dress with flowers as the suggestion of the husband in the story.” อีกประเด็นหนึ่งที่น่าสนใจคือผู้เรียนสามารถสะท้อนถึงประเด็นรองในเรื่องสั้นได้ เช่น แง่มุมของความรัก ความเสียสละของตัวละครที่เป็นสามีของตัวเอก จึงทำให้เห็นว่าผู้เรียนสามารถอ่านวิเคราะห์งานได้อย่างลึกซึ้ง สังเกตเห็นประเด็นรองที่สอดแทรกอยู่ได้ เช่น “I can see a point of true love in this story. It shows the real love of her husband who is always with her even in the hard time of her life and always supports her.”

เรื่องที่ 5 “A Rose for Emily”

ผู้เรียนสามารถวิเคราะห์ถึงบริบททางประวัติศาสตร์ของอเมริกา เรื่องสงครามกลางเมือง การค้าทาส การแบ่งแยกสีผิวที่สะท้อนอยู่ในเรื่องสั้นได้ เช่น “Tobe, one and only slave mentioned in the story, reflects the belief of people, like Emily, who are for slavery in the South of the States. The slavery was diminished long time ago, but Emily still has Tobe as her slave because she is stuck with the idea that white people are superior to black people.”

นอกจากนี้ผู้เรียนสามารถเข้าใจแก่นของเรื่องและเชื่อมโยงกับชีวิตของตนเองเรื่องการปรับตัวยอมรับการเปลี่ยนแปลง เช่น “Emily is an example of someone who cannot accept changes in his/her life.” หรือประเด็นเรื่องความรักแบบผิดๆ ที่สะท้อนผ่านพ่อของ Emily และตัวEmily ที่พยายามบังคับให้คนรักอยู่กับตัวเองตลอดไป “A wrong way of love is presented through Emily father. He is overprotective; he doesn’t let Emily do anything in her life without his permission. This kind of love passes to Emily and she uses it with her lover by keeping him with her forever though she has to kill him.”

รวมถึงความหมายเชิงสัญลักษณ์ที่มีการใช้อยู่มากมาย เช่น กุหลาบ นาฬิกาพก บ้านเก่า ห้องนอน เป็นต้น ผู้เรียนได้มีความพยายามแปลความความหมายเชิงสัญลักษณ์ เช่น “A Rose for Emily as in the title appears once in the story when town people come to the funeral. The rose could mean the love of Emily for her lover that died forever and love for Emily that the town people have for her.” ดอกกุหลาบที่เป็นชื่อเรื่องของเรื่องสั้นมีปรากฏเรื่องเพียงครั้งคือ

เมื่อชาวเมืองมาแสดงความอาลัยในงานศพของเอมิลี ซึ่งกุหลาบอาจหมายถึงความรักของเธอที่มีต่อคนรักของเธอ ซึ่งเป็นความรักที่ตายจากไปแล้ว นอกจากนั้นดอกกุหลาบยังหมายถึงความรักที่ชาวเมืองมีต่อเอมิลีดั้งที่พวกเขาंनाดอกไม้มารแสดงความอาลัยต่อเธอ

และผู้เรียนได้ให้ความหมายของนาฬิกาพกไว้ว่า “Emily’s pocket watch has an ironic meaning because in fact a watch keeps the owner realizing the present time, but Emily’s watch fails to do this function. She lives her life like 40 years ago when she was young and her father had power in town. นาฬิกาพกล้วนมีความหมายเชิงเยาะเย้ยถากถาง เพราะโดยทั่วไปแล้วนาฬิกาเป็นสิ่งที่ทำให้ผู้ครอบครองตระหนักรู้ถึงปัจจุบัน แต่นาฬิกาของเอมิลีสลัมเหลวในการทำหน้าที่นั้น เธอมีวิถีชีวิตเหมือนกับเมื่อ 40 ปีที่แล้วสมัยที่เธอยังสาว และบิดาของเธอยังมีอิทธิพลในเมืองนั้น เป็นต้น

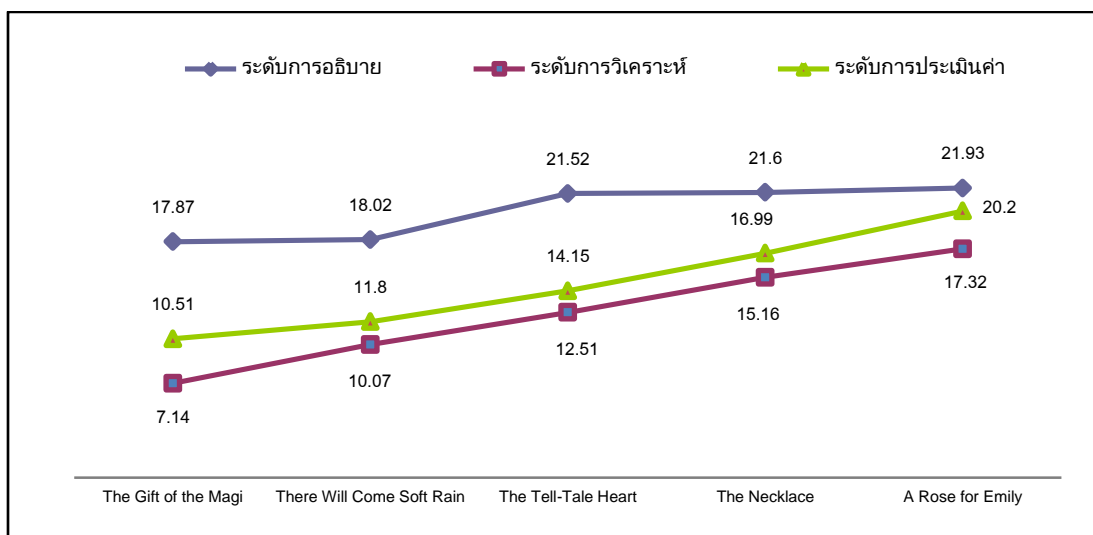
นอกจากตัวอย่างข้อมูลข้างต้นที่แสดงให้เห็นว่าผู้เรียนสามารถเชื่อมโยงเนื้อหาของเรื่องสั้นที่อ่านกับชีวิตจริง ประสบการณ์ส่วนตัว ประวัติศาสตร์หรือสถานการณ์ในปัจจุบันของผู้เรียนแล้ว ผู้วิจัยได้ทำการวิเคราะห์เนื้อหา โดยแบ่งข้อมูลเป็น 3 กลุ่มโดยพิจารณาจากคำสำคัญที่สะท้อนคำถามสำคัญตามระดับของทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์แบบ Linear Model 3 ระดับ คือ ระดับการอธิบาย ระดับการวิเคราะห์ และระดับการประเมินค่า (Plymouth University, 2010) ดังแสดงในตาราง 2

ตาราง 2 ค่าเฉลี่ยและค่าเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐานแสดงพัฒนาการของทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ 3 ระดับ

ทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ 3 ระดับ	ระดับการอธิบาย		ระดับการวิเคราะห์		ระดับการประเมินค่า	
	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD	\bar{X}	SD
1. The Gift of the Magi	17.87	4.73	7.14	2.62	10.51	2.97
2. There Will Come Soft Rain	18.02	5.44	10.07	3.07	11.80	3.35
3. The Tell-Tale Heart	21.52	6.21	12.51	3.77	14.15	3.85
4. The Necklace	21.60	5.09	15.16	3.96	16.99	4.04
5. A Rose for Emily	21.93	5.07	17.32	4.87	20.20	4.52

ตาราง 2 แสดงค่าเฉลี่ย (\bar{X}) ของทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ทั้ง 3 ระดับ ที่พบในการเขียนอนุเฉทสะท้อนความคิดต่อเรื่องสั้น 5 เรื่อง พบว่าค่าเฉลี่ยของทุกระดับการคิดวิเคราะห์มีการเพิ่มขึ้นอย่าง

ต่อเนื่อง จากเรื่องที่หนึ่งจนถึงเรื่องที่ห้า อย่างไรก็ตามพบว่าระดับการอธิบายมีคะแนนเฉลี่ยเพิ่มขึ้นเพียงเล็กน้อยจากงานเขียนชิ้นแรกจนถึงชิ้นสุดท้ายโดยเพิ่มขึ้นเพียง 4.06 คะแนน (จาก 17.87 ถึง 21.93) ในขณะที่ระดับการวิเคราะห์เพิ่มขึ้น มากที่สุด คือ เพิ่มขึ้น 10.18 คะแนน (จาก 7.14 ถึง 17.32) และเพิ่มขึ้น 9.69 คะแนน (จาก 10.51 ถึง 20.20) ในระดับการประเมินค่าดังแสดงในกราฟ 1



กราฟ 1 การเพิ่มขึ้นของทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ 3 ระดับ

สำหรับค่าเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐานนั้น ในเรื่อง The Gift of the Magi มีค่าน้อยที่สุดในทั้งสามระดับของการคิดวิเคราะห์ คือ การอธิบาย การวิเคราะห์ และการประเมินค่า โดยมีค่า 4.73 2.62 และ 2.97 ตามลำดับ แสดงว่าผู้เรียนมีความสามารถในการวิเคราะห์ที่ใกล้เคียงกันเนื่องจากเป็นประเภทของวรรณกรรมที่ผู้เรียนคุ้นเคยคือ Romance/Drama เป็นเรื่องราวของความรัก ความเสียสละ ซึ่งเป็นเรื่องใกล้ตัว ผู้เรียนสามารถเข้าใจเรื่องได้ง่ายจึงสามารถเขียนสะท้อนการอ่านได้ระดับที่ใกล้เคียงกัน และเป็นที่น่าสังเกตว่าในระดับการอธิบาย เรื่อง The Tell-Tale Heart มีค่าเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐานสูงที่สุด คือ 6.21 ซึ่งอาจเป็นเพราะการดำเนินเรื่องแบบ Flashback ที่ตัวละครหลักเป็นคนเล่าเรื่องย้อนถึงเรื่องที่เกิดขึ้นมาแล้วเพื่ออธิบายการกระทำของตนเอง กอปรกับผู้เขียนวางตัวละครหลักให้มีอาการทางจิต ภาษาที่ใช้หรือการเล่าเรื่องจึงมีความวกวนยากที่จะเข้าใจในบางช่วง จึงทำให้ผู้เรียนบางส่วนไม่เข้าใจ จึงทำให้มีค่าเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐานที่สูงกว่าเรื่องอื่น

ค่าเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐานที่สูงที่สุดในระดับการวิเคราะห์ และการประเมินค่าคือเรื่อง A Rose for Emily โดยมีค่า 4.87 และ 4.52 ตามลำดับ ซึ่งอาจเป็นเพราะประเภทของวรรณกรรมที่มีความซับซ้อน มีหลายประเภทในเรื่องเดียว คือ Drama, Suspense, Gothic และ Historical ผู้เรียนต้องใช้ทักษะการคิดค่อนข้างมากเพื่อวิเคราะห์และประเมิน ค่าเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐานที่สูงนี้จึงสะท้อนให้เห็นความสามารถทางการคิดที่ต่างกันของผู้เรียนแต่ละคนเมื่อเรื่องสั้นที่อ่านมีความซับซ้อนมากขึ้น และเป็นที่สังเกตว่าในเรื่องสั้นเรื่องเดียวกันนี้ ค่าเบี่ยงเบนมาตรฐานในระดับการอธิบายไม่ได้สูงกว่าเรื่องสั้นอื่นที่ความซับซ้อนของประเภทวรรณกรรมน้อยกว่า อาจเป็นเพราะว่าในระดับการอธิบาย ผู้เรียนต้องการแค่ทักษะการคิดในการทำความเข้าใจเรื่องราว อะไร ที่ไหน ใคร เมื่อไร เท่านั้น ซึ่งผู้เรียนส่วนมากก็สามารถทำได้ในระดับที่ใกล้เคียงกัน

สรุปและอภิปรายผล

จากผลการวิจัยค่าเฉลี่ยของทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนเพิ่มขึ้นทั้งสามระดับ แสดงให้เห็นว่าการใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมในชั้นเรียนวรรณกรรมอังกฤษสามารถช่วยเพิ่มพูนทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษชาวไทยได้ทั้ง 3 ระดับ คือ การอธิบาย (Description) การวิเคราะห์ (Analysis) และการประเมินค่า (Evaluation) เนื่องจากขั้นตอนในกลุ่มวรรณกรรมมีกิจกรรมกระตุ้นให้ผู้เรียนได้ใช้ทักษะการคิดเพื่อแลกเปลี่ยนความคิดเห็นกับผู้อื่นทั้งในการเขียนบันทึกการอ่าน การอภิปรายกลุ่มย่อยและการอภิปรายชั้นเรียน โดยทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ในระดับการอธิบายนั้นอาจเกิดจากการที่ผู้เรียนใช้ตรวจสอบความเข้าใจของตนเองกับเพื่อนในกลุ่ม สอบถามเพื่อให้ได้ข้อมูลข้อเท็จจริงที่พบในเรื่องสั้น เช่น อะไร ที่ไหน ใคร เมื่อไร จากนั้นเมื่อต้องเขียนสะท้อนการอ่านผู้เรียนจึงสามารถเขียนสะท้อนถึงความเข้าใจของตนเองที่มีต่อเรื่องสั้นได้ โดยคะแนนในระดับนี้ได้เพิ่มขึ้นเล็กน้อยตามลำดับของเรื่องสั้นที่ได้เรียน

นอกจากนี้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมยังช่วยพัฒนาระดับการวิเคราะห์เนื่องจากสมาชิกในกลุ่มจะมีการตั้งคำถามเพื่อการอภิปรายด้วยตนเอง ผู้สอนจะไม่ให้คำถามชี้แนะ หรือแนวทางในการอภิปราย โดยผู้เรียนจะมีการอภิปรายเพื่อวิเคราะห์พฤติกรรมของตัวละคร เหตุการณ์ในเรื่อง รวมถึงบริบททางสังคม วัฒนธรรมและประวัติศาสตร์ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับวรรณกรรม และในงานเขียนสะท้อนการอ่านผู้เรียนสามารถอธิบายเชิงวิเคราะห์ได้ว่าเหตุการณ์ในเรื่องเกิดขึ้นได้อย่างไร ให้เหตุผลแสดงถึงความสัมพันธ์ของเหตุการณ์และตัวละคร และคาดการณ์ได้ว่าอะไรจะเกิดถ้าหากเงื่อนไขบางอย่างในเรื่องเปลี่ยนไป

ซึ่งจะเห็นได้ว่าคะแนนเฉลี่ยในระดับนี้ของผู้เรียนได้มีการพัฒนาอย่างต่อเนื่องตามลำดับ และมีการเพิ่มขึ้นของคะแนนมากที่สุด

ในระดับที่สามคือระดับการประเมินค่า ผู้เรียนอธิบายความหมายโดยนัย แก่นเรื่อง หรือ บทเรียนสอนใจที่ชอบ สอดแทรกอยู่ในงานวรรณกรรมได้ สามารถสร้างความสัมพันธ์ของงานเขียนกับ ประสบการณ์ของตนเอง หรือนำไปประยุกต์ใช้กับตนเองได้ อีกทั้งยังสามารถประเมินคุณค่าของงาน เขียน ซึ่งเห็นพัฒนาการของผู้เรียนได้จากคะแนนเฉลี่ยที่เพิ่มขึ้นตามลำดับเรื่องที่เรียน ทักษะการคิด วิเคราะห์ในขั้นนี้ของผู้เรียนอาจได้รับการพัฒนาจากการใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมคือการอภิปรายกลุ่มย่อย รอบที่สองที่มีการอภิปรายประเด็นเกี่ยวกับองค์ประกอบทางวรรณกรรมของเรื่องสั้น และจากการ อภิปรายร่วมกับชั้นเรียน และ **Mini Lesson** คือการบรรยายสั้น ๆ จากผู้สอนซึ่งจะเป็นการสอดแทรก ประเด็นต่าง ๆ ที่ผู้เรียนอภิปรายไม่ครอบคลุม รวมถึงการแลกเปลี่ยนความคิดเห็นในชั้นเรียนเพื่อให้มี การประเมินค่างานวรรณกรรมขั้นนั้นร่วมกัน

ผลการวิจัยนี้สอดคล้องกับงานวิจัยของ Brown (2009) Liao (2009) และ Long & Gove (2003) ที่พบว่ากลุ่มวรรณกรรมสามารถช่วยเพิ่มพูนทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนได้ทั้งในชั้นเรียน ภาษาและที่ไม่ใช่ชั้นเรียนภาษา อย่างไรก็ตามจากผลการวิจัยนี้พบว่าจากทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ทั้งสาม ระดับ ผู้เรียนมีการพัฒนาด้านการคิดวิเคราะห์ มากที่สุด รองลงมาคือ การประเมินค่า และระดับที่ พัฒนายน้อยที่สุดคือ การอธิบายโดยมีคะแนนเฉลี่ยจากงานเขียนชิ้นแรกจนถึงชิ้นสุดท้ายซึ่งเพิ่มขึ้นเพียง 4.06 คะแนน ในขณะที่ระดับการวิเคราะห์เพิ่มขึ้น 10.18 คะแนน และ 9.69 ในระดับการประเมินค่า

ทั้งนี้อาจเป็นเพราะระดับการอธิบาย ใน *Linear Model (In Learning Development, 2010)* ถือเป็นทักษะการคิดขั้นพื้นฐานตามแนวคิดของ Anderson และ Krathwohl (2001) ซึ่ง ผู้เรียนสามารถทำได้ค่อนข้างดีอยู่แล้ว ดังจะเห็นได้จากคะแนนเฉลี่ยของงานชิ้นแรกที่อยู่ในระดับ ค่อนข้างสูงคือ 17.87 คะแนน จึงไม่เห็นพัฒนาการของผู้เรียนมากนัก ส่วนระดับการคิดวิเคราะห์ ผู้เรียนมีพัฒนาการมากที่สุด อาจเป็นเพราะขั้นตอนของกระบวนการกลุ่มวรรณกรรมเปิดโอกาสให้ ผู้เรียนได้แสดงความคิดเห็นผ่านการเขียนและการอภิปรายที่มีการกระตุ้นให้ตอบคำถาม “อย่างไร ทำไม อะอะไรจะเกิดถ้าหาก” อยู่บ่อยครั้ง ผู้เรียนจึงมีพัฒนาการในระดับนี้มากที่สุด

ส่วนทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ระดับการประเมินค่านั้น ผู้เรียนมีพัฒนาการดีขึ้นเป็นลำดับที่สอง คือดีกว่าการอธิบาย แต่ต่ำกว่าการคิดวิเคราะห์เนื่องจากตามแนวคิดของ Anderson และ Krathwohl (2001) ระดับความคิดวิเคราะห์และประเมินค่าถูกจัดอยู่ในทักษะการคิดขั้นสูง แต่การคิดวิเคราะห์ยัง

อยู่ในระดับที่ต่ำกว่าการประเมินค่าซึ่งต้องใช้ทักษะทางการคิดมากกว่า อีกทั้งยังต้องอาศัยประสบการณ์ของผู้เรียนมากในการประเมินค่างานวรรณกรรมชิ้นหนึ่งๆ ดังนั้นผู้สอนจึงต้องมีบทบาทมากขึ้นในขั้นตอนของ Classroom Discussion หรือ Mini Lesson เพื่อกระตุ้นให้ผู้เรียนได้อภิปรายเกี่ยวกับประเด็นที่ถูกจัดไว้ในทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ระดับประเมินค่า เช่น แก่นของเรื่อง การตีความ ความหมายโดยนัย บทเรียนที่ผู้เรียนสามารถเรียนรู้ได้จากบทอ่าน หรือการประยุกต์ใช้ในชีวิต เพื่อส่งเสริมให้ผู้เรียนได้พัฒนาทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ให้ได้ครบถ้วนทุกระดับ

ดังนั้นผลการวิจัยนี้จึงสามารถแสดงได้ว่ากลุ่มวรรณกรรมตามแนวคิดของ Panyasri (2013) เป็นเครื่องมือสำคัญชิ้นหนึ่งที่ช่วยยืนยันประสิทธิภาพของกลุ่มวรรณกรรมต่อการพัฒนาทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียน และควรได้รับการพิจารณานำมาบูรณาการในชั้นเรียนเพื่อแก้ปัญหาด้านการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียนชาวไทย โดยผู้สอนที่ต้องการใช้กลุ่มวรรณกรรมในกระบวนการเรียนการสอนควรมีการเตรียมความพร้อมให้ผู้เรียนมีความเข้าใจและคุ้นเคยกับกลุ่มวรรณกรรม เข้าใจความรับผิดชอบ บทบาทและหน้าที่ของตนเองต่อกระบวนการของกลุ่มวรรณกรรมเพื่อให้เกิดประโยชน์สูงสุดในการพัฒนาทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ของผู้เรียน

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ประวัติโดยย่อ

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Moves, Move sequences, and Move Cycling in Computer Engineering and Electrical Engineering Research Article Abstracts

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Abstract

Most studies on the structure of research article abstracts tend to address the use of the canonical five-move pattern. The present study aims to analyze research article abstracts in terms of the various other ways in which moves, move sequences, and move cycling are being used, and to identify newly emerging rhetorical organizations. The data comprised ninety computer engineering (CE) abstracts randomly selected from the entire collection of 2014 publications in IEEE Wireless Communications, IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks and Learning, and IEEE Network, and ninety electrical engineering (EE) abstracts randomly selected from the entire collection of 2014 publications in IEEE Transactions on Fuzzy Systems, IEEE Transactions on Industrial Electronics, and IEEE Transactions on Power Electronics. It was found that moves in these two closely-related engineering sub-disciplines did not conform to the prescribed organizational pattern with none of the moves being obligatory in computer engineering articles and the second and the third being obligatory only in electrical engineering articles. In addition, the move sequences showcased strings of as few as two and as many as eight moves arranged into up to fifty idiosyncratic combinations together with a myriad of instances of move cycling. Finally, some of the abstracts investigated were found to contain subtle representation of the organization of the accompanying article, a move most common in the last section of the introduction. It can be concluded, therefore, that genre theories should account for not only variations within and across disciplines but also rhetorical individuation in order to be able to truly manifest real use of language in discourse communities.

Keywords: moves, rhetorical structure, move sequences, move cycling

อรรถภาค การเรียงตัวของอรรถภาค และการเกิดซ้ำของอรรถภาค ในบทความบทความวิจัยด้านวิศวกรรมคอมพิวเตอร์และวิศวกรรมไฟฟ้า

รณนที รุ่งนภาเวทย์
สถาบันภาษา จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

บทคัดย่อ

การศึกษาด้านโครงสร้างบทคัดย่อส่วนใหญ่มักจะรายงานหลักฐานเชิงประจักษ์ที่สอดคล้องกัน โดยชี้ว่าบทคัดย่อประกอบด้วยหัวข้อประกอบแบบแผน งานวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาบทคัดย่อของบทความวิจัยในด้านอรรถภาค การเรียงตัวของอรรถภาค และการเกิดซ้ำของอรรถภาค รวมทั้งแนวโน้มการเกิดโครงสร้างอรรถภาครูปแบบใหม่ ข้อมูลที่ใช้ในงานวิจัยประกอบด้วยบทคัดย่อด้านวิศวกรรมคอมพิวเตอร์และบทคัดย่อด้านวิศวกรรมไฟฟ้าอย่างละ 90 ฉบับซึ่งสุ่มจากงานวิจัยทั้งหมดที่ตีพิมพ์ในวารสาร IEEE Wireless Communications, IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks and Learning, IEEE Network, IEEE Transactions on Fuzzy Systems, IEEE Transactions on Industrial Electronics และ IEEE Transactions on Power Electronics ในปีพ.ศ. 2557 ผลการศึกษาพบว่าอรรถภาคในสาขาย่อยของวิศวกรรมศาสตร์ที่สัมพันธ์กันอย่างใกล้ชิดทั้งสองสาขาไม่ได้เป็นไปตามโครงสร้างแบบแผน โดยไม่มีอรรถภาคใดเลยที่เป็นอรรถภาคบังคับในสาขาวิศวกรรมคอมพิวเตอร์ ในขณะที่อรรถภาคที่ 2 และ 3 เป็นอรรถภาคบังคับในสาขาวิศวกรรมไฟฟ้า นอกจากนี้ การเรียงตัวของอรรถภาคที่พบประกอบด้วยอย่างน้อยสองอรรถภาคและมากที่สุดถึงแปดอรรถภาคเรียงตัวในรูปแบบต่าง ๆ กันถึงราวห้าสิบรูปแบบ ซึ่งบางรูปแบบแสดงให้เห็นถึงการเกิดซ้ำของอรรถภาค ยิ่งไปกว่านั้น ยังพบว่าบทคัดยอบางฉบับใช้กลยุทธ์แบบยลในการนำเสนอโครงสร้างของบทความหลัก ซึ่งเป็นอรรถภาคสามัญในส่วนสุดท้ายของบทความวิจัย ดังนั้น จึงอาจสรุปได้ว่าทฤษฎีชนิดวาทกรรมควรจะพิจารณาไม่เพียงแต่ความแตกต่างระหว่างสาขา แต่ควรคำนึงถึงทั้งความแตกต่างภายในสาขาเดียวกันและการสร้างอัตลักษณ์ด้านวาทศิลป์ เพื่อให้สามารถสะท้อนการใช้ภาษาที่ปรากฏจริงในชุมชนวาทกรรม

คำสำคัญ: อรรถภาค โครงสร้างอรรถภาค การเรียงตัวของอรรถภาค การเกิดซ้ำของอรรถภาค

Introduction

Most researchers are required to go through a number of painstaking steps in order to be able to produce a piece of academic work: the seemingly never-ending task of reviewing the literature; the complicated tasks of formulating the research questions and conceptualizing the framework; the tedious tasks of setting out the research procedures, developing the research tools, and collecting, coding, and analyzing the data; the formidable tasks of reporting and discussing the findings; and the challenging task of putting everything together into a rhetorically coherent, academically comprehensive, and cognitively provoking research article contributing something new and insightful to academia. Once they have completed these, they may perhaps feel a sense of relief, mistakenly believing that everything has been completed. But another critical stage in the process lies ahead—writing the abstract.

The role of the abstract can be viewed from at least two angles: “rhetorical” and “economic,” to borrow Swales and Feak’s (2004) terms. Rhetorically, the abstract functions as both “front matter” and “summary matter” (Swales, 1990, p. 179), appealing for readership of the accompanying article and assisting the audience throughout the reading process, especially the post-reading stage, where the audience seeks to obtain a ‘snapshot’ of the complete article (Doro, 2013; Lores, 2004; Salager-Meyer, 1990; Salager-Meyer, 1992). From the economic viewpoint, the abstract sells the main article for conference presentations and article publication and citation, determining the author’s growth and success in his profession (Kanoksilapatham, 2009). Ulijn (as cited in Salager-Meyer, 1992) mentioned that some scholars even predict that the abstract will become the highest priority in the scholarly community in the near future. Salager-Meyer (1992) has even claimed that this short academic text “should be the starting point of any professional reading” (p. 94).

Due to its importance, the abstract has been investigated in regards to almost every aspect, such as verb tense and modality distribution (Salager-Meyer, 1992), linguistic realizations (Anderson & Maclean, 1997), thematic organization (Lores, 2004), evaluative constructions containing the complementizer *that* (Hyland & Tse, 2005), authorial stance (Pho, 2008), and discourse markers (Khedri, Heng & Ebrahimi, 2013). Most notable and abundant are studies examining the abstract in terms of its

rhetorical moves, i.e. the constituting segments that perform recognizable communicative functions (Swales, 1990, 2004). Research along this line includes Doro (2013), Hartley (2003), Yang (2009), Kanoksilapatham (2009), Martin-Martin (2003), Oneplee (2008), Pasavoravate (2011), Pho (2008), Ren & Li (2011), Saeew & Tangkiengsirisin (2014), Samraj (2005), Santos (1996), and Suntara & Usaha (2013), to name but a few. This enormous pool has enhanced linguists' current understanding of not only how the abstract is structured among closely-, moderately-, and remotely-related discourse communities but also how such rhetorical organizations can be followed and *exploited* to achieve the desired communicative purposes.

The discipline of genre analysis of the abstract, however, is more expansive, and the concept of genericity, i.e. the conventionalization, or the institutionalization, of moves in the abstract in a given genre or discourse community (Swales, 1990, 2004), is becoming less relevant. For instance, Kanoksilapatham (2009) found variations in terms of both the presence and the sequence of moves in her investigation of two biology sub-disciplines, biochemistry and microbiology, and two engineering sub-disciplines, civil engineering and software engineering.

Similar findings were reported in Doros (2013), who discovered that moves and the degree of instantiation of each move in the abstracts of such supposedly related disciplines as linguistics and literature were not compatible. This disparity alone proves to be a strong enough motivation for further research on moves in the abstract, either within or across different genres, for only through such an analysis can relevant decisions in EAP and ESP be made in a well-informed manner (Bhatia, 1997, 2008; Dudley-Evans, 2000; Flowerdew, 2015; Hyland, 2014; Swales, 2001, 2002).

Another issue to examine is where the current body of knowledge of this field stands since Swales' (1990) first introduction of genre analysis over two decades ago. Despite the countless number of subsequent works, advances in theories and research do not seem to keep up with more recent realities. As Bhatia reveals in his latest interview:

“... Genre Analysis has been a powerful theoretical framework used very successfully for several decades and is still one of the most popular frameworks for pedagogical applications to language teaching at the post-secondary levels; *however*, when we look at the discursive practices in the real world of professions, it seems to be a bit constraining in that it fails to adequately account for the realities of the complex world, ...” (Bhatia & Nodoushan, 2015, p. 126, emphasis added).

A similar hindrance also poses a challenge for scholars in the field of abstract move analysis. For this purpose, three frameworks have hitherto been applied, namely Weissberg & Buker’s (1990) model, comprised of five moves: *background*, *purpose*, *method*, *results*, and *conclusion*; Santos’ (1996) framework, also consisting of five moves: *situating the research*, *presenting the research*, *describing the methodology*, *summarizing the findings*, and *discussing the research*; and Martin-Martin’s (2003) proposal, adapted from Swales’ (1990) Creating-a-Research-Space (CARS) model to reflect the abstract’s representation of the structure of *research articles (RAs)*, made up of four moves: *introduction*, *methods*, *results*, and *discussion*¹ Unfortunately perhaps, the findings of research conducted based on these frameworks have always been in line with expectations.

To illustrate, Anderson and Maclean (1997), adopting Weissberg & Buker’s (1990) model in their examination of abstracts in four medical fields, revealed that the majority adhered to the M1-M2-M3-M4-M5 move structure. Also basing her study on this framework, Kanoksilapatham (2009) went a step further, having been able to identify the omission of certain moves in a given discipline, such as M2 and M3 in biochemistry, M1 and M2 in microbiology, and M1, M2, and M3 in civil engineering, and compliance with the theoretical move sequence despite the absence of such moves.

Differently, Pho (2008) applied Santos’ (1996) model to examine RA abstracts in applied linguistics and educational technology, indicating three prominent moves in

¹ The three models bear great resemblances. To illustrate, the background move in Weissberg & Buker (1990) is comparable to the situating-the-research-move in Santos (1996), and the introduction move in Martin-Martin (2003) can be seen as an amalgamation of the background and the purpose moves. For expository purposes, the moves, be they in the abstract or the introduction section, will henceforth be designated M1, M2, M3, etc. and should be interpreted as relevant in that context, unless otherwise stated.

both disciplines, namely M2, M3, and M4. Drawing on the same framework, Doro (2013) found in her investigation of English studies journals that linguistics abstracts exhibited more of M2, M3, and M4, whereas literature abstracts relied more on M4 and M5. Martin-Martin's (2003) model was applied in Lores (2004), who revealed that although most abstracts in linguistics journals generally followed the canonical IMRD structure of RAs, a sizeable number also employed the CARS organization.

An abundance of studies adopting the same analytical models and hence revealing *globally* similar results is tantamount to stagnation in research progress toward a deeper understanding of the rhetorical organization of the abstract. It has long been well known, for instance, that the abstract is likely to be constructed with four or five moves, that a certain move is more predominant in some disciplines than others, and that a certain move may be obligatory, conventional, or optional (refer to Kanoksilapatham, 2005, 2012, for more discussion on this topic), depending on disciplines and genres.

Two major questions, however, await further research. One is whether the moves in such a brief piece of writing as the abstract involves cycling or not, in comparison with those in more extended sections such as the introduction and the results and discussion. Second, it remains to be seen to what extent the three frameworks discussed above can account for the actual rhetorical manifestation of the abstract, particularly amid the diachronically changing nature of the abstract genre (Ayers, 2008).

The main objective of the present study is, therefore, to examine similarities and differences in the rhetorical organization of the abstract, using data from two engineering sub-disciplines: computer engineering and electrical engineering. Also, the research seeks to identify move sequences, move cycling, and especially possible divergence from the conventional move structure prescribed in the literature—an area of inquiry that has thus far been underexplored.

Literature Review

This section is divided into four parts. The first part introduces the rhetorical organizations widely applied for analyzing moves in the abstract. Discussed in the second part are the linguistic realizations of each move. In part three, the notion of move cycling is presented. The final part provides a critical review of previous studies on the organizational pattern of the abstract.

Rhetorical organizations of the abstract

Weissberg and Buker (1990) proposed in their genre-based textbook that the abstract should comprise five moves, namely background, purpose, methods, results, and conclusion, which, they claimed, would be applicable to experimental report writing as well as other disciplines. This move structure has undergone several modifications in the long-standing history of abstract analysis. For example, two of the moves are referred to slightly differently in Hyland (2000): the first as *introduction* and the fourth as *product*. In spite of such terminological discrepancies, the model has been applied in Anderson & Maclean (1997), Ren & Li (2011), Kanoksilapatham (2009), Saeew & Tangkiengsirisin (2014), Suntara & Usaha (2013), and Yang (2009), for example.

Santos (1996) has gone a step further, concluding based on his study of 94 abstracts from three leading applied linguistics journals that the abstract contains five moves, namely situating the research, presenting the research, describing the methodology, summarizing the findings, and discussing the research. He has also shown that M1 may be further made up of a maximum of four sub-moves, namely stating current knowledge, citing previous research, extended previous research, and stating a problem; M2 of a maximum of three sub-moves, namely indicating main features, indicating main purpose, and hypothesis raising; and M5 of a maximum of two sub-moves, namely drawing conclusions and giving recommendations. This framework has been followed in a number of move analysis studies, including Doro (2013), Oneplee (2008), and Pho (2008).

The last model that has also gained in popularity owes its origin to Swales' (1990) CARS model, comprised of three moves, namely establishing a territory, establishing a niche, and occupying a niche (p. 141). The first move is further classified into three

steps, namely claiming centrality, making topic generalization(s), and reviewing items of previous research. The second can be manifested by any one or some of these four steps, namely counter-claiming, indicating a gap, question-raising, and continuing a tradition. The last can be sub-divided into three steps, namely outlining purposes or announcing present research, announcing principle findings, and indicating RA structure.

Influenced by Swales (1990), Martin-Martin (2003) postulated four moves for the abstract, assuming that its organization would be characteristically represented in the same way as that of the accompanying article, namely introduction, methods, results, and discussion. Like its other two counterparts, this analytical scheme has been adopted in a number of studies, including Lores (2004), Martin-Martin (2003) himself, and Samraj (2005). It should be noted, however, that Samraj (2005) adhered more strictly to the CARS model, while Lores (2004) employed both the CARS and the IMRD structures in her analysis.

Linguistic realizations of each move

Pho (2008), from her research on the linguistic realizations of rhetorical structure and authorial stance in applied linguistics and educational technology abstracts, proposes the following criteria for distinguishing one move from another: grammatical subjects, verb tense and aspect, voice, modal auxiliaries and semi-modal verbs (e.g. *may, can, should, have to*), epistemic adjectives, adverbs, and nouns (e.g. *likely, possible, probably, generally, possibility, assumption, tendency, need*), attitudinal adjectives, adverbs, and nouns (e.g. *important, significant, surprisingly, curiously, importance, significance*), self-reference words (e.g. *I, we, my, our, the author(s), the researcher(s)*), reporting verbs (e.g. *suggest*), and *that*-complement clauses (p. 235).

The grammatical subjects can be categorized into two main classes: “phenomenal” and “epistemic” (Pho, 2008, p. 235). According to MacDonald (as cited in Pho, 2008, p. 235), the phenomenal class subjects refer to “nouns referring to people or objects studied and their attributes...,” as in *the participants in the study, variables, these strategies, scores for the 3-criterion variables*, whereas the epistemic class subjects encompass nouns associated with “the researcher or academics’ reasoning”. The epistemic class subjects can be further classified into those connected with self-

reference, other reference, audience and the generic *we*, reference to writer's own work, and anticipatory *it* and existential *there* (Pho, 2008, pp. 235-236).

According to Pho (2008, pp. 235-245), M1 is generally linguistically realized by other reference subjects, the present simple and the present perfect, the passive in some disciplines and the active in others, modal verbs, and attitudinal stance adjectives and adverbs. The linguistic realizations of M2 commonly involve reference to the writer's own work, the present simple and the simple past, and the active. The use of modal verbs and evaluative words is rare. As for M3, phenomenal class subjects are most common, with the past simple and passive verbs being preferred. Modal verbs and evaluative words are possibly untraceable. M4 is commonly linguistically realized by reference to the writer's own work or phenomenal class subjects, the past tense for reporting the findings and the present tense for making generalizations, epistemic and attitudinal words, and *that*-complement clauses. Finally, as regards the linguistic realizations of M5, reference to the writer's own work and phenomenal class subjects are common with a strong preference for the present tense, modal verbs, stance words, self-reference pronouns, reporting verbs, and *that*-complement clauses.

Anderson & Maclean (1997, pp. 3-22) is another study dealing with the linguistic realizations of moves in the abstract. They postulate that M2 is commonly linguistically realized by lexical subjects such as *purpose*, *aim*, and *objective*, followed by the copula *be*, and a non-finite *to*-infinitive clause with such lexical verbs as *examine*, *assess*, *study*, *evaluate*, *determine*, and *test*; meta-textual collocations of inanimate subjects and animate verbs, such as *this paper reports*; and statements containing implications of purpose. As for M3 and M4, common linguistic realizations include chronological ordering, the past passive, the co-occurrence of inanimate noun subjects and active present verbs, and self-reference *we* with past verbs. Finally, M5 is generally linguistically realized by change from the past tense to the present tense with the use of modals; anaphoric reference to the findings, such as *these data*; lexical verbs for making claims, such as *suggest*, *appear*, *show*, and *demonstrate*; modal verbs, such as *may* and *can*; attitudinal words, such as *important* and *useful*; modal or lexical verbs showing recommendations, i.e. *should* and *need*; and lexical verbs explicitly announcing conclusion, such as *conclude*; and logical connectors, i.e. *thus*, *therefore*, and *hence*.

Move cycling

The term *move cycling*, *move recycling*, *move repetition*, *move reiteration*, or *cyclical patterning* has been used elsewhere in the literature without being given a formal definition. In this article, it is tentatively defined as a textual feature characterized by the reiteration of a single move or more to accord with the organization of the accompanying text, to comply with the convention of the corresponding discourse community, or to serve an individual's communicative purposes, or a combination of these. An example of move cycling is provided below.

The adjacency parameter was first applied [M3]. . . Regarding the adjacency condition, the native group placed adverbs quite equally between the clause-initial and the clause-medial positions. On the other hand, the learner groups put [much] more adverbs clause-initially [M4]. . . In addition to the adjacency parameter, the lexical parameter was adapted [M3] . . . It was found that the natives placed adverbs in the majority of the 37 semantic classes in more positions than the advanced learners, whose range of positions of adjunction was broader than that of the intermediate learners... [M4] (Thai 7)

Pasavoravate (2011, p. 96)

Swales (1990) suggests that the moves in his CARS model do not flow from the first to the last in a linear pattern. This means although M1-M2-M3 is a likely rhetorical organization, it is *only* one among many other possibilities, such as M1-M2-M1-M2-M3, in which M1 and M2 are recycled, and M1-M2-M3-M2-M3, in which M2 and M3 are cyclical. Such a contention was later attested to in other studies addressing different sections of RAs, including Bunton (2002), Hyland (2000), Kanoksilapatham (2005), Ruiying & Allison (2003), and Samraj (2002). Bunton (2002), for example, found in his analysis of 45 Ph.D. thesis introductions that only three followed the conventional pattern of M1-M2-M3, whereas the vast majority contained moves that were recycled as often as up to 18 times and 5.5 times on average. Well aware of such counter-evidence, Swales (2004) has modified the CARS model, stipulating that it is possible for any of the moves to be recycled as more specific issues are introduced, especially M1 and M2 (p. 230). Evidently, empirical research has strengthened the theoretical underpinnings of genre analysis, particularly those relating to scholarly writing.

It is unfortunate, however, that while move cycling has been extensively investigated in studies on other RA sections, it has not been substantiated in research on the rhetorical structure of the abstract. The issue was addressed *en passant* in Bunton (2002), Hyland (2000), Kanoksilapatham (2013), and Swales (1990, 2004), and more thoroughly only in Pasavoravate (2011). Pasavoravate (2011) compared thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics authored by graduate students in Thailand and England. Examining 35 abstracts from different Thai universities and 35 abstracts from different British universities, she found marked differences between the abstracts in the two corpora. Specifically, only three in the Thai corpus involved cyclical patterning with two repeating M3 and one reiterating M2, whereas as many as twenty abstracts in the British corpus illustrated move cycling with M2 being most reiterated, followed by M4 and M1, respectively.

Related research

This part discusses previous research on the rhetorical pattern of the abstract in three aspects: sample size, representativeness, and coding reliability. Kanoksilapatham (2015) emphasizes the importance of validity in genre studies, specifying that this can be achieved by collecting sizeable data in ways that ensure representativeness from sources that reflect the discourse community of the text under investigation and analyzing the data using a protocol that minimizes subjectivity.

In Kanoksilapatham (2013), twelve abstracts were randomly selected from each of the top five journals in civil engineering. No specifications were made as to how coding reliability was established, however. Using these three criteria as a point of departure, in terms of sample size, Ren and Li (2011) collected only five abstracts from five journals and 25 abstracts from Chinese master's theses, while Kanoksilapatham (2009) did not reveal any information in this regard. This problem was spotted in Lores (2004), who selected nine abstracts from four journals; Doro (2013), who included ten abstracts from two journals; Pho (2008), who analyzed ten abstracts from three journals; and Samraj (2005), who examined twelve abstracts from two journals. Saeew and Tangkiengsirisin (2014), Suntara and Usaha (2013), and Oneplee (2008), fared much

better, constructing their corpora from 25 abstracts in eight journals, approximately thirty abstracts in six journals, and as many as fifty abstracts in two journals, respectively.

As regards representativeness, Kanoksilapatham (2005, 2015) considers the selection of journals and sampling procedures as important criteria, attaching importance to journal impact factors and random sampling. Doro (2013), Lores (2004), Pho (2008), Ren and Li (2011), Samraj (2005), Santos (1996), and Suntara and Usaha (2013) either made no reference to the journals from which their data were collected or reporting the source journals without providing additional information regarding their impact factors.

More impressive are Kanoksilapatham (2009), Oneplee (2008), and Saeew & Tangkiengsirisin (2014), who gathered their data from the top journals according to the impact factors of such scholarly publications. To illustrate, Saeew and Tangkiengsirisin (2014) derived their corpora from 25 abstracts in eight journals with the highest impact factors, namely *Water Research*, *Journal of Environmental Sciences*, *Waste Management and Research*, *Bioresource Technology*, *Applied Linguistics*, *System*, *English for Specific Purposes*, and *TESOL Quarterly*.

Finally, with respect to coding reliability, Kanoksilapatham (2009, 2013), Lores (2004), and Samraj (2005) did not detail their schemes, while Doro (2013) relied on double rating carried out three months apart by the same coder. A more stringent protocol was followed in Ren & Li (2011), Saeew & Tangkiengsirisin (2014), and Suntara & Usaha (2013), all of whom employed an expert rater, usually an academic specializing in discourse analysis, to independently code their data. The most rigorous procedures to ensure reliability in the classification of moves were reported in Oneplee (2008), who involved five raters in the coding process, namely two science experts, two linguistics academics, and herself.

Research Methods

This section details the construction of the corpora, the procedures for establishing inter-coder reliability, and the realizations of each move and analytical scope.

Corpus construction:

The construction of the corpora commenced with the determination of the two sub-disciplines to be investigated. In the present article, *computer engineering (CE)* and *electrical engineering (EE)* were of interest because they are the two departments with the highest number of students in 2014 at one of the oldest and most prestigious universities in Thailand. Furthermore, the two sub-disciplines can be considered closely-related, as reflected in the title of a leading scholarly publication *Computers and Electrical Engineering*, available on *Elsevier* and *ScienceDirect*. Thus, it should be beneficial to explore whether such *sister* sub-disciplines will bear greater similarities or differences in terms of rhetorical organization.

To this end, the top three journals in each sub-discipline were determined based on their impact factor. According to the 2014 Journal Citation Report, *IEEE Wireless Communications*, *IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks and Learning*, and *IEEE Network*² were the computer engineering publications with the highest impact factors of 5.417, 4.291, and 2.54, respectively, while *IEEE Transactions on Fuzzy Systems*, *IEEE Transactions on Industrial Electronics*, and *IEEE Transactions on Power Electronics* were the electrical engineering publications with the highest impact factors of 8.746, 6.498, and 6.008, respectively. To attain representativeness, thirty abstracts were randomly selected from the entire 2014 publications of each journal, excluding those that belonged to theoretical or review papers. This yielded a total of 180 abstracts running approximately 33,000 words. For ease of reference, the CE and the EE abstracts were indexed CE1, CE2, CE3, EE1, EE2, EE3, and so on.

² Communications of the ACM is actually the publication with the third highest impact factor of 3.621. The journal, however, features many types of articles that are characteristically different from those published in its computer engineering counterparts, and was thus replaced with IEEE Network.

Inter-coder reliability:

The procedures to sustain inter-coder reliability were as follows. One assistant professor in applied linguistics served as the second coder in this study. The coder received one-hour training on move classification in which the coding scheme based on Santos' (1996) model was provided, explained, and clarified (see 3.3 below for further details). Following this step, the coder spent an hour practicing coding five abstracts in CE and EE from the same journals under investigation but from a different publication year. The ten abstracts were purposively selected to represent instances of linear progression from M1 to M5, the omission of certain moves, and move cycling, for instance, in order to expose the coder to different rhetorical patterns involving various degrees of analytical difficulty. After that, discussion was made to resolve possible problematic areas and negotiate potential disagreements.

Subsequently, the coder was given ten CE and ten EE abstracts randomly selected from the larger pool of data, and classified moves in those abstracts independently. The coder was also advised to scrutinize the classifications a second time or more as deemed appropriate. Once the coding was completed, inter-coder reliability was calculated using Cohen's Kappa (Kanoksilapatham, 2005, 2015), to ensure correspondence in the identification of move boundaries conducted by the present author and the second coder. The Cohen's Kappa coefficient stood at 89.97%, indicating high inter-coder reliability and thus a satisfactory degree of coding agreement.

Realizations of each move and data analysis:

Following Santos (1996) and Swales (1990), each move was identified based on both content and linguistic criteria in order that the analysis was least arbitrary, subjective, and circular. Move classification was performed according to Santos' (1996) framework for two reasons. First, despite being developed originally for an analysis of abstracts in applied linguistics, the model has been successfully applied in research exploring scientific abstracts (e.g. Oneplee, 2008). Second, as Pho (2008) rightly notes, the nomenclature of each move in Santos (1996) carries more meaning than that in other studies, e.g. labeling the first move as situating the research instead of background or introduction, and so on. Following Suntara & Usaha (2013), when move embedding, i.e.

the incorporation of more than one move into a sentential or clausal unit, was found, the classification proceeded as such.

To recapitulate, Santos (1996) proposes that the abstract is comprised of five rhetorical moves. The realization of each move together with its linguistic exponents is presented in the examples below.

Situating the research

*Energy efficiency and bandwidth efficiency are **two paramount important performance metrics** for device-to-device communications. [CE10]*

Presenting the research

***The main aim of this article** is to propose a healthcare traffic control over the modern heterogeneous wireless network... [CE12]*

Describing the methodology

*We **design** a unified protocol stack that includes all the original functions of both LTE and WLAN systems. [CE23]*

Summarizing the findings

*Compared with the fuzzy linear regression and back propagation network approach, the proposed methodology **reduced** the average range and mean absolute percentage error **by 18% and 99%**, respectively. [EE6]*

Discussing the research

*We **explain how ACWW problems can solve some potential prototype engineering problems** and connect the methodology of this paper with Perceptual Computing. [EE19]*

Upon the completion of the classification, the frequency of each move was counted to determine its status as being obligatory, conventional, or optional. Based on Kanoksilapatham (2005, 2015), a move was considered obligatory, conventional, or optional if located in 100%, between 60% and 99%, and lower than 60% of the data, respectively. In addition to the assignment of the status of each move, the preferred move sequences were also identified in conjunction with the determination of move cycling, if any. Finally, attempt was made to highlight instances of moves not having been pinpointed in previous research.

Results

The present study aims to investigate the organization of the abstract in three aspects: the status of each move, move sequences and move cycling, and emerging rhetorical patterns. To better represent the results, the moves are abbreviated as follows.

M1 = Situating the research

e.g. *Yield forecasting is an **important** task for the manufacturer of semiconductors. Owing to the uncertainty in yield learning, it is, however, often **difficult** to make precise and accurate yield forecasts.* [EE6]

M2 = Presenting the research

e.g. ***This paper addresses** the universal fuzzy integral sliding-mode controllers' problem for continuous-time multi-input multi-output nonlinear systems...* [EE9]

M3 = Describing the methodology

e.g. *Fuzzy logic systems **are used to identify** the unknown nonlinear functions, and a fuzzy state filter observer **is designed to estimate** the unmeasured states.* [EE22]

M4 = Summarizing the findings

e.g. *... we demonstrate that TOSS can reduce by 63.8-86.5 percent of cellular traffic while satisfying the access delay requirements of all users.* [CE14]

M5 = Discussing the research

e.g. *We also discuss some fundamental research issues arising with the proposed architecture to illuminate future research directions.* [CE22]

Moves:

To determine the status of a move as obligatory, conventional, or optional, Kanoksilapatham's (2005, 2015) criteria were adopted. Table 1 presents the number of abstracts containing each of the five moves together with the corresponding percentages.

The results show that conventional and optional moves were more common than obligatory ones in both sub-disciplines. In CE, no obligatory moves were identified. EE, in contrast, involved two obligatory moves, namely M2 and M3. Analyzed individually, CE demonstrated a lower status of M4 as a conventional move than M2 and M3. The findings in the literature being considered, it came as a surprise that M4 was in fact closer to being an optional move in this sub-discipline. As for EE, apart from the two obligatory moves, it is interesting to find that M1 seems to be an optional move. The

standing of M4 as a conventional move and M5 as an optional move with such a low frequency of occurrence was also contrary to expectations.

Table 1 Moves in CE and EE abstracts

Moves (M)	Computer engineering (CE)		Electrical engineering (EE)	
	No. of abstracts containing move (N = 30)	Percentage	No. of abstracts containing move (N = 30)	Percentage
1	69	76.67	46	51.11
2	88	97.78	90	100.00
3	85	94.44	90	100.00
4	70	77.78	79	87.78
5	31	34.44	34	37.78

Move sequences and move cycling:

Move sequence is the order or the pattern in which the five moves are structured. To identify this, moves in all the abstracts were classified before the frequency of each move pattern found was counted. Table 2 exhibits the number of abstracts in each sub-discipline containing each instance of move sequences with the corresponding percentage.

According to the results, the number of move sequences was greater in EE than in CE, suggesting that there may be more structural variations in the former. For the CE abstracts, the most common move sequence was M1-M2-M3-M4, whereas the EE abstracts made equal use of the M1-M2-M3-M4 and the M2-M3-M4-M3-M4 patterns, but the occurrence of these three organizations was not frequent relative to the total number of abstracts. Contrary to expectations, the conventional M1-M2-M3-M4-M5 structure was not common, occurring in only eleven abstracts in both sub-disciplines combined. When an alternative representation of the conventional five-move structure, i.e. M2-M1-M3-M4-M5, was considered, it appeared in only three EE abstracts but not the CE ones.

Table 2 Move sequences in CE and EE abstracts

No.	Move sequences	Computer engineering (CE)		Move sequences	Electrical engineering (EE)	
		Frequency	Percentage		Frequency	Percentage
1	1-2-3-4	17	18.89%	1-2-3-4	8	8.89%
2	2-3-4	6	6.67%	2-3-4-3-4	8	8.89%
3	1-2-3-5	5	5.56%	2-3-4	7	7.78%
4	1-2-3-4-5	5	5.56%	2-3-4-5	6	6.67%
5	2-3-4-3-4	5	5.56%	1-2-3-4-5	6	6.67%
6	1-2-3	4	4.44%	2-3	3	3.33%
7	1-2-4-3-4	4	4.44%	2-4-3	3	3.33%
8	1-2-5	2	2.22%	2-1-3-4-5	3	3.33%
9	2-3-4-5	2	2.22%	2-1-3-4	2	2.22%
10	1-2-3-2-3	2	2.22%	1-2-3-2-4	2	2.22%
11	1-2-3-4-3	2	2.22%	1-2-3-4-3-4	2	2.22%
12	2-3-2-3-4	2	2.22%	1-2-3-4-3-4-5	2	2.22%
13	1-2-3-2-4-5	2	2.22%	1-2-3	1	1.11%
14	1-2-3-4-3-4	2	2.22%	2-3-5	1	1.11%
15	1-2-4-2-3-4	2	2.22%	1-2-1-3	1	1.11%
16	1-2-4	1	1.11%	1-2-3-2	1	1.11%
17	1-4-5	1	1.11%	1-2-4-3	1	1.11%
18	1-2-3-2	1	1.11%	2-1-4-3	1	1.11%
19	1-2-4-3	1	1.11%	2-3-2-3	1	1.11%
20	1-2-4-5	1	1.11%	2-3-4-3	1	1.11%
21	2-4-3-4	1	1.11%	1-2-4-3-4	1	1.11%
22	3-4-3-4	1	1.11%	2-1-4-3-4	1	1.11%
23	1-2-1-3-4	1	1.11%	2-1-4-3-5	1	1.11%
24	1-2-3-5-2	1	1.11%	2-3-1-2-5	1	1.11%
25	1-2-5-1-4	1	1.11%	2-3-2-3-4	1	1.11%
26	1-2-5-2-5	1	1.11%	2-3-2-4-5	1	1.11%
27	2-1-2-3-5	1	1.11%	2-3-4-3-5	1	1.11%
28	2-4-3-4-5	1	1.11%	2-3-4-5-4	1	1.11%

No.	Move sequences	Computer engineering (CE)		Move sequences	Electrical engineering (EE)	
		Frequency	Percentage		Frequency	Percentage
29	1-2-1-2-3-4	1	1.11%	2-3-5-4-3	1	1.11%
30	1-2-3-1-3-4	1	1.11%	2-4-3-5-3	1	1.11%
31	1-2-3-2-3-4	1	1.11%	1-2-3-2-3-5	1	1.11%
32	1-2-3-2-3-5	1	1.11%	1-2-3-2-4-5	1	1.11%
33	1-2-3-5-3-4	1	1.11%	1-2-4-2-4-3	1	1.11%
34	2-3-2-4-3-4	1	1.11%	1-2-4-3-4-3	1	1.11%
35	2-3-4-3-4-3	1	1.11%	1-3-2-4-3-4	1	1.11%
36	2-5-3-1-3-5	1	1.11%	2-1-2-3-4-5	1	1.11%
37	1-2-3-1-2-4-5	1	1.11%	2-1-3-1-3-5	1	1.11%
38	1-2-3-1-3-4-5	1	1.11%	2-1-3-4-2-5	1	1.11%
39	1-2-3-2-3-4-5	1	1.11%	2-3-1-3-4-3	1	1.11%
40	1-2-3-2-5-4-5	1	1.11%	2-3-2-3-4-5	1	1.11%
41	1-2-3-5-2-3-5	1	1.11%	2-3-4-3-4-5	1	1.11%
42	2-3-2-3-4-5-4	1	1.11%	2-4-2-3-4-3	1	1.11%
43	1-2-3-4-3-4-3-4	1	1.11%	2-4-2-4-3-4	1	1.11%
44				2-4-3-4-3-4	1	1.11%
45				3-2-3-4-3-4	1	1.11%
46				1-2-3-4-3-4-3	1	1.11%
47				2-3-1-3-4-3-4	1	1.11%
48				1-2-3-2-4-5-2-3	1	1.11%
49				1-2-5-1-2-3-4-5	1	1.11%
50				2-3-4-3-4-2-3-4	1	1.11%
Total		90	100.00	Total	90	100.00

Another striking finding was the number of moves employed in the abstracts in each sub-discipline. In CE, except for those associated with the three most frequent sequences, a large number of abstracts contained more than five moves. For instance, six abstracts were made up of as many as seven moves and eight abstracts of six moves in CE. In comparison, the figure went slightly higher for EE with three abstracts being

comprised of up to eight moves and 21 abstracts of six to seven moves. Abstracts with less than five moves, on the other hand, were not rare either. In CE, fourteen abstracts consisted of only three moves, a phenomenon also characterizing the EE abstracts. All this suggests that following the conventional five-move structure is not considered essential, at least in the two sub-disciplines under investigation.

The final issue that deserved attention was uniformity. From the findings, it is apparent that there was hardly any preferred pattern. Although conventional structures were employed in slightly more abstracts, the number of those with idiosyncratic organizations was, in fact, much greater. In EE, only fifteen abstracts illustrated compliance with the convention (M1-M2-M3-M4, M1-M2-M3-M4-M5, and M1-M2-M3), whereas the great majority reflected instances of rhetorical individuation. Likewise, CE involved 64 abstracts that did not follow the prescribed structure with only 26 that did (M1-M2-M3-M4, M1-M2-M3-M4-M5, and M1-M2-M3). This is strong evidence that scholars are probably on the right track in realizing the need to steer away from genericity and toward specificity in approaches, and to account for individual variations in, genre studies.

As regards move cycling, all the abstracts were scrutinized again for recurring moves and then those demonstrating cyclical patterning were recorded. Presented in Table 3 is the number of times each of the five moves was reiterated in the two sub-disciplines.

Table 3 Move cycling in CE and EE abstracts

Moves (M)	Computer engineering (CE)	Electrical engineering (EE)
1	6	3
2	21	17
3	26	32
4	20	26
5	4	1
Total	77	79

The findings revealed a high degree of move cycling in both sub-disciplines with a greater extent of such a rhetorical phenomenon in EE than in CE. That is, moves were

cyclical in 79 EE abstracts but only 77 CE abstracts. On the other hand, the moves recycled in CE ranged across all the five types, whereas in EE, cyclical patterning was spotted for almost all except for M5, for which only one instance was identified. A closer look at the figures revealed another intriguing pattern. That is, for both sub-disciplines, M3 was reiterated the most, followed by M4 and M2. For instance, in EE, M3 was repeated in 32 abstracts, M4 in 26, and M2 in 17. A caveat is in order, however, since the cycling of each move occurred only once or twice throughout all the abstracts, it might be premature to make any conclusive generalizations. An example of the abstracts involving the cycling of M2 is provided below.

This paper is concerned with the fault detection (FD) problem for Takagi-Sugeno (T-S) fuzzy systems with unknown membership functions [M2]. If the membership functions are unknown, the linear FD filter designs with fixed gains have been considered in the literature [M1]. To reduce the conservatism of the existing results, a switching mechanism that depends on the lower and upper bounds of the unknown membership functions is provided to construct an FD filter with varying gains [M3]. It is shown that the switching-type FD filter with varying gains can achieve a better FD performance than the linear FD filter with fixed gains [M4]. In addition, based on some time-domain inequalities, a novel weighting matrix design approach is introduced to transform the fault sensitivity specification into an H_∞ constraint [M2]. Finally, two examples are given to show the advantages of the proposed FD method [M5]. [EE4]

The abstract opens with M2, stating the objective of the research, signaled with a verb phrase containing the lexical adjective ‘concerned’ before providing the background that situates the study, i.e. M1, typified with a verb phrase with the lexical verb ‘considered’ and an adverbial containing the epistemic noun ‘literature.’ Then the methodology, i.e. M3, is explained using a verb phrase comprised of the lexical verb ‘provided’ followed by a *to*-infinitive construction and the lexical verb ‘construct.’ The presentation proceeds with M4, demonstrated by the use of a matrix clause containing the lexical reporting verb ‘shown,’ a *that*-complement clause, and a verb phrase with the modal verb ‘can.’

Reiteration is signified with the sequence-marking conjunctive adverb ‘in addition.’ The rhetorical function of the following clause is unclear at first glance

because the lexical verb ‘*introduced*’ does not carry much meaning in this regard and in this particular context. However, it later becomes clear that the clause serves as M2, stating the other, although secondary in status, objective of the research. The reason for this interpretation is what follows is M5, discussion of the advantages of the proposed approach.

Emerging rhetorical patterns:

After the moves in the two corpora were classified and the move sequences in all the abstracts were determined, a third round of analysis was conducted in order to identify whether there were any emerging rhetorical patterns. Presented below are two examples of a novel type of organization spotted in the data.

*Energy efficiency and bandwidth efficiency are two **paramount important** performance metrics for device-to-device communications [M1]. In this work, we **investigate** how mobility impacts EE and BE in a general framework of an LTEAdvanced network [M2]. First, we **deploy** a simple but practical mobility model to capture the track of the mobile devices. In particular, unlike previous works focusing on mobility velocity, which is difficult to obtain in practical mobile D2D systems, we **deploy** the parameter of device density to describe the device mobility [M3]. Next, we **investigate** the relationship between EE and BE in a mobile environment, and **propose** an EE-BE-aware scheduling scheme with a dynamic relay selection strategy that is flexible enough for making the transmission decision, including relay selection, rate allocation, and routing [M2]. Subsequently, through rigorous theoretical analysis [M3], we derive a precise EE-BE trade-off curve for any device density and **achieve** the condition to attain the optimal EE and BE simultaneously. Finally, numerical simulation **results are provided** [4] to **validate the efficiency** of the proposed scheduling scheme and the correctness of our analysis [M5]. [CE10]*

*In this paper, we **propose** and demonstrate an effective methodology for implementing the generalized extension principle to solve Advanced Computing with Words (ACWW) problems [M2]. Such problems involve implicit assignments of linguistic truth, probability, and possibility [M1]. To begin, we **establish** the vocabularies of the words involved in the problems, and **then collect** data from subjects about the words after which fuzzy set models for the words **are obtained** by using the Interval Approach (IA) or the Enhanced Interval Approach (EIA). Next, the solutions of the ACWW problems, which involve the fuzzy set models of the words, **are formulated** using the Generalized*

*Extension Principle [M3]. **Because** the solutions to those problems involve complicated functional optimization problems that cannot be solved analytically [M1], we **then** develop a numerical method for their solution. **Finally**, the resulting fuzzy set solutions **are decoded** into natural language words using Jaccard's similarity measure [M3]. We **explain** how ACWW problems **can solve** some potential prototype engineering problems and **connect the methodology** of this paper with Perceptual Computing [M5]. [EE19]*

A careful examination of the data revealed a unique move structure that has not been pointed out elsewhere, except in Ren & Li (2011)³ and Samraj (2005). As shown in the extracts, CE10 was characterized by a distinct move structure M1-M2-M3-M2-M3-M4-M5. Likewise, the move sequence of EE19 was anything but a generic one, constructed with M2-M1-M3-M1-M3-M5. In addition to such idiosyncrasies, the two abstracts shared another important commonality. That is, both seem to involve presentation of the organization of the accompanying article, closer to the optional Move 3D (indicating the structure of the research) of the research introduction in Swales and Feak (2004, 2009). CE10 employed the use of the sequence-marking conjunctive adverbs ‘*first*,’ ‘*next*,’ ‘*subsequently*,’ and ‘*finally*’ to convey how the paper was structured. A similar rhetorical strategy was also at work in EE19, in which conjunctive adverbs were amply exploited to guide the audience through the organization of the article. Even more profound was that the conventional five-move structure of the abstract and the last optional move of the research paper was aptly interwoven, resulting in two subtly coherent layers of rhetorical structure. Such a pattern emerged in twelve CE abstracts and four EE abstracts—a small, yet meaningful figure.

Discussion

Throughout its rich history, genre analysis has provided valuable insights to EAP and ESP practitioners in terms of textual structures in various genres and the peculiarities inherent in each. It is the latter, however, that keep the momentum moving, deepening the current understanding of the intricate relationships between discourse communities

³ The relevant part of their corpora, however, is different from those in this article. More details will be provided later in the discussion section.

and texts, and paving the way for further research. In this study, several eccentricities are revealed.

In terms of the status of moves as obligatory, conventional, or optional, the present findings deviate from most of those previously reported (e.g. Ayers, 2008; Kanoksilapatham, 2009, 2013; Ren & Li, 2011; Saeew & Tangkiengsirisin, 2014; Santos, 1996; Suntara & Usaha, 2013). For example, M1 was either conventional or optional in most of the works cited, whereas it played a mainly conventional role in CE in this study. The same applies to M2, which surfaced in approximately 80% of those studies but are instantiated in almost 100% here. On the other hand, M4, the supposedly conventional, if not obligatory, move appears in only 78%-88% of the CE and EE abstracts analyzed. This contradicts the results of previous research, most of which indicated the occurrence of M4 at around 90%. A comparison with only studies dealing with science disciplines, i.e. civil engineering in Kanoksilapatham (2013), natural science in Oneplee (2008), and environmental science in Saeew & Tangkiengsirisin (2014), also makes clear that counter arguments on the grounds of interdisciplinary variations does not rule out such marked differences.

A logical question following from the foregoing discussion is to what factors those distinct dissimilarities can be attributed. Take M1 in CE as an example. A partial answer can be found in Orr (1999), who contends that unlike the traditional branches of engineering, computer engineering is a new field that is in the process of expanding and evolving. Shaw (2003, 726) also subscribes to this view, adding that for new fields with relatively little 'well-established research paradigms,' there is a need to establish the scope of a particular study, which is often not available even to the research community. These are probably some of the underlying mechanisms leading to the conventional status of M1 in this study, at least for CE. The question remains to be answered, however, as to why such standing of M1 is not also realized in a comparatively novel discipline like electrical engineering.

Another surprising result is that M4 is present in only 78% of the CE abstracts and 87% of the EE abstracts despite its significant role in many disciplines. The data alone suggest that the authors might have chosen to delay the presentation of the findings, perhaps to attract the audience to flip through the pages to that piece of

information. Alternatively, prominence given to different types of information may be a factor determining the degree to which M4 is substantiated in these two engineering sub-disciplines (Saeew & Tangkiengsirisin, 2014).

As regards move sequences, the results reported depart markedly from those of previous research. Kanoksilapatham (2009), for instance, investigated moves in the abstracts of articles in software engineering, a discipline closely related to computer engineering. She found that M3-M4-M5 was a likely sequence. Although the same canonical structure, i.e. M1-M2-[M3-M4-M5], is partly identified in both the CE and the EE abstracts, noticeable variations are also recognizable in at least two aspects. First, the traditional move sequence does not seem to be followed in this study with the total number of abstracts containing unconventional sequences greatly surpassing those structured in a conventional way. Similar findings were reported only in Ayers (2008), who found the prescribed five-move pattern in as little as 18% of his data.

Second, in Kanoksilapatham (2009) and others, the rhetorical sequence of the abstracts examined were comprised of two to five moves, contradicted by the six-, seven-, and eight-move sequences identified in the present study. On a superficial level, such a phenomenon seems to be inexplicable, but it is likely that rhetorical structures are varied for a reason that will be explicated below.

Turning now to move cycling, the present findings go along with those of a number of previous studies. Kanoksilapatham (2013) discovered in her examination of sixty civil engineering abstracts that M3, M4, M5, and M2 were cyclical in ten, eight, three, and two abstracts, respectively. Pho (2008) similarly found a few instances of move reiteration in thirty linguistics and applied linguistics abstracts in her data. Likewise, Saeew and Tangkiengsiri (2014) mentioned having located move cycling, although exclusively in environmental science abstracts. What distinguishes the results reported here from those in the works cited is the relatively high degree at which the cycling of moves is evident, nine times for M1, 38 times for M2, 58 times for M3, 46 times for M4, and five times for M5.

What, then, may account for this pervasive influence of cyclical patterning? According to Kanoksilapatham (2013), engineering, particularly civil engineering, is featured by series of experimental procedures generating different sets of output,

possibly resulting in a second or third mention of certain moves. This explains the somewhat frequent reiteration of M3 in this article. Also, the argument put forth by Orr (1999) and Shaw (2003) that computer engineering is a young discipline suggests that its rhetorical pattern may not be at a fully-fledged stage, displaying more variations than conformity and hence more frequent recycled moves. The last and perhaps more solid reason giving rise to move cycling lies in interface between syntax and semantics. Excerpts from the CE10 and the EE19 abstracts above are reproduced as an example.

... In this work, we investigate how mobility impacts EE and BE in a general framework of an LTEAdvanced network [M2]. First, we deploy a simple but practical mobility model to capture the track of the mobile devices. In particular, unlike previous works focusing on mobility velocity, which is difficult to obtain in practical mobile D2D systems, we deploy the parameter of device density to describe the device mobility [M3]. Next, we investigate the relationship between EE and BE in a mobile environment, and propose an EE-BE-aware scheduling scheme with a dynamic relay selection strategy that is flexible enough for making the transmission decision, including relay selection, rate allocation, and routing [M2]. Subsequently, through rigorous theoretical analysis [M3], we derive a precise EE-BE trade-off curve for any device density and achieve the condition to attain the optimal EE and BE simultaneously. Finally, numerical simulation results are provided [4] to validate the efficiency of the proposed scheduling scheme and the correctness of our analysis [M5]. [CE10]

... Such problems involve implicit assignments of linguistic truth, probability, and possibility [M1]. To begin, we establish the vocabularies of the words involved in the problems, and then collect data from subjects about the words after which fuzzy set models for the words are obtained by using the Interval Approach (IA) or the Enhanced Interval Approach (EIA). Next, the solutions of the ACWW problems, which involve the fuzzy set models of the words, are formulated using the Generalized Extension Principle [M3]. Because the solutions to those problems involve complicated functional optimization problems that cannot be solved analytically [M1], we then develop a numerical method for their solution. Finally, the resulting fuzzy set solutions are decoded into natural language words using Jaccard's similarity measure [M3]. We explain how ACWW problems can solve some potential prototype engineering problems and connect the methodology of this paper with Perceptual Computing [M5]. [EE19]

In CE10, M3 is syntactically integrated into M4 to derive a more encompassing meaning indicating how the results are achieved, leading to the recycling of M3. Likewise, in EE19, the conflation of M1 through a syntactic means highlights the importance of the implementation of M3, resulting in M1 being cyclical. Hypothetically, an incorporated move may be the cause of cycling itself, or may contribute to the cycling of another move, or both. Furthermore, although the examples above depict the merging of moves realized by dependent syntactic constructions, the insertion of independent ones is also possible (Pho, 2008; Saeew & Tangkiengsirisin, 2014). Whichever the case, such semantico-syntactic strategies interrupt the conventional single progression from M1 to M5, bringing about the peculiar and highly varied move sequences discussed earlier. Pho (2008) reported comparable findings, indicating that M3 was likely to be embedded in M2 or M4 due to its flexible syntactic realizations as a participial phrase or a noun phrase that can be adjoined to M2, M4, or even M5. This kind of move embedding (cf. Swales, 1990; Pho, 2008) and its complex interactions with move sequences and the overall rhetorical pattern of the abstract is an understudied area of investigation deserving more attention.

The last focus of this research is the emergence of a new rhetorical pattern. As pointed out in the previous section, sixteen abstracts, i.e. twelve in CE and four in EE, appear to amalgamate both the conventional moves of the abstract and the last optional move of RA introductions, 3D: indicating the structure of the research (Swales & Feak, 2004). This finding is relatively new and hence partially corroborated by only a few studies in the far-reaching evolution of abstract analysis, namely Ren & Li (2011) and Samraj (2005). The abstracts examined in Ren & Li (2011) were found to infuse what they referred to as the ‘structure’ move (p. 165). It should be noted, however, that the portion of their data exhibiting such a novel move differs sharply from that in the present article, involving thesis abstracts rather than RA ones. In regard to this, Dudley-Evans (1997) and Swales (1990, 2004) posit that in comparison with RA abstracts, thesis abstracts are characteristically longer and entail more structural complexities, an assertion that can account for the structure presentation in Ren & Li (2011) but not that in this study.

Samraj (2005), on the other hand, explored moves in environmental science abstracts of articles published in *Conservation Biology* and *Wildlife Behavior*, applying an innovative approach integrating both Swales' (1990) and Bhatia's (1993) frameworks in her analysis. She found that the abstracts in the two leading journals could be characterized by the centrality claim and the gap moves in Swales (1990). Specifically, centrality claims surfaced in seven abstracts in the former and one in the latter, while gaps were employed in six *Conservation Biology* abstracts and two *Wildlife Behavior* abstracts. It is worth noting that although her findings reflect the use of centrality claims and gaps, it should not be uncommon to find such constituents of RA introductions integrated in the abstract. A possible reason is that one function of the abstract is to enthruse the audience for readership of the accompanying article, and indicating the centrality of a study along with identifying a gap in the discipline is likely to serve that purpose. The driving force behind the incorporation of article structures found in the present data is perhaps a different one.

The data being considered alone, it may be postulated that presenting the structure of an article is a means to several ends. To begin with, as Kanoksilapatham (2013) notes, one discernible characteristic of engineering research is that it involves several cycles of experiments and results. Thus, structure presentation in the CE and EE abstracts may be deemed as an appropriate strategy to provide an overview of the whole article to help the audience decide its relevance. Alternatively, including such a constituent is likely regarded as a cognitive aid, easing getting through what would otherwise be a complicated reading task.

A last possibility is that the abstract with such a textual feature may be a constellation of individual variation or deliberate manipulation of the target genre. As Bhatia (2004) argues, genericity is not to be mistaken for universality; that is, although rhetorical structures are somehow governed by conventions, they are also subject to room for innovation. Similarly, Hyland (2012) contends that disciplinary practices are not shallowly followed but tactically interacted on, negotiated, co-constructed, and individualized by discourse members. Such a view is accentuated in Dressen-Hammouda (2008), who propounds that one goal for language learners is to be able to "use the conventions to develop their individual expression and make their own impact on the

discipline” (p. 155). Thus, the incorporation of article structures in or the flouting of the canonical structure of the abstract discussed earlier does not seem to take place out of all recognition but for a legitimate reason. Regardless of which interpretation is the case, if any, it remains clear that yet another pattern is emerging—outlining the structure of an article early in the abstract.

Conclusion

The discipline of genre analysis, especially that relating to a study of the textual patterns of RAs and related publications, has advanced dramatically since the 1980s, bringing to light fluid interrelationships between discourse communities, texts, and individuals. This study aims to reveal new findings concerning the status of different moves in the abstract, move sequences and move cycling, and the emergence of novel rhetorical organizations. The results seem to provide concrete evidence that variations figure prominently not only *across* but also *within* disciplines or even between closely-related sub-disciplines. In addition, the eccentric move sequences and the great number of move combinations found seem to underline the fact that conformity to the traditional five-move structure of the abstract is probably fading away into obscurity, at least in CE and EE, thereby rendering ascribing firmly to a particular organizational convention obsolete. Furthermore, move cycling appears to be abundant in the present data, a manifestation of both the effort to accomplish communicative purposes and the indistinguishable relationships between studies in genre and syntax. Finally, it seems that a new type of rhetorical make-up is surfacing in which the abstract embraces presentation of the structure of the accompanying article.

To conclude, genre knowledge is not a panacea solving scholarly writing problems once and for all (Flowerdew, 2000; Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998). Clinging to the belief that it is can lead to undesirable over-prescriptivism (Dudley-Evans, 1997). Thus, in spite of its pedagogical applications for novice writers, the conventional pattern should not be given as much emphasis (Dudley-Evans, 1997, 2000; Hyland, 2006) as how genre analysis can provide insights that help students to maintain a balance between observing discourse community conventions and expressing their own voices to secure

standing in their respective discipline (Bhatia, 1997; Dudley-Evans, 1997; Hyland, 2015).

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Biodata

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Authorial Stances in Classroom Speeches: A Corpus-Based Study

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Abstract

Corpus-based studies have become increasingly popular among researchers in the field of linguistics and language studies, as they may shed light on language instruction and course designs (Conrad, 1999). Given this emphasis, a corpus-based analysis on stances (Hyland, 2005) in students' classroom speeches has been employed. The analysis of a corpus of 104 undergraduate students' speech transcriptions reveals that students employed authorial stances in their speeches. Such results, however, only suggest that these stances were used subconsciously by the students, given that they have never been introduced to such a concept. It is then suggested that the concepts of authorial stances be introduced to Thai students so they may employ these linguistics items on a more strategic level and become more competent speakers and writers of English.

Keyword: authorial stance, hedge, booster, attitude marker, self-mention, public speaking, corpus, AntConc

การศึกษาคำแสดงจุดยืนผู้พูดในสุนทรพจน์ภายในห้องเรียน โดยใช้คลังข้อมูลภาษา

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บทคัดย่อ

การศึกษาโดยใช้คลังข้อมูลภาษาได้รับความนิยมเพิ่มขึ้นจากนักวิชาการด้านภาษาศาสตร์และนักวิชาการด้านภาษาเนื่องจากคลังข้อมูลภาษานั้นเป็นประโยชน์ต่อการเรียนการสอนภาษาและการออกแบบหลักสูตรทางภาษา (Conrad, 1999) และด้วยเหตุนี้ งานวิจัยนี้จึงใช้คลังข้อมูลภาษาในการศึกษาคำแสดงจุดยืนผู้พูด (Hyland, 2005) ในสุนทรพจน์ของนักศึกษาในระดับปริญญาตรี โดยการศึกษาคลังข้อมูลภาษาที่ได้จากการถอดคำพูดจากสุนทรพจน์ของนักศึกษาระดับปริญญาตรีจำนวน 104 สุนทรพจน์ได้แสดงให้เห็นว่า นักศึกษาทุกคนในกลุ่มตัวอย่างได้ใช้คำแสดงจุดยืนผู้พูดในสุนทรพจน์ของตน อย่างไรก็ตาม เนื่องจากนักศึกษาเหล่านี้ไม่เคยได้เรียนรู้ถึงหลักการของคำแสดงจุดยืนผู้พูด ผลการวิจัยดังกล่าวนี้จึงเพียงแสดงให้เห็นว่านักศึกษาในกลุ่มตัวอย่างใช้คำแสดงจุดยืนเหล่านี้โดยไม่รู้ตัว งานวิจัยนี้จึงเสนอให้มีการรวมหลักการของคำแสดงจุดยืนผู้พูดเข้าไปในหลักสูตรด้วย เพื่อให้ นักศึกษาไทยสามารถพูดและเขียนภาษาอังกฤษได้มีประสิทธิภาพยิ่งขึ้น

คำสำคัญ: สัมพันธสาร คำแสดงจุดยืน สุนทรพจน์ ตัวชี้แนะทางบริบท คลังข้อมูลภาษา

Introduction

Statement of the Research Problem

English public speaking skills are essential and need to be promoted among Thai students. Boyce, Alber-Morgan & Riley as well as Hefferin (as cited in Johnson, 2012) have claimed that such skills benefit students in their academic studies and, since employers tend to expect their potential employees to possess these skills, are vital to their future careers. Despite the considerable amount of effort devoted to the teaching and learning of English skills, there has been limited success among students in Thailand (Hayes, 2016). It is then important to address the issue of how English skills, public speaking in particular, are taught and fostered.

The traditional methods tend to focus mainly on ‘what to say’ or ‘what should be said’, and the order in which each element should appear in the speech. Students are taught the techniques of how to begin and end a speech effectively so that the speech leaves an impact on the listeners. Further attention is also paid to the use of certain discourse markers and phrases that give the speech its fluency, such as signposts (e.g., first, second, finally), internal preview (e.g., we will discuss, next we will talk about), and internal summary (e.g., so far we have discussed, now that we have learned).

Regardless of these aspects addressed in public speaking teaching, students in the sample group were unaware of the authorial stances they use subconsciously when delivering their prepared speeches in class. This also suggests that there has been little attention on addressing the linguistic items of authorial stances as part of the teaching curriculum. It is proposed that once the students are introduced to these linguistic items to the extent that they can use them strategically, it might impact the way speeches are written and delivered.

Moreover, corpus-based studies have grown in popularity among researchers, especially those in the linguistic fields. These studies may shed light on how language instructors should design the appropriate tools for instructions (Conrad, 1999). Given this emphasis, a corpus-based analysis on authorial stances in speech genres is needed.

With the stated problem, this study will be helpful in promoting the awareness of authorial stances among undergraduate speech givers. It will introduce such concepts to

the students and highlight the effect authorial stances have on their speech construction. Students may benefit from this study in terms of how they construct and organize their speech. In turn, instructors of related subjects may advance this knowledge in future curriculum development. Also, there might be a significant difference when authorial stances are employed more strategically.

Review of Related Literature

Empirical evidence has shown that a considerable number of studies have investigated authorial stances in an academic context. According to Hyland (2005), authors express themselves, their judgments, and commitments to a particular topic, establish authority or hide involvements through the use of so-called authorial stances. Authorial stances, according to Hyland (2005) are divided into four main categories: boosters, hedges, attitude markers, and self-mentions.

Hedges:

Probably among the most popular stances in investigation, ‘hedges’ may be described as buffers. Hedges lessen the commitments that are put on a claim; in other words, they give the readers, or listeners, the chance to disagree and argue.

According to Hyland (1998, 2005), hedges – also often referred to as ‘down toners’, ‘under-staters’, ‘mitigators’, and ‘downgraders’ (Silver, 2003), and stance markers of degree of uncertainty (Uccelli, Dobbs & Scott, 2013) – convey the authors’ reluctant desire not to be completely committed to the claim being made, open discursive spaces that render the readers the opportunity to dispute, convey respect to the viewpoints of others, and mark a statement provisional. In a similar way, Aull and Lancaster (2014) suggested that hedges are numerous linguistic devices that can be used to decrease epistemic commitment, as well as to extend the discursive space.

Silver (2003) and Vázquez and Giner (2009) added that hedges express doubts and tentativeness of a statement, and specifically in academic writing, hedges protect the writers from attacks that may occur due to giving too strong assertions.

In addition, Aull and Lancaster (2014) categorized in their study on *‘Stance Markers in Early and Advanced Academic Writing’* a type of hedging device called ‘self-mention hedges’. They are, unlike self-mentions that only indicate the authors

mentioning themselves, linguistic devices used when the authors engage themselves in the effort to ‘hedge’ a statement or a claim. These hedges are phrases like ‘from my experience’, ‘I think’, and ‘to my knowledge’. They are meant to lessen the commitments by stating that the authors themselves are ‘unsure’ or only suggesting things based on their personal knowledge and experiences, and are not explicitly pointing out that something is true or untrue.

Boosters:

On the other end of the continuum, boosters, or ‘overstaters’, ‘intensifiers’, and ‘emphasizers’ (Silver, 2003), or ‘emphatics’ and ‘strengtheners’ (Abdollahzadeh, 2011; Dobakhti, 2013), serve as devices that ‘boost’, strengthen, and enhance the claim an author is making. They can present the authors as being more credible and knowledgeable about the subject matters and are very essential in the authors’ attempts to convince or persuade the readers with data presented as backups (Vázquez & Giner, 2009).

Boosters serve as devices that can convey conviction and assurance, express and assert certainty, and emphasis and indicate involvements and solidarity (Hyland, 2000, 2005; Silver, 2003). In addition, Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, Finegan & Quirk, and Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik (as cited in Aull & Lancaster, 2014) as well as Hyland (2005) all mentioned that boosters are usually realized through the use of amplifying or intensifying adverbs, ‘absolutely’, for instance. In a similar way, Dobakhti (2013) defines boosters as words that signal the writer’s assurance of the statement that is being claimed. Macintyre (2013) also adds that boosters may come in the form of a single word, like ‘actually’, and it can sometimes be in the form of a phrase as in ‘it is obvious that’.

Because the functions of hedges and boosters are somewhat correlating, many researchers tend to regard these two as a pair of epistemic stances to be investigated alongside one another.

Attitude Markers:

The next type of authorial stance researchers are interested in is attitude marker. As the name suggests, these linguistic devices are utilized to ‘mark’ the ‘attitudes’ the authors hold towards certain subjects, phenomena, claims, or statements. Attitude markers also bring with them the sense of evaluation, such as an author may evaluate a claim as being ‘surprising’, or ‘interesting’.

Attitude marker, or ‘affective stance’ (Tracy, 2011), not only allow authors to convey attitudes, surprise, agreement, importance, and frustration, but they also lure readers down into the “conspiracy of agreement”, making it more difficult to argue (Hyland, 2005). It is defined as pragmatic connectives that allow authors to express their affective values (Abdollahzadeh, 2011). They reveal the authors’ personal evaluation towards the subject matter or the issues being discussed (Adams & Quintana-Toledo, 2013). Duenas (2010) adds to this notion by suggesting that, through the use of attitude markers that convey proper stance, scholarly authors have the necessity to make explicit their stances towards their claims and towards their readers so as to appear convincingly credible and their findings valid.

Self-Mentions:

The last type of stance concerned in this present study is self-mention. Self-mentions are generally the authors ‘mentioning’ themselves in the text, or in this case of study, in the speech. It is generally the use of the first personal pronouns: I, and we. The absence or presence of self-mentions depends on the authors’ own conscious decisions in terms of creating an ‘authorial identity’ (Hyland, 2005), or ‘personae’ (Martin & White, 2005), or persona (Hyland, 1998; Vázquez & Giner, 2009). Many speakers may consciously prefer the use of self-mentions in their speeches, as to create the aforementioned authorial identity or personae.

Since traditional academic writing practices, especially those in scientific disciplines, have dictated the writers to write in the most objective manner, the appropriateness of subjectivity through the inclusion of the first personal pronoun “I” remains a debated issue and highly controversial (Hyland, 2001). As Albert Einstein (as cited in Hyland, *ibid*) stated, “When a man is talking about scientific subjects, the little

word ‘I’ should play no part in his expositions”. In the same study, Hyland (ibid.) noted that students are taught in academic writing classes that the use of the first personal pronoun ‘I’ be dropped, yet it still plays a prominent role in allowing the writers to be perceived as an idea originator. He, as well as Harwood (2005), also suggested that ‘self-citation’ or simply put, referencing one’s own previous work, is an additional and possibly the most apparent form of self-mention.

Certain studies have been conducted in devotion to the use of stance in the written discourse (e.g., Aull & Lancaster, 2014; Chang & Schleppegrell, 2011; Hyland, 2001; Tang & John, 1999). However, in the sphere of spoken discourse, stances are often investigated under the concept of self-mentions. For instance, the pronoun ‘we’ was examined in the Michigan Corpus of Spoken Academic English (Fortanet, 2004), and pronouns employed to create a speaker’s stance in Javanese (Manns, 2012).

Researchers have also addressed self-mentions in the form of a pronoun adjacent to another stance type, for example, self-mention hedges (Aull & Lancaster, 2014), the self-repair functions of ‘I mean’ (Fernández-Polo, 2014), and the stance-taking in arguments of blog discussions (Myers, 2010).

Noteworthy is the study conducted by Biber in 2006. In that particular study, authorial stances were examined comparatively in a university written and spoken register. It was revealed that stances were far more common in the spoken academic register, compared to that of the written counterpart. The results here are understandable, due to the nature of speech whereby one tends to address oneself.

In the Thai context, few studies have addressed the issue of authorial stances in the spoken context. Contributions towards the study of authorial stances in the Thai context can, however, be illustrated by the study conducted by Sukhanindr (2008). The study, though conducted from a written academic discourse perspective, has contributed to the pool of academic knowledge by revealing that Thai authors tend to hedge less than English native speaker authors. She linked this result to the educational system in Thailand that results in the knowledge of lexical choices among the Thai authors being limited. Further investigation may be needed to determine whether or not this assertion holds true to speech related context in Thailand.

Other related studies in the literature regarding authorial stances include stances in classrooms contexts (Lee & Subtirelu, 2015), epistemic stances in classroom discussions (Kirkham, 2011), as well as gender-based analysis of speech in public contexts (Baxter, 2002).

Despite the considerable research that has been devoted to authorial stances and their related implications, rather less attention has been paid to the use of authorial stances in a public speaking classroom's speech genres, specifically at the Thai undergraduate study level. Further, their relations to speech constructions and organizations have not been fully addressed.

Purpose of the Study

By employing the model on Hyland's (2005) authorial stances, this study is therefore designed to address the issues of authorial stances in relation to the Thai undergraduate classroom speeches. It will examine to what extent Thai undergraduate students use authorial stances in their speech delivered in a classroom setting. The specific objective of the present paper is to explore the types of authorial stance used in speeches delivered in an undergraduate classroom setting of a public speaking class

Research Questions

- 1) What are the types of authorial stances found in speeches delivered in an undergraduate level public speaking class?
- 2) What are the most frequently used stance types in each category?

Methodology

Samples and Population:

The population of this study is 60 third and fourth year undergraduate students in the Bachelor of Arts program, majoring in Business English, at an international university in Thailand. These students were enrolled in the Major Requirement Course, Public Speaking, during semester 1/2014. Using the random sampling method, a sample size of 26 students was selected. Each student delivered four speeches, resulting in 104 speeches in total. The speeches were not impromptu, but prepared speeches of approximately five to seven minutes. Topics of the speech are based on freely open

propositions, with the instructor's approval. The topics may or may not affect the degree of authorial stances used.

The Corpus:

The data was collected by videotaping the speeches delivered in class. In addressing the ethical issues, consent that the videotaping will be utilized for further academic uses has already been asked. The students whose speeches were used in this study will remain anonymous.

The speeches, four from each student, 104 speeches in total, were then transcribed into plain text documents to create the corpus of this study. The corpus consists of 63,661 words in total.

Instrument:

A concordance program called AntConc, a freeware concordance program that allows researchers to extract the frequencies of a specific linguistic item found in the corpus, which includes tools for lexical bundle analysis and word distribution plot, was used.

The data was input into AntConc as plain text. The program then searched for the occurrences of the specified authorial stances. The frequency of each specific word was normalized (per 1000 words) for further comparisons. Table 1 shows the linguistic items under each authorial stance category investigated in this study. These linguistic devices commonly appeared and were classified in the studies of Duenas (2010), and Hyland (1998, 2000). Only self-mention hedge was adapted from Aull and Lancaster (2014).

After eliciting the frequencies of each particular linguistic item, PASW Statistics, statistical analysis software, was used to normalize the frequencies and generate the means value respectively. Furthermore, to ensure the accuracy of the data, the author manually rechecked the linguistic items elicited from the software in their contexts. This was to confirm that the items found were functioning as authorial stances in the discourse.

Data Analysis:

In answering the research questions, the corpus of transcribed spoken speeches was input into the concordance program, AntConc, to elicit the occurrences of each type

of authorial stances. The means, standard deviations, and frequencies were used to analyze the data. The author also manually checked the words in their contexts to confirm that they are functioning as boosters, hedges, attitude markers, and self-mentions.

Table 1 List of Authorial Stances Investigated, based on (Aull & Lancaster, 2014; Duenas, 2010; Hyland, 1998, 2000)

Boosters	
Verbs	<i>believe / be going to / claim / confirm / demonstrate / find / highlight / know / realize / reveal / show that / show</i>
Adjectives	<i>certain / clear / considerable / demonstrable / definite / evident noticeable / obvious / significant / sure / true</i>
Adverbs	<i>accurately / actually / always / certainly / clearly / completely considerably / definitely / entirely / especially / essentially / extremely / fully / greatly / heavily / highly / indeed / in fact / necessarily / never / noticeably / obviously / of course / overly / particularly / really / significantly / so / strongly / substantially / surely / too / truly / very / vividly / wholly</i>
Modals	<i>must / ought to / should / will</i>
Nouns	<i>certainty / fact / significance</i>
Hedges	
Verbs	<i>appear / assume / guess / hypothesize / indicate / seem / speculate / suggest / suppose / tend</i>
Adjectives	<i>plausible / possible / potential / relative / some / typical / uncertain / unclear / unsure</i>
Adverbs	<i>about / almost / apparently / approximately / around / broadly / commonly / doubtful / fairly / frequently / generally / in general / in most cases / in some cases / in some ways / largely / likely / maybe / mostly / normally / often / on some occasion / overall / perhaps / possibly / potentially / predominantly / presumably / primarily / probably / quite / rather / relatively / roughly / seemingly / sometimes / somewhat / to some degree / to some extent / typically / uncertainly / unclearly / unlikely / usually</i>
Nouns	<i>assumption / hypothesis / indication / possibility / tendency</i>
Modals	<i>can / could / may / might / would</i>
Self-Mention hedges	<i>from my (own) experience / from my (own) perspective I think / in my opinion / in my view / to my knowledge</i>
Attitude Markers	
Verbs	<i>contribute / deserve / ensure / extend / expand / fail / lack / support</i>

Adjectives	<i>adequate / better / best / central / complex / comprehensive / confident / consistent / core / critical / crucial / dangerous / difficult / easy / effective / essential / fundamental / good / great / hard / hopeful / important / influential / interesting / limited / main / major / meaningful / key / necessary / narrow / new / poor / primary / problematic / promising / reasonable / significant / serious / strict / sufficient / suggestive / tremendous / true / unique / useful / valid / well known / worthwhile</i>
Adverbs	<i>critically / importantly / interestingly / only / surprisingly / truly / usefully / uniquely / unfortunately</i>
Nouns	<i>absence / caution / contribution / limitation / importance / insight / support</i>
Self-Mentions	
Subjective	<i>I / we (exclusive only)</i>
Objective	<i>me / us (exclusive only)</i>
Possessive	<i>mine / my / our / ours</i>
Reflexive	<i>myself / ourselves (exclusive only)</i>

Results

The four types of authorial stance concerned in this study, namely booster, hedge, attitude marker, and self-mention, were all found in the corpus of speeches delivered by undergraduate level students in a public speaking class. The sub-categories of each stance type occurred at least once throughout the corpus. The detailed descriptive statistics are presented in Tables 2 to 5

Table 2 Averages of Boosters

Booster	Minimum	Maximum	\bar{X}	SD
Adjectives	.00	5.12	0.76	1.22
Adverbs	.00	49.57	17.98	10.23
Modals	.00	45.05	11.93	9.55
Nouns	.00	4.35	0.19	0.72
Verbs	.00	28.90	7.10	5.04

According to Table 2, all sub-categories of boosters are present in the corpus. By comparing the means, it is evident that booster adverbs ($M = 17.98$, $SD = 10.22$) are the most frequently used, followed by booster modals ($M = 11.93$, $SD = 9.55$) as the second most frequently used when compared to the other types of boosters. Booster nouns ($M =$

0.19, SD = 0.72) are, on the other hand, the least employed by the speakers in the corpus, with a maximum number of occurrences of 4.35 times per 1000 words.

Hedges are divided into six different sub-categories, as shown in Table 3. Hedge modals (M = 17.92, SD = 9.59) are ranked first among other types of hedges, with hedge adverbs (M = 10.25, SD = 6.83) as the second most frequently used item. Like boosters, hedge nouns (M = 0.03, SD = 0.16) are the least employed by the speakers in the corpus, appearing only 1.01 times per 1000 words throughout the corpus.

Table 3 Averages of Hedges

Hedge	Minimum	Maximum	\bar{X}	SD
Adjectives	.00	12.88	2.53	2.74
Adverbs	.00	34.65	10.25	6.83
Modals	3.10	45.20	17.92	9.59
Nouns	.00	1.01	0.03	0.16
Self-Mentions	.00	9.55	1.12	1.99
Verbs	.00	5.26	0.47	1.07

Table 4 shows the average frequencies of attitude markers, classified by its sub-categories, appearing in the corpus. Attitude marker adjectives (M = 9.29, SD = 5.87) are among the most frequently used items in this particular stance type. Consistent with boosters and hedges, attitude marker nouns (M = 0.08, SD = 0.36) are the least used throughout the corpus, appearing up to 2.12 times per 1000 words in the corpus.

Table 4 Averages of Attitude Markers

Attitude Marker	Minimum	Maximum	\bar{X}	SD
Adjectives	.00	35.39	9.29	5.87
Adverbs	.00	8.81	1.50	2.18
Nouns	.00	2.12	0.08	0.36
Verbs	.00	9.72	0.41	1.24

For self-mentions, the subjective first person singular pronoun ‘I’ (M= 18.69, SD = 11.96) is the most frequently used. The exclusive ‘we’ (M = 0.66, SD = 5.5) is also found in the corpus. The reflexive form (M = 0.21, SD = 0.73) is only found up to 4.25 times per 1000 words (see Table 5).

Table 5 Averages of Self-Mentions

Self-Mention	Minimum	Maximum	\bar{X}	SD
Subjective (I)	1.58	82.01	18.69	11.96
Objective	.00	14.08	3.27	3.24
Possessive	.00	47.62	5.23	6.01
Reflexive	.00	4.25	0.21	0.73
Exclusive We	.00	55.34	0.66	5.50

Discussion

The types of authorial stances found in the speeches delivered in an undergraduate level public speaking class were boosters, hedges, attitude markers, and self-mentions. As previously noted, all four types of authorial stances concerned in this present investigation were found in the corpus. Previous research (e.g. Biber, 2006; Tracy, 2011) have also found such stances in the spoken discourse. It should be noted that the use of the self-mention “I” was the most frequent among other stance types in the corpus.

It should also be noted that in spoken speech of this sample group – although students tend to memorize the speech – the use of the self-mention “I” may be more necessary when compared to the usage in written discourse, in which academic convention discourages the use of the self-mention “I”. When the speakers are attempting to get the message across, it may be more effective to employ the self-mention “I”, making the message more personal and therefore positioning themselves into the discourse.

Given that the instructor of the public speaking course in this investigation allowed no script to be used when delivering the speech, it is typical that mistakes in the

speech did occur. In correcting such mistakes, speakers employed the self-mention “I” to perform the role of self-repairs (Fernández-Polo, 2014), contributing to the number of “I”s found in the corpus as shown in example (1).

- (1) ***I will** say that everyone in this society of the world can be compared to the picture, **I'm sorry I mean** drawing.*

The result showing self-mention (subjective ‘I’) as the most frequently used stance in the corpus is in line with Lee and Subtirelu (2015), who also found in their study that the first personal pronoun ‘I’ was more frequently used than the exclusive ‘we’. The present study found that the exclusive ‘we’ was used by only four speakers, whereas all 26 speakers did make use of the personal pronoun ‘I’. Such findings are also similar to that of Fortanet (2004), who found that the use of ‘we’ was of lower frequency than that of ‘I’ in the spoken discourse.

The present study found a few instances of the use of the exclusive ‘we’, one of which can be considered as performing the representative function of the self-mention (Tang & John, 1999), realized through the use of the exclusive ‘we’ to represent a group of people as shown in example (2).

- (2) *“In Chiang Mai **we** have a lot tourist attraction, like [...] this is the [...] and [...]. And if you compare to, and **we** also have the historic site that tell our long story, unlike Phuket, **they** have only sea for sightseeing. This flowers, can you see in Phuket? No **they** don't have it. And **we** have the mountain which is the tallest mountain in Thailand.”*

The speaker in the text sample tried to persuade her audience that travelling in Chiang Mai is better than travelling in Phuket. She gives specific details of the tourist attractions, using the exclusive ‘we’ to refer to people of Chiang Mai and herself, who is also from Chiang Mai, although the audience is not from Chiang Mai. This example is rather clear, as separation in the use of pronouns is presented. The speaker referred to the people of Phuket as ‘they’, discriminating herself as not being a part of those in Phuket, in her discourse.

Furthermore, adverbs were the most frequent type of booster, whereas modals were the most frequent type of hedge, and adjectives were the most frequently used form of attitude marker.

Examples from the corpus showed that most booster adverbs were realized through the use of lexical items, such as ‘really’ and ‘very’. It is important to consider that, in the Thai educational system, Thai students were taught a very limited number of words, giving them limited lexical choices, as suggested by Sukhanindr (2008). As a result, the only available lexical items for the students when attempting to boost their claim may be restricted to these two common adverbs. The use of booster nouns, for instance, to emphasize a claim or statement was considerably rare in the corpus as shown in example (3).

- (3) *Yes, and basically this feature makes the game really realistic, and makes it really live.*

Modal verbs for hedges, on the other hand, were the most frequently used. It may be due to the same reason as suggested by Sukhanindr (2008) that the students were familiar with few word choices. Therefore, the common modal verbs, ones such as ‘may’, and ‘can’, were repeatedly used in the corpus as shown in example (4).

- (4) *...your new shoes, new bags it can show that how luxury your lifestyle is it can make you look rich...*

Lastly, it is not surprising that adjectives were the most frequently used form of attitude marker. As suggested by Abdollahzadeh (2011) and Adam and Quintana-toledo (2013), attitude markers were mainly used to express the author’s, in this particular case, the speaker’s attitudes, affective values, or personal evaluation towards the subject matter. As Thai students are somewhat familiar with the use of adjectives in modifying a noun, giving it values such as ‘good’, or ‘bad’, attitude marker adjectives were the most frequently used in this type of stance. This may also be because students in this sample group have never been taught how to evaluate or express personal judgments towards a subject through the verbal realizations of evaluative nouns; for example, they tend to employ only adjectives when they need to show evaluations as shown in example (5).

- (5) *And it is a good idea to take a lot of picture and be creative and move around and see which is better for each plate.*

In addition, attitude markers were the least employed by the speakers in the corpus as a whole. This is also consistent with Lee and Subtirelu (2015), who also stated that spoken discourse does not require much use of attitude markers because other paralinguistic features, especially the tone, the pitch, and the speed of voice, have already signaled attitudes towards the subject spoken. Therefore, the verbal realizations of attitudes are not as necessary in spoken discourse as they are in written discourse, where these paralinguistic features are missing.

Conclusion

As the empirical findings of this investigation suggest, authorial stances, namely boosters, hedges, attitude markers, and self-mentions, are parts of the Thai students' vocabulary repertoire.

It is important to note that, as can be expected, the self-mention "I" was the most frequently used stance in the corpus, whereas attitude markers were the least employed. Possible reasons may be that the speakers need to position themselves into the discourse, resulting in the considerable implementation of "I" to establish a persona (Hyland, 1998; Vazquer & Giner, 2009) in the discourse. On the other hand, attitude markers were not as necessary because attitudes or personal judgments towards the subject matter have already been expressed through the various paralinguistic features (e.g., the tone of voice), and other bodily movements (Lee & Subtirelu, 2015).

Furthermore, noteworthy was the fact that booster adverbs and hedge modals were found almost equally frequent. It is an assumption that the speakers require a certain level of credibility (Vazquer & Giner, 2009) while at the same time need to open certain spaces for the listeners to dispute in the discourse (Aull & Lancaster, 2014).

The empirical findings from this study suggest that authorial stances are employed by undergraduate students, despite the fact that the topic has never been a part of the lesson plan. This also suggests that the use of authorial stances may not be as strategically employed as they should be. The author proposes that the topic be introduced in an academic manner to students of public speaking courses alongside other

linguistic features that are already being taught (e.g., logical markers and verbal signposts) so that they employ the stances strategically in the future, allowing themselves to make optimal use of their speech.

Furthermore, educating Thai students of these authorial stances may increase their range of lexical choices under each category of stances. As also suggested by Sukhanindr (2008), students in the corpus of this investigation tend to employ the same few words they are accustomed to, diminishing the potential to expand their styles of speech development. By introducing such topics to Thai students, they may become more competent speakers of English in the future.

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Appendix:

Sample from the Corpus

(All grammatical mistakes are kept as is)

[...] lady and gentlemen. Today I'm going to talk about the signs of lying. And the topic is "How can you tell when boyfriend or girlfriend is lying to you". alright, let me start with a question, "Have your boyfriend or girlfriend ever lied to you, or even you ever lied to them?" just keep your answer in mind, I I really don't wanna know. Umm, I actually got got the inspiration from a tv show called lie to me. In this show, there are experts of lying. They can tell right away that the person they are talking to is telling the truth or lying. And it really impress me, so after I watch this show, I google it, and, yeah, it's my inspiration. And of course, it's also from my own experience. Umm, I chose three major of technique that can tell you the person you are talking to are lying to you or not. It's very simple and easy that you can do it. Umm, first, lack of eye contact. One of the classic sign that I believe most of you know. If someone is telling the truth, ah, he or she is likely to give full attention to you. they can look look right to your eye without avoiding eye contact, and maybe too much eye contact. Sometimes liars are aware, they kind of paranoid that you'll catch them, you will know that they are not making enough eye contact. So they give you too much eye contact. It's kind of creepy when it happens. I try this most of the time when I ask my boyfriend a question, and it work, but just sometimes because not everyone can, umm, good at making eye contact, because some some someone they're not comfortable with looking right at people's eye. So let's move to the second sign. They will get mad easily when you ask them the same question for many times. For example, from my own experience, I used to ask my boyfriend question like "did you skip class today?". And for the first and second time he said no. but I didn't believe him. I think he's lying to me. And I wanted him to tell me the truth. So I kept asking him with the same question for like four or five times. And, in the end he said "Whatever you think" with a loud noise. And he said, umm "If you don't believe me so don't ask". And I was like, alright you don't have, you really don't have to say that loud, it's okay. And then we end up fight. And for the last sign, there was too much detail for their story. Cuz they are fake that you know that they are lying. And so they have to make so much detail, unnecessary detail to to make their story more believable. And they will say that over and over again with no point, and sometimes they change the subject. And the detail they making, it's, sometimes it doesn't have anything to do with the question you ask. And in conclusion, lying is not always bad because, you know for like, white lie. White lie is just a lie that you, you lie for comfort other people's feelings, and I hope you find my presentation useful for you and it's really easy. I hope you can do it, adapt to your daily life, thank you.

Biodata

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Using Reader's Theater to Develop Reading Fluency among Thai EFL Students

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Abstract

Reading fluency is a crucial factor for becoming a successful reader as it strongly correlates with comprehension. Fluency in reading is characterized by reading rate, accuracy, phrasing, and prosodic features. Reader's Theater (RT) is one of the instructional methods that has been reported to help improve fluency as well as incentivize readers. The study aims to investigate the effect of RT on the reading fluency of Thai EFL university students. During the RT intervention, 38 first-year students read two scripts of the same story, and gave a performance for each. A Fluency Rubric was used to assess their reading performances. Scores gained from the rubric were to indicate their improvement from the first to the second performance. The data revealed that the students' fluency improved over the six weeks of the RT intervention. Particularly, Phrasing is the area in which the students improved the most. The results also suggested that the students regarded RT as a fun activity and agreed that they became more confident in reading.

Keywords: Reader's Theater, reading fluency, L2 reading, reading instruction

การใช้ Reader's Theater เพื่อพัฒนาความคล่องแคล่วในการอ่าน ของนักเรียนไทยที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศ

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บทคัดย่อ

ความคล่องแคล่วในการอ่าน เป็นปัจจัยสำคัญต่อการเป็นผู้อ่านที่ประสบความสำเร็จ เนื่องจากมีความสัมพันธ์อย่างใกล้ชิดกับความเข้าใจในการอ่าน ความคล่องแคล่วในการอ่านประกอบไปด้วย ความรวดเร็วในการอ่าน ความถูกต้องของการอ่าน การเว้นวรรคตอนในการอ่าน และน้ำเสียงในการอ่าน Reader's Theater (RT) เป็นเครื่องมือในการสอนที่มีผู้พบว่าสามารถช่วยพัฒนาความคล่องแคล่วในการอ่าน รวมทั้งสร้างแรงจูงใจให้ผู้อ่านได้ งานวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์ในการศึกษาผลของ RT ต่อความคล่องแคล่วในการอ่านของนักศึกษาชาวไทยระดับมหาวิทยาลัย โดยให้นักศึกษาจำนวน 38 คน อ่านบทละครสองบทจากเรื่องเดียวกัน และแสดงการอ่านออกเสียงของแต่ละบทละคร เกณฑ์การให้คะแนนความคล่องแคล่วเป็นเครื่องมือที่ใช้วัดผลการอ่าน โดยคะแนนที่เพิ่มขึ้นจะเป็นสิ่งชี้วัดพัฒนาการของการอ่านครั้งที่หนึ่งจนถึงครั้งที่สอง ผลการศึกษาพบว่า ความคล่องแคล่วในการอ่านของนักศึกษาพัฒนาขึ้นในช่วง 6 สัปดาห์ของการใช้ RT โดยเฉพาะในด้านการเว้นวรรคตอนในการอ่าน ผลการศึกษายังพบว่า นักศึกษามีความเห็นว่า RT เป็นกิจกรรมที่สนุกสนานและสร้างความมั่นใจในการอ่าน

คำสำคัญ: ริดเดอร์ เธียเตอร์, ความคล่องแคล่วในการอ่าน, การอ่านในภาษาที่สอง, การสอนการอ่าน

Introduction

The role of the English language has long been recognized among Thai educators as the important lingua franca. The purpose of learning English has extended beyond mere communication; it is an essential skill for business success and educational advancement. Over the past decade, English has been incorporated into the core curriculum, and is recognized as the most important foreign language that constitutes basic learning content (Office of the Basic Education Commission, 2008).

With the growing number of international schools and the public schools' English Programs throughout the nation, where English is made a compulsory subject, it is apparent that Thai students have been learning English as early as the primary level (Kitjaroonchai & Kitjaroonchai, 2012). However, according to the recent results of English tests administered by National Institute of Educational Testing Service (NIETS) in 2011 (as cited in Kitjaroonchai & Kitjaroonchai, 2012), Thai students from grade 6 to grade 12 exhibited very low mean scores demonstrating a twist of their English proficiency despite learning the language since an early age.

A growing number of Thai educators have started to consider the effectiveness of the English language instruction as well as cultural factors that may contribute to pedagogical challenges. In terms of the English instruction, Biyaem (as cited in Rajeevnath, 2015) mentioned that the number of students per class, which is usually around 50-60, is responsible for the ineffectiveness of learning, let alone the inadequate technology and resources available to them. According to Wongsothorn, Hiranburana & Chinnawong as well as Foley (as cited in Rajeevnath, 2015), traditional instruction is also inauthentic since it is characterized by separated grammar lessons that usually consist of decontextualized sentences. In addition, being a highly collectivist and hierarchy-driven society is a cultural factor that affects the proficiency of the English instruction (Rajeevnath, 2015). As the country promotes the Thai language as part of its proud identity, the fact that the English proficiency of the majority is low is not regarded as serious. Due to social hierarchy, students are usually discouraged from asking questions to teachers since the latter are superior, and doing so would be considered inappropriate.

Given that the effectiveness of English instruction in Thai EFL context is constantly investigated, a number of studies address problems of the reading skills among Thai EFL learners. Reading English has been a struggle for many students since the early stages of learning English. Poor reading skills render some students frustrated not only in studying English but also other subjects, especially science and engineering, of which the source materials are mostly written in English (Oranpattanachai, 2010; Chawwang, 2008). Despite several reading strategies that have been proposed by researchers in an attempt to help learners cope with reading difficulties (e.g. Noicharoen, 2012; Siriphanich & Laohawiriyanon, 2010; Chawwang, 2008), the root of the problem may be the fact that reading is not culturally significant for Thais.

When it comes to reading in L2, inadequate reading habits usually lead to inadequate exposure to vocabulary and sentence structures. According to Aebersold (2001), reading in L2 requires practice as the more frequently the reader sees the word, the faster and shorter time he will recognize it.

That being said, ease of lexical access and effortlessness in word recognition characterize reading fluency. Despite having been neglected in teaching instruction, reading fluency has been brought into the spotlight since the National Reading Panel of the United States issued the five essential reading components, namely 1) *Phonemic awareness*: the knowledge of individual sounds that create words, 2) *Phonics*: the understanding of the relationship between symbols (letters) and spoken sounds to decode words, 3) *Vocabulary*: the knowledge of words, their meaning and context, 4) *Fluency*: the ability to read at an appropriate rate, phrasing, accuracy, and expression, and 5) *Comprehension*: the understanding of meaning of the text, acquired by reading strategies (National Reading Panel, 2000; Tindall & Nisbet, 2010).

Considering fluency as a bridge that connects word recognition to comprehension, fluency has triggered interest among educators and researchers. Quite a number of studies agree that fluency in reading is a key to becoming a successful and competent reader (Rasinski & Padak, 2000; Taguchi, Takayasu-Mass & Gorsuch, 2004; Trainin & Andrzejczak, 2006).

Concerning EFL reading instruction in Thailand, English is administered from the first grade. Despite phonemic/phonetic awareness, and the ability to accurately read

aloud various types of texts being identified as one of a learner's qualities (Office of the Basic Education Commission, 2008), fluency in reading is still absent from the core curriculum. Currently, there are few empirical studies investigating reading fluency among Thai EFL learners (e.g. Tamrackitkun, 2010). Given this, fluency is seemingly an unfamiliar concept to educators in Thailand. Inasmuch as traditional reading instruction puts a lot of emphasis on strategies to help learners tackle the comprehension of the text, it does not provide much opportunity for learners to revisit the text, nor to read extensively outside of the classroom. According to Singtui (as cited in Siriphanich & Laohawiriyanon, 2010; Chawwang, 2008), given that reading skills are a struggle for many Thai EFL learners due to lack of reading in itself and their low motivation to read fluency instruction needs to be given attention and developed hand in hand with other instructional methods.

Among several instructional strategies used to develop learners' fluency, readers' theater (RT) has garnered popularity among instructors and researchers. RT requires students to read a script in a group. Much like staged plays, students have to interpret their characters and the situations in a script, and then perform to an audience. However, RT does not require props, costumes or stage productions, and performers do not need to memorize the lines but read aloud holding the script. In order to deliver an effective staged play-like performance, students need to rehearse by re-reading the script several times until they become fluent.

Research objectives

This study aims to investigate the effect of Reader's Theater upon reading fluency. Alongside other traditional reading strategies already implemented, RT may help incentivize students and improve their reading fluency which has not been brought to the attention of the instructors within the Thai EFL context. Accordingly, the following research questions are stated below:

- 1) To what extent does Reader's Theater improve reading fluency?
- 2) To what extent does Reader's Theater affect the motivation to read in English?

Reading Process

The nature of reading involves both linguistic knowledge of the language of the targeted text and the background knowledge of the reader (Lekwilai, 2014). The ways the reader interacts with the text can be “bottom-up” and “top-down”. Bottom-up is the process in which the reader uses his/her linguistic knowledge such as word-decoding and syntactic structures to understand the text. On the other hand, the top-down process is when the reader brings his/her background knowledge (schema) to help build expectations and predictions in order to understand the text. According to Aebersold and Field (as cited in Lekwilai, 2014), both bottom-up and top-down processes occur simultaneously or interchangeably as the reader is dealing with different types of texts.

As mentioned earlier, fluency is one of the important elements of reading. The definition of fluency will be discussed in the following section.

Defining fluency and its relationship with comprehension

Fluency in reading is observed by automaticity in word recognition and automaticity at the text level of a reader. Fluent readers exhibit word recognition skills by reading with appropriate speed and correctly recognizing words. At the same time, they move beyond the word to the text level by reading with appropriate phrasing and, in the case of oral reading, appropriate expressions.

As stated by Logan (1997), speed, effortlessness, autonomy, and unconsciousness constitute automaticity in any activity. In the very case of reading, appropriate reading speed reduces the time the reader takes to react to the text, hence it does not intervene in the comprehension process. Reading should be done with ease and effortlessness so that the comprehension process is not interfered with by a sense of frustration. Furthermore, reading should be done automatically and without much attention and conscious awareness in the process.

Since the ultimate goal of reading is to comprehend what is read, reading fluency must foster comprehension. A number of researchers agree that fluency has a strong correlation with comprehension (Trainin & Andrzejczak, 2006; Hudson, Lane & Pullen, 2005; Nation, 2009; Hook & Jones, 2004; Taguchi, Takayasu-Mass & Gorsuch, 2004; Rasinski & Padak, 2000). It is argued that automaticity in word recognition alone may

not be sufficient to guarantee comprehension. Some readers who read quickly and correctly but do not exhibit knowledge of phrase or sentence boundaries may not understand the text as a whole. According to Hudson, Lane & Pullen (2005), poor phrasing ability affects comprehension while readers are dealing with larger units of words since they do not see the relationship between each word. In addition, expression or prosodic features are signals that readers understand what is being read. As stated by Rasinski (2004, p.14), “[the] embedding of prosody shows that the reader is trying to make sense of or comprehend the text”.

To sum up, reading fluency is characterized by reading speed and accuracy (word-level automaticity), as well as phrasing and prosody (text-level automaticity). Fluency in reading, most importantly, must contribute to overall comprehension of the text.

Implementing fluency in reading instruction

Despite the fact that, as the aforementioned illustrates, fluency is closely related to comprehension, it is often dismissed by instructors. Much of traditional reading instruction focuses on word identification strategies to foster only comprehension. While reading skills of students are usually measured by *how well* they comprehend the text, which is mostly determined by comprehensive test scores, instructors often fail to diagnose *how* they process comprehension by considering the ease and the amount of time spent in reading.

Reading fluency can be achieved through a substantial amount of practice. A reader needs frequent and repeated reading, ideally with texts within his or her level of readability. Through such repeated practice, the reader should be able to read faster as words become familiar and can be decoded on sight. As soon as most words in the text of a certain level are automatically decoded, the reader moves on to the text of a higher level and the process repeats. In the following section, an example of activity that promotes fluency will be discussed.

Repeated Reading

Repeated Reading (RR) was first developed by Jay Samuels (1979), based on his own automaticity theory. The technique of RR requires a reader to read a short passage

aloud or silently several times until a satisfactory level of fluency is reached. The technique is then repeated again with a different passage. The reader can either read with the guidance of an instructor or with peers, and his or her reading speed and accuracy are recorded. The number of words read in one minute of reading are counted as words per minute (WPM), and the number of words read correctly are counted as correct words per minute (CWPM).

Even though RR is regarded as a decent tool to increase reading speed and improve accuracy (Tyler & Chard, 2000), some current research on fluency instruction states that RR might not be the only instructional tool to develop all areas of fluency. For instance, Hudson et al. (2005) suggested RR as one instructional method to focus on reading rate and accuracy, but not on phrasing and prosody. Nation (2009) also stated that by using RR as a sole reading strategy, some instructors may focus only on students' gained reading rate. At the same time, students may be pressured to improve their reading rate to an extent that comprehension is ironically overlooked and the joy of reading is lost. By the same token, focusing on accuracy alone can have a negative impact on one's reading rate. For instance, Samuels (1979) pointed out that if students are required to re-read a text with 100 per cent word accuracy so that they can move on to a new text, it can impede their reading rate since the fear of making a mistake slows their reading.

In addition, the fact that RR requires re-reading the same text many times may seem to be a mundane activity to students. Given that Rasinski (2004) emphasizes improving reading rate and accuracy alongside expressive oral performance, and also that Nation (2009) described a need for enjoyment and fun while reading, it is interesting to explore Reader's Theater (RT). The method is another form of repeated reading that allows students to practice through performance, and it provides excitement and meaningful context of re-reading the same text.

Reader's Theater (RT)

RT is another method of repeated reading that allows students to practice through performance. Not only does RT help improve reading rate and accuracy, it is an effective way to increase prosody (Cullard, 2008; Trainin & Andrzejczak, 2006; Hudson

et al., 2005). In terms of comprehension, RT encourages students to be engaged in negotiating the meaning of the text, exchanging their interpretation of the text, and generating responses to the text through performance (Liu, 2000). Above all, RT is an incentivized activity (Alspach, 2010; Haws, 2008; Martinez, Roser & Strecker, 1998) that persuades students to enjoy re-reading the same text several times and creates motivation and confidence in readers (McKay, 2008; Rinehart, 1999). By performing a reading to an audience, readers automatically feel motivated to be fluent in order to deliver the message and entertain the audience at the same time.

Basically, RT requires students to read a play script out loud. Each student is assigned the role of a character in the script and brings the character to life. RT works in a similar way to a staged play, except that it does not require props, costumes, or stage productions. Students do not need to memorize the lines or act them out. They simply hold the script and read in front of an audience. To perform for their audience in a comprehensive and entertaining way, students need to practice reading their parts in the script several times to make sure that they read fluently enough to be understood by the audience. They also should be able to read with appropriate expressions to visualize the unseen props, settings and actions, and to make their performance entertaining with the emotions and feelings of the characters.

RT is suitable for students of all ages and of all levels of proficiency. Scripts for RT are also varied. They can be actual play scripts with simplified language to suit students' instructional level. They can also be selections of children's literature that are rich in dialogue (Hudson et al., 2005), or they could even be scripts created by the instructor. Most importantly, students need a model to illustrate what fluent reading should sound like so that they have a set goal in mind while they practice reading on their own or with peers. For this matter, the instructor may read the script aloud while introducing the script, or use any available audio scripts.

Here are the procedures for how to conduct RT in the classroom:

1. *Text selection*: instructor chooses a script at student's instructional level.
2. *Modeling*: instructor reads the script for students to demonstrate what fluent reading should be like. If an audio version of the script is available, the instructor can play it.

3. *Discussion*: discuss the plot, characters, settings, etc. with students. Vocabulary and sentence structures can be discussed as well to ensure comprehension.
4. *Assign roles*: divide students into groups and assign roles to them. When students are familiar with RT, the instructor may let them choose their roles.
5. *Practice*: students practice the role with their peers, and sometimes practice by themselves.
6. *Feedback and comment*: after practice, instructor gives feedback and comments for improvement.
7. *Perform*: students stand in front of the class and perform the script. (Lekwilai, 2014)

All in all, fluency is crucial in reading since it contributes to comprehension which is the goal of reading. A substantial amount of reading practice is the key to achieving reading fluency. While Repeated Reading (RR) is arguably an adequate method to improve fluency since it requires a reader re-read the text several times, the fact that RR focuses mostly on reading rate and its lack of legitimate reason to re-read the same text may cause shortfalls to the method itself.

Reader's Theater (RT), a similar method to RR, becomes an alternative method of repeated reading practice. It encourages reading speed as well as other areas of fluency, and creates purposeful repeated reading. Despite being a popular instructional method among researchers and instructors (e.g. Alspach, 2010; Haws, 2008; Martinez et. al., 1998; Liu, 2000), study of RT in Thai EFL classrooms is relatively scarce. In addition, the 2008 Basic Education Core Curriculum of Thailand did not address the need for administering reading fluency within reading instruction (Office of the Basic Education Commission, 2008). RT is, therefore, an interesting method to pioneer reading fluency in the curriculum.

Research methodology

Research design:

A mixed-method design was used in this study in order to investigate the effect of RT on the participants' reading fluency and motivation. The mixed-method design combines both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The quantitative data was

obtained by the scores from Fluency Rubric which the research adapted from Zutell & Rasinski (1991), and a self-reflection form which was designed by the researcher. This set of data was aimed to measure gained fluency of the participants after they had performed the RT scripts. The qualitative data was obtained from an open-ended question in a self-reflection form, and was used as an insight into the participants' motivation. The design was incorporated with Reader's Theater intervention over the six-week period.

The participants:

Participants in the six-week study included 38 first year students of a university in the north of Thailand who enrolled in the Intensive English course. Of all 2,300 students who enrolled in the course, these 38 students were selected because they were in the section where the researcher was the instructor. Among the group, 31 are female and 7 are male. One of the female students is blind. All participants were Chinese Language Teaching majors.

Like all students enrolled in the Intensive English course, their English test scores from O-NET (Ordinary National Education Test) were lower than 40%, and the optional IELTS and TOEFL (IBT) scores were lower than 4.5 and 53, respectively. Based on CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference) levels, their level of English competence was lower than B1. Given this situation, these students were considered low-proficiency English learners. Their English proficiency levels were the major reason why they were selected in the study, regardless of being at the tertiary-level of education. While most research on RT in L1 settings (e.g. Hook & Jones, 2004; Tyler & Chad, 2000) focusing on elementary to 4th grade students, these educational levels may not be applicable to EFL contexts. Therefore, the selection of the participants in this study is primarily based on English proficiency rather than level of education.

The Intensive English course required meeting 3 hours per day for 6 six weeks. Apart from the main course book, all students of Intensive English were required to read the graded reader version of *The Picture of Dorian Gray* as the external reading activity. The book is listed as Stage 3 in the Oxford Bookworm Series, which is at level B1 on

CEFR. This external reading book was adapted into a series of Reader's Theater scripts which is the main research instrument.

The instruments:

The script:

The script for the Reader's Theater activity was the adapted version of *The Picture of Dorian Gray*. The book contains 10,245 words and is divided into 17 chapters. Each chapter of the book was transformed into the format of a play script, without changing any wording from the original text. All the characters from the story remained the same, with additional narrator parts. All 17 scripts were fairly equal in length. The scripts were also made in Braille for the blind student.

The rubric:

The Fluency Rubric (modified from J. Zuttell & Rasinski's "Multidimensional Fluency Scale (1991), *see Table 1*) is used as the main assessment of RT performances. The rubric is 16 points in total, with 4 points maximum given to 4 criteria, ranging from the lowest, 1 point, to the highest, 4 points. Each criterion is based on the components of fluency:

1. Expression and Volume: considers volume of voice and prosodic features as appropriate while reading
2. Phrasing: considers how the reader pays attention to punctuation and how effective pauses are used after reading meaningful groups of words
3. Accuracy and Smoothness: considers words that are read correctly, smoothly and with confidence
4. Pace: considers appropriate and natural reading rate as suitable with the characters and the situations in the scripts.

Self-reflection:

At the end of RT intervention, participants were required to fill out the self-reflection form (*see Table 2*) in order to reflect on their reading as well as their feedback on RT activities. The questions were divided into 3 parts. The first part consisted of questions that allow the participants to rate their oral reading during the group

performance, ranging from “strongly disagree” to “disagree”, “agree” and “strongly agree”. The second part consisted of yes-no questions to reflect whether they read the scripts at home, whether they understood the story and their assigned parts, and whether their oral fluency had improved. The final part was an open-ended question asking their opinion about the RT activity. The questions in the self-reflection form were in Thai to ensure that they understood the questions and that they answered the open-ended questions as expressively as they could. Participants filled out the self-reflection form anonymously.

Table 1 Fluency Scale

Criteria	1	2	3	4
Expression and Volume	Reads in a quiet voice as if to get words out. The reading does not sound natural like talking to a friend.	Reads in a quiet voice. The reading sounds natural in part of the text, but the reader does not always sound like they are talking to a friend.	Reads with volume and expression. However, sometimes the reader slips into expressionless reading and does not sound like they are talking to a friend.	Reads with varied volume and expression. The reader sounds like they are talking to a friend with their voice matching the interpretation of the passage.
Phrasing	Reads word-by-word in a monotone voice.	Reads in two or three word phrases, not adhering to punctuation, stress and intonation.	Reads with a mixture of run-ons, mid-sentence pauses for breath, and some choppiness. There is reasonable stress and intonation.	Reads with good phrasing; adhering to punctuation, stress and intonation.
Accuracy and Smoothness	Frequently hesitates while reading, sounds out words, and repeats words or phrases. The reader makes multiple attempts to read the same passage.	Reads with extended pauses or hesitations. The reader has many “rough spots.”	Reads with occasional breaks in rhythm. The reader has difficulty with specific words and/or sentence structures.	Reads smoothly with some breaks, but self-corrects with difficult words and/or sentence structures.
Pace	Reads slowly and laboriously.	Reads moderately slowly.	Reads fast and slow throughout reading.	Reads at a conversational pace throughout the reading.

Table 2 Student Self-reflection Form

ข้อคิดเห็นหลังการอ่านหน้าชั้นเรียน Reflection from performance	1 ไม่เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง Strongly disagree	2 ไม่เห็นด้วย Disagree	3 เห็นด้วย Agree	4 เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง Strongly agree
1. ฉันอ่านเสียงดังพอที่เพื่อนทั้งห้องได้ยิน I read loudly enough that the whole class could hear.				
2. ฉันอ่านเสียงดัง แม้ว่าไม่แน่ใจว่าคำบางคำอ่านอย่างไร I read loudly though wasn't sure how to pronounce certain words.				
3. ฉันอ่านด้วยน้ำเสียง และแสดงอารมณ์อย่างเหมาะสมกับนิสัยของตัวละครของฉัน I read with expressions that are suitable for my characters.				
4. ฉันอ่านด้วยน้ำเสียง และแสดงอารมณ์อย่างเหมาะสมกับสถานการณ์ในเรื่อง I read with expressions that are suitable for the situations.				
5. ฉันอ่านอย่างรวดเร็ว และไม่ติดขัด I read fast and smoothly.				
6. ฉันอ่านคำเป็นกลุ่มภายในประโยค ไม่ได้อ่านทีละคำ I read groups of words rather than individual words.				
7. ฉันเว้นช่วงการอ่านเมื่อจบแต่ละประโยค I made pauses after the end of each sentence.				
8. ฉันอ่านออกเสียงแต่ละคำได้อย่างถูกต้อง ตามที่อาจารย์บอก I pronounced words correctly as told by the teacher.				

9. ฉันอ่านบทละครนอกเหนือจากเวลาที่อาจารย์ให้อ่านในห้องเรียน
I read the script outside of class time.

☐ ใช่ yes
 ☐ ไม่ใช่ no (ข้ามไปข้อ 14)
go to no.14

10. ฉันฝึกอ่านบทละครกับเพื่อนในกลุ่มนอกเวลาเรียน
I practiced the script with peers outside of class time.

☐ ใช่ yes
 ☐ ไม่ใช่ no

11. ฉันฝึกอ่านบทละครคนเดียวนอกเวลาเรียน
I practiced the script alone outside of class time.

☐ ใช่ yes
 ☐ ไม่ใช่ no

12. ฉันฝึกอ่านบทละครคนเดียวทุกวัน
I practiced the script alone every day.

☐ ใช่ yes
 ☐ ไม่ใช่ ฉันอ่านสัปดาห์ละ วัน
no I read days per week

13. เมื่อฉันฝึกอ่านคนเดียว ฉันอ่านเฉพาะส่วนที่เป็นบทของฉัน
When I practiced the script alone, I only read my part.

☐ ใช่ yes
 ☐ ไม่ใช่ no

14. ฉันเข้าใจเนื้อเรื่องของบทละครที่ฉันอ่าน
I understood the story of the script.

☐ ใช่ yes
 ☐ ไม่ใช่ no

15. ฉันเข้าใจความหมายในส่วนที่เป็นบทของฉัน
I understood my reading parts.

☐ ใช่ yes
 ☐ ไม่ใช่ no

16. ฉันคิดว่ากิจกรรมอ่านบทละครทำให้ฉันอ่านภาษาอังกฤษคล่องขึ้น
I think this activity helps me read in English more fluently.

☐ ใช่ yes
 ☐ ไม่ใช่ no

Data collection

The data collection process took place from the first week until the last week of the Intensive English class (June 30 – August 7, 2015). The data from the Fluency Rubric was collected twice: after the first script performance on the third week, and after the second performance on the sixth week. The data from the Self-Reflection was collected after the second performance on the sixth week. The following are the details of the data collection process: (Also, see *Figure 1* below)

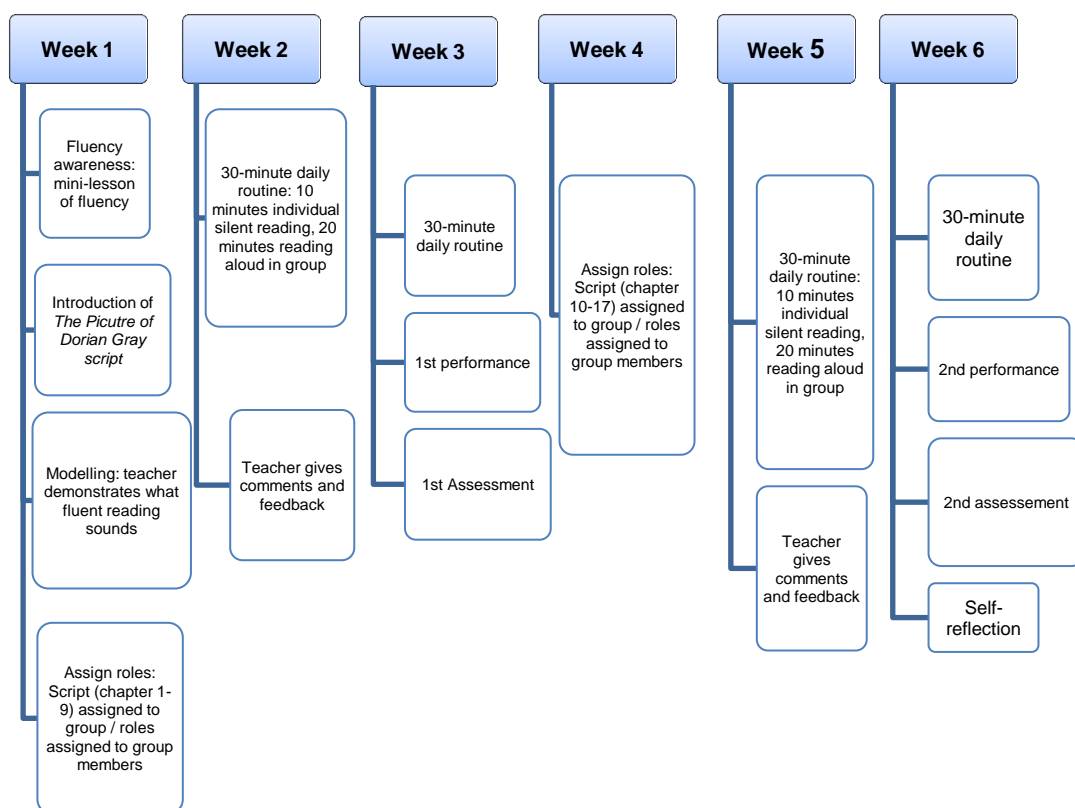


Figure 1 Model of RT Intervention

Week 1: Introduction of reading fluency and first RT script

During the first week, the instructor spent 30 minutes of class conducting a mini-lesson on reading fluency, as well as modeling a fluent reading using an excerpt from *The Picture of Dorian Gray*. By the end of the first week, participants were introduced to the scripts that had been adapted from the book. The instructor asked the students to get

into groups of 4-6, so that each group could be assigned a script to read. There were 9 groups in total, and each was assigned a different script, from chapters 1 to 9.

Week 2-3: The 30-minute reading routine, first performance and assessment

From the second through the third week, the instructor spared 30 minutes of each class meeting for RT activity. At the beginning of the second week, each group of participants assigned roles to each member. From then on, RT became a daily routine where individual students spent 10 minutes reading the assigned part silently, and another 20 minutes reading aloud with the group members. Participants were also encouraged to rotate the roles with other group members. The instructor constantly observed during this stage and provided feedback on their oral reading. Mini-lessons on pronunciation were sometimes provided as necessary. The characters and the storyline of the script were also discussed with the groups to encourage expressive reading. At the end of the third week, all groups performed the script in front of the class and the instructor used the rubric to assess each individual participant. The order of performance was chronological to the storyline of the book, and the plot was discussed after the end of each group's performance. The instructor used the Fluency Rubric to assess an individual group member as they were performing the script.

Week 4: Introduction of second RT script

A new series of the script, chapters 10-17, was introduced and assigned to each group of participants at the end of the fourth week. The number of groups and the members remained the same as in the previous week.

Week 5-6: The 30-minute reading routine, second performance, assessment and reflection

The data collection process was repeated for the second and third week. At the end of the sixth week, when the participants performed the second reading, they were asked to fill in the self-reflection form.

Data analysis

Quantitative data:

There were two sets of quantitative data:

The first set of collected data was the scores from the Fluency rubric earned by each participant from the first and the second performances. The scores were analyzed regarding two criteria:

1) *Overall fluency*: The total score of 16 points from the first and the second performances were compared in order to see the gained fluency of the participants. The scores were converted into a graph in order to allow visual interpretation.

2) *Specific area of fluency*: The score of each area of fluency which constituted 4 points each on the rubric was considered. The sum of each fluency area from the first and the second performances were compared in order to see which specific area of fluency had improved the most. The score of the specific area was analyzed using Microsoft Excel 2010 in order to find the mean and the standard deviation.

The second set of collected data was the participants' response in the self-reflection form. The response of the first two parts of the self-reflection was analyzed by counting the number of positive responses ("strongly agree", "agree", and "yes") and negative responses ("strongly disagree", "disagree", and "no"), and converting these responses into percentages.

Qualitative data:

This set of data was obtained from an open-ended question at the end of the self-reflection form. It was analyzed by considering the participants' view of the RT intervention in relation with their motivation to read.

During the data collection process in the first reading performance, one student was absent. Consequently, her score from the second performance was not taken into account, since there was no basis for comparison. As a result, the data presented in the following section is based on 37 participants.

Results

Overall fluency:

Data revealed significant gain of fluency among the participants from the first and the second performance as shown in Figure 2 below:

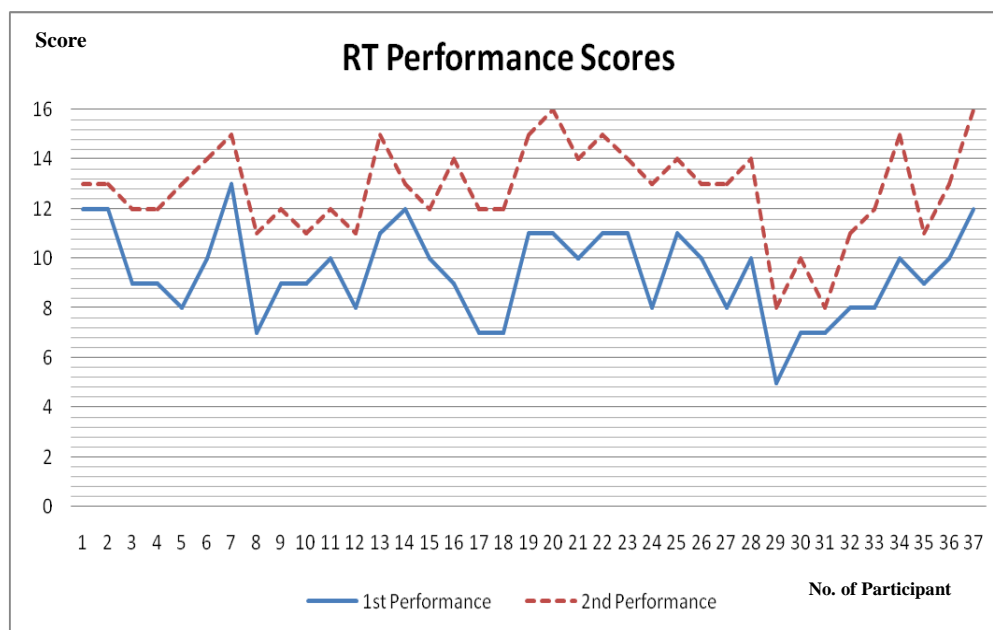


Figure 2 Scores from Fluency Rubric (1st and 2nd RT performance)

After the first performance, all 37 participants (one was absent) earned an average 9.43 out of 16 points. The lowest score was 5 and the highest was 13. By the end of the second performance, the average score increased to 12.71. The lowest score was 8, which was found in two participants. One of the two was the same student who earned the lowest score after the first performance. Two participants earned the perfect score, even though neither of the two was the student who had scored the highest at the first performance. The overall score from the first to the second performance was increased by an average of 20.5%. During the first performance, the score of the participant who earned the lowest score increased by 18.75% after the second performance, whereas the one who earned the highest score increased by 12.5%. Two participants who earned the perfect score during the second performance increased by 31.25% and 25%, respectively.

The specific area of fluency:

Regarding the four areas of fluency, all participants also gained higher scores in the second performance for every area. The data are shown in Table 3 below:

Table 3 Gain scores (1st and 2nd RT performance) by areas of fluency

Fluency Area	1 st performance		2 nd performance	
	M	SD	M	SD
1.Expression and Volume	2.19	0.74	2.97	0.82
2. Phrasing	2.43	0.55	3.45	0.60
3. Accuracy & Smoothness	2.41	0.50	3.26	0.45
4. Pace	2.41	0.60	3.03	0.49

Phrasing is particularly the area in which participants showed distinctive progress, with an average 1.02 points increase, surpassing accuracy criteria. Expression, volume and pace did not increase much. This will be discussed extensively in the discussion section.

Self-reflection:

Data from the Self-Reflection (See *Table 4*) of all 38 participants also suggests that participants regarded their oral reading as having progressed between the 1st performance and the 2nd performance. 73.68% answered “Agree” when they were asked whether they read loudly enough even though they were not sure whether they read correctly. 52.63% agreed that they read expressively as their characters and in an appropriate way for the situations in the story, whereas 42.11% reported “disagree”. When asked about reading speed, 50% said they agreed, while 44.74% disagreed. In terms of phrasing, the majority 64.48% agreed as well as 21.05% who strongly agreed. Only 14.47% answered “disagreed”. Regarding accuracy, 60.53% agreed that they read correctly as guided by the instructor, whereas 31.58% disagreed.

Data from the Self-Reflection also revealed that the participants were motivated to practice the script outside of class, and had a very positive attitude toward RT activity. 65.79% reported that they practiced the script at home, although without their peers. Furthermore, what the researcher found most compelling was that 100% of the participants said they felt that RT made their reading more fluent.

Table 4 Results from Self-Reflection

Question No.	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. I read loudly enough that the whole class could hear.	1(2.6%)	2(5.3%)	28(73.7%)	7(18.4%)
2. I read loudly though wasn't sure how to pronounce certain words.	0(0%)	10(26.3%)	25(65.8%)	3(7.9%)
3. I read with expressions that are suitable for my characters.	1(2.6%)	15(39.5%)	21(55.3%)	1(2.6%)
4. I read with expressions that are suitable for the situations.	1(2.6%)	17(44.7%)	19(50%)	1(2.6%)
5. I read fast and smoothly.	1(2.6%)	17(44.7%)	19(50%)	1(2.6%)
6. I read groups of words rather than individual words.	0(0%)	9(23.7%)	23(60.5%)	6(15.8%)
7. I made pauses after the end of each sentence.	0(0%)	2(5.3%)	26(68.4%)	10(26.3%)
8. I pronounced words correctly as told by the teacher.	0(0%)	12(31.6%)	23(60.5%)	3(7.9%)
	Yes		No	
9. I read the script outside of class time.	25(65.8%)		13(34.2%)	
10. I practiced the script with peers outside of class time.	3(7.9%)		22(57.9%)	
11. I practiced the script alone outside of class time.	21(55.3%)		4(10.5%)	
12. I practiced the script alone every day.	3(7.9%)		22(57.9%)	
13. When I practiced the script alone, I only read my part.	17(44.7%)		8(21.1%)	
14. I understood the story of the script.	34(89.5%)		4(10.5%)	
15. I understood my reading parts.	33(86.8%)		5(13.2%)	
16. I think this activity helps me read in English more fluently.	38(100%)		0(0%)	

In terms of comprehension, participants reported that they understood both the story as a whole and their reading parts, as evident by 89.47% and 86.84%, respectively, who answered “yes”, while those who answered “no” were only 10.53% and 13.16%, respectively.

Lastly, for the open-ended question that asked the participants about their opinion of RT, they gave overall positive comments. 30 participants said that they found RT “very entertaining”. 23 of them reported that RT helps “build confidence in oral reading”. 12 participants noted that because they read aloud with their peers, and shared the reading parts among the group members, they became more confident than when

reading individually. 4 participants reported that they were confident during the performance, even though they were not quite sure whether they read certain words correctly.

Discussion

The findings suggest that Reader's Theater is a potentially useful instructional tool to improve the reading fluency of Thai EFL learners. As evident from other studies, the reading rate among the participants of RT gained significantly (e.g. Martinez et al., 1998; Corcoran & Davis, 2005), as well as the growth in prosodic features (Keehn, Harmon & Shoho, 2008).

The data of this study also suggests that "Phrasing" is the most prominent aspect that the participants improved after the 2nd performance. Most participants admitted that they would not have paid attention to the punctuation or pauses while reading aloud. After the instructor emphasized the importance of pauses in the process of comprehension of the text, the participants became self-aware and did not overlook the punctuation. The blind student also exhibited fairly good phrasing having read the script in Braille. She stated that she had not been aware of the functions of the punctuation in oral reading until she participated in RT.

Interestingly, "Expression and Volume" seems to be the area of fluency where most participants did not improve much. Although the majority of the participants who are shy readers have improved in terms of volume, expression (or prosody) still did not change significantly. When discussing the characters and the situations in the script, most participants exhibited good comprehension. It should therefore be assumed that comprehension should foster expression while the participants were reading aloud.

The researcher's assumption is that the participants might have understood the text, but might have not realized the importance of the prosodic features in the English language. Extra lessons on intonation may have to be integrated with RT, apart from the mini-lessons of reading fluency. However, in order to firmly explain the contradiction in this finding, further studies concerning the connection between prosody and comprehension are needed. As stated by Hudson et al. (2005, p.704), "little research has

been conducted exploring the relationship between prosody and reading comprehension, and what little research has been done has found an unclear relationship.”

Not only does RT provide meaningful reasons for learners to re-read the same text again and again, the data from the participants’ reflection revealed that the effect of RT extended beyond the goal of achieving fluency itself. It created the joy of reading and encouraged group work among the participants. This is not a surprise, however, as other studies (e.g. McKay, 2008; Rinehart, 1999) reported that RT creates motivation and confidence in readers. The fact that students have to read to an audience and want the audience to understand and be entertained by their reading makes them confident and motivated to read more. Researchers also find that students enjoy the opportunity to choose their roles in scripts, to use different voices for different characters according to their nature, mood, feelings, or the changed situations in the performance. These are the most compelling reasons that the researcher feels that RT should be integrated into the reading curriculum.

Suggestions for further study:

Insights from using RT in this study encourage the researcher to consider more studies regarding the correlation between accurate pronunciation and comprehension. Having observed the participants during the 30 minute daily routine, the majority of them were struggling with accurate pronunciation while reading aloud. Frequently, they incorrectly pronounced the words which are at their grade level. Other unknown words were often pronounced based on the spelling, which frequently resulted in incorrect pronunciation. Fossilization may have been the reason why some participants mispronounced the words they already know the meaning of. Since it is uncertain to determine whether accuracy reflects comprehension, it is a challenge for researchers to conduct more studies on this matter.

Conclusion

Fluency in reading has been the focus of many researchers in EFL/ESL settings, but for Thailand’s EFL context, fluency instructions are almost unrecognizable. Reader’s Theater is introduced as one of the techniques to build fluency for Thai EFL students. RT has been proven to help improve the oral reading fluency of the participants in this study.

The most compelling reason that English classrooms should implement RT to reading instruction is that it is incentive by design. It also motivates students to reread the same text without being discouraged. Frequent reading practice, as theories suggest, is an important method to develop fluency.

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Biodata

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Digital Writing: Enhancing Ways of Teaching and Learning Writing

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Abstract

Situated within the field of teaching and learning writing in English as a foreign language context, this paper proposes using digital writing environments for classroom activities to complement writing instruction. Several types of digital writing, which are popular among Generation M learners, including blogs, instant messaging, and social network sites, are reviewed. Some characteristics of digital writing are proven to be effective and can alleviate problems in teaching writing, especially for struggling writers. Having examples of writing activities or mini-lessons using digital writing along with general pedagogical guidelines provided, writing teachers can adapt and supplement digital writing to their teaching routine. This paper also suggests significant concerns on the use of digital writing environments in writing instruction.

Keywords: digital writing, digital literacy, teaching writing, computer mediated communication

การเขียนในสื่อดิจิทัล: แนวทางเพื่อส่งเสริมการเรียนรู้การสอนการเขียน

ฤดีรัตน์ ชูชนะโชติ

คณะครุศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

บทคัดย่อ

บทความนี้นำเสนอศักยภาพของการใช้การเขียนในสื่อดิจิทัลประเภทต่างๆ เพื่อเป็นกิจกรรมส่งเสริมการเรียนรู้การสอนการเขียนในบริบทการเรียนรู้การสอนภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ การเขียนในสื่อดิจิทัล อาทิ บล็อก (Blog) ระบบส่งข้อความทันที (Instant Messaging) และเว็บไซต์เครือข่ายสังคมออนไลน์ ล้วนเป็นที่นิยมในหมู่ผู้เรียนยุคสหัสวรรษ (Generation M) ด้วยลักษณะสำคัญหลายประการทำให้การเขียนในสื่อดิจิทัลมีประสิทธิภาพ ช่วยแก้ปัญหาการสอนการเขียนได้ โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งสำหรับผู้เขียนที่มีปัญหา ผู้สอนสามารถนำตัวอย่างกิจกรรมการเรียนรู้การสอนโดยใช้การเขียนในสื่อดิจิทัลพร้อมแนวทางการใช้การเขียนในสื่อดิจิทัลไปปรับใช้ในการเรียนรู้การสอนการเขียนปกติได้ อีกทั้งบทความนี้ยังเสนอประเด็นที่พึงระวังในการใช้สภาพแวดล้อมการเขียนสื่อดิจิทัลในการสอนการเขียนด้วย

คำสำคัญ: สื่อดิจิทัล, การเขียน, ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ, การสื่อสารผ่านคอมพิวเตอร์

Science and technology multiply around us. To an increasing extent they dictate the languages in which we speak and think. Either we use those languages, or we remain mute.

– J.G. Ballard

Not only do some language teachers believe that students are deficient in writing practice, but they also complain about the lack of genres to keep students interested in writing and the development of positive attitudes towards writing. While teachers feel that teaching writing is not easy, students also find that writing is a difficult task and often challenging to master. Besides experiencing the demands of writing, students are often bemoaning how boring writing class can be due to the teacher's control of the genre and topic, about which they are not interested in writing. As a result, students may develop negative attitudes toward writing and some of them even resist learning to write. The challenge is even higher with struggling writers and those who have language problems such as some English as a foreign language (EFL) student.

Currently, the Internet plays an important role in teenager's lives. This Internet has transformed the ways in which they read, write, and communicate. It has changed the writing genre from pen and paper or even the use of paper in a typewriter to a monitor and a keyboard, even transitioning to a phone screen and its touch screen keyboard. Much of current writing operates through different mediums such as email, instant messaging (IM), text messaging, Twitter, Line, Facebook, and blogs. This screen-based writing itself does not strictly follow traditional conventions; rather, it has additional features, e.g., images, audio, slang, shorthand, emoticons (a textual representation of a writer's feelings or facial expressions; for example, [:-]), which represents a smile).

Although many language teachers may be concerned about the negative impact of writing in different digital mediums, nowadays teenagers' academic writing using this digital method can be considered an instructional advantage. That can be attributed to the fact that many students spend lots of their free-time using digital devices for non-academic writing activities, e.g., emailing, writing blog, sending instant messages, chatting in chat-rooms, writing their status and commenting others in the Facebook, tweeting in Twitter, and sending messages through SMS or Line. Although students may

not use English in writing, they have good attitude toward these online writing activities (Donaldson & Kötter, 1999). By integrating fun digital writing exercises into otherwise dull academic writing courses, writing class will carry a higher moral and no longer be the same, especially for struggling writers.

In this article, the application of digital technology in a writing classroom and writing instruction are explored, especially in an EFL context where English language resources are limited compared to those in an ESL context. This paper first summarizes some problems that occur in teaching writing, especially for struggling writers. Second, the scope of digital writing and some more defined types of digital writing are reviewed. The paper then examines some major characteristics of digital writing. Additionally, some recommendations for using digital writing in the writing classroom are provided along with general guidelines. This paper concludes with some awareness on the use of the digital writing environment. For the purpose of this article, I draw on the understandings of writing in a different way, rejecting the traditional form of writing with the absolute formal, structured, rhetorical, and format oriented writing. Moreover, many commercial digital writing applications or websites mentioned in this paper are with regard to academic purposes only.

Problems in Writing Classes: Struggling Writers

Many scholars (e.g., Graham & Harris, 2005; Graham, Harris, & Troia, 2000; Hunt-Berg, Rankin, & Beukelman, 1994; Lin, Monroe, & Troia, 2007; MacArthur, 2000) have studied difficulties that struggling writers often have in common. Besides the physical or cognitive problems, many struggling writers have language difficulties. According to Graham et al. (2000), this group of struggling writers is often less motivated to write and fails to organize their ideas. These learners usually have poor handwriting (or has difficulty to write) and writes slowly or illegibly. They also have problems in expressing their idea through composition and sometimes have trouble communicating and understanding their teachers and peers during discussion in the classroom.

Additionally, many struggling writers' primary writing problems involve a lack of confidence in producing text and insecure feelings about showing their writing to

others, in particular to their peers. Lastly, struggling writers are likely to develop negative attitudes towards writing and, thus, often have low motivation to write. This results in spending less time writing, reviewing, planning, etc. These problems will be worse when learners have to write in languages other than their native language such as in EFL classes.

Struggling writers may often include other students who have different difficulties; therefore, there is no perfect method that works in all cases. However, teachers should find ways to alleviate their problems. Since each learner is unique, everyone has different interests and needs, as well as personality and learning styles. As a consequence, digital writing can be an effective and practical means to create positive writing environments for active and positively motivated writing experiences.

Digital Writing

Digital writing is becoming a standard way of life for young learners within Generation M. Generation M (Vie, 2008), Millennial students (Godwin-Jones, 2005), Neomillennials (Baird & Fisher, 2005), Digital Natives (Prensky, 2001, p. 1), and the Net Generation (Tapscott, 2009) are those who were born in the early 80s or late 90s. The fact that this group of young learners views computers and technology as a part of their everyday lives, and who rapidly and abundantly consumes information in different ways from how previous generations has led to their unique learning style (Prensky, 2001). The ways that computers and technology have become basic needs for Generation M have given rise to digital writing as the medium to communicate with each other. Their writing, therefore, does not follow the conventions of what is considered traditional writing. Rather, it is less formal, often has conversational style, involves shorthand, is less focused on grammar and writing patterns, and sometimes features images and audio (Sweeny, 2010).

Scholars have used different terms to describe skills to produce text (along with graphic, audio, and other media) on the Internet through different mediums such as email, Instant Messaging (IM), text messaging, Twitter, Line, Facebook, and blogs using different devices such as computers, mobile phones, and tablets. They are regarded as digital writing (Grabill & Hicks, 2005; Merchant, 2008), new literacy (Sweeny, 2010;

Lankshear & Knobel, 2003), techno-literacy (Marsh, 2004), new-media writing/composition (DeVoss, Cushman, & Grabill, 2005). In this paper, the term digital writing is used to define a change in the writing environment where writing is produced on the computer, mobile phone, and tablet, and then distributed via Internet networks (Grabill & Hicks, 2005).

Types of Digital Writing

Over the past decade, increasing numbers of digital writing tools have emerged within the field of teaching writing. Three major tools are reviewed as a source for teaching writing: blogs, instant messaging and social network sites.

Blogs

A blog is a discussion, informational article or personal journal, published on the World Wide Web, which is often frequently updated. The entries (also called posts) are usually displayed in reverse chronological order (the most recent entry appearing first). Blogs typically include many features such as comments, archives, hyperlinks, and “Like” features to increase user interactivity.

Blogs allow people to post or exchange information with no constraints on time and space. Many people use blogs as a medium to update journals or post their experience, such as dinners, music, holiday trips, hobbies, and product reviews, to broaden their horizons, and to fulfill their needs and interests. Thus, blogs provide opportunities, inspirations, and motivations for personal writing (Godwin-Jones, 2008) and promote authorship. In fact, Warschauer and Matuchniak (2010) claims, “blogs created more authors than probably any other medium in human history” (p. 4).

Instant Messaging (IM) – MSN, Line, Twitter, Skype, chat-room

As a type of synchronous communication, Instant Messaging (IM) is a form of Internet-based, real time text communication between users on the same system. Normally, IM allows one-on-one communication, although the users can invite a third or fourth person to join an already active conversation. Presently, IM appears on many websites, online services, and applications, some of which combine the text as well as

voice communication, both on the computer and on the phone, such as MSN, chat-room websites, Skype, Line, iChat, Twitter, and Facebook.

Many researchers reported positive findings of IM on various communicative aspects. For example, IM promotes negotiation of meaning (Pellettieri, 2000; Warschauer, 1998), reduces anxiety (Kern, 1995), encourages self-repair (Kern, 1995; Pellettieri, 2000), and enhances spelling performance in young adult L2 learners (Powell & Dixon, 2011), as well as motivation and attitude in L2 learning (Donaldson & Kötter, 1999).

Social Network Site (SNS)

A social network site (SNS) is a website or an online service platform in which people share interest, create a public or semi-public profile, and interact with other users. Not only do SNSs enable users to connect with friends and strangers, but they also allow users to broadly view their social networks and to make more connections. Many SNSs, such as Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, and My Space, combine various features of Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) technologies (e.g., instant messages, emails, blogs, and message boards), mini-applications (e.g., quizzes and games), and some other features (e.g., “Follow” feature and “Like” feature).

The use of SNSs in education and language instruction has been prominent. Since learners use language as a tool to communicate and deliver their message, they will construct new knowledge about language as they interact on SNSs. Suthiwartnarueput and Wasanasomsithi (2012) reported the positive effect of SNSs on EFL learners’ English grammar and writing. Moreover, Shih (2011) found that according to the results of the pre-test and post-test of English writing the learners in all groups (high score, medium score, and low score groups), who were in the Facebook integrated blended learning community, had improvement in their writing abilities, including paragraph organization, grammar, vocabulary, and spelling.

Characteristics of Digital Writing: Features that Support Struggling Writers

Digital writing has distinctive characteristics and strengths. Generation M learners use digital writing as a channel of text communication, in which users can be in many different parts of the world and still be connected. Many researchers reported

positive findings of digital communication applications on various aspects related to language learning. Concurrently, some characteristics of digital writing have enhanced the teaching of writing especially with struggling writers.

First, many digital writing applications offer an anonymity feature. They provide opportunities for users to use nicknames or pseudonyms. This anonymous identity results in less anxiety (Kern, 1995) and more pleasant classrooms, and therefore can benefit students who might be risk-averting in learning writing within the normal classroom environment. By reducing anxiety, which has a negative effect on language learning, a digital-integrated writing class has the potential to be an avenue for nurturing writing skills. A work by Pennington (2004) supports this claim by reporting that learners are likely to contribute more through digital writing. Yuan (2003) reports that synchronous computer-assisted class discussion reduces anxiety and enhances interlanguage communication. Moreover, according to Murphy (as cited in Suthiwartnarueput & Wasanasomsithi, 2012), digital writing, especially SNSs namely Facebook, creates a state of anxiety-free relaxation with the sense of anonymous communication.

Additionally, the anonymity feature of digital writing enhances a peer feedback activity as students feel less threatened and less pressured when giving or receiving feedback. Tuzi (2004) found that the feedback that students received from online CMC had a greater impact on students' revision than oral feedback. According to MacLeod (as cited in Tuzi, 2004), this is due to the fact that students are more honest in stating their true thoughts and can criticize peer's writing anonymously without having to face the author. Under this low affective filter environment, learners can ask and talk (write) freely without any fear of making mistakes, which leads to the enhancement of language learning. Furthermore, with the anonymity feature, struggling writers feel that writing in the digital world is less stressful than having to submit their writing to the teacher or peers in person, publicly.

Second, in digital writing, learners actually type out what they want to communicate to the group or readers. This emulated real-time communication is perceived as advantageous since learners can see what their partners intend to communicate through the typed text. Moreover, as the learners can view their language messages as they produce them, they are more likely to "monitor" and self-repair or edit

their messages; hence, they tend to produce more structured language (Pellettieri, 2000; Warschauer, 1998; Yuan, 2003). Thus, this may be beneficial for struggling learners or those who have problems with spelling and low command of vocabulary (Graham & Harris, 2005; Hunt-Berg, Rankin & Beukelman, 1994) since being able to see what they would like to communicate to a conversation partner allows learners an opportunity to ponder and recheck their ideas before transmitting their response.

Third, digital writing promotes learners' equity in terms of interaction. Since all users are able to see everyone's messages and respond to those messages in real-time. Learners do not have to raise their hand and wait for the teacher to call on them as they do in the traditional classroom. All users have an equal opportunity to type their messages and respond to other people's messages. This feature reduces teachers' authority, increases student-centered learning, promotes student participation (Freiermuth, 2001; Kern, 1995), and fosters negotiation of meaning (Pellettieri, 2000; Warschauer, 1998). This feature, furthermore, encourages collaborative learning (Meskill & Mossop, 2000), which has a positive effect on students' writing proficiency, especially with struggling writers and students who are shy and passive learners. In writing instruction, many studies reported positive effects of collaborative work on improving writing proficiency, especially with struggling writers (Collins, 1998; Graham et al., 2000).

Many digital writings, such as instant messaging, have history logs where users can view the history of the conversations they have had with others. With this feature, instructors are able to keep track of learners' interaction records through the history logs with no intervention to learners while actively writing. Learners, on the other hand, are willing to write more freely without the sense of submitting their writing to the teachers. Moreover, this history log is useful for noting students' writing development over time, conducting an in-depth analysis, and preparing class lessons and activities. For instance, Toyada and Harrison (2002) claimed that history log in the chat-room or instant messaging chat could be used for linguistics analysis of target language and comprehensive study of a relationship between communication and culture.

More importantly, digital writing offers authentic language environments. Jiménez-Caicedo, Lozano, and Gómez (2014) studied the use of blogs in Spanish as a

foreign language class for undergraduate students and found that the participants saw the blog as a place to use language to engage in authentic communication instead of a place where they can learn and improve their language. While learners write in these Internet-based writing setting, e.g., blogs, Facebook, chat-room, etc., they work in authentic learning contexts and meaning-making communication (Merchant, 2008). The language used in digital writing is the language that is used in real life since the main focus of digital writing is to convey the information and to communicate to real audiences. This authentic language is agreed to be an essential input for learners in order to increase their language proficiency. Thus, writing in multimedia technology is an educational tool that could provide authentic cultural context, which is pivotal for language learning.

Finally, since digital writing involves different modes of representation combining text, audio, video, still images, animation, and/or interactive features (e.g., hyperlink) together—this multimedia writing environment can capture learners’ attention and interest and suits learners’ different learning styles. Many scholars have found positive impacts of digital writing on learners’ motivation and attitude toward writing (Donaldson & Kötter, 1999). Furthermore, many digital writing environments, such as chat-rooms and blogs, are available in various styles, differing discussion topics, and different interests; therefore, learners have the motivation to write about topics that they are interested in and learn to share their knowledge about their interests with other users who have similar interests. Consequently, digital writing is flexible for teachers to modify contexts to suit learners’ language needs and interests (Freiermuth, 2001).

Activities for Teaching Writing with Digital Writing

Technology and the Internet have offered learners and teachers various new educational tools to practice and instruct writing in a more authentic and innovative way. However, many writing teachers still continue to rely solely on the conventional essay writing genre with the traditional parameters assessment (Anson 1999). In fact, the role of a writing teacher is to help learners improve what they are incapable of doing (Elbow, 1997). Therefore, in this section, I provide some examples of writing activities or mini-lessons using digital writing. These mini-lessons and/or activities are ideally designed for

students with lower intermediate proficiency and up. However, the appropriateness varies depending on the topic of the discussion and nature of assignments.

Activity 1: Affiliate Group Chat

The teacher divides students into groups according to their interests—such as sports, fashion, traveling, computer games, etc. By using Instant Messaging (IM) as a form of a chat-room tool, students can exchange their expertise and opinions within their group members. In addition, students can chat with other people around the world who are online in the same chat program in real-time. Some chat-rooms allow people to chat within users' preferred theme; others allow the teacher to set up private chat rooms.

A variation of this activity is that the teacher can invite a guest, whom the teacher knows in person and/or who has some qualifications which may be interesting to students, such as a person who is in a music band or who has been abroad, to participate in the chat-room or group chat with students. The teacher should provide the guest's background, so that students know who this person is and are able to prepare questions to ask him/her (which can be done as part of the pre-writing activity). Furthermore, the teacher can assign follow-up activities such as writing a summary of what students learned from the group or write a story or a biography using information gathered from the guest.

Another variation is that the teacher can create a group chat via Social Network Site (SNS) such as Facebook and Twitter or organize a blog writing assignment. Many blog websites offer different themes and topics, such as fashion, pets, sports, movies, and shopping. The teacher can assign students to write a review on restaurants, tourist attractions, hotels, beauty products, movies, etc. Some quality blogging websites are WordPress, Blogger, GooglePlus, Tumblr, and TripAdvisor, some of which the user can also create a self-hosted blog.

Activity 2: Guess Who

The teacher gives each student a pseudonym. Students will be paired up with a secret peer. Each student will try to gather information from his/her IM chat partner as much as possible. Students can interview their peers about future plans, interests,

hobbies, favorite food, travel plans, things they usually do at school, and/or opinions on a specific topic. Later, the students guess who their partners are.

A variation of this activity is to guess the partner's favorite celebrity or athlete. Before the day of this activity, the teacher may ask students to research the person whom they choose. Students should let the teacher know the name of the person they have chosen, so that the teacher can pair students with others who have a similar interest. Then students will ask questions to learn information from their partner. Finally, the students have to write up this learned information. This activity can be followed by having the whole class guess that person's partner based on the students' description.

Activity 3: Scavenger

Students are divided into groups of 4-8. Each group should have at least 4 cell-phones with Internet or Wi-Fi access. The group selects one person to be a team leader. The leader will assign the members to find the answer to the questions that were previously prepared by the teacher. The leader will be in the room with the teacher while the rest go to different places trying to locate the answer for the leader. All communication will be through IM synchronous chat such as Line, Facebook, Twitter, Skype, etc. Students will form a group chat with the all group members and the teacher so that the teacher can monitor the conversation. The teacher gives the leader a set of tasks in the form of questions. All questions should be written in the native language so that the students need to use English by themselves. Some example questions are as follows:

- Go to the library and find the definition of the word "scavenger" in the Webster Dictionary.
- How many tables/chairs are there in the canteen?
- How many teachers are there in the Foreign Language Department?
- What is the name of the security guard?
- How many stair-steps are there from the 2nd floor to the 3rd floor?

The questions should require some clarification in order to promote negotiation of meaning between the leader and the group members. The questions should be grouped according to the location of the answer. Some questions may vary such as different

words, floors, places, etc. Each group should start from different locations to prevent overcrowding in one location.

Activity 4: Little Reporter

With the use of a private self-hosted blog or Social Network Sites' closed group like Facebook or Twitter, students will act as reporters for a school newspaper. They will write something about what happens in school or in the classroom. The topic can be varied such as student spotlight, student life, sports, polls, and gossip.

Activity 5: Secret Admirer

The teacher asks students to electronically follow a person whom they admire. This person can be their friend, a singer, or a movie star. Students have to understand the purpose of the activity and be considerate of the constraints when choosing the person whom they will follow. The person should be active in Social Networking Sites. The students will follow that person's timeline using Facebook, Twitter, or other SNS for a week or two. The students can then follow-up by writing a story about that person or a diary entry on that person's weekly activities.

Activity 6: Role Play

Here, the teacher assigns each student a role to play along within the context of the story/setting. For example, a reporter interviews a famous superstar about his/her new movie. Students will take the identity of the person they are pretending to be or are assigned to be and chat with their partner according to the given context.

The teacher should create a context or provide background information for the students so that it is easier for them to communicate with their partner using digital writing tools, especially, IM and Social Network Site' IM chat functions. For example, one student is the reporter and the other student is Britney Spears. The context for this pair can be, "Yesterday Britney Spears had an appointment with a reporter at a coffee shop on Hollywood Boulevard." Moreover, one student can take a role as Batman and the other as Superman within the context of, "Last night Batman met Superman walking out of the telephone booth wearing his costume." The follow up activity for this role play

activity is to write a report of what happened and present it to the class. In this activity, the teacher can introduce different genres for students to write about such as a narrative essay or a column in a magazine or newspaper.

Activity 7: Peer Feedback

In students' learning process, feedback is believed to be an essential element (Pearce, Mulder, & Baik, 2009). It provides students opportunities to practice analytical skills, explore to new ideas, as well as, perspectives of the writing process (ibid., p. 3). This benefits both reviewers and the reviewees. However, peer review sometimes is a tense activity; yet can be more pleasant with the help of digital writing. Peer feedback sessions can be done using IM as in MSN, Line, Facebook, Twitter, and Skype instead of a face-to-face session. Both the author and the reviewer(s) can be anonymous.

This activity is very helpful especially with struggling writers who may be both embarrassed to be criticized face-to-face or too shy to give feedback to their peers directly. This form of peer review activity will not consider language competencies to be a priority in providing feedback. Rather, they can give comments on anything such as topic, content, writing style, organization, etc. The teacher may introduce a compliment sandwich technique. First, students share a compliment about the writing, and then a criticism and follow-up with a final compliment. This technique helps to keep the writer positive about their work being judged.

Activity 8: Closed Group Community

With a feature in the Social Network Site (e.g., Facebook or Twitter), the teacher can create a closed group. Students can use this closed group as a channel to submit any assignment to their teacher, share ideas to the group, share pictures and songs they like with some expressions (emojis). This is a type of learning community where students have a chance to share and learn from each other. Some creative writing assignments can be done by writing a caption of a picture, composing a poem, writing a wish for a classmate's birthday, etc.

The activities using the digital writing tools suggested above only serve as a guideline for teachers to get started with digital writing for the classroom. These activities can be varied depending on the types of the classrooms, students and teachers. Some activities may work well in some classes, but not in others. The topic of the writing is important as well. Many of the suggested activities above offer students the opportunity to write based on their interests. That is because when students have choices to write about their personal interests, they are likely to have better motivation to write and participate in activities; thus, they become active learners (Elbow, 1997).

This is not to say that digital writing is better than any other classroom activity without the use of technology. Yet, it can help fill the gaps that traditional classroom teaching has created. Moreover, instructors can also use digital writing for outside school activities. However, teachers should be sensitive about the issue of equality since not all students will have access to a computer and/or the Internet at home. In this case, teachers may use digital writing as supplemental writing practice and not make it obligatory.

Digital Writing: Some Concerns on Academic Writing

Although digital writing provides many advantages in writing teaching and learning, many English teachers are still concerned that its specific register such as shorthand and emoticons may yield negative impact to many teen users. In particular, digital writing discourse is an informal, speaking style of language which is full of shorthand, abbreviations, and emoticons. This specific discourse register has been continually debated among scholars whether or not it can harm young Generation M learners' academic discourse.

On the one hand, English teachers and scholars are worried that these easy-to-use symbolic abbreviations will likely deconstruct verifiable grammatical rules. They also complain about teen's use of digital writing, especially when using IM, that teens often use a language "style" in their academic writing. For example, teachers found students' papers with shorthand words, characters like '&', and inappropriate capitalization and punctuation.

On the other hand, some linguists and scholars such as L'Abbe (as cited in Zeff, 2007) argue that digital writing discourse does not harm students' language. Crystal

(1998) regards the abbreviations and shorthand which is the phonetic replacement, in which a word such as 'you' becomes 'u' and 'everyone' becomes 'every1,' as a type of word play. He argues that this word play is important in the development of an advanced literacy. "[T]he greater our ability to play with language, . . . the more advanced will be our command of language as a whole" (Ibid., p.181). Hence, from this viewpoint, digital writing register with shorthand and abbreviations leads to increased literacy in adulthood.

Aziz, Shamim, Aziz, and Avais, (2013) find that only 0.03 in every 100 words written by 50 bachelor's degree students were found to be influenced by SMS language. They finally conclude that the concern about the negative effect of SMS language on the standard academic writing is "exaggerated or misplaced" (p. 12889). They further discuss that the errors that students made regarding punctuation is mainly because of students' carelessness and lack of knowledge or training.

From the sociolinguistic scholars' perspective, each of us is a member of many discourse registers, each of which is similar and different to some extent (e.g., Gee, 1996). We learn to use appropriate language within each discourse community, school, friends, and family. Digital writing discourse can be treated as another discourse community where users use shorthand and abbreviations which are known and common among digital writing users. The danger is when teenagers use digital writing discourse in other discourse communities such as school and academic writing. Therefore, language teachers need to educate young Generation M learners on the importance of language appropriateness. They should be aware that this digital writing discourse, shorthand, abbreviations and emoticons make no sense outside of the digital writing discourse community. Thus, they should not use the digital writing discourse in the academic writing discourse.

Conclusion

As mentioned earlier, digital writing offers numerous benefits to writing instruction. Yet, the impact of digital writing on learners' learning depends on how effectively teachers integrate these Internet-based writing environments into their teaching as a supplementary activity. This is not to say that digital writing can solve

students' problems in language proficiency, but it definitely can raise students' motivation and create another attractive and interactive writing environment. It proposes another channel to write English more freely. Therefore, it promotes students to use English communicatively and meaningfully. This, however, does not imply that digital writing can replace conventional, academic writing learning. This digital writing does not enhance learning on its own; however, its effectiveness lies in the way the activities are planned and carried out within the framework of the syllabus of a course. It is the teachers' responsibility to learn how to use this environment in order to design optimal conditions for the students' performance.

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Genre-based approach in Academic English Writing

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Abstract

Genre is a pivotal concept in English-language learning and teaching. Linguistic and pedagogical scholars use a genre-based approach as a legitimate strategy for teaching undergraduate and graduate learners on academic writing courses by practicing the analysis of rhetorical structure and linguistic features of each textual convention. This paper reviews the genre theories of three schools: New Rhetoric (NR), Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL), and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and their applications for a linguistic genre-based approach based on previous studies. The data and methodology of the genre-based approach focus on language and composition in different contexts. Linguistically, referring to a genre-based approach at the graduate level, one qualitative case study encouraged individual participants to examine research articles and develop their awareness of their own disciplinary-specific genre according to the process-genre approach. The impact of a genre-based approach focuses on the textual structure in academic essays and non-academic texts. This paper argues that an ESP genre-based approach in teaching academic writing in the L2 context can contribute to learners' writing development and increase writing awareness in the learners' target genre. This knowledge can shed light on the pedagogical approach as used in academic composition courses with a genre-based approach to rhetorical structures and linguistic features.

Keywords: Academic English Writing, ESP genre, genre-based approach, SFL genre

แนวการสอนแบบอรรถฐานกับการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษเชิงวิชาการ

พิรุณพนา พิเชียรเสถียร

สำนักวิชาศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยแม่ฟ้าหลวง

บทคัดย่อ

อรรถฐานของภาษาเป็นแนวคิดที่สำคัญในการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ นักภาษาศาสตร์และนักวิชาการด้านการศึกษานำรูปแบบอรรถฐานมาเป็นกลวิธีการสอนในกลุ่มผู้เรียนระดับอุดมศึกษาและบัณฑิตศึกษาในวิชาการเขียนเชิงวิชาการ โดยฝึกวิเคราะห์ระบบโครงสร้างทางอรรถฐานและลักษณะทางภาษาของการเขียนแต่ละรูปแบบ บทความนี้ทบทวนทฤษฎีอรรถลักษณะ 3 รูปแบบ คือ อรรถฐานใหม่ อรรถฐานเชิงระบบ และ อรรถฐานภาษาอังกฤษเฉพาะด้าน และศึกษาการนำอรรถฐานทางภาษาไปประยุกต์ใช้ในการศึกษาวิจัย ข้อมูลและกระบวนการวิจัยในการศึกษาอรรถฐานได้จุดประกายให้กับภาษาและการเขียนในบริบทต่างๆ เช่น ส่งเสริมให้ผู้เรียนแต่ละคนตรวจสอบบทความวิจัย และพัฒนาการตระหนักรู้เรื่องอรรถฐานทางภาษาเฉพาะด้านของแต่ละสาขาวิชาของผู้เรียนเองจากกระบวนการทางอรรถลักษณะ และผลการศึกษาอรรถฐานมุ่งเน้นที่รูปแบบเรียงความเชิงวิชาการและรูปแบบที่ไม่เน้นวิชาการ บทความนี้แสดงถึงการศึกษาที่ใช้อรรถฐานทางภาษาอังกฤษเฉพาะด้านกับวิชาการเขียนเชิงวิชาการในบริบทการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาที่สองที่ส่งเสริมให้ผู้เรียนพัฒนาการเขียนและเพิ่มทักษะการตระหนักรู้ในอรรถลักษณะของรูปแบบการเขียนที่เป็นเป้าหมาย ความรู้ที่ได้จากบทความนี้จะชี้ให้เห็นแนวทางการจัดการเรียนการสอนที่นำโครงสร้างทางอรรถฐานและลักษณะทางภาษาของอรรถฐาน มาใช้ในวิชาการเขียนเชิงวิชาการ

คำสำคัญ: การเขียนเชิงวิชาการ, ทฤษฎีการสอนแบบอรรถฐาน, อรรถฐานภาษาอังกฤษเฉพาะด้าน, อรรถฐานเชิงระบบ

Introduction

It is widely recognized that there are a growing number of academic English courses in both the L1 and L2 university context. Of particular interest and complexity is the genre-based approach (GBA) to teaching academic writing in the L2 classroom. Within the realm of scientific research, L2 graduate learners have to compose a thesis or a dissertation. Similarly, L2 undergraduate learners must write academic essays, and it is a challenge for such learners to compose research articles and academic essays. With both non-linguistic and linguistic approaches, studies of genre analysis (GA) have been applied in writing classrooms for decades (Flowerdew, 2002). Scholars can use genre to determine and identify the conventions of the lexicon, grammar, and textual structure in different academic areas. Hence, a GBA has become critically significant in the teaching of academic English writing to L2 learners.

This article reviews recent research on GBA in academic English writing. The objectives of this paper are to clarify the notion of GBA theories and to discuss the applications of GBA to academic English writing in the classroom. Empirical studies of GBA have been conducted at both graduate and undergraduate level. This paper will argue that among university undergraduate learners, the conceptualization of GBA has been applied in some studies emphasizing the textual level of the essay or a business letter, without considering the type of text appropriate to research reports as written in academic English. Therefore, this article will discuss the data and findings of previous studies that indicate that GBA can have a beneficial effect on the pedagogical study of academic English writing.

The paper is organized as follows: it begins with the definition of genre, and then differentiates genre into three main streams, New Rhetoric (NR), Systemic-Functional Linguistics (SFL), and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). From the discourse standpoint, genre in linguistics (SFL and ESP) is more likely to be discussed at the semiotic level or as a lexical function in context and the conventional structure of the entire text with disciplinary variations. Focusing on the textual level, the text type of data and methodology used and applied in GBA studies will be discussed. Lastly, this paper will draw some conclusions.

Genre theories

The term genre has been employed to categorize literary writing, e.g., ballads, novels, plays, poems, prose, and short stories since the 1960s (Abdullah, 2009). Since the 1970s, genre has also been applied to recognize academic and professional writing (e.g., abstracts, research articles; brochures, and company audits) (e.g. Swales, 1990, 2004; Bhatia, 1993). Similarly, the acknowledgement of genre has been redefined in applied linguistics (e.g. Bhaktin, 1986; Bhatia, 1993; Flowerdew, 2013; Hyland, 2004; Swales, 1990, 2004). For example, Swales (1990) defined the genre as “a set of communicative events. The members of which share some set of communicative purposes” (p. 58) in the social and cultural context of speech and writing. Although genre refers to a category, type, kind or style in the dictionary definition of the Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2005), a variety of genre classifications and conceptualizations are found in its applications.

Genre-based approach

Genre definitions and origin theories can be found in studies of folklore, literature, and syntax (Swales, 1990). First, genre in folklore can be divided into three categories: myths, legends, and tales. Subjectively, although it seems a reasonable approach to categorizing textual structure, it is recognized that the discourse elements and the role of the text can change depending on a particular society or culture. For example, if writing styles and literary-conventional forms depend upon cultural values, myths are based on those elements (Li-Ming, 2012). Nevertheless, GA is meaningful for the folklore community as it helps define the orientation of their literature.

In literature, genre theory elicits the communicative purposes that people share in the same discourse communities or cultural contexts. However, genre in this sense identifies the meaning of composing and a universal understanding between writers and readers (Swales, 1990). For instance, if one reads lesbian literature as, for example, *Fingersmith* by Sarah Waters, the reader could conclude that the multitude in that community may be disturbed. Probably, from a social point of view, an individual will judge and condemn people in this community. Hence, not only what a writer writes, but

also how a reader reads and interprets the writing critically is meaningful for genre in literature.

Additionally, linguistic genre influences textual structures and terminology. Hallidayean researchers (e.g., van Dijk, 1997; Fairclough, 1989; Fairclough & Wodak, 1997) studied systematic functional linguistics (SFL) genre in terms of the field (school of content studied), tenor (status and role of participant), and mode (in spoken or written communication). Accordingly, lexical words used in different contexts, such as “what would you like?”, may express different meanings depending on the relationship of the speaker and hearer. For example, if the speaker is a sales assistant in a department store and the hearer is a customer, the expression will be used with politeness. Hence, a genre in linguistics is defined by Saville-Troike (as cited in Swales, 1990, p. 39) as a “type of communicative event” in speech and text, especially, in terms of text type for communicative purposes in a societal community, it concentrates on the semiotic level or lexical function in context rather than in the formal structure of the full text. Thus, genre can be distinguished as social actions in a communicative sense in folklore, literature, and philology.

As already mentioned, the diversities within genre theory depend on the communicative dimensions and purposes participants share in discourse communities. In order to recognize GA, three schools have been developed since the 1970s in English for specific purposes (ESP), North American rhetoric studies (NR), and Australian systemic-functional linguistics (SFL) (see also Hyland, 2007; Hyon, 1996; Johns, 2002; Swales, 1990).

Genre in a new rhetoric: North American school

The definition and concept of genre in the “new rhetoric school” (NR), a specific group of North American theorists (e.g., Freedman & Medway, 1994; Miller, 1984), were implemented to scrutinize language convention. Studies of genre applied Bakhtin’s recognition theory (1986) of dialogue with postmodern social and literary scheme in the L1 context (e.g. Freeman & Medway, 1994). One may use language in some situations and react in a recurrent state with similar or different communication purposes. To identify these aspects, genre here pinpoints a social activity in the context

of speech features within textual patterns. With respect to the “flexible, plastic, and loose” (Bakhtin, 1986, p. 79) concept, a social action here focuses on the periodic and accurate communication which one converses with in the forms and patterns used within a community. Therefore, scholars in NR focus on the outcomes of the genre in social contexts and consider why people produce language differently in related situations (Hyland, 2007; Johns, 2002; Swales, 1990).

GA studies seem more open to individual actions than from a linguistic aspect that embraces ideological and social perspectives by using a “stabilized-for-now” form. This means that the textual orientation is an element in a discourse study, whereas a social action carries on the convention of negotiation (Miller, 1994, p. 24). As Flowerdew and Wan (2010) mention, GA in NR focuses on ethnography in people’s activities, attitudes, behaviors, beliefs, and values as parts of the discourse community. Similarly, Flowerdew (2011) and Johns (2002) anticipated that the communication between writer and reader recognized the role of social relations and power plays. Thus, as Johns (2002) characterized GBA by this school in academic writing courses, it might benefit learners to explore their writing for general purposes rather than for specific form and function.

Genre in linguistics: Sydney school

Unlike NR, linguistic genre in this school focuses on textual orientation. Hyon (1996) called this approach the Sydney school because linguists and instructors from the University of Sydney in Australia implemented it in courses for adult immigrants and pre-university learners and it is originated from Michael Halliday’s SFL (Hyland, 2007). Genre is defined as “a stage, [a] goal oriented social process” (Martin, 1992, p. 505) in spoken and written language. Based on social semiotics, Halliday (1978) addresses linguistic features and social functions on two levels: register and genre. The connection of text and context to determine choices of register is influenced by contextual variables: field (the topic of language), tenor (community relationship), and mode (the organization of text). When learners write an essay entitled, “Smart Phone addiction affects learners’ concentration,” they will use a specific way for the teacher-reader (e.g., tenor) and consider suitable vocabulary to use in writing the text. In addition, learners make a

genre choice regarding the structure of the essay as argumentative, descriptive, or problem-solving. Therefore, text produced in each situation is shaped by communicative purposes, by the genre characteristic within different contexts, and by the systematic language-context connection.

Genre in this school emphasizes communicative language in text (linguistic features), and context (rhetorical structures). In fact, genre is sometimes called a “text type” (Biber, Conrad, & Reppen, 1998, p. 169; Biber, 1989, p. 6) as a textual organization or basic elemental genres (Martin, 1992), i.e., expository, argumentative essay, etc. Additionally, macrogenre (Martin, 1992), or location SFL, is used to label larger genre units such as research reports, essays, and political speeches (Hyland, 2007; Kress, 1990). Productively, one can compose an essay, indicate the author’s objectives, and distinguish genre by examining a set of texts that can share the same purpose and structure in the same genre. However, an internal linguistic criterion has been emphasized by identifying different text types from vocabulary, grammar, and cohesion patterns (Hyland, 2007). Consequently, it seems that this genre has been generally accepted and implemented in K12 and at adult-learner levels (Johns, 2002) in order to examine standard structures of the text, and stages of rhetorical moves by using the SFL GBA focus on grammatical varieties.

Genre in linguistics: ESP school

Significantly, ESP genre, as a current method in the US (Johns, 2002), refers to a class of communicative events in a spoken and written discourse community. As Bhatia (1993) and Swales (1990) mentioned, individuals in an academic field provide their practice with a set of purposes, and those purposes are determined by specialists in the field and become a consistent pattern for a specific discipline. Consequently, writing in an academic genre is a convention of language used in the internal academic essay, research report, and dissertation. As Flowerdew (2002) classified genre in linguistics (the SFL and ESP schools) and non-linguistics (NR school), ESP researchers of genre concentrate on textual convention which is similar to the SFL concept. Thus, it seems that the investigation of the internal and external factors of a text might be categorized into academic and professional contexts, respectively.

Based on Swales' (1990, 2004) model of introductions to academic-research articles create research-spaces (CARS), GA is seemingly used to define the sequence of text moves and sub-moves in a text. Along these lines, the macrostructure (Introduction-Methods-Results-Discussion [IMRD] pattern) and rhetorical structure of academic writing production (e.g. research articles [Swales, 1990, 2004]) may be able to prepare learners to write academic articles in their field before graduating. In order to examine the convention of genre or text type at the discourse level (lexico-grammatical features) and functional grammar (or its social context), learners should analyze texts in terms of their rhetorical features and identify the meaning of authentic texts (Flowerdew, 2002).

Illuminating the differences in rhetorical structure and language features in macrostructure, authentic research articles are restricted to specific disciplines. For example, Posteguillo (1999) proposed that the regular pattern of computer-science research articles is Introduction, Results, and Discussion sections. Hence, studies of ESP academic genre have investigated the structure of academic articles in various disciplines (e.g. biochemistry [Kanoksilapatham, 2005], engineering [Kanoksilapatham, 2012], and implemented them into their pedagogy [e.g. Cheng, 2011]) as part of research-based language education and needs analysis in the L2 context for more than three decades (Cheng, 2007; Paltridge & Starfield, 2007; Swales & Feak, 2004).

However, focusing on Bhatia's (1993) Professional English setting, the situational context or external text features are more likely to be analytical than purely linguistic in terms of a communicative event and its purposes, and they are also likely to identify writer-reader roles. To implement ESP in the classroom, learners should have an insight into the sociological, cultural and language disciplines which affect the writing of texts. As a result of these requirements, Swami (2008) provided a set of academic and professional genre types for implementation in the classroom.

Since distinguished notions of the theoretical framework established by Bakhtin, Halliday, or Swales, the concept of genre has led to analytical discourse in the writing classroom as shown in Figure 1 and Table 1. It seems that the application of ESP and SFL genre is based on the textual convention of the target genre. The academic writing genre here refers to research articles and academic essays. In spite of the beneficial concepts of genre in the two linguistic schools mentioned, the focus has been on textual-

based analysis and aims to provide standard model for L2 learners. There has been some consideration of its implications based on the target text and communicative purposes between writer-reader. Nevertheless, there has been criticism of the drawbacks of the application of genre features, and social context for the L2 multi-disciplinary classroom. Due to the specificity of each discipline, the requirement of time is essential for the teacher to clarify the purposes and language features for particular L2 learners with lower levels of English proficiency. Such learners are less likely to be able to read and write in particular academic genres.

Another serious weakness in NR genre is in terms of social context which means that L2 analysts might be sophisticated in the language produced by L1 writers owing to the dynamics of the text and context. Likewise, in Bhatia's (1993) situational contexts of communicative genres, it is recognized that the language used in a company is based on various discourse features, such as voices, points of view, and styles. The analysts should be aware of the cultural and situational background of the various textual conventions. In addition, NR genre is complex and acquires actual knowledge of genre, but using simplified texts taught in the classroom provided an artificial context for learners. It is possible that the implementation of GA will not be generalized in authentic environments (Hyland, 2007). Consequently, focusing on the linguistic GBA, some skeptical observers reveals that genre knowledge may still be of benefit in the implementation of teaching. The next section will discuss the applications of ESP (Swales' GA) and SFL schools in the classroom.

The application of linguistic genres from previous studies

As previously mentioned, the linguistic ESP genre concentrates on academic writing situations (Flowerdew, 2013) in terms of disciplinary conventions. To be exact, L2 learners create their own writing tasks with a high level of English proficiency in their professional field to establish the academic discourse community, so that it is obligatory to use the relevant language and rhetorical structures of the target genre in each field. In fact, authentic texts produced by L1 writers in a discursive disciplinary community is examined (Devitt, 2004; Hyland, 2002) by L2 learners to recognize analytically, creatively, and purposively the selected lexical choices and composing

regular patterns of the target genre. Another approach, the SFL genre, is concerned with examining the linguistic features and rhetorical structure in academic essays. Subsequently, this paper reviews the implementation of ESP academic genre and SFL genre in the classroom context. Some scholars (e.g., Cheng, 2007; Henry & Roseberry, 1998; Hsu, 2006; Kuteeva, 2010, 2013) have advocated that graduate and undergraduate learners can engage in using the target genres in their writing practice.

Genre-based approach (GBA) at the graduate level

In an L2 graduate classroom context, scholars have integrated ESP genre in academic writing courses (e.g., Cheng, 2006a; Kuteeva 2010, 2013; Swami, 2008). By examining the language features and the schematic structure of moves and steps, these studies illustrate how the GBA approach improves graduate learners' writing and analytical skills.

Cheng (2006b, 2007, 2008a, 2008b, 2011) implemented ESP genre-based instruction with a series of case studies with 42 international graduate learners in two academic writing courses at two US universities. At the beginning of the course, after establishing their learning purposes in terms of the study background and language capability, six Taiwanese participants— Fengchen (Cheng, 2006b, 2007, 2008b), Ling (Cheng, 2007, 2008a), and four graduate learners (Cheng, 2011) — were selected to be interviewed. Qualitatively, genre awareness was determined after analyzing their writing assignments and annotations. The purpose was to raise the awareness of linguistic features and rhetorical features between non-academic and academic genres. Cheng motivated learners to discuss how they examined four interrelated in-class GA tasks as examples for class discussion. These tasks aimed to clarify the rhetorical context comprising the authors' and readers' roles and communicative purpose. Consequently, among the four sections of research articles: introduction (I), method (M), result (R), discussion (D), and conclusion, knowledge of the moves and steps of the rhetorical structures and lexico-grammatical features in different disciplines could increase learner's awareness of the target genre.

More importantly, based on a qualitative discovery-based approach, learners examined five research articles collected from their own fields (Swales & Feak, 2009).

One short, general background paragraph from three individual research-article introduction sections was collected to be used for discussion of in-class materials. Moreover, learners were assigned to analyze eight out-of-class GA tasks to give them insight into a variety of moves and steps in research-article IMRD sections. Open-coded and inductive analysis was used to group the idea of keywords, phrases, and notes from learners' annotations and reflections. Based on a specific disciplinary genre, Cheng's studies (2006b, 2007, 2008a, 2008b) emphasized text-based analysis to understand genre knowledge, rhetorical context, and situation from self-reflection of the GA literacy narrative task. Conversely, the NR genre (in terms of context based on social actions, purposes, and responses) was used in the ESP genre framework to contribute to the learners understanding of research articles genre in context (Cheng, 2011). Cheng (2008a) investigated the application of GA in literacy tasks to get insight into learner standpoints (or goals of learning) and their analysis and production of a target genre. Overall, according to Cheng's studies (2006b, 2007, 2008a, 2008b, 2011), GA tasks in this context are seemingly used as a self-directed learning tool allowing the transfer of genre knowledge from reading to writing. However, this approach only allows advanced learners to engage and develop rhetorical structures and lexico-grammatical features of academic writing in a degree-research genre.

Swami (2008) determined the effectiveness of GBA applications in writing courses with postgraduate learners in India. A set of genres, such as a non-academic genre (sales promotion letter and job application letter) and academic genre (expository essay) were designed as in-class GA materials. Pre- and post-tests, five questionnaires, and a teaching journal were collected for the analysis of qualitative and quantitative data. Subsequently, the findings of the study revealed that the learners' writing performance improved effectively through GA sample tasks, and their cognitive awareness also increased across different genres, the rhetorical structures of moves, and sub-moves and linguistic features.

Kuteeva (2010, 2013) implemented online interaction and GBA applications in different disciplines of PhD and masters' learners in Swedish university research writing courses. Only four disciplines of the heterogeneous groups were selected, and 95 pieces of GA writing tasks were analyzed. Although the tasks for doctoral class were designed

to analyze the structure, citation practices, data commentary, and the conclusion, the tasks for master-level learners concentrated on the overall organization of academic texts. In order to promote genre-awareness, GA in-class materials were designed for the humanities learners; a hands-on genre-based approach (examine-and-report-back) was used to allow learners to recontextualize (Cheng, 2007) and crystalize the similarities and differences of a disciplinary-specific genre. In short, using a process-genre approach, learners could compose, edit, and evaluate their own genre production with peers and teachers from online collaboration. Even though the technological communication used in Wiki and online Fora self-study was a vital tool to share short writing tasks, improve learners' writing, and raise learners' awareness, this approach might limit the linkage of their ideas and organization of peer evaluation.

As previously noted, emphasis on raising awareness of the rhetorical structures of moves and steps and lexico-grammatical features with advanced PhD and MA learners could significantly bridge non-academic writing forms through academic genre forms (e.g., from job application letters to research articles) as demonstrated in studies by Cheng (2006b, 2007, 2008a, 2008b, 2011), Kuteeva (2010, 2013) and Swami (2008). Moreover, GBA approaches with qualitative, narrative assignments (self-reflection, annotation, and self-evaluation) by Cheng (2006b, 2007, 2008a, 2008b, 2011) encourage graduate learners to engage in GA for their writing development and raising their genre awareness. In fact, a GA sample task related to the rhetorical structures and language features could be used to enhance learners' insight into their own target genre. Additionally, learners' awareness of the notion of specific genres and genre production were stimulated through interwoven literacy skills (by shifting from comprehension as a "writerly reader" to their own reflections and explanations as a "readerly writer") (Cheng, 2007; Hirvera, 2004; Kuteeva, 2013).

Qualitatively, apart from an ethnographic analysis (e.g. Cheng, 2007, 2008a, 2008b), the application of ESP GA in academic writing courses for graduate learners emphasizes class observation, learners' reflection of classroom activities and learning outcomes, and online collaboration (Kuteeva, 2013). These approaches can contribute to analytical thinking when learners are engaged in the writing process with a classroom

discussion session to guide learners toward a writing strategy which should lead to a greater awareness of genre.

In the adult education level, a case study of eight English pre-service teachers in Sweden was also conducted (Negretti & Kuteeva, 2011). Negretti and Kuteeva concentrated on using Swales' (1990) GA in a seminar class to examine metacognitive awareness in an academic reading and writing course. The GA study was designed to examine raising-awareness of rhetorical contexts, and discourse communication by using academic articles from three different disciplines of (linguistics, literature, and English language teaching). Seemingly, using online tasks encourages learners to identify the nature of genre, specificity of disciplinary rhetorical structure, and the lexical choice used and encourages students to make comparisons with their friends, as well as using observational data which comprised group discussions and the learners being asked to make summaries of what they had learned. However, with the limitation of time constraints, six weeks was not enough to demonstrate learners' developments in metacognitive, reading, and writing skills.

Additionally, a qualitative GBA study of an instructional framework was conducted with six voluntary pre-service Turkish learners conducted by Yayli (2011). He carried out his study of six English primary and secondary teachers' annotations, interviews, and pre-post instructional interviews by using open-ended questions. With two drafts of an in-class writing assignment and one annotation of the first draft of the writing assignment, learners could reflect on their own writing in these tasks. By adopting the principles of genre-based writing instruction from Hyland (2007), the writing activities were designed to include planning learning, sequencing learning, supporting learning and assessing learning. In this way, genres were sequenced in order from easy to difficult (e.g. e-mail to essay writing) in order to increase learner motivation through greater challenges. Thus, this study used the SFL GA framework to gradually enhance peer and teacher interaction in terms of consciousness and knowledge sharing (Hyland, 2007) rather than through knowledge discovery (Cheng, 2007).

However, the contribution of shared communication classroom activities can result in learners reflecting and annotating progressively in the genre sample tasks. In Cheng's (2007) terms of validity, the in-class writing assignment was designed to

increase regularities or consistency of generic features according to moves and steps and lexical choices. Moreover, raising-awareness of rhetorical and textual organization can occur by modeling learners with GA sample tasks (as a set of heuristics) to resolve learners' writing problems in their theses and dissertations (Cheng, 2007). Consequently, Yayli clarified that the intervention of GBA in the writing process can encourage learners to deploy textual analysis by using a generic structure of moves and steps and genre orientation to enhance contextualization of the target genre. Therefore, GBA can become a useful multi-dimensional approach for learners to get insight into the communicative roles of writers in a variety of rhetorical situations before writing one genre or trying to write across genres. However, it might not be very appropriate for L2 practitioners due to the difficulty of the academic language and text organization in authentic texts.

Genre-based approach (GBA) at the Undergraduate level

Studies of GBA in the undergraduate context aim to heighten learners' performance in literacy skills, critical thinking, and content acquisition in specific writing courses. In fact, scholars (e.g., Henry & Roseberry, 1998; Lerdpreedakorn, 2009) developed the use of GA in academic composition courses to raise learners' cognitive awareness by means of comparing a genre-based and a non- genre-based approach (Henry & Roseberry, 1998; Pang, 2002) and one single group (Hsu, 2006; Kongpetch, 2006; Lerdpreedakorn, 2009; Negretti & Kuteeva, 2011; Nueva, 2013)

In the Henry and Roseberry classic GBA study (1998), 34 first-year management students (divided into a genre group and a non-genre group) in Brunei Darussalam were asked to compose a short tourist-information text. However, two separate units were assigned to the two groups of participants (one teacher with one group; another teacher with another using a group design). In order to evaluate the effectiveness of GBA in academic writing, the textual genre was administered as a pre-test before the experiment and the final output for the post-test was divided into three parts: motivation, move, and text. Afterwards, learners' writing tasks were appraised by two raters with the highest degree (10) for motivation to non-motivation (0); the deliberation of move index was adopted from Hatch and Lazaration (as cited in Henry and Roseberry, 1998).

A textual index was adopted from Roseberry (1995), in which the first six clauses of the textual genre were measured in terms of conjunctions, conjunctive reach, specificity, connectivity, topic, and topic from a low (0) to a high (2) degree. To standardize the macrostructure of tourist-information genres, the 20 textual genres were analyzed for consistency in the obligatory and optional rhetorical moves. Although there were six GA sample tasks of the target genre which the learners could use as models to write informative academic texts, the results revealed that the GA tasks were not significantly different from the traditional approach in terms of the textual index.

In the interim, learners' performance did not reveal their motivation and it was not possible to measure their moves. Nevertheless, post-test scores of individual learners in the genre group illustrated significantly different higher post-test scores than for the non-genre learners. However, if a GBA framework is adopted, the teaching and learning cycles tend to be time-consuming and require frequent practical exercise to develop learners' competence.

On the contrary, when Pang (2002) studied GBA application and contextual awareness in a writing course, it was found that these approaches contributed to learners' writing development. By using register analysis, learners examined the situational context of the film review as a target genre to develop awareness of social context; meanwhile, textual structures focused on the rhetorical move structure and linguistic features of SFL genre. The results of the pre- and post-test of the two approaches were compiled to compare the differences and similarities. In terms of writing performance, the results of the genre textual analysis and contextual register analysis revealed similar improvements in the use of appropriate lexical conventions in both the specific genre and the real-life situation. Thus, in terms of discourse analysis, this study focused on the specific communicative purposes of a film review.

Likewise, Kongpetch (2006) established the application of SFL GA and also an ethnographic case study (Cheng, 2007) with 42 Thai EFL learners which focused on the lexico-grammatical features of an expository essay. Based on four teaching and learning cycles suggested by Hammond, Burns, Joyce, Brosnan, and Gerot (as cited in Kongpetch, 2006), Kongpetch designed teaching materials and a course based on the principle of GBA. The findings suggest that when learners use the SFL pedagogical

model they develop language awareness through writing a diary, make drafts of their written work, and also participate in a classroom discussion session. In sum, based on the teacher's comments and learners' level of writing engagement, this model could contribute to learners' writing performance of linguistic features, such as grammar, and vocabulary.

Using Swales' move framework, Hsu (2006) investigated the effectiveness of the ESP GA on two groups of participants majoring in English in a research-writing course in Taiwan. A variety of GA tasks were used to encourage learners to examine the overall rhetorical organization and lexico-grammatical features of the written assignment. More interestingly, focusing on grammar and syntax, the key findings suggested that GBA intervention could ease learners' writing development in terms of rhetorical structure. Nevertheless, the study could not endorse learners' achievement in their use of lexico-grammatical features. Along with the discussion panel in the writing process stage, the effectiveness of the GA in-class materials (e.g., business letters) increased learners' awareness of context, collocation, and content. However, because of time constraints, the preparation of GA materials needed more time for design and integration into the classwork.

Furthermore, Lerdpreedakorn (2009) investigated the effects of the use of SFL GA to develop writing performance in argumentative essays with 39 Thai EFL learners majoring in English. This Australian program adapted in-class materials and teaching and learning cycles of the discussion text were designed for eight weeks (2 hours per week) to recognize learners' and teacher's perceptions. Indeed, the study compiled the quantitative and qualitative data, self-assessment questionnaire (before and after each three teaching and learning stages [modeling, joint construction, and independent writing]), learners' written texts (comprising high, medium, and low performance), semi-structured interviews, a teacher's observational journal and learners' diaries. Although the teacher observed a positive impact which revealed that the GBA application improved learners' writing and contributes to the learners' composition skills in a discussion genre, there were also some negative impacts from the study. Specifically, due to the limitation of time, some learners in the three different groups needed more time to become involved with the textual conventions and classroom collaboration.

Moreover, because of the limitations in their grammatical knowledge, some learners felt unable to compose their texts individually.

Similar to Lerdpreedakorn, Chaisiri (2010) determined teachers' and learners' perception of the GBA implementation in the SFL Australian framework. By using questionnaires and interviews, 63 writing English respondents were collected and 10 English teachers from one campus were randomly assigned to take part in a semi-structured interview session to survey teachers' perspectives in the 1st phase. Through eight (two and a half-hour) weekly classes of phase 2, learners engaged in the use of GA along with three teaching and learning stages with four different text types (recounting, instruction/process, explanation, and argument). Moreover, learners were asked to take part in a focus group panel at the end of each class. In key findings, the effects of the use of GBA resulted in a higher level of satisfaction and writing improvements as a result of learners' new-found perceptions.

Similarly, Rohman (2011) implemented the ESP professional genre (Bhatia's [1993] framework) and writing process approach of non-academic text in a writing course in India. The writing stage was designed from a modeled-genre introduction, discussion through analysis, and drafts sequenced through evaluations of the product, by using qualitative methods, Rohman collected data from learners' writing tasks (focused on grammatical structure used in letter writing), observation of classroom discussion, and annotated self-reflection. The findings reveal that the development of self-reliance in advanced L2 learners could not be determined; meanwhile, L2 learners at the beginning and intermediate level were more motivated and showed much more improvement. As an illustration, lower level learners were able to compose their writing with practical and flexible patterns from the GA activities. Furthermore, although GBA enhanced learners' awareness of a discourse community to develop an accurate logical structure, this study was only able to use a few GA tasks. As a result, it might be an obstacle for L2 learners to understand the text external investigation in a situational context.

Changpueng (2012) implemented GBA in an ESP occupational course for 40 engineering students who were required to write requests and enquiries in e-mails and reports. Even though the course materials and provided tasks were designed and based

on Bhatia's (1993) framework, the collected assignments were analyzed according to Swales' model. The activities used in the teaching and learning cycles were based on Feeze (as cited in Changpueng, 2012), and they were designed to help learners understand the genre knowledge and develop their writing. Thus, learners at a high or low English level can use appropriate language when writing their tasks. This finding illustrates that the GBA experiment developed learner's writing significantly which was demonstrated by the differences of the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in control and experimental group.

Nueva (2013) determined the effect of genre-based instruction (GBI) with 40 undergraduates of veterinary science in the Philippines. By using the score criteria from an IELTS rubric, the assessment indicated from the pre-test and post-test scores that learners developed their learning. In fact, the higher post-test scores showed that the GBA implementation influenced the learners' proficiency level and writing awareness in the use of news articles. The findings reveal that learners' productions resulted in a few mistakes in content, text organization, and sentence structure.

As regards the Sydney and ESP approaches, the combination of Bhatia's and Swales' ESP genre and SFL genre have been implemented in an undergraduate setting. Focusing on SFL genre, some studies integrated the approach to help learners' writing development (Chaisiri, 2010; Kongpetch, 2006; Lerdpreedakorn, 2009). This helps learners to develop an understanding of the genre knowledge and communicative purposes and improves the structure of sentences and language used in the target genre (academic essay) by examining the rhetorical features and language features. Adapting the applications of Swales' concept, some researchers (Henry & Roseberry, 1998; Hsu, 2006; Nueva, 2013) also encouraged learners to examine the text organization and language of non-academic texts (such as, letters, news articles, and informative texts).

For example, the applications of ESP GA and SFL register analysis were determined from a case study in Hong Kong (Flowerdew, 2000). A group of engineering students integrated the analytical, effective rhetorical structure of IMRD research articles and the problem-solution pattern to write their senior projects. However, some studies focus on contextual investigation to raise learners' writing awareness (Pang, 2002). In addition, bridging Bhatia's genre and writing approach can help learners to understand

grammar, structure, and vocabulary used in writing a letter (Rohman, 2011). Also, Changpueng's (2012) study determined a set of professional genres in teaching materials and applied Swales' model to analyze learners' tasks.

As noted, although GBA approaches can contribute to the insights of undergraduates into the textual organization and language used in the target genre after practicing the use of genre analysis, it needs to be pointed out that there are some drawbacks of SFL and ESP genre applications which can occur in different settings. Thus, the application of the two approaches will be discussed in the next section.

Conclusion

This paper presents and discusses genre theories and GBA applications in linguistic ESP and SFL schools. According to the theoretical dimension, GBA focuses on language and composition in different contexts. Qualitatively, referring to GBA studies at graduate level, a case study encouraged individual learners to scrutinize certain tasks and develop their awareness of their own disciplinary-specific genre by means of the writing process. The data of other studies were drawn from classroom-activity observation, self-annotation reflecting analysis or portfolios, and learners' interviews. Using a hands-on "examine-and-report-back" approach in some studies could motivate learners to transfer their knowledge of genre from reading and analyzing to their writing. Accordingly, based on the concepts of GA (Swales, 2004), sample tasks led learners to examine and practice the rhetorical organization of moves and steps as well as lexicogrammatical features of research article introductions.

By the same token, referring to Swami (2008), the rhetorical structure of moves and steps, and the discursive communication of academic essays were combined in the pedagogical materials (e.g. academic essay, job application letter, and sales promotion letter). Remarkably, GA materials encouraged learners to identify similar organizational structures across genres (situation-problem-response-evaluation pattern to IMRD research articles). Furthermore, this model focuses on the discourse perception of communicative purpose within the target genre.

Some research studies on the evaluation of GBA in undergraduate level as applied in Brunei, Ethiopia, Hong Kong, India, Philippine, Taiwan, Thailand, and

Turkey focused on the textual structure in an academic essay. Only a study in Sweden emphasized metacognitive awareness in academic articles (Negretti & Kuteeva, 2011). Most studies were qualitative (e.g. Henry & Roseberry, 1998; Nueva, 2013), but a few used mixed methods in a heterogeneous group of English sub-disciplines at the undergraduate level (Yayli, 2011). Moreover, some studies conducted GBA intervention in teachers' and learners' perceptions (Chaisiri, 2010; Lerdpreedakorn, 2009). Other scholars focused on ESP genre framework (e.g. Swales [1990] CARS model, [Flowerdew, 2000; Hsu, 2006; Negretti & Kuteeva, 2011]; and Bhatia, [1993], [Changpueng, 2012; Rohman, 2011]). However, other genre school approaches have been used (e.g. NR [Pang, 2002], SFL [Chaisiri, 2010; Henry & Roseberry, 1998; Kongpetch, 2006; Lerdpreedakorn, 2009; Pang, 2002; Yayli, 2011]) which are related to the textual structure of business text and academic articles.

In tandem with experimental research at the undergraduate level, these studies analyzed a teaching approach affecting learners' engagement with and development of their writing (e.g. Henry & Roseberry, 1998; Nueva, 2013; Yayli, 2011). Only one pre- and post-test design was intended to focus learners' contextual awareness in the target genre (Pang, 2002). Some studies emphasized how teachers and learners saw the effects of the GBA invention during the writing process (e.g., Chaisiri, 2010; Changpueng, 2012; Lerdpreedakorn, 2009). However, as Henry and Roseberry (1998) mentioned, learners' writing performance can be measured from pre- and post-test scores in terms of the textual structure, but learners' writing development might not always improve in terms of rhetorical move structure. Also, the genre examples may lead to limited knowledge of lexico-grammatical features (Hyon, 2002).

Though some scholars combined the three different frameworks, as such, using NR approach in essay writing (e.g., Flowerdew, 2000) and applying ESP framework at an essay level (e.g., Amogne, 2013), they might consider the use of GA application with the appropriate target genre (or text type). That is, based on linguistic genre, SFL GA encourages undergraduate learners to analyze and develop the academic essay; meanwhile, ESP GA focuses on the analysis of rhetorical organization and lexico-grammatical features of academic research articles at the graduate level. These studies integrate GBA in the writing process to contribute to raising the awareness of learners'

when they compose an academic essay or research article. In this way, according to Feeze (as cited in Changpueng, 2012 and Hyland, 2007), five teaching and learning cycles were designed in SFL studies based on a pedagogical writing model: building the context, modeling and deconstructing the text, joint construction of the text, independent construction of the text, and linking related text. Meanwhile, ESP studies focus on the implementation of writing process-based orientation. Moreover, although these scholars have argued the possibility of American ESP GA application with L2 graduate writers and Australian SFL GA with L2 undergraduate learners, some findings of the studies were eliminated by removing negative results from sufficient learners (Rohman, 2011).

Accordingly, using GBA application in the classroom should be based on the relevant principles of the course curriculum, teaching and learning cycles, and learners' context. Depending upon the target genre, instructors should consider the appropriate framework to guide learners as to how language is used in a particular genre (e.g., using SFL genre for academic essays, ESP Swales' genre for academic research articles and report, and Bhatia ESP for business letters). If the contribution of the writing course emphasizes developing learners' performance by means of genre knowledge, communicative purposes, and writer and reader roles, GBA is a meaningful approach in pedagogies. That is to say, it helps learners to raise their awareness in written tasks in terms of vocabulary, grammatical structure, and textual organization. However, GBA is probably evaluated as less useful for learners because the simplified materials provided by instructors can limit learners' ideas (Badge & White, 2000).

Additionally, instructors should anticipate the situational context of the learners' background and target genres (Byram, 2004) for their sufficiency. It is possible to say that GBA may seem meaningless for motivating active learners if instructors spend too much of their time on knowledge of genre. More importantly, although these concerns may be true, the application of GBA can be productive with regard to the writing process approach (Badge & White, 2000). Therefore, despite the emphasis on the development of learners' writing products by using the genre approach, the teaching and learning cycles should be carefully designed and scaffolded to help develop learners' writing processes by means of GBA investigation. Thus, instructors can implement the GBA approach with a process approach in writing courses as a genre-process approach.

Likewise, a hands-on examine-and-report-back model as in Kuteeva's study (2013) seems to be a useful approach for graduate learners.

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Appendix:

Table 1 A Summary of Genre-Issue in Three Approaches

Issue of Genre	NR school	Australian SFL	ESP
Definition	Social action	Staged, social action	Communicative event
Context/focus	Specific communities	Two levels of text in situation context (register) and cultural context (genre)	Discourse communities share own set of genre (e.g., discipline and field)
Conceptual framework	Bakhtin's notion of dialogism (1986)	Halliday's SFL (1978)	Swales' (1990, 2004) CARS and Bhatia's (1993) 'moves'
Analysis	Ethnographic methods	Schematic structure and stage in microgenre (or text type) (e.g., essay) and contextual variation in register (pattern) (e.g. narrative)	Two levels of move analysis (move and step) in schematic structure and linguistic features
Pedagogical contexts	L1-general writing and social context	All educational levels: primary, secondary school and adult migrant learners; more focus on rhetorical structure and lexico-grammatical features	Academic writing and professional courses in L2 graduate and post graduate learners; focus on authentic research articles within discourse communities

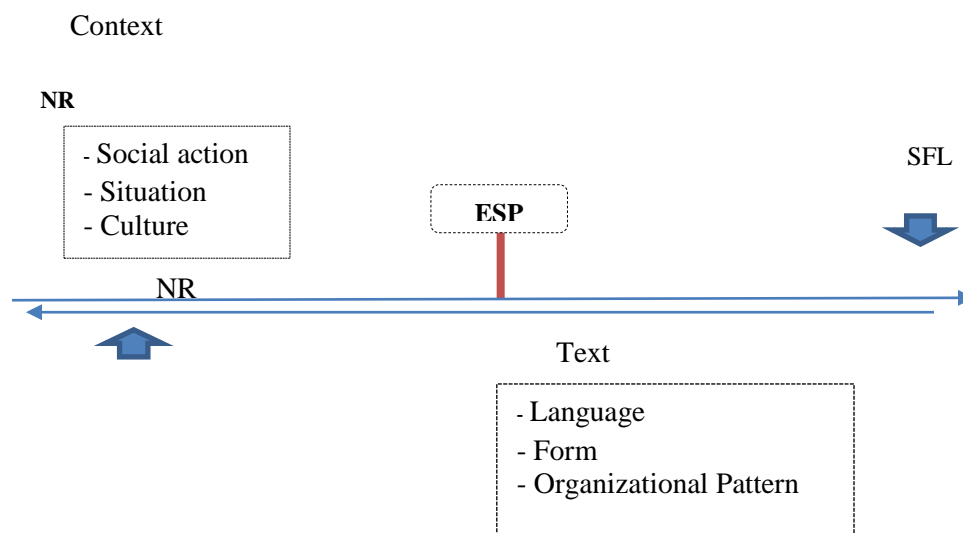


Figure 1 Relationship between Text and Context according to the Three Approaches
(Adapted from Flowerdew, 2002, p. 92; Hyland, 2007, p. 44)

Biodata

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หลักเกณฑ์การส่งต้นฉบับวารสารภาษาปริทัศน์

การเสนอผลงานเพื่อตีพิมพ์

1. ผลงานที่ส่งมาพิจารณาตีพิมพ์ต้องเป็นบทความวิจัย บทความวิชาการ บทวิจารณ์หนังสือ งานแปลทางวิชาการ และผลงานแบบอื่น ๆ ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับ “การเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ ” และ “ ภาษาศาสตร์ภาษาอังกฤษ ” ที่ไม่เคยตีพิมพ์ในวารสารใดมาก่อน ทั้งนี้การพิจารณาผลงานเพื่อตีพิมพ์อยู่ในดุลยพินิจของกองบรรณาธิการ และผ่านการพิจารณาของผู้ทรงคุณวุฒิ
2. ผลงานที่เสนอพิจารณาตีพิมพ์ ผู้เขียนสามารถเขียนเป็นภาษาไทยหรือภาษาอังกฤษ สำหรับภาษาอังกฤษผู้เขียนต้องให้เจ้าของภาษาตรวจสอบความถูกต้องของภาษาและไวยากรณ์ก่อนส่งมาพิจารณา
3. ผลงานที่เสนอพิจารณาตีพิมพ์ควรมีความยาวไม่เกิน 20 หน้ากระดาษ A4 (รวมเอกสารอ้างอิง) พิมพ์ภาษาไทยด้วย Font Thai Sarabun ขนาด 15 Point และภาษาอังกฤษด้วย Time New Roman ขนาด 11 point
4. ผู้เขียนส่งต้นฉบับเป็นอิเล็กทรอนิกส์ไฟล์ ที่มีบทคัดย่อภาษาไทยและภาษาอังกฤษ อย่างละ 1 ชุด และ biodata กรณีมีผู้เขียนมากกว่า 1 คน ให้ระบุผู้รับผิดชอบบทความ (corresponding author) ด้วย ซึ่งไม่จำเป็นต้องเป็นผู้เขียนชื่อแรก จากนั้นส่งต้นฉบับทาง
 - ระบบออนไลน์ ผ่านทางเว็บไซต์ www.culi.chula.ac.th คลิกเลือก Pasaa Paritat
 - จดหมายอิเล็กทรอนิกส์ พร้อมแนบไฟล์ต้นฉบับถึง pparitat.editor@gmail.com
5. ผู้เขียนบทความควรใช้รูปแบบการเขียนบทความและสำนวนภาษาที่เหมาะสมกับลักษณะของบทความทางวิชาการที่เป็นที่ยอมรับทั่วไป ไม่มีการคัดลอกผลงานผู้อื่น และมีการตรวจทานต้นฉบับแล้วเป็นอย่างดีทั้งด้านรูปแบบ การสะกด และไวยากรณ์
6. บทความที่ได้รับการตีพิมพ์ต้องผ่านการพิจารณาจากผู้ทรงคุณวุฒิอย่างน้อย 2 ท่าน ทั้งนี้ขึ้นอยู่กับดุลยพินิจของบรรณาธิการและกองบรรณาธิการ อย่างไรก็ตาม บทความที่แก้ไขต้นฉบับเสร็จเรียบร้อยแล้วก่อนอาจได้รับการพิจารณาลงตีพิมพ์ก่อน
7. บทความที่ได้รับการตอบรับเพื่อตีพิมพ์ในวารสารภาษาปริทัศน์ สถาบันภาษา จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัยแล้ว จะต้องไม่ปรากฏในสิ่งพิมพ์อื่นใดก่อนที่จะปรากฏในวารสารภาษาปริทัศน์ สถาบันภาษา จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย
8. กองบรรณาธิการจะส่งวารสารที่มีบทความของผู้เขียนตีพิมพ์ให้แก่ผู้เขียนจำนวน 1 ฉบับ หากผู้เขียนต้องการได้บทความที่ตีพิมพ์เพิ่มเติม สามารถดาวน์โหลดหรือสั่งซื้อได้ที่หน้าเว็บไซต์ของสถาบันภาษา จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย (www.culi.chula.ac.th)
9. บทความที่ตีพิมพ์ในวารสารภาษาปริทัศน์สถาบันภาษา จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย ถือเป็นลิขสิทธิ์ของผู้เขียนบทความและสถาบันภาษา ผู้ใดต้องการตีพิมพ์ซ้ำต้องได้รับอนุญาตจากผู้เขียนและสถาบันภาษาก่อน

การเรียงลำดับหัวข้อบทความวิจัย

ชื่อเรื่อง ชื่อผู้เขียน และ บทคัดย่อ:

หน้าแรก เป็น ชื่อเรื่อง ชื่อผู้เขียน และบทคัดย่อภาษาอังกฤษ

หน้าถัดไปเป็นชื่อเรื่อง ชื่อผู้เขียน และบทคัดย่อภาษาไทย

ชื่อเรื่อง (ขีดขวา)

ภาษาอังกฤษ Time New Roman ขนาด 16 Point / bold

ภาษาไทย Font Thai Sarabun ขนาด 20 Point / bold

ชื่อผู้เขียน (ขีดขวา) พร้อมระบุสังกัด เว้น 1 บรรทัดจากชื่อเรื่อง

ภาษาอังกฤษ Time New Roman ขนาด 12 Point

ภาษาไทย Thai Sarabun ขนาด 16 Point

สังกัด ใช้ตัวเอียงทั้งสองภาษา

ตัวอย่าง:

Translation of Directional Serial Verb Constructions in Thai into English: A Case Study of Students of Faculty of Communication Arts

Wanlee Talhakul

Chulalongkorn University Language Institute

บทคัดย่อ (ขีดซ้าย) ต้องมีทั้งภาษาไทยและภาษาอังกฤษ

ภาษาอังกฤษ ใช้ Font Time New Roman ขนาด 11 point

ภาษาไทยใช้ Font Thai Sarabun ขนาด 15 Point

คำสำคัญ (ขีดซ้าย) ต้องมีทั้งภาษาไทยและภาษาอังกฤษ

ระบุคำสำคัญประมาณ 4 – 6 คำที่เหมาะสมสำหรับเป็นคำค้นในระบบฐานข้อมูล

ภาษาอังกฤษ Font Time new Roman ขนาด 11 Point

ภาษาไทยใช้ Font Thai Sarabun ขนาด 15 Point

หัวข้อใหญ่ ได้แก่ บทนำ วิธีดำเนินการวิจัย ผลการวิจัย อภิปรายผล สรุป (ถ้ามี) ให้ขีดซ้าย

ภาษาอังกฤษ ใช้ Font Time New Roman ขนาด 11 point/ bold

ภาษาไทย Font Thai Sarabun ขนาด 15 Point / bold

เนื้อหา

ภาษาอังกฤษ Font Time new Roman ขนาด 11 Point

ภาษาไทยใช้ Font Thai Sarabun ขนาด 15 Point

หมายเหตุ: ในแต่ละหัวข้อหลักอาจมีการแบ่ง เป็นหัวข้อย่อยๆ ได้ แต่ทั้งนี้ หัวข้อย่อยต้องมีระดับหัวข้อ
ไม่ตรงกับหัวข้อหลัก

ตัวอย่าง

บทนำ <-- หัวข้อหลัก

วัตถุประสงค์ <-- หัวข้อย่อย

วิธีดำเนินการวิจัย <-- หัวข้อหลัก

ประชากรและกลุ่มตัวอย่าง <-- หัวข้อย่อย

เครื่องมือ <-- หัวข้อย่อย

วิธีการเก็บข้อมูล <-- หัวข้อย่อย

ผลการวิจัย <-- หัวข้อหลัก

อภิปรายผล <-- หัวข้อหลัก

ในส่วนของผลการวิจัย ควรมีไม่เกิน 5 ตารางหรือแผนภูมิ และมีการใส่เลขและชื่อกำกับ วางเหนือแต่
ละตาราง หรือแผนภูมิ แต่ละตารางควรจัดให้เนื้อหาทั้งหมดอยู่ในหน้าเดียวกันโดยอาจลด
ขนาดตัวอักษรในตารางได้ตามความเหมาะสม

ตัวอย่าง

Table 1 Serialized verbs interpretations by students

การอ้างอิงในเนื้อหา

ใช้รูปแบบการอ้างอิงของ APA (American Psychological Association) โดยให้ใช้รูปแบบดังนี้
(นามสกุลผู้แต่ง, ปีที่พิมพ์)

ตัวอย่าง

(Byram, 2004)

(Jeffries and McIntyre, 2010)

(Norgaard, Montoro, and Busse, 2010)

(Jeffries & McIntyre, 2010; Norgaard, Montoro, & Busse, 2010)

หมายเหตุ: แหล่งอ้างอิงภาษาไทยให้แปลเป็นภาษาอังกฤษทั้งหมด

เอกสารอ้างอิง (ขีดซ้าย)

รายการเอกสารอ้างอิงต้องพิมพ์เป็นภาษาอังกฤษทั้งหมด ใช้ Font Time New Roman ขนาด 11 point เอกสารอ้างอิงท้ายบทความทุกรายการต้องมีปรากฏภายในตัวบทความ และวารสารภาษาปริทัศน์ใช้รูปแบบการอ้างอิงของ APA (American Psychological Association) โดยใช้รูปแบบดังนี้

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ประวัติผู้เขียน / Biodata

วางต่อจากรายการหนังสืออ้างอิง ใช้ภาษาเดียวกับภาษาในบทความของท่าน

ภาษาอังกฤษ Font Time new Roman ขนาด 11 Point

ภาษาไทยใช้ Font Thai Sarabun ขนาด 15 Point