วารสารศิลปศาสตร์ ปีที่ 10 ฉบับที่ 2 ENGLISH IN THAILAND AND BEYOND

A Apple

B Bird

C Cat

ENGLISH
IN THAILAND AND BEYOND

N Nail

O Ox

P Pig

สารบัญ

บทบรรณาธิการ

    วารสารศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยอุบลราชธานี ปีที่ 10 ฉบับที่ 2 ของปี พ.ศ. 2557 ซึ่งมีบทความทั้งสิ้นแปดบทความด้วยกัน ซึ่งคัดสรรจากบทความที่ได้รับการนำเสนอในงานประชุมวิชาการนานาชาติ เรื่อง 2014 International Conference on English Language Studies in the Context of ASEAN ระหว่างวันที่ 29-30 มีนาคม 2557 ณ คณะศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยอุบลราชธานี บทความภาษาอังกฤษเหล่านี้แบ่งเป็นด้านวรรณคดี ภาษาศาสตร์ และภาษาศาสตร์ประยุกต์ด้านการเรียนการสอน โดยมีสาระที่เกี่ยวกับบทบาทและสถานะของภาษาอังกฤษที่ใช้ในประเทศไทยและประเทศอื่นในอาเซียน บางส่วนของบทความเป็นรายงานวิจัยในขณะบางส่วนเป็นบทความวิชาการที่มุ่งนำเสนอประเด็นให้ขบคิดเพื่อพัฒนาการสอนและวิจัยเกี่ยวกับภาษาอังกฤษ

    คณะทำงานขอขอบคุณผู้แต่ง ผู้ทรงคุณวุฒิ หวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่าบทความทั้งแปดจะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อการต่อยอดองค์ความรู้ในสาขาต่างๆที่เกี่ยวข้อง

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บรรณาธิการ

เสาวนีย์ ตรีรัตน์ อเลกซานเดอร์

สุรสม กฤษณะจูฑะ

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Paradise Betrayed: Investigating the Plights of Female Domestic Workers in Two Contemporary Plays

Thanis Bunsom[1]

ABSTRACT

According to Yeoh and Huang (2000), the advent of globalization and the attempt to sustain economic strength of world cities unavoidably result in the reliance on foreign workers. Driven by constant economic instability of their own countries, a lot of women from the Philippines and Indonesia have been looking for employment abroad. This economic migration, however, has not always brought them wealth as some may have expected. Reports of abuse and maltreatment of female workers are not difficult to find. Contemporary authors in Southeast Asia have included the unfortunate stories of these women in their writings. In this study, two contemporary plays from the Philippines and Singapore are analysed in terms of the plights of female domestic workers. In Paulino Lim, Jr.'s *Ménage Filipinescas* (2008), Melissa, an email-order bride in California, is portrayed more as a maid and a prostitute solely subject to the mercy of her husband/master. Similarly, Harnesh Sharma's *Model Citizens* (2012) depicts the hard life of Melly, an Indonesian girl working as a domestic helper by day and prostitute by night in Singapore. Her lack of English skills puts her in a formidable situation where communication with the outside world hardly exists. Both plays demonstrate the characters' physical hardships, mental displacement and moral dilemmas.

Keywords: female domestic workers, plights, contemporary plays, *Ménage Filipinescas*, Model Citizens

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บทคัดย่อ

การศึกษาของ Yeoh และ Huang (2000) ได้ชี้ให้เห็นถึงการพึ่งพาแรงงาน
ต่างชาติในการขับเคลื่อนเศรษฐกิจในกระแสโลกาภิวัฒน์และภาวะการแข่งขันเพื่อ
รักษาเสถียรภาพทางเศรษฐกิจของประเทศต่าง ๆ ทั่วโลก จากภาวะเศรษฐกิจที่ไม่
มั่นคงอย่างต่อเนื่องของประเทศ ผู้หญิงในประเทศฟิลิปปินส์และอินโดนีเซียจึง
พยายามหาลู่ทางเพื่อให้ตนเองได้ทำงานในต่างประเทศ แต่การทำงานใน
ต่างประเทศมิได้การันตีว่าแรงงานข้ามชาติจะมีฐานะทางเศรษฐกิจดีขึ้นตามที่
คาดหวังเสมอไป ซ้ำร้ายยังพบการละเมิดและการทารุณกรรมแรงงานหญิงข้าม
ชาติอยู่เสมอด้วย นักเขียนร่วมสมัยในภูมิภาคเอเชียตะวันออกเฉียงใต้ได้บันทึก
เรื่องราวที่นับเป็นโชคร้ายของแรงงานหญิงเหล่านี้ไว้ในงานเขียนของพวกเขา
การศึกษาครั้งนี้เป็นการวิเคราะห์ชะตากรรมของแม่บ้านทำความสะอาดจากบท
ละครร่วมสมัยของประเทศฟิลิปปินส์และสิงคโปร์ โดยพิจารณาศึกษาชีวิตของ
Melissa จากบทละครเรื่อง *Ménage Filipinescas* ของ Paulino Lim, Jr.
(2008) Melissa เป็นหญิงสาวที่ได้แต่งงานกับสามีชาวต่างชาติในเมือง
แคลิฟอร์เนีย สหรัฐอเมริกา จากบริการจัดหาคู่ทางอีเมล์ ชะตากรรมของเธอ
แสดงให้เห็นถึงสภาพภาพของแม่บ้านและโสเภณีที่จำต้องปรนเปรอความสุข
ตามแต่ความเมตตาของสามีและเจ้านายของเธอ ในทำนองเดียวกัน บทละครเรื่อง
Model Citizens ของ Harnesh Sharma (2012) ได้นำเสนอชะตากรรมอัน
ยากลำบากของ Melly หญิงสาวชาวอินโดนีเซียที่ได้ทำงานในประเทศสิงคโปร์
โดยมีอาชีพเป็นแม่บ้านทำความสะอาดในเวลากลางวันและเป็นโสเภณีในเวลา
กลางคืน เธอตกอยู่ในสถานการณ์อันเลวร้ายเนื่องจากการขาดทักษะการสื่อสาร
ด้วยภาษาอังกฤษและแทบจะไม่สามารถติดต่อขอความช่วยเหลือจากโลก
ภายนอกได้ โดยสรุป บทละครทั้งสองแสดงให้เห็นถึงความทรมานทางร่างกาย
สภาพจิตที่โหยหา และภาวะกลืนไม่เข้าคายไม่ออกทางศีลธรรมของตัวละครทั้ง
สอง

คำสำคัญ: แม่บ้านทำความสะอาดหญิง, ชะตากรรม, บทละครร่วมสมัย,
Ménage Filipinescas, Model Citizens

Introduction

England hires a lot of Filipino nurses, and maids of course. There's a story told in Manila. I heard that people in England eating out, who want to take home leftovers…Instead of saying, "Could I have a doggie bag?" they say, "Could I have a Filipino-maid bag?"
(Lim, 2008, p. 47)

Female Migrant Domestic Workers: A Brief Overview

In the 21st century, where market competitiveness and economic prosperity have further divided the world of the haves from that of the have-nots, economic migration to industrialised countries, especially for domestic help, becomes a unique social phenomenon of our modern history. Several academic studies (such as Yeoh & Huang, 2000; Fortunati et al., 2012; Luz, 2013) discuss relevant factors that have contributed to the rising demand and supply and the rapid growth of transnational domestic workers today. One of the most significant factors is the globalised economy and politics in which affluent and powerful women in developed countries have entered workforce as a result of social transformations, instead of performing the traditional, expected roles of staying home, doing house chores or taking care of their families. Family income, therefore, is significantly produced by those professional women and their feminine power is "recognised at an international level" (Fortunati et al., 2012, p. 4). However, not every woman has got to enjoy such a privilege. Certain "unqualified" women, often members of the lower/ lower middle class in many Asian, Latin American and African countries, are left with limited options in the new economy, namely, nannies, maids and worst of all, sex workers (Ehrenreich & Hochschild, 2002).

With the supply of female workers readily available in the so-called developing countries, the needs for domestic workers in the developed countries are catered for. Hence, in Asia there has been the overseas migration of female domestic workers from poorer countries to richer economies such as from the Philippines or Indonesia to Singapore, Hong Kong and Taiwan. This transnational migration has created the phenomenon of "the global woman" (Ehrenreich & Hochschild, 2002), putting women in the position of leaders of the global migrants. Additionally, it is worth noting that some economically weak countries in Asia, especially in South and Southeast Asia, include the export of their female workers in the national economic policy and profit from the remittances these workers gain from importing countries. In the Philippines, for example, the government introduced the Migrant Workers and Overseas Filipinos Act of 1995 (Republic Act 8042) as a legal guideline for recruiting agencies, aiming to protect its overseas labour as well as to guard its national interests (see the Philippine government's official website, www.neda.gov.ph, for more details). According to Pertierra (2006), the Philippines has one of the highest rates of workers-migrants, the majority of whom, of course, are women.

Workers Means *Labour*: The Abuse of Female Domestic Workers

Back in the colonial days, unpaid servants were equivalent to slaves; therefore, they worked extremely hard but did not earn a single penny. Despite the abolition of slavery and the end of colonial power afterwards, many servants continued to be underpaid and confined within the domestic space. As Anderson (2000) defines, domestic work generates three C's – cleaning, cooking and caring. Based on this definition, it is not surprising that the occupation has been feminised since the mid-19th century because of the received

idea that women should clean, prepare food and provide care for families. Consequently, the view that domestic workers are low-paid, unskilled servants has been perpetuated and, thus, subjects several female workers to physical violence, maltreatment and abuse.

The situation however, raises at least a question in the case of female migrant workers in question here. If domestic workers are subject to such atrocities, why do many women still choose to migrate overseas as domestic workers? Lutz (2013) discusses possible motivations ranging from the search for better salaries and opportunities in destination countries to the escape from constant natural disasters and political conflicts. Destination countries, mainly the developed countries, are regarded and looked up to as the land of hope and opportunity where the women can send back the income to support their families back home and provide them with education and health services. Migrant workers, which according to International Labour Organisation (ILO), have so far made up the approximate number of 100 million worldwide. New comers, similar to their predecessors, are inclined to be badly treated and paid due to their "unskilled" or "low skilled" employment. They are also deprived of legal rights and alienated from the mainstream society of the destination countries because of the lack of language skills in some cases and the public perception of their presence in other cases. Furthermore, apart from the physical hardships and legal injustice that they potentially encounter, foreign domestic workers are faced with mental displacement as in cases of wives leaving their husbands and children behind as well as girls leaving their elderly parents. Consequently, it is not be too far-fetched to claim that their search for financial haven has created many problems in

the lives of the women and also the families they have to leave behind.

Foreign Domestic Workers and Contemporary Literature

The issue of overseas female domestic workers and their suffering dominates an arena of literary production of the "sending countries" and, to a lesser degree, receiving countries. Examples of such writings are produced by contemporary Filipino writers, both inside and outside the motherland. To name but a few, F. Sionil Jose's Viajero (1993) portrays the Filipino diaspora, including the movement of female workers to the Middle East, Hong Kong, Singapore and Japan. The characters' continuous search for justice and the maintenance of their moral integrity are the focus of the novel. The other novel, Jose Dalisay's Soledad's Sister (2007), deals with the mysterious death in the Middle East of a Filipina domestic worker, whose body with clear signs of abuse is returned to Manila. According to the writer, the woman is one of over 600 overseas workers who is tragically returned home posthumously. Moreover, as mentioned earlier, in the receiving countries, such as Singapore, fiction writers and playwrights include the characters of foreign domestic workers in their stories. An all-time favourite, prominent Singaporean novelist, Philip Jeyaretnam, for example, depicts the forbidden love of a Singaporean master and an Indonesian maid in First Loves (1987).

This article analyses in depth the plights of female migrant workers in two contemporary plays from the Philippines and Singapore for the following reasons. First, Paulino Lim, JR.' *Ménage Filipinescas* and Haresh Sharma's *Model Citizens* (2012) offer us the unique stories of two female characters, Melissa and Melly, respectively, who, despite their different statuses, share similar roles and

restrictions in the destination countries. Second, the main characters are both subject to discrimination, contempt and isolation in their overseas environment. Third, the endings of the two plays do not offer a positive solution to both characters. Last, both plays were written by prominent playwrights of the countries. Paulino Lim, JR. is an award-winning Filipino-American writer who authored several novels, short stories and plays. Haresh Sharma, on the other hand, has written over 100 plays, some of which were selected by Singapore's Ministry of Education as literature texts for national examinations. He also won many awards, the most prestigious of which was the Goldberg Master Playwright by New York University's Tisch School of the Arts.

An E-mail Order Bride as a Sex Slave: The Choice Chosen in *Ménage Filipinescas*

Paulino Lim, JR. made it explicit from the very beginning that his play was dedicated "[t]o overseas contract workers", a message that promptly raises a significant social issue in his country. The Philippines is unquestionably well-known for its export of contract workers to most, if not all, corners of the world and news of abuse are equally and sadly notorious as a result. In *Ménage Filipinescas*, the writer gives us a familiar picture of an interracial marriage between an elderly American man and a much younger Filipina in Southern California. Richard is a professor of English literature who is fed up with his work and forced to retire prematurely whereas Melissa is a school teacher back in Manila and the mother of a seven-year-old girl in her 30s. They meet through an online dating website, write each other a pile of emails prior to marriage and Richard finally takes his internet bride to his homeland.

While this may sound incredibly romantic, it is not. This paper argues that in spite of having a seemingly different status, Melissa is not really different from other Filipino compatriots working abroad. In the US, Melissa is confined to a traditional role of a submissive housewife who "wear[s] a robe, hands in latex gloves" (p. 1) as she supposedly does all the cleaning, makes a "sandwich" (p. 4) and "adobo" (meat, seafood, or vegetables marinated in a sauce of vinegar, soy sauce, and garlic, browned in oil, and simmered in the marinade) (p. 5) and goes to an Asian Market in Little Saigon to do grocery shopping for dinner preparation. Although she may be able to claim the preferable status of a legal wife, her cooking and cleaning duties are similar to those of live-in domestic workers. What disheartens the reader more is that Melissa herself also acknowledges her inferior position as she calls Richard "Master" (p. 7), suggesting a sense of compliance on her part. In addition to the cleaning and cooking, this Filipina protagonist also performs a caring duty. When Richard comes home from work, he will wait for her to "bring his slippers" (p. 34), "get [him] a drink" (p. 35) and "kneel at his feet [in order to] to clip his toenails" (p. 129). The servant-like duty of the character, especially the kneeling at Richard's feet, remind us of a colonial style of master-slave relationship in which the white man could treat his local woman however he liked.

Moreover, as a wife, Melissa is obliged to Richard's sexual exploitation for which she demands financial compensations from him. She says, "I told him I'd do it, without laughing or gagging, if he paid me a hundred dollars" (p. 31). Throughout the play, it is often implied that Richard's sexual fantasy goes beyond what an ordinary conventional couple could imagine and Melissa has to subject herself as a sex slave to her master/husband who takes fetish pleasure from her though at an expense. In this sexual game between husband and wife, Melissa refers to herself in Filipino as

"puta" (p. 31) or a "whore" in English. As explicitly as she spells it out, the prostitute-like demand for money in their sexual relationship reduces her to the position of a sex worker.

For some readers, Melissa may seem as if she accepted or even enjoyed being treated like a servant and a sex slave. Nevertheless, she does not make her choices willingly. Like many other Filipino migrants, she is torn between her wish for a better life elsewhere and the life she is forced to leave behind in the Philippines. Having a seven-year-old daughter about whom she could not let Richard find out means that she has to find money to send back for her daughter's education and living. Making a long-distance call from California, of course, raises suspicions, thus, she sacrifices her dignity and deploys her sexuality to earn some money for an international phonecard simply to hear her daughter's voice. In one passage, Melissa expresses her sympathy for other mothers in her situation:

"I pity the mothers who leave their children behind, with their grandmothers usually. The mother tries to talk to them on the phone, but the children hardly know her. They don't have anything to talk about. The mother is left with only the sound of a voice to remember." (p. 46)

The passage very clearly illustrates the female migrants' dilemma and plight of being away from home. In trying to search for a paradise devoid of poverty, corruption and natural calamities in their homeland, they are traumatised by distance and absence of their family. It also pinpoints a significant issue of alienation that the female migrants have to face. Not having a sense of belonging in the destination countries, they find themselves more and more alienated from the countries of their own. Within their own families,

mothers and children become strangers whose relationship is transnationally maintained solely via phone calls once in a while. The lack of acceptance in the destination countries is also demonstrated through Melissa's confinement of space imposed by Richard who calls the shared wall between his apartment and his neighbours, Sheila and Patrick, "The Berlin Wall" (p. 11). Richard does not want his wife to socialise with them nor does he like it when Melissa offers to clean their apartment for a small sum of money. She is also not allowed to attend the board meetings of Richard's apartment either. This separates her from the outside world altogether.

Besides, a language barrier is another important issue that the writer tackles in the play. Despite the fact that she was a school teacher with a strong command of English in Manila, Richard constantly insults her English and daily teaches English lessons to her. His linguistic contempt drives her further away from the mainstream American society. In one instance, he criticises her by saying that "[y]ou've got the words but they don't sound right" to which she submissively replies, "[n]o need to remind me. English is not my language" (p. 12). The issue of language is brought up later in the play when Sheila informs her of the possibility of getting a teaching position. Melissa immediately rejects the idea and tells her neighbour of what her husband has said:

"Richard says the same thing. I have to work on my English, my English speaking. I'm afraid the students will make fun of me…I heard if you speak with a French or German accent, you're okay. But if you speak with a Chinese or Filipino accent, you are in deep shit." (pp. 47-48)

Melissa's lack of confidence, mainly caused by her husband's insult and threat, deems her unfit to the external world. She, therefore, struggles in the alienated world and becomes withdrawn and nostalgic. As the play unfolds towards the end, a new character is introduced, Eddy, Melissa's Filipino ex-lover. His unfortunate account of being an overseas contract worker from Japan to Europe before ending up here in California as illegal immigrant, despite not being the focus of the study, parallels that of Melissa's. Fuelled by their lingering feelings for each other, Melissa and Eddy make love at the end of the play. Symbolically speaking, if Eddy represents the Philippines and Richard represents America, Melissa is clearly caught between her ties to the homeland and her ongoing quest for paradise. Unfortunately, her plights are unredeemable because both places take advantage of her physically and mentally.

Maid by Day, Prostitute by Night: A Betrayal of Dream in *Model Citizens*

This contemporary play tackles the current social issues of multiracialism that have plagued the Singaporean society today. Written in 2012, the story of *Model Citizens* depicts the lives of three women, Mrs. Chua, Wendy and Melly, who are different in their social and cultural backgrounds. Although this paper focuses on the character of Melly, a young Indonesian maid who wants to get married and acquire a Singaporean citizenship, it is not possible to ignore the other two characters. This is because their lives, connected through the roles each of them plays in the making of Singapore as a nation, are intertwined and, therefore, inseparable.

The play begins with the introduction of a crime committed by Melly's Singaporean boyfriend who stabbed Mrs. Chua's husband, a

senior MP. Mrs. Chua summons Melly for a talk, not to blame her for what happened but to encourage her to forget about her criminal boyfriend. Melly, however, is unable to speak English or Chinese and relies on her employer, Wendy, to speak for her. Because of her inability to speak the most common language of Singapore, Melly's existence is restricted within the domestic sphere of her employer's house similar to many other Indonesian maids in Singapore.

It is markedly interesting that Sharma does not concentrate very much on the roles and responsibilities of Melly as a live-in maid at Wendy's house. It probably goes without saying what a female migrant worker is expected and obliged to fulfill. The writer from time to time mentions Melly's duty such as she "ha[s] a lot of work" as she has to "cook everything" for a dinner party (p. 21). Instead, the play extensively deals with the moral dilemma that Melly has, for example, when Mrs. Chua asks Wendy to tell her maid that everything will be fine, Wendy firmly refuses because "[Melly] doesn't lie to [her] and [she doesn't] lie to [Melly]"(p. 19). Ironically, almost immediately after the statement, Melly lies to Wendy to get out of the house to do her usual nighttime job, a prostitute. Although the job is looked down upon, it gives something to her. As Melly recalls, Indonesia for her is a country where she "ha[s] nothing" (p. 39) while Singapore is a land of opportunity where she can have "some little luxury and a nice phone which can play [her] favourite song" as well as her family "eat[ing] meat and buy[ing] a toaster and hav[ing] a toilet" (p. 42). Her ultimate goal is to get married and become "a Singapore citizen" (p. 27). She is determined to reach the dream, overlooking the fact that her means will not always justify the end and vice versa.

Unfortunately, the dream betrays her and so does Singapore. Her boyfriend, a low-paid cleaner, is not allowed to marry her because

of her status as a migrant domestic worker which is regarded very lowly in Singapore. Additionally, his crime makes it impossible for them to get married and simultaneously causes the extreme futility of Melly's immoral actions. She comes to reflect on her own downfall including lying to Wendy and her boyfriend, having sex with her clients and ending her unwanted pregnancy by herself. What she has done amounts to nothing worthwhile. At the end of the play, she demands to be sent home after her dream goes completely shattered. In the following passage, Melly expresses her sense of loss and despair caused by the awakening of reality:

"I thought I would be a Singapore citizen. Have a husband, children...a family. I don't care if I have a small house. I don't care if we can't afford nice furniture. At least I will live here. My children will grow up here, go to school here. That was my dream Ibu...That was my only dream..." (p. 66)

Arguably, Melly's plights and sufferings are caused by her own naivety. Melly, not wanting to put up with her poverty-stricken life in Indonesia, seeks a better life and fortune in a foreign land just to discover that the haven does not exist for migrant workers such as herself. Alienated from the mainstream society because of her language deficiency, she becomes almost non-existent in this false paradise where the only recognition she has comes from the lies she tells, the body she sells and the soul she gives up.

Conclusion

The issue of female domestic workers is a very complicated one. As the women move to foreign countries, their life situations affect themselves, their families, their own societies and the societies to

which they migrate. As mentioned earlier, female domestic workers are motivated by their desire to seek better-paid employment overseas in order to support the families that they leave behind. The destination countries, they believe or are told to believe, are full of shimmering promises despite the notoriety of abuse and maltreatment of their predecessors.

Contemporary literature has not failed to capture the false promises of the "paradise". First, as the analysis demonstrates, the female characters, Melissa and Melly, are required to work hard for their masters. Melissa must fulfill her wifely duties--cleaning, cooking, caring and having sex-- for her husband, Richard, in order to provide for her family back in Manila. Similarly, Melly, through several hints that the writer gives, is busy cooking and cleaning for her employer. In addition, both characters are socially and culturally deprived and alienated. Melissa, regarded as an inadequate English speaker with a bad accent by her husband, is discouraged from getting a teaching position in California, socialising with her neighbor and attending board meetings of Richard's apartment. Melly, in the same way, is unable to communicate with the outside world due to her lack of English and Chinese skills. Her only channel is her master, Wendy, who despite the love and care for her could not give her what she truly wants. Mental displacement is another grievance suffered by the two characters. In their search of happiness and opportunity abroad, Melissa and Melly must give up their family members and leave them behind. The former, having a seven-year-old daughter whom she cannot reveal to Richard, longs to be with her little girl in Manila but circumstances make it impossible. The latter wishes to give her family in Indonesia–parents, brothers and sisters--a better quality of life too. Nevertheless, aware of the fact that their home countries cannot provide such necessities, they have no choice but to leave for the US and Singapore, respectively. Finally, in the midst

of their quests, they are unavoidably forced to choose between the right and the wrong, and they unsurprisingly choose the latter. While Melissa lies about her family in Manila and has an affair with Eddy, her ex-lover, Melly lies to Wendy and her boyfriend, sells her body and kills her unborn baby. Their moral corruption is a result of their futile search for paradise that does not really exist.

The two plays studied here have shed some light on the suffering and the despair that many female migrant domestic workers encounter, especially those from neighbouring countries such as the Philippines and Indonesia. Although it is fascinating to see many women demonstrate their strengths and persistent battle for their families' survival, it is simultaneously disheartening to learn that they are subject, either by chance or by choice, to many forms of physical and/or sexual exploitation, mental suffering and moral degradation. As a reader and a human being, we can regard the two plays as a reminder of the neglected plights and sufferings that many female domestic workers are encountering in the capitalistic and materialistic world of the twenty first century.

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An Evolutionary View of the Life Span of Obsolete English Words

Phil Halson[1]

ABSTRACT

Language change in a living language is inevitable, and in this paper it is assumed that changes in a language are not purely random and are sometimes subject to selective pressure. Therefore this paper follows an evolutionary approach to studying language change. This paper does not challenge or offer ideas on how language first evolved, but explores some of the ways in which language is evolving, by using a representative sample of obsolete words taken from the Oxford English Dictionary (2nd edition), and analysing the life span of those words using an evolutionary theory framework. Ideas from Darwin of evolution by natural selection are borrowed and interpreted liberally throughout, particularly that of fitness. The manner of evolution between biological organisms and languages is notably different, but the fact that adaptation exists in both worlds makes the two worthy of analogous comparison. This paper is a study of the life span of obsolete words, and it is hoped that this will reveal a structured, or at least logical, evolution over time. By extension the patterns revealed may go some way towards creating a predictive theory of lexical life span.

Keywords: Cultural transmission; Evolution; Linguistic obsolescence

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บทคัดย่อ

การเปลี่ยนแปลงของภาษาที่ยังมีชีวิตอยู่นั้นเป็นสิ่งที่หลีกเลี่ยงไม่ได้ ไม่ใช่สิ่ง
บังเอิญ และขึ้นอยู่กับแรงกดดันจากกระบวนการคัดสรรในลักษณะต่างๆ ด้วยเหตุ
นี้บทความนี้จึงใช้แนวทางวิเคราะห์ตามมุมมองทางวิวัฒนาการเพื่อศึกษาการ
เปลี่ยนแปลงของภาษา โดยได้สำรวจลักษณะการวิวัฒนาการของภาษาในด้าน
ต่างๆ โดยใช้คำศัพท์ล้าสมัยในภาษาอังกฤษเป็นกลุ่มตัวอย่างและวิเคราะห์อายุขัย
คำศัพท์เหล่านั้น ทั้งนี้ได้นำทฤษฎีวิวัฒนาการของดาร์วินมาประยุกต์ใช้เพื่อการ
วิเคราะห์อย่างเต็มที่ โดยเฉพาะแนวคิดเรื่องความเหมาะสมในการอยู่รอด

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1.   Introduction

Language change in a living language is an inevitability (Aitchison, 2001, p. 3; Crystal, 2005, p. 357; Kirby, 2002, p. 187). In this paper it is assumed that changes in a language are not purely random (Aitchison, 2003, pp. 163-164) and are sometimes subject to selective pressure. Therefore this paper follows an evolutionary approach to studying language change with ideas from Darwin's theory of evolution by natural selection borrowed and interpreted liberally throughout. It does not seek to challenge or offer ideas on the origins of how language first evolved, but to explore some of the ways in which language is evolving. This is done by examining the life spans of obsolete words, recorded in the Oxford English Dictionary, to see if any pattern exists which could be viewed through an evolutionary theory framework, especially that of fitness. The manner of evolution between biological organisms and language is notably different: animals adapt physically or behaviourally, while words adapt morphologically, syntactically, semantically or phonologically. But it is the fact that adaptation exists in both worlds that makes the two worthy of analogous comparison. Darwin noted that the creatures which survive best are those most able to adapt to changes within their physical environment; the linguistic comparison would be that words which survive best are those which adapt to suit their changing, intangible world. Species which are unable to adapt become extinct, words which are unable to adapt become obsolete.

The linguistic fossil record used for the purposes of this paper is the Oxford English Dictionary. The paper is a study of the life span of archaic and obsolete words, and it is hoped that this will reveal a

structured, or at least logical, evolution over time. By extension the patterns revealed may go some way towards creating a predictive theory of lexical life span.

Explanation of non- or quasi-biological transmission of information already exists in memetics (sometimes called meme theory), and therefore this paper uses Richard Dawkins' meme hypothesis (1989) to assume that languages are living entities, that words and phrases are memes, and survive through memetic transmission. This is non-biological reproduction and propagation of an entity with no physical properties (excluding the neurons of the human brain in which a meme resides). But memes are living structures insofar as they are "*... actual patterns of neuronal hard-wiring that reconstitute themselves in one brain after another"* (Dawkins, 1989, p. 323). With this in mind, analogies of living and dead languages seem apt.

A meme behaves like a gene to the degree that it is able to self-replicate, but it is a "*...unit of cultural transmission*" (Dawkins, 1989, p. 192) rather than a unit of physical or behavioural characteristics transmission. The Darwinian (or perhaps Dawkinsian) evolutionary view is that a meme is to cultural change what a gene is to biological change. It is a unit which inherits and accumulates adaptations and which replicates through social transmission of information (Aunger, 2006, p. 176). As living memes, are words and languages subject to similar evolutionary selection pressures as other living entities are? If so, can the linguistic fitness of a word be determined, and do other factors exist which influence lexical life and death? Successful replicators are those which possess the qualities of longevity, fecundity, and copying-fidelity, and that it is the fecundity of any copy of a meme which is the most important

factor of these qualities (Dawkins, 1989, p. 194). But can this hypothesis automatically be applied to words? If the fecundity of a word is constrained by the number of people who use it, a word used by many people will be most fecund. Does this necessarily mean that the word will survive longer than a word used by a much smaller number of people? Will a word with high copying-fidelity survive? Will a word which produces identical copies with no variation in sound or meaning from generation to generation survive, or will this be precisely the reason why a word dies?

The aim of this study is to attempt to answer these questions, and use these answers to identify patterns which can be used to predict the life span of words. This will be done by first examining the evolution of language change by tracing the life span of selected words now deemed obsolete, and then by looking for consistent, non-random patterns amongst the data collected.

1.1 Purposes of the study

The purposes of this study are:
1. to investigate whether the life span of a word is affected by
   a) semantic meaning
   b) word class and function
   c) standardisation
   d) ease of transmission
2. to attempt to apply biological evolutionary models to language change
3. to attempt to define a theory for prediction of expected life span of a word

1.2 Significance of the study

If testable patterns of word life span become evident, then these patterns could influence future language learning and teaching strategies related to vocabulary acquisition. Knowing the properties which are likely to influence the life span of a word would allow better hypotheses for future studies of language and vocabulary change. Then, further study could be carried out to determine if the patterns are a linguistically universal phenomenon or applicable only to English.

Predictive patterns of word life span would be useful to anyone who wanted to coin a new word, for example for consciousness raising of health or social issues. Less altruistically, the predictive patterns would also be of use to advertisers and marketers.

1.3 Basic Assumptions

1) In this study it is assumed that both archaic and obsolete words used for analysis were once commonly understood.
2) In this study British English is treated as if it were a living species, and susceptible to selection pressures as the main forces which may cause it to evolve.
3) The judgement of the Oxford English dictionary is used to determine the recorded number of words and obsolete words in the English language. The number of obsolete words used in this study is 54,444. This total is based on the OED print edition plus additions and on-line updates up to and including April 2011.
4) All words are considered to be units of cultural transmission called memes.

5) The breakdown of population of obsolete words by word class will not significantly differ from the living population. More than half will be nouns, approximately one-quarter will be adjectives, one-seventh will be verbs, and the remainder will be other word classes[2].

6) Infrequently used words will be more susceptible to change than frequently used words. Words which are used extremely frequently may survive indefinitely, even if non-standard.

1.4 Hypotheses

1) Words which are closely linked to rapidly changing phenomena or concepts will have a short life span. Conversely, words linked to phenomena or concepts which change slowly or not at all will have a long life span.

2) Standardisation is an important catalyst in the evolution of languages. Words which do not conform to the dominant morphological or phonetic standards will be changed to fit the standard, or be abandoned and replaced with other synonyms. When non-standard words persist in sufficient quantity, or are used with high frequency, the accepted standard will change.

3) The ease of transmission of a word will influence its life span, with words which can be transmitted easily having a longer life span than those which cannot. Ease of transmission will be judged by number of syllables; variation of spelling; and non-standard consonant clusters.

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[2]from: http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/page/howmanywords Accessed: 27/04/11

1.5 Limitations

For the purpose of defining sample size, it is the number of headwords in the OED which are counted. However for the purpose of analysis after the data has been collected each distinct meaning is counted as a separate word, but derivatives of the canonical form which serve only as grammatical function markers (plurals, tense markers, person markers) are not counted as separate words.

The use of OED provides a source from which anyone can check data included in this study. In this sense, the data are objective, but the fact that data entry into the OED was at times subjective and not necessarily verifiable means that to provide a more accurate data set several different corpora should be used.

2.   Review of Literature

Human language is the unique result of "…three distinct but interacting adaptive systems: individual learning, cultural transmission, and biological evolution" (Christiansen & Kirby, 2003, p. 302). In some senses, language evolution and biological evolution cannot be separated because each is or has been influenced by the other. But when studying the evolution of human language, which has had a life of probably no more than 200,000 years so far, comparison is possible with biological evolution, which has been happening for thousands of millions of years. The ability to learn specific varieties of language is culturally transmitted, and this exists in very few species other than humans. There is evidence of regional dialectical variation amongst songbirds, chimpanzees, and killer whales (Milhalicek & Wilson, 2011, p. 571), and evidence of language change in the songs of humpback whales, which change during the course of a breeding season when the language is used, though not

between (Aitchison, 2001, p. 240). Dawkins (2006) attributes random memetic drift[3] as the main cause of linguistic evolution, and doubts whether linguistic evolution by natural selection is as important (Dawkins, 2006, p. 230). But this view is at odds with the views of many linguists. Aitchison, for example, disputes the idea that language change can be accidental or entirely random, as similar changes happen in different, unconnected languages, and because random change would lead to a disorganized language which could not be used for communication (Aitchison, 2003, pp. 163-164). The studies outlined here suggest successful communication is an example of a selection pressure, and memes which allow ease of transmission are favoured. One experimental study by Kirby, Cornish, and Smith (2008) showed that an 'alien' (invented) language taught to participants over several generations evolved to become easier to learn and more structured. This follows a model of iterated learning, which is a form of cultural transmission where "*an individual acquires a behavior by observing a similar behavior in another individual who acquired it in the same way.*" (Kirby *et al.*, 2008, p. 10681) The language used randomly generated words as names for alien symbols. Participants were shown symbols with the alien name, and later tested on these symbols supplemented with symbols they had never seen before. The participant's output was used as the input for another participant, whose output was used to teach the next participant, and this was repeated for 10 cycles, representing generations. The sets of seen and unseen symbols were divided randomly every generation. Participants were not told

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[3]*"Biologists acknowledge that a gene may be spread through a population not because it is a good gene but simply because it's a lucky one. We call this genetic drift …*[Memetic drift is]*the cultural equivalent of genetic drift"* (Dawkins. 2006. 219)

that their output would be used as the input for the next generation, and therefore the experimenters assumed that intentional manipulation of the language by participants did not occur (Kirby *et al*., 2008). The language was passed via vertical transmission from one generation to the next only, never horizontally amongst members of the same generation.

Nowak (2000) states linguistic fitness, defined in the paper as successful communication, can be reduced when too many objects or concepts need to be defined using a limited repertoire, as this may lead to errors in communication. The following quote is made with reference to animal communication in bees, birds, and vervet monkeys: "...*if* [sound] *signals can be mistaken for each other, it can be better to have fewer signals that can be clearly identified*" (Nowak, 2000, p. 1618). Nowak writes here about single sound signals, but it is later stated that combinations of phonemes allow for novel creations and new words. In turn, this can reduce lack of successful information transfer caused by errors of reproduction, allowing for expansion of the language without a detrimental effect on fitness. This does not happen in non-creative languages. In the conclusion to the article Nowak summarizes how words survive:

> "*Words are maintained in the lexicon of a language if their basic reproductive ratio exceeds unity: a person who knows a word must transmit knowledge of this word to more than one new person on average. Since there is a limit on how much people can say to each other and how much they can memorize, this implies a maximum size for the lexicon of a language (in the absence of written records).*"
> (Nowak, 2000, p. 1621)

The lexicon of the language referred to by Nowak should be assumed to be the 'mental lexicon', which has been defined as *"the repository of a language user's words with their meanings and forms"* (Levelt, 2003, p. 410) and *"… the stored mental representation of what we know about the words in our language. This mental store stands at the heart of the language processing system."* (Marslen-Wilson, 2003, p. 420)

The standardisation of language, prescribed or otherwise, has added more stability to certain words, in the sense that stable words are less vulnerable to change. Standardisation of language can be seen as a selection pressure acting upon these memes. Dawkins argues that stability of a meme leads to longevity; with longevity the likelihood of successful replication increases. *"Darwin's 'survival of the fittest' is really a special case of a more general law of **survival of the stable**"* (Dawkins, 1989, p. 12 [emphasis in original]). Replicators with high longevity have a longer time to make copies of themselves, and this would suggest that longevity is an important factor in successful replication, but it is in fact less important than fecundity, the speed of replication (Dawkins, 1989, p. 17). Longevity of a copy of a meme is relatively unimportant (Dawkins, 1989, p. 194) as the speed of replication is likely to have the secondary result of increasing the longevity of the word, therefore it is not important that any one copy of a meme survives, as long as other copies are extant. It is theoretically possible to separate words which are replicated (for example, printed or recorded) from those which are reproduced (spoken or written by hand), but in practice as no word belongs solely to one group no real distinction between replication and reproduction is made in this paper, but it is

acknowledged that there is a necessary and important difference in biological terms[4].

Irregular and non-standard forms may persist when memetic fecundity, in this case frequency of use, is high, or when frequency of use is low but the meaning or use is highly specific or specialized. If the formality of language increases so too does the specificity and the less likely it is to be used by a large number of people. This is true of the two 'highest' forms of Thai, used by and to address Buddhist monks and members of the royal family. Words which belong to these forms of language are non-standard and have a low ease of transmission rating. (Low Thai words generally have a higher ease of transmission rating due to fewer syllables, and also more sonority when spoken.) If following hypotheses 2 and 3, it would be reasonable to assume that the life spans of these words would be short, but it is not necessarily so because the words are linked to concepts which change slowly, if at all. Furthermore tradition and ritual ensure that the words are enshrined in a protected lexical reliquary, giving stability to words which would otherwise die. These words can survive because the purpose is niche and the concepts which are described are not rapidly changing. The life span of these words is of the type predicted in hypothesis 1.

Standardisation and regularization can be complementary selection pressures, though there is no good reason to assume they always

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[4] Replication and reproduction both refer to the process of creating a copy of something. In a scientific sense, replication is the production of an exact copy, while reproduction is the production of a similar copy. Words can only be truly replicated by mechanical or technological means. Words spoken, then repeated by another, would be considered reproduction because the phonetic quality would differ slightly. However, for the purposes of this study, no distinction is made.

are. Many irregular verbs occur in SBE, and remain irregular because they are frequently used and therefore self-normalizing. Lieberman *et al.* state that "…less than 3% of modern verbs are irregular, the ten most common verbs are all irregular (*be, have, do, go, say, can, will, see, take, get*)". (Lieberman *et al.*, 2007, p. 714). The forms of these words do not fit existing patterns. The examples '*Go, Went, Gone*' and '*Good, Better, Best*' are SBE, but irregular. '*Go, *Goed, *Goed*' and '*Good, *Gooder, *Goodest*' are non-standard and break one or both of Aitchison's guiding principles of pattern neatening (see Aitchison, 2001, p. 177). However, it is the latter non-standard form which would usually be produced during child language acquisition and by learners of English as a second language through a process of regularization. The time-frame in which these productions occur is limited, and thus the high frequency irregular forms remain dominant.

By using comparative analysis of four corpora (English, Spanish, Russian, and Greek) and a comparative database of 200 word meanings in 87 Indo-European languages, Pagel, Atkinson, and Meade (2007) found that the rate of lexical replacement in a language was directly related to frequency of use. Word class was controlled to represent higher frequency of use of different word classes in normal language use. The results showed that the speed of evolution differed between word classes, with prepositions and conjunctions evolving fastest, followed by adjectives, verbs, nouns, special adverbs (what, when, where, here, there, how, not) pronouns, and numbers. (Pagel *et al*, 2007, pp. 717-720). English irregular verbs are examples of words which are frequently used and have not evolved to include a standard -ed suffix. A "…*purifying force of spoken word frequency*" (Pagel *et al.*, 2007, p. 719) is

credited with being the reason for such high-fidelity replication, and this is consistent with the idea of self-normalizing memes, while the errors of reproduction and reproductive ratio described by Nowak[5] complement Dawkins' ideas of memetic copying fidelity and fecundity.

Accuracy of replication, or copying-fidelity, is the final quality necessary for genetic or memetic survival. But it is in this sense that genes and memes differ, and the analogy of memes as cultural genes becomes more abstract. The accuracy of replication may deteriorate due to any number of factors, but words are 'self-normalizing memes' (Dawkins, 2006, p. 226). This means that they can be reproduced correctly even if they have been transmitted incorrectly, but this is based on the assumption that the word is familiar to the receiver and the context is not ambiguous. This self-normalizing process accounts for the high fidelity rate of certain memes (Dawkins, 2006, p. 228). Neologisms and non-standard words in general are less likely to be self-normalizing, and therefore have a much lower rate of fidelity. The creation of neologisms is unpredictable, and the rate of attrition amongst those that are created is high. For a word to achieve stability in a language, the rate of learning (the spread from an existing speaker to a new speaker) must not be less than the rate of death of existing speakers, but for successful propagation the rate of learning should

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[5] Nowak's paper is not limited to word formation and population limitations, but for the sake of brevity and relevance, evolution of syntax and mathematical formulas included in the original paper have not been included in this paper. Likewise, if lexicon in Nowak's paper refers to something other than the mental lexicon, then the mistake for misinterpretation is entirely mine.

exceed the rate of death of existing speakers (Solé *et al*, 2010, p. 1649).

3.   Research Methodology

A sample of 381 obsolete words was taken at random from the OED New Edition, and certain tests applied to see if any patterns exist which might suggest evolutionary pressures have contributed to or caused obsolescence. The population of obsolete words is 54,544 words and was determined using a search engine of the main OED database by Dr. James McCracken, publication editor of OED, and includes only entries which are labelled as obsolete, not entries which contain something obsolete within them (McCracken, *pers. comm.,* 05th November 2010). Data includes everything from the OED Second Edition (1989), the Additions Series vol. 1 and 2 (1993), the Additions Series vol. 3 (1997), and online quarterly updates from March 2000, up to and including April 2011. In cases where a revision has been made to an existing entry (i.e. a Second Edition or Additions entry) and all entries are available for comparison, it is the newest entry which has been used. To ensure an even sample distribution across the population, every 143rd word is included. The starting position was determined by the roll of a die.

Data provided by the OED yields the following information for individual words: primary word class; date of first recorded use; date of last recorded use; definition; number of standard and variant spellings; number of quotations; number of homonyms.

4. Data collection and analysis

4.1) The length of recorded use in years, used as proxy for lexical life span, for every word in the sample is necessary as part of the calculations on which many assumptions are predicated.

The life span for each word was determined by subtracting the date of first recorded use from the date of last recorded use. When only one use entry has been entered into the OED, the year of first and last recorded use are the same, but it is assumed that every recorded word had a life span of at least one year. Distribution of life span data is asymmetrical, so median average is used as the preferred measure of central tendency to compensate for the effect of outlying data.

Table 1 shows the frequency of word occurrences by length of recorded use, grouped into periods of 50 years, and the percentage of the total that these represent. Grouping is in 50 year periods except for the final group which is for words of 500 years or more. The length of recorded use in the sample showed that more than half of words (228, or 59.8%) had a lifespan of between 1 and 50 years. Of the 228 words which make up this set, the highest frequency occurs at one year, this being the life span of 172 words. The next highest is three years, with four occurrences. All other years have a frequency of no more than three occurrences, with the majority having only one.

Table 1: Frequency of word occurrences by length of recorded use (grouped years).

Years of recorded use	Frequency	Percent
1 – 50	228	59.8
51 – 100	39	10.2
101 – 150	26	6.8
151 – 200	20	5.2
201 – 250	22	5.8
251 – 300	8	2.1
301 – 350	10	2.6
351 – 400	4	1.0
401 – 450	5	1.3
451 -500	5	1.3
> 500	14	3.7
Total	381	100

Table 2 shows the mean and median averages for years of recorded use, standard deviation, skewness, and standard error of skewness. The mean and median averages differ considerably (96.18 years compared to 13 years). The effect of outlying data, specifically the high frequency of words with a life span of only one year, has meant the distribution is skewed.

Table 2: Mean and median averages for years of recorded use.

N	Valid	381
Mean		96.18
Median		13.00
Std. Deviation		155.836
Skewness		2.397
Std. Error of Skewness		.125

4.2) The average length of recorded use by word class tests the assumption that word class will not affect life span. A non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis one-way analysis of variance test was used. The null hypothesis is that there is no difference between groups, meaning that the word class does not influence the life span of any word. The same test and sig. value of p <0.05 necessary to reject the null hypothesis are applied to every subsequent test, with the exception of the number of non-standard consonant clusters in sample, for which Mann-Whitney U test is used.

Table 3 shows the frequency of word occurrences by word class and the percentage of total that this represents, and mean and median average for years of recorded use by word class. Table 4 shows the frequency of word occurrences by word class, the percentage of the total that these represent and length of recorded use when grouped into units of 50 years up to a maximum of 500 years. The final group is for words with a length of recorded use of more than 500 years.

Table 3: Frequency of word occurrences, mean and median average for years of recorded use by word class.

	Frequency	Percent	Years of recorded use	
			Mean	Median
Adjective	105	27.6	77.25	1.00
Adverb	14	3.7	198.86	129.00
Interjection	1	.3	563.00	563.00
Noun	193	50.7	93.40	13.00
Preposition	1	.3	276.00	276.00
Verb	67	17.6	102.78	43.00
Total	381	100.0	96.18	13.00

Table 4: Frequency of word occurrences by word class and length of recorded use (grouped).

Years of use	Adj. No.	Adj. %	Adv. No.	Adv. %	Int. No.	Int. %	Nouns No.	Nouns %	Prep. No.	Prep. %	Verbs No.	Verbs %
01 – 50	70	66.7	6	42.9	0	0	115	59.3	0	0	37	56.1
51 – 100	10	9.5	1	7.1	0	0	17	8.8	0	0	11	16.7
101 – 150	1	1	0	0	0	0	20	10.3	0	0	5	7.6
151 – 200	10	9.5	0	0	0	0	9	4.6	0	0	1	1.5
201 – 250	3	2.9	2	14.3	0	0	12	6.2	0	0	5	7.6
251 – 300	3	2.9	1	7.1	0	0	2	1	1	100	1	1.5
301 – 350	2	1.9	2	14.3	1	100	6	3.1	0	0	0	0
351 – 400	1	1	1	7.1	0	0	1	0.5	0	0	1	1.5
401 – 450	2	1.9	0	0	0	0	2	1	0	0	1	1.5
451 –500	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	1.5	0	0	2	3
>500	3	2.9	1	7.1	0	0	7	3.6	0	0	2	3
Total	105	100	14	100	1	100	194	100	1	100	66	100

Table 3 shows that mean and median averages are substantially different, as expected with a skewed distribution of data. Exceptions exist for interjection and preposition classes, for each has only one word in its group. The percentage value for each word class in the sample of obsolete words is not different from the value which is expected in the population of living words as long as the fact that figures for living populations are based on assumptions and estimates is not ignored. This is as expected, and as stated in the assumptions made in 1.4.5. Slightly more than half of the words are nouns (50.7%), more than one quarter (27.6%) are adjectives where one-quarter is predicted, more than one-seventh are verbs (17.6%) where one seventh is predicted (14.3%), and the remainder are other word classes.

Results of Kruskal-Wallis test (p = .017) show that a difference between groups based on word class exists.

4.3) The average length of recorded use by definition of all words in the sample tests the first hypothesis, that the meaning of a word will influence its life span. All words were divided into one of four groups; 1) words which refer to both obsolete and extant technologies, concepts, or grammatical functions; 2) words with definitions related to extant technologies, concepts, or grammatical functions; 3) words with definitions referring to archaic, obsolete or superseded technologies, concepts, or grammatical functions; 4) words with ambiguous or unknown definitions. This fourth category was included to reduce subjectivity. Table 5 shows the frequency of word occurrences and average length of recorded use by definition type. Categories for definition types were recoded to single letters

(B, E, O, U, following the order given above), then processed in alphabetical order.

Table 5: Frequency of word occurrences by definition type.

Definition type	Frequency	Percent	Years of recorded use	
			Mean	Median
B	1	.3	1.00	1.00
E	328	86.1	103.48	23.50
O	19	5.0	93.74	95.00
U	33	8.7	27.94	1.00
Total	381	100.0	96.18	13.00

It was expected that words with definitions referring to archaic, obsolete or superseded technologies, concepts, or grammatical functions would have the shortest life spans. Words of this type occur 19 times, making 5% of the total. The median life span is 95 years, which is contrarily the longest life span of any group. The shortest median life spans belong equally to words with definitions that can refer to both extant and obsolete technologies, concepts, or grammatical functions, and words with unknown or ambiguous definitions. Each has a median life span of 1 year. The frequency of occurrence for the former type of definition is 1 (0.3%), and for the latter 33 (8.7%). The remaining definition type, words which refer to extant technologies, concepts, or grammatical functions, has a frequency of occurrence of 328 (86.1%) and a median life span of 23.5 years.

Results of Kruskal-Wallis test (p = .010) show that a difference between groups based on definition type exists.

4.4) The number of non-standard consonant clusters in sample, here defined as clusters which occur in one or two extant words only, is used to test hypothesis 2, that standardisation is an important catalyst for the evolution of languages. Clusters that occur in more than two words are defined as standard, and those which never occur are judged to be impossible. The list of non-standard consonant clusters used is based on Szigetvari (2007). Non-standard consonant clusters may occur in initial, medial, or final positions, but will not necessarily be non-standard in other positions. For example, /ln/ does not occur as an initial cluster in English, occurs medially in words such as *vulnerable* /vʌlnərəbəl/ and many nouns ending with *-fulness*, but does not occur finally except in *kiln* /kíln/. Therefore /ln/ is considered a non-standard consonant cluster only when in a final position. The number of non-standard consonant clusters, and the percentage of sample these words form were counted, with a high percentage indicating that non-standard clusters contribute to obsolescence.

Table 6 shows the frequency of word occurrences by type of consonant cluster, and mean and median average life spans. These can be only either standard or non-standard. 377 words (99%) contain standard consonant clusters and the median life span for these is 14 years. 4 words (1%) contain non-standard consonant clusters and the median life span is 1 year.

Table 6: Frequency of word occurrences by type of consonant cluster.

| | Frequency | Percent | Years of recorded use | |
			Mean	Median
Standard	377	99.0	97.19	14.00
Non-standard	4	1.00	1.00	1.00
Total	381	100.0		

Results of Mann-Whitney test (p = .045) show that a difference between groups based on type of consonant cluster exists, though it should be noted that the difference between number of words with standard consonant clusters and number of words with non-standard consonant clusters, shown in the frequency column, is very large which is likely to have influenced the outcome of this test.

4.5) The number of syllables for each word in the sample and the mean average across the sample were counted and compared, then words grouped according to number of syllables. The mean and median average life spans for each group were calculated, as was the number of words in each group as a percentage of the sample. The expectation was that polysyllabic words would far outnumber monosyllabic words for two main reasons. Firstly, monosyllabic words are more likely to be maintained in a person's mental lexicon than polysyllabic words as being shorter they are easier to remember and therefore less likely to become obsolete. Secondly, monosyllabic words must necessarily have only one syllable, whereas polysyllabic words may have any number above one allowing for a much larger range. The purpose was to test hypothesis 3, with the expectation that an increase in syllables

would correlate with a decrease in number of years of recorded use due to additional transmission difficulty.

Table 7 shows the frequency of occurrences by number of syllables, and the average length of recorded use for words by number of syllables. Words of 2 or 3 syllables occur most frequently, each 116 times (30.4%). The next highest occurrence is 4 syllable words, occurring 72 times (18.9%). Words of one syllable occur 50 times (13.1%). Words of 5 syllables occur 22 times (5.8%), 6 syllables 3 times (0.8%) and 7 syllables twice (0.5%). As expected, there are more polysyllabic words than monosyllabic words. Single syllable words have the longest life span (median 100 years), four times as long as the next longest, 3 syllable words (25 years). 4 syllable words have a life span of 10 years, 2 syllable words have a lifespan of 8 years, with 5, 6, and 7 syllable words having a life span of one year each.

Table 7: Frequency of occurrences by number of syllables.

Syllables	Frequency	Percent	Years of recorded use	
			Mean	Median
1	50	13.1	174.70	100.00
2	116	30.4	90.41	8.00
3	116	30.4	101.03	25.00
4	72	18.9	59.90	10.00
5	22	5.8	56.36	1.00
6	3	.8	49.67	1.00
7	2	.5	1.00	1.00
Total	381	100.0	96.18	13.00

Results of Kruskal-Wallis test (p = .008) show that a difference between groups based on number of syllables exists.

4.6) The number of standard and variant spellings for words in the sample was used to test hypothesis two and hypothesis three. In the first case it was expected that words with non-standard spellings would have died out or become standardised. It was expected that words with the highest number of variants would have a shorter life span than those words with few or no variant spellings because the latter are more memetically stable.

Table 8 shows the frequency of word occurrences, and mean and median average length of recorded use by number of spellings. Generally the frequency of occurrence decreases with each additional variant. The exceptions are words with 4 spellings which occur 6 times, and words with 5 spellings which occur 7 times. The other anomaly is words with 7 spellings, of which there is only 1. There are 261 words (68.5%) with only one spelling. Using median average, it can be seen that no word with 3 or more variant spellings has a life span of less than 100 years. Contrary to expectations, words with a high number of variants have a longer life span than those words with few or no variant spellings. In this case it may be that the adaptability is more important to survival than stability.

Table 8: Frequency of word occurrences, and mean and median average length of recorded use by number of spellings.

Spellings	Frequency	Percent	Years of recorded use	
			Mean	Median
1	261	68.5	56.60	1.00
2	60	15.7	77.12	27.00
3	22	5.8	180.18	176.50
4	6	1.6	153.33	170.00
5	7	1.8	195.57	225.00
6	4	1.0	148.00	136.50
7	1	.3	199.00	199.00
8	3	.8	441.33	311.00
9	3	.8	498.33	489.00
10	3	.8	507.33	526.00
11	2	.5	510.50	510.50
12	2	.5	470.00	470.00
13	2	.5	359.00	359.00
14	2	.5	736.00	736.00
16	2	.5	405.50	405.50
18	1	.3	899.00	899.00
Total	381	100.0	96.18	13.00

Results of Kruskal-Wallis test (p = .000) show that a difference between groups based on number of variant spellings exists.

4.7) The overall ease of transmission rating was used to test hypothesis three, that the life span of a word is affected by its ease of transmission. The ease of transmission rating for a word was determined by combining the number of non-standard consonant clusters, number of syllables, and number of variant spellings. This gave a numeric value, with a high number suggesting less ease of transmission. Table 09 shows the frequency of word occurrences and mean and median average length of recorded use by ease of transmission rating.

Table 9: Frequency of word occurrences and mean and median average length of recorded use by ease of transmission rating.

			Years of recorded use	
Rating	Frequency	Percent	Mean	Median
2	25	6.6	52.64	3.00
3	82	21.5	67.56	1.00
4	104	27.3	67.39	1.00
5	87	22.8	72.16	27.00
6	36	9.4	78.39	5.50
7	17	4.5	125.18	97.00
8	9	2.4	128.00	72.00
9	1	.3	311.00	311.00
10	3	.8	281.00	199.00
11	4	1.0	574.75	616.00
12	2	.5	572.00	572.00
13	2	.5	482.00	482.00
14	3	.8	403.67	377.00
15	1	.3	946.00	946.00
17	3	.8	445.67	509.00
18	1	.3	447.00	447.00
19	1	.3	899.00	899.00
Total	381	100.0	96.18	13.00

Results of Kruskal-Wallis test (p = .000) show that a difference between groups based on ease of transmission rating exists.

5. Discussion and conclusion

The application of biological evolutionary models to explain language evolution is not a new idea, yet there is no consensus as to which models work best, and there is controversy about the appropriateness of using such models. Using memetics or similar model of cultural transmission adds specificity to the processes which occur, and reduces the use of biological processes metaphorically to describe them. Nevertheless, it is not disputed that living languages do and must change, and an appropriate way to describe the compound changes which occur over time is as evolutionary. Obsolete words have been used as a substitute for living words in this study to allow the life span of words to be examined from birth as neologism, through to moribundity and death. Various factors were tested to see if they affected the life span of a word, and in each case some effect was found. However the extent to which each factor affected the life span of a word is beyond the scope of this study.

6. Limitations and remedies

The population of obsolete words was taken from the OED as the only source. As stated earlier, methods of data entry into the OED may not always have been consistent, and would have involved subjectivity on the part of the editors. The effect of this could be mitigated and the validity of the study increased by using several

corpora as sources. With digitisation of dictionaries such as OED this is no longer such a daunting task.

Mann-Whitney and Kruskal-Wallis statistical tests used show differences exist between groups, but cannot be used to identify which groups are different, and if the difference is meaningful or not. Therefore, a multiple comparison test should be used.

7. Suggestions for further study

The lifespan of words first used before and extant in 1780s could also be compared using British and American corpora. It was in the 1780s that Noah Webster proposed various language reforms with a view to creating a US English, so the assumption could be made that it is at approximately this point that a lineage split began. However, more precise dating and definitive criteria for assuming divergence would be necessary before starting study. The purpose would be to test hypotheses of language universals. Inclusion of a random sample of living words would allow all hypotheses to be tested more thoroughly by reducing any effect that might be caused by confirmation bias. What is true of obsolete words may not necessarily be true of living words.

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The What and The How of Feedback in ESL and EFL Writing: What Research Says

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ABSTRACT

Although feedback has been studied in ESL and EFL writing research for over two decades, the studies report mixed results. This has generated pedagogical problems, particularly in students' understanding of teacher feedback and teachers' practices of giving feedback. The presentation reports a systematic analysis of studies on feedback in ESL and EFL writing at a college level which are categorized into three themes: 1) effects of different types of feedback on quality of writing; 2) students' attitudes towards feedback types; and 3) teachers' perceptions on errors and feedback. The scopes of inquiry, research paradigms, data collection strategies, and results of the studies are analyzed in order to determine the extent to which the three research themes are related and can inform one another. A systematic review of these research studies can reveal students' understanding of feedback and the practices of giving feedback in ESL and EFL writing research which will be useful for practitioners.

Keywords: document analysis, feedback, errors, students' attitudes, teachers' perceptions

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บทคัดย่อ

        แม้การศึกษาเรื่องผลสะท้อนกลับในงานวิจัยที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการเขียน
ภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อเป็นภาษาที่สองและเพื่อเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศจะมีมากว่า 20 ปี
ผลของงานวิจัยยังคงไม่ชัดเจน สิ่งเหล่านี้ทำให้เกิดปัญหาในด้านการเรียนการสอน
โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งความเข้าใจของนักศึกษาต่อผลสะท้อนกลับของครูและการ
ฝึกสอนการให้ผลสะท้อนกลับของครู งานวิจัยชิ้นนี้ได้รายงานผลของการวิเคราะห์
งานวิจัยต่าง ๆ ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับผลสะท้อนกลับในการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อใช้เป็น
ภาษาที่สองและการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อใช้เป็นภาษาต่างประเทศในระดับ
มหาวิทยาลัย ซึ่งแบ่งออกเป็น 3 ด้านคือ ผลกระทบของผลสะท้อนกลับประเภท
ต่างๆ ต่อคุณภาพของงานเขียน ทัศนคติของนักศึกษาที่มีต่อประเภทของผล
สะท้อนกลับ ความเข้าใจของครูต่อข้อผิดพลาดและผลสะท้อนกลับ ผู้วิจัยได้
วิเคราะห์ทั้งกระบวนทัศน์ในการวิจัย กระบวนการเก็บข้อมูล และผลของการวิจัย
เพื่อที่จะศึกษาถึงขอบเขตข้อมูลของความเกี่ยวเนื่องที่เป็นไปได้ของงานวิจัยทั้ง 3
ด้าน จากการวิเคราะห์งานวิจัยต่างๆ อย่างเป็นระบบ ผลของงานวิจัยแสดงให้เห็น
ถึงความเข้าใจของนักศึกษาต่อผลสะท้อนกลับและการให้ผลสะท้อนกลับใน
วิชาการเขียนภาษาอังกฤษซึ่งเป็นประโยชน์ต่อครูผู้สอน

ศัพท์สำคัญ : การวิเคราะห์เอกสาร ผลสะท้อนกลับ ข้อผิดพลาด ทัศนคติของ
นักศึกษา ความเข้าใจของครูผู้สอน

Introduction

Within the past 20 years, there have been a large number of research studies on feedback or response to ESL and EFL students' writing. From an overall perspective, there are three main areas consisting of : (1) effects of different kinds of feedback on students' quality of writing (e.g. Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Chandler, 2003; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Hashemenezad & Mohammednejad, 2011) ; (2) students' attitudes toward peer feedback and teacher feedback (e.g. Enginarlar, 1993; Hyland, 2003; Miao, Badger, & Zhen, 2006; Nordin, Halib, Ghazali, & Ali, 2010; Storch & Tapper, 1997; Zhang, 1999; Zhao, 2010) ; and (3) teachers' perceptions of feedback (e.g. Evans, Hartshorn, & Tuioti, 2010; Ferris, Brown, Liu, Eugenia , & Stine, 2011; Hyland & Anan, 2006; Lee, 2008; Montgomery & Baker, 2007). Most of the studies focused primarily on students'performance especially in terms of grammatical accuracy in their writing. However, teachers' views on their feedback and their practices have been less explored.

Motivated by the arguments each research strand has made and a lack of a document analysis of ESL and EFL writing research, the present study aims to organize and synthesize these writing research studies into themes. The proposed study aims to make a clearer picture of each theme on writing feedback in ESL and EFL contexts. Moreover, the present study attempts to reveal the extent to which the three themes of writing feedback research (effects of different kinds of feedback on students' improvement, students' attitudes toward teacher feedback, and teachers' perceptions on feedback and errors) would inform one another. It is hoped that a systematic

review of these research studies can reveal the practices of giving feedback in ESL and EFL writing research which will be useful for pedagogical purposes.

Debates on corrective feedback

A review of studies conducted to determine the extent to which corrective feedback benefited students' writing showed that the issue could be traced back to the debate on grammatical correction or corrective feedback in ESL writing for over two decades.   Several studies reported that corrective feedback helped students increase their grammatical accuracy both in revision (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Ferris & Roberts, 2001) and subsequent writing (e.g. Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Bitchener et al., 2005; Chandler, 2003; Ellis et al., 2008); however, some scholars questioned the effectiveness of corrective feedback. For example, Truscott (1996) argued,

> "There is some reason to think that syntactic, morphological, and lexical knowledge are acquired in different manners. If this is the case, then probably no single form of correction can be effective for all three."(p. 343).

According to Truscott, the acquisition of grammatical features was a process that was subject to change over a period of time, not a sudden change which happens as soon as correction is given. Teachers may correct students' errors by using various effective methods, not only a single form of correction.

Ferris (1999) did not agree with Truscott. She stated,

"There is tremendous variability in students' ability to benefit from grammar instruction and feedback and to learn to self-correct, and many students have made dramatic improvements in their accuracy over the course of a semester" (p. 7).

She also argued for systematic correction in students' writing which could promote language learning "...it was not possible to dismiss correction in general as it depended on the quality of the correction -in other words, if the correction was clear and consistent it would work" (Ferris, 1999 as cited in Ellis et al., 2008, p. 354). There were two main reasons which Ferris used to support her study in order to continue giving error correction, namely students' attitudes toward writing and course contents, and self-editing. Nonetheless, Truscott claimed "students believe in correction...that does not mean that teachers should give it to them" (1996, p. 359).

The debate on whether error correction should be given to help students increase their accuracy has motivated studies to shed light on corrective feedback and how students viewed and used feedback sources in their writing.

2. Methodology

To address the aim of the paper, the researcher used the *Scopus* database to find published, scholarly reviewed articles on writing feedback. The key words "feedback" and "writing" were used to search for the articles. The studies published between 1990 and 2013 were included. This is because in the last 20 years, there have

been many studies on writing feedback especially in ESL and EFL contexts. In total, there were 18 studies.

A document analysis of the studies was used. The analysis can help the researcher to categorize research studies into themes and compare each of them in terms of 1) topics of investigation; 2) research paradigms and designs; 3) data collection techniques and data gathering strategies; and 4) findings. This analytical approach to the research studies can allow the researcher to study how the four components might be related and might affect the interpretation of findings.

3. Findings

The sections below present the preliminary findings of the research studies in each strand.

Effects of corrective feedback on students' accuracy

The studies conducted in the theme aimed to determine the extent to which corrective feedback or feedback on errors improves students' writing in terms of accuracy. The research strand was mainly impacted by the debate on error correction stated earlier in the paper. The studies in this strand investigated a single form of corrective feedback (direct versus indirect feedback, i.e. errors were underlined or circled, given codes and description, direct versus no feedback) and a combination of feedback (direct, written meta-linguistic explanation, oral feedback, and indirect feedback) and used a quantitative design with statistical analyses. The scope of these studies was on local grammatical features namely verb errors, noun ending errors, article errors, word choices.

The data were collected from students' essays in various rhetorical patterns, either in multiple drafts or new pieces of writing. Moreover, in more recent studies (Bitchener & Knoch, 2009; Bitchener & Knoch, 2010), the researchers investigated whether or not time impacted students' accuracy after the students were given corrective feedback. This was conducted in the analysis of multiple drafts written in a pre-test and a post-test. The essays were then analyzed by using statistical procedures (e.g. ANOVAs, t-test) to establish correlations. The results revealed the relationship between corrective feedback types and students' grammatical accuracy that is direct corrective feedback help students increase their accuracy rather than indirect corrective feedback. However, a study revealed that there was no statistic difference between direct and indirect corrective feedback (Ferris & Roberts, 2001). The results indicated that a combination of feedback can improve students' accuracy rather than a single form of feedback; however, the research studies in this strand focused on specific grammatical features. The results then had to be treated with caution because they cannot be generalized to feedback given to more complex structures. Table 1 presents a summary of the studies in the theme of corrective feedback.

Table 1: Effects of corrective feedback on grammatical features.

Researcher(s)	Focus of research	Methodology	Findings
Ferris & Roberts, 2001	Effects of direct corrective feedback (codes and no codes) and no corrective feedback	Participants: three groups of ESL students -A questionnaire: word count - A pretest: statistical procedures (i.e., ANOVAs, t-tests, and correlations) - An essay: word count	Better performance in self-editing in both codes and no codes groups. No difference between codes and no codes groups
Chandler, 2003	Study one: effects of error correction on student's accuracy Study two: four different kinds of error correction on both revision and subsequent writing	Participants: two different group of undergraduate students from two class Study one: Five written works: statistical procedures (i.e. ANCOVA, Regression, and t-test) Study two: Five written work a holistic rating and statistical procedures (i.e. ANOVA, MANOVA, and t-test)	Study one: Improved accuracy in the experimental group ,improved fluency in both groups over 10 weeks but no difference between the two groups Study two: Improved accuracy and fluency over the semester

Researcher(s)	Focus of research	Methodology	Findings
Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005	Effects of three direct corrective feedback types 1. Direct, explicit written feedback, and conferencing 2. Direct, explicit written feedback 3. No corrective feedback	Participants: adult students -Four writing assignments: the obligatory occasion analysis to find out correct usage and statistical procedures (i.e. ANOVA, and Post hoc) to determine students' performance	- No variation in the use of prepositions found across feedback types - Improved accuracy in the use of past simple tense in the group receiving conference and written feedback
Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008	Effects of focused and unfocused direct corrective feedback	Participants: Japanese students - An error correction test: statistical procedures (i.e. ANOVA, with post-hoc Tukey or t-test) - Narrative writings (pre and post-test design) : the obligatory occasion analysis and statistics (i.e. ANOVA with post-hoc one-way ANOVAs) -An exit questionnaire	Better performance of the focused and the unfocused groups than the control group

Researcher(s)	Focus of research	Methodology	Findings
Bitchener & Knoch, 2009	Effects of direct written corrective feedback on students' writing 1.Direct corrective feedback, written, and oral meta-linguistic explanation 2.Direct corrective feedback and written meta-linguistic explanation 3.Direct corrective feedback only	Participants: Low intermediate ESL students -Four pieces of descriptive writing (pre and post-test design): using the Obligatory occasion analysis and statistical procedures for pre-test and post-test (i.e. a two-way ANOVA, a one way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc pair-wise comparisons)	- Improved accuracy after the treatment (immediate post-test) in all three groups -No differences found among the three feedback types in the first delayed post-test
Bitchener & Knoch, 2010	Effects of a combination of written corrective feedback on students' writing 1.Written meta-linguistic explanation 2.Indirect circling of errors(circling)	Participants: advanced ESL students - Descriptive writing (pre and post-test design): using Obligatory occasion Analysis to find correct usage of linguistic features and statistical analysis (i.e. a two-way repeated ANOVA, a one-way ANOVAs with	-Immediately improved accuracy of students in three treatment groups -Improved accuracy of students in written meta-linguistic explanation group and the written meta-linguistic explanation and

Researcher(s)	Focus of research	Methodology	Findings
	3.Written meta-linguistic explanation and oral form-focused instruction 4.No correction	Tukey's post hoc pair-wise)	oral form-focused instruction ten weeks later
Hashemnezhad & Mohammadnejad, 2012	Effects of direct and indirect corrective feedback(coded) on students' accuracy 1.Direct corrective feedback 2. Indirect corrective feedback (coded)	Participants: Iranian students -A text book : (generating ideas, organizing, drafting, reviewing, and revising) - students' drafts: statistic-t-test	-direct corrective feedback found to be more effective than indirect corrective feedback

What students think about feedback types

The second research area puts an emphasis on students' views on feedback. It is based on the notion that it is necessary to explore what students think about feedback they receive as the practice of giving feedback involves not just teachers but also students.

Research studies in this field reported mixed results of how students think and make use of different kinds of feedback such as teacher feedback, self-feedback, and peer feedback. It is possible that the mixed results are due to the fact that the researchers used different data collection techniques in their studies. To gain insight into students' perceptions, interviews, questionnaires, as well as classroom observation were used as tools to gather data related to students' preferences (Zhang, 1999), understanding (Zhao, 2010), use and engagement of teacher feedback (Hyland, 2003). Students' annotations were proposed as an alternative method by Storch and Tapper's study (1997) to allow the students to express their views on their own writing including their strengths and weaknesses.

The data from the students' annotations on drafts and interviews were categorized into feedback points: content, structure, grammar/expression, information, global/general comments. The questionnaires were converted into a rank order for preferences, and in Zhang's study (1999), statistical correlations were performed to find a relationship between proficiency levels and preferences for feedback types.

The results of these studies reported that students expected both teacher feedback and peer feedback in their writing and that

proficiency levels were not related to preferences for a certain feedback type. However, teacher feedback was more desirable than peer feedback. Surprisingly, they used teacher feedback without their understanding. This contrasted with peer feedback because students understood peer feedback. This is because students could negotiate with their friends while giving peer feedback. Table 2 gives a summary of the studies in the area of students' views.

Table 2: Students' attitudes toward feedback types.

Researcher(s)	Focus of research	Methodology	Findings
Storch & Tapper, 1997	Students' annotations on their own drafts	Participants: native and non-native English speaking students 1. An argumentative research paper: examining written drafts with annotation, separate annotation sheets, and transcripts of conferences for all instances of annotations and grouping all annotations into categories and sub-categories 2.teacher-student conferencing	- NS students' and NNS students' different foci
Zhang, 1995	Students' preferences on peer feedback, teacher feedback, and self-feedback	Participants: three proficiency groups of ESL students -Questionnaire: questionnaire data converted to rank order (1, 2, and 3) of preferences and statistical analysis to compare each group feedback types: Chi-square and Friedman ANOVA	-Teacher feedback preferred among the majority of students -No relationship between proficiency level and feedback type

Researcher(s)	Focus of research	Methodology	Findings
Hyland, 2003	Students' engagement with teacher feedback	Participants: two classes of different level of students - Students' writing drafts: identification of all written interventions (any comment, underlining or correction) from students' drafts and categorizing written interventions into feedback points - classroom observation - teachers' think aloud protocols - students' retrospective interviews	- Potential influence of students' preference on their engagements with teacher feedback - Teachers' main focus on errors while giving feedback
Miao, Badger, & Zhen, 2006	Students' views and uses of teacher feedback and peer feedback	Participants: two classes of Chinese university students 1. Students' drafts : using Faigley & Witte (1981) taxonomy, Conrad & Goldstein's (1999) taxonomy, and revision types of Ferris et al.'s (1997) 2. A questionnaire survey: comparison of the questionnaire data between teacher feedback class and peer feedback class 3. Teacher researchers' field notes	Students' more extensive use of teacher feedback than peer feedback - Benefits of peer feedback over teacher feedback: more revisions and self-correction

Researcher(s)	Focus of research	Methodology	Findings
Nordin, Halib, Ghazali, & Ali, 2010	Error correction and students' perceptions on teacher written feedback	Participants: engineering students in a Malaysian university - Students' drafts -A set of questionnaires: statistical analysis	Students' appreciation of teachers' written feedback due to its reliability and benefits on their improvement in writing and grammar
Zhao, 2010	Students' uses and understanding of peer feedback and teacher feedback in their writing	Participants: Chinese university students and English writing teachers -Students' drafts: frequency counts of students' use of peer feedback and teacher feedback -Students' and teachers' interviews	Students' more extensive use of teacher feedback than peer feedback-Students' more understanding of peer feedback than teacher feedback

Teachers' perceptions on errors and feedback

Although feedback has been studied for more than two decades, research studies on teachers' perceptions have been relatively less explored. The studies in this area primarily focus on how teachers think of and react to errors and how their practices of giving feedback may be related to several factors such as their language background, experience, and training.

The studies showed relationships between teachers' background and their practices. For instance, Hyland & Anan's study (2006) revealed that English native-speaking teachers considered errors, which were rated on the basis of gravity, that caused intelligibility more serious than grammatical errors that did not affect comprehensibility, and hence the teachers responded to the former. The EFL teachers assigned more gravity scores on grammatical errors. These differences were also noted in Evans, Hartshorn & Tuioti (2010), who reported that practitioners in different countries varied in their views on corrective feedback with the majority of them believing that correction of errors was part of their work. Montgomery & Baker (2007) provided a better insight into teachers' practices by matching teachers' beliefs with their actual performance in giving feedback. The results showed contradictions—the teachers focused more on local points than they reported. The results of the studies in this theme underscored the significance of training as Lee (2008) argued in her study of English secondary school teachers' practices, values, and beliefs in giving feedback.

Table 3 shows that the studies in this theme used a combination of quantitative and qualitative designs. In other words, the researchers explored teachers' perceptions by using

questionnaires and interviews. Students' drafts with teacher feedback were employed to gather data related to teachers' practices which were then triangulated with the perception data.

Table 3: Teachers' perceptions and practices of giving feedback.

Researcher(s)	Focus of research	Methodology	Findings
Hyland & Anan, 2006	Three different group of teachers' identification of errors	- Native English speaking EFL teachers -Japanese speaking EFL teachers -native English non-teachers - a correction task -a questionnaire -Analytical units (comprehensibility/intelligibility, lexical errors, and grammatical errors)	Differences in identifying and rating seriousness of errors between NSs and NNSs: errors affecting comprehension rated as more serious by NSs
Montgomery & Baker, 2007	Teacher assessment and actual performance of their written feedback	- Writing teachers and students at the Brigham Young University - Teachers' and students' questionnaires: calculating numeral scores of teacher and students questionnaires -Teacher feedback on students' drafts: counting frequent of ideas and content, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics of teacher feedback	-Teachers' unawareness of the areas of feedback they gave -More feedback given to local areas than global areas

Researcher(s)	Focus of research	Methodology	Findings
Lee, 2008	Teacher feedback practices in EFL contexts	Participants: Cantonese speaking secondary teachers -Questionnaires -Interview -Students' writings - Questionnaire data - Frequency counts of feedback tokens of teachers' comment, underlining, and correction on students' writings	- Extensive marking of all student errors - Teachers' beliefs and values, examination culture, and lack of teacher training resulting into teacher feedback practices -Incongruence between Educational Bureau's and teachers' practices: form focusing and direct corrective feedback used by teachers.
Evans, Hartshorn & Tuioti, 2010	Practitioners' perspectives of corrective feedback in L2 writing	Participants: practitioners in different countries - a survey including open-ended questions - statistical analysis (SPSS)	- teachers' and students' perceptions of marking and editing as their own duties - Some practitioners' foci on content, organization, and rhetoric

Researcher(s)	Focus of research	Methodology	Findings
Ferris, Brown, Liu, & Stine, 2011	L1 writing instructors' training and experience in working with L2 students	Participants: college writing instructors -a questionnaire -an interview -students' written text -statistical analysis -procedures and analysis scheme for students' written text	- Teachers' lack of awareness of L2 students' needs - Teachers' focus on students' errors -Lack of training in teaching L2 students

The results from the three research themes indicate that corrective feedback can improve grammatical accuracy in certain areas and that students' expectations and understanding of feedback may not always be in line with this. Moreover, there are some inconsistencies in the findings related to teachers' perceptions of feedback and their practices. Therefore, a promising area of research on feedback should take into account both teachers' and students' views and use a mixed-method paradigm to shed light on this pedagogically important issue and to augment the validity of research into reciprocity between teaching and learning.

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Vocational College English Teachers' Awareness of Establishment of the ASEAN Community and Its Impact on English Language Teaching

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ABSTRACT

The ASEAN Community will be soon established in 2015 and thus the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) will surely receive great interest. With the policy of the free-flow of skilled labor, Thai vocational graduates can anticipate this new challenge. Since English has been adopted as the main working language of the ASEAN Community, it will certainly be an essential tool with which Thai vocational graduates should be equipped. To do so, vocational school English teachers will play an important role. This study therefore aims to investigate the understanding of vocational college English teachers about the ASEAN Community and its impact

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on their beliefs in what and how to teach English. Four experienced vocational school English teachers were interviewed. Then, the interview data were transcribed and grouped into themes. The results showed that the teachers were aware of the ASEAN Community establishment. However, their knowledge of ASEAN was still superficial. As a result, they could make only general suggestions for English language teaching (ELT) to prepare vocational students for the AEC. The findings also suggested that assistance from the Ministry of Education and a clearer English teaching policy and curriculum are needed.

Keywords: vocational school English teachers, teachers' awareness, the ASEAN Community, AEC, ELT

บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยชิ้นนี้มีจุดประสงค์เพื่อการศึกษาความตระหนักรู้ของการจัดตั้งประชาคม
อาเซียนและปัจจัยที่ส่งผลกระทบต่อการสอนภาษาอังกฤษของครูผู้สอน
ภาษาอังกฤษในวิทยาลัยอาชีวศึกษาที่สอนวิชาชีพเฉพาะทาง ตลอดจนทักษะ
ภาษาอังกฤษด้านใดที่ครูภาษาอังกฤษจะสอนผู้เรียนเพื่อเตรียมความพร้อมสู่
ประชาชาคมอาเซียนใน ปี 2558 กลุ่มประชากรของงานวิจัยชิ้นนี้คือ อาจารย์
ภาษาอังกฤษในวิทยาลัยอาชีวศึกษาและวิทยาลัยเทคนิคจำนวนสี่ท่าน โดย
เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในครั้งนี้ ได้แก่   การสัมภาษณ์ ในการเก็บข้อมูล อาจารย์แต่ละท่าน
จะถูกสัมภาษณ์ตามคำถามที่ได้มีการจัดเตรียมไว้ พร้อมทั้งคำถามเพิ่มเติม ซึ่ง
ข้อมูลที่ได้จะนำมาวิเคราะห์ตีความหมายและจัดกลุ่ม ซึ่งผลที่ได้จากการศึกษา
พบว่าครูมีความตระหนักต่อการจัดตั้งประชาคมอาเซียนในระดับทั่วไป อีกทั้งมี
ข้อเสนอแนะวิธีของการสอนภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อเตรียมความพร้อมแก่นักเรียน
นักศึกษาอาชีวศึกษา การศึกษานี้จะเป็นข้อมูลที่เป็นประโยชน์ต่อหน่วยงานที่
เกี่ยวข้อง เช่น กระทรวงศึกษาธิการเพื่อวางแผนพัฒนานโยบายการสอน
ภาษาอังกฤษและหลักสูตรที่เหมาะสม ตลอดจนการอบรมครูภาษาอังกฤษ ให้
พร้อมสู่ประชาคมอาเซียน

คำสำคัญ: ครูภาษาอังกฤษวิทยาลัยอาชีวศึกษา/   ความตระหนักของครู   /
ประชาคมอาเซียน / ประชาคมเศรษฐกิจอาเซียน / การสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

1.   Introduction

Under the agreement of ASEAN Economic Community (AEC), skilled workers from all ASEAN countries are allowed to commute and work freely throughout the region (Fernquest, 2012). If one looks at this in a positive way, it means ASEAN workers will have more job opportunities. However, this allowance may lead to high competition in the ASEAN job market. Thus, it could be a difficult time for some workers who are not well-prepared.

Skilled workers will be the main group of people experiencing this change. Most of the Thai skilled workers are vocational school graduates. To be successful in this competition, English proficiency is important (Kuper and Chakraborty, 2008) and those who can speak English are observed to have a better chance to get a job and be more productive (Chiswick, 2008).

Based on this idea, English teachers in Thai vocational schools are burdened with an important duty to prepare Thai vocational students with the English language to make them ready for the opening of AEC. Thus, the awareness and vision of the teachers for the upcoming phenomenon are worth exploring.

2.   Literature Review

Language situations in Thailand

Thailand is a country in Southeast Asia which, based on the history, has never been colonized by any western countries. As a result, the national language of the country, Thai, maintains its status as the main and only official language of Thailand. Based on the classic

concentric circles for classifying English users (Kachru, 1992), since there was no historical penetration of English in the country, Thailand is classified as a member of the expanding circle. Unlike other ASEAN countries in the outer circle (i.e. Singapore, Malaysia, The Philippines, and Brunei) where English is their second language and the language of all educational domains, English in Thailand is taught as a foreign language subject in schools. However, English is widely regarded as more important than its so-called status as a foreign language in the country. English is accepted as the major international language of the country as previous literature demonstrates (Smalley, 1994; Trakulkasemsuk, 2012). With the realisation of its power and influence, it is set as the main compulsory foreign language for all Thai students at all levels of education.

The ASEAN Community and the English language

Based on how English is used in these countries, they can be divided into two main groups (Kachru, 1998; Kirkpatrick, 2008; Watson Todd, 2012). The first group includes the countries where English is used as their official language even though many people in the countries also speak other languages as their mother tongues. They are Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Singapore. The second group includes the countries where English does not have such a strong status and therefore it is studied as a foreign language. People in these countries use their own national language as the official language. Those countries are Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Myanmar, Thailand, and Vietnam.

It can be seen that most people from ASEAN countries do not commonly share the same national language. English, with its well-accepted status as a global language (Crystal, 1992; Hardin, 1979; Jenkins, 1998; Smith 1983), might then be the most convenient language for all the ASEAN people to use as a means of international communication. Thus, it is an agreement in the ASEAN charter, Article 34, stating that English shall be the working language of ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations, 2013; Kirkpatrick, 2010).

Based on the geographical location, Thailand is the centre surrounded by many neighboring countries: Myanmar, Laos PDR, Cambodia, and Malaysia. Thai people at the borders can normally speak Thai and a neighboring country's language. For example, people in the east may speak Thai-Khmer, people in the north eastern Thai- Lao, and people in the south Thai-Malay (Noss, 1984: 92). With this fact, one may argue that the Thais can reasonably communicate with other ASEAN people. However, not all Thais can speak the neighboring countries' languages. Moreover, only speaking Thai and one more neighboring country's language cannot help those people communicate effectively with all other ASEAN people from all ten countries. Therefore, English is still an important language for Thai people if they want to take full advantage of their participation in the ASEAN community. With the encouragement of the free-flow of the workforce among ASEAN countries, Thai workers, if they aim for wider job opportunities, may need sufficient English communication skills. This includes the vocational graduates in the workforce who need to be equipped with English communication skills.

Thai graduates from vocational schools may be a group of people who gain a lot from this opportunity. As English educators, we

should think of how to assist them with the language so that they can be more successful.

English language teaching in schools and vocational schools in Thailand

In 1995, the Thai Ministry of Education announced the policy for all schools to start teaching English from grade 1 onwards. This was due to the need for Thai people to be competent in English (Keyuravong, 2008). According to the National Education act, foreign language learning and teaching should serve four broad goals including communication, culture, connection, and community (Darasawang & Watson Todd, 2012: 210).

In vocational and technical education, English is taught as a compulsory subject for both certificate and diploma levels. In most vocational school curricula, English is compulsory (Saraithong, 2013). Schools provide English courses that are relevant to students' fields of study. In other words, they teach English for Specific Purposes (ESP). For example, students in the department of commerce usually study English for Business while students in technical fields usually study Technical English. In English lessons (of all specific purposes), the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) are commonly emphasised. Recently, the Office of the Vocational Education Commission (OVEC) has shown significant awareness of English skills of vocational students' English skills. With an aim to help improve English skills of vocational students, OVEC has launched an English program (EP) and a Mini English program (MEP) in public vocational schools in each province (Office of the Vocational Education Commission, n.d.).

Although it appears that Thai students, either in primary, secondary or vocational levels, are required to study English a lot and for a very long time, still their English proficiency is rather low. In comparison to students from the other ASEAN countries, based on students' TOEFL scores, Thailand is ranked eighth out of nine countries, excluding Brunei (Bunnag, 2005). The study of Bolton (2008) also demonstrates a similar result in that Thai people in general have low proficiency of English compared to people from ASEAN and Asian countries.

The unsuccessful ELT in Thailand may be caused by several reasons. The study of Biyaem (1997) has listed possible causes. First, Thai English teachers are found to have heavy teaching loads and insufficient English skills. Moreover, there are too many students in a class for a teacher to handle. Inadequacy of classroom facilities associated with supporting educational technology is another important point. Apart from the teachers and facilities, problems also arise from general characteristics of Thai students. Most Thai students tend to be passive learners. Also, they are shy to speak English in class and they lack English exposure in real life. In addition, they are found to suffer from their first language interference in learning English since the two language systems are highly different. To be more specific to English teaching in vocational schools, the study of Yomayo and Kommoon (2012) reveal problems causing unsuccessful English teaching in vocational schools. The problems cover a large numbers of students in a classroom, inappropriate course books and poor design of English curriculum.

Since the ASEAN Community and AEC are to be opened soon, the preparation of Thai vocational students and graduates in terms of

their English skills should be vital. Unfortunately, only a few research studies about this have been conducted. It is interesting to focus first on vocational English teachers' view on ASEAN awareness, and what English skills should be taught to vocational students to compete with other skilled ASEAN workers. Thus, this study aims to investigate the perspectives of Thai vocational school English teachers about this.

Research questions

1. How do vocational college teachers understand the ASEAN Community and its relations to the role of English and English language teaching (ELT) in the ASEAN community?

2. What English skills do vocational college teachers believe their students should have in order to compete for job opportunities in the ASEAN Community?

3.   Research Methodology

Participants

In this study, four experienced English teachers from vocational and technical colleges in Bangkok were chosen, two from each of the colleges. The reason for selecting these two colleges was because they produced vocational graduates from two major fields. The first was a vocational school for technical and industrial fields of study and the second was a vocational college with its emphasis on commercial fields. To select the subject teachers, three criteria were considered. First, the subject teachers had to be full-time teachers.

Second, they were required to have at least five years of experience of English teaching in the college. Last, they had to have a degree in English or English language teaching.

Research Instrument

A semi-structured interview was used in this study. Background information questions were developed by the researchers in order to probe the subject teachers' understanding about ASEAN and its relations to the role of English and ELT together with the beliefs of English skills to be instructed. The interviews consisted of a list of prepared questions; however, they were used as guided questions. Each of the interviews took approximately 30-40 minutes. All the interviews were done in Thai to avoid language constraints and miscommunication.

Data analysis

The interview data from the four subject teachers were transcribed and thematised so as to answer the research questions.

Limitations of the study

The main focus of the study is on vocational English teachers who are considered to be a valued resource to drive vocational students to be efficient and skilled contributors to the ASEAN workforce. Their views, however, may not represent those of other vocational college teachers. For more insight into the issue, concerned parties such as school management teams, general vocational school teachers, future employers, stakeholders, and students themselves should be investigated.

In addition, information obtained from the findings may potentially demonstrate teachers' unitary opinions.   The teachers explained that their students' failure to acquire the English language is not a result of the teachers' lack of ability and awareness or, the schools' facilities. The teachers, the schools, and the Office of the Vocational Education Commission (OVEC) claimed to have paid attention to the improvement of the students' English skills. Moreover, they have a clear vision to prepare their students for the AEC. However, not interviewing the students makes this claim subject to criticisms.

4.   Findings

The findings are presented in three sections: the vocational college teachers' understanding about the ASEAN Community, the roles of English in the community, and English language teaching in preparing vocational students for the ASEAN Community.

The vocational college English teachers' understanding about the ASEAN Community and AEC:

The first subject teacher

The first subject teacher stated that she knew about the establishment of the ASEAN Community and AEC because she was in the field of education. She knew the AEC policy of the free-flow of workers and was aware that it might affect vocational graduates. She mentioned that there were discussions for preparation and changes of the Thai education system and curriculum. In addition, she highlighted one of her concerns that workers from different

ASEAN countries could move freely to work in other member countries. As a result, the number of foreign workers in Thailand might rapidly increase. However, still she felt uncertain about the readiness of the Thais and Thai workers for the ASEAN Community.

The second subject teacher

The second subject teacher expressed the view that the ASEAN Community and AEC were commonly known among vocational school teachers since the topic was an issue advocated by the Office of the Vocational Education Commission (OVEC). The reason for this was to raise teachers' awareness of the ASEAN Community and OVEC encouraged teachers to see the importance to produce and develop vocational students to be an efficient workforce for the labor market.

In addition, she mentioned that there were policies and projects to support the readiness of Thai vocational graduates for the ASEAN Community set by the government; for example, in educational fields, vocational students' communication skills were taught in order to strengthen their communication ability.

The third subject teacher

The third subject teacher revealed that she knew about the establishment of the ASEAN Community and AEC from the news. The ASEAN Community would support the bonding of the ten countries of ASEAN. She understood that the main purpose of its formation was for the improvement of economic, social, political, and cultural ties. As a result, the power of the countries in the ASEAN Community would be strengthened.

The fourth subject teacher

The fourth subject teacher indicated that he knew about the ASEAN Community and AEC in general. He explained that the purpose of the establishment of ASEAN was because of the economy, society and politics. In his personal view, it was the co-operation of the ASEAN countries to build political and economic stability within the ten ASEAN nations. However, he mentioned that he did not feel confident about the founding of the ASEAN Community because of the hesitation of the member countries. He still believed that if the ASEAN leaders and people were prepared, their community should be strong.

Findings from the interviews of the four experienced vocational school English teachers indicate that their knowledge and understanding about the ASEAN Community and AEC were superficial. The main sources of their knowledge were from OVEC and the news. Nevertheless, they emphasised their views of the community slightly differently. The first and second subject teachers paid more attention to its impacts on the workforce and how to prepare Thai future workers. Meanwhile, the third and the fourth subject teachers mostly discussed their understanding of the ASEAN Community in a more general perspective which is related to the development of economic, social, political and cultural stability.

The ASEAN Community and its relation to the role of English and ELT in Thailand

The first subject teacher

To the first subject teacher, that English is the official working language of the ASEAN Community meant that English should be the main language used in communication among the people in ASEAN. English knowledge and ability to communicate through the language was very important for Thai vocational graduates. However, she reported that Thai vocational students' English proficiency was quite low and they could not communicate in English. So, this was their weakness. In comparison with the skilled workers from Singapore and Malaysia, the English proficiency of workers from those two countries should be higher than that of Thai workers. Hence, skilled Thai workers, particularly vocational graduates, might have a hard time competing with those workers if they do not have English communication skills.

Thus, she indicated that it was necessary for vocational schools together with English teachers to seriously consider how to prepare students' with English ability, especially communication skills. Thus, teaching English in workplaces to vocational students was essential.

She reported that at her school various English projects had been implemented in order to help students improve their English. First, they provided additional English courses. She indicated that the school allocated extra time for foreign teachers to teach English for at least two periods a week. Second, the school set up a self-access learning centre (SALC). By the concept of SALC, the task was assigned with well-prepared materials for students to learn English

on their own. She finally expressed that the SALC was compared to the heart of English study.

In addition, she mentioned that the English curriculum was broadly written. So, she had to clearly analyse and interpret the curriculum by herself in order to teach learners in-depth English in their fields of study such as teaching English for accounting, computing, or secretarial duties. Furthermore, she explained that she assigned students to do the final English project relevant to their majors before graduation. To do this, vocational students had an opportunity to practise what they learned about English in a real experience. Finally, she mentioned that teachers' awareness of what to teach and what to improve in the learners' English skills was significant.

The second subject teacher

She described that in the ASEAN Community, English could be a language for communication. It was a *lingua franca* used for communication among people with many different mother tongues. Another role was an official working language. This meant it was used in workplaces and organisations, in both the government and private sectors.

She explained that English was essential for vocational students. Nevertheless, their English language proficiency was still quite low. So, it was important to teach them English. This helped vocational students to be a skilled worker and it made them succeed in their future work. She mentioned that English was important to students after graduation because they could use it for communication at

work. Hence, English teachers should instruct English communication skills relevant to their fields of study, namely, accounting English or English for business.

According to this, teaching extra English classes should be done. In her college, extra hours, two periods a week, were allocated to teach supplementary English in each classroom. Furthermore, she said that native speakers were hired to teach students in her college. The purpose was to build learners' confidence of English communication with foreigners or foreign employers after graduation. Moreover, she added that teaching of non-verbal communication skills could be beneficial.

The third subject teacher

The third subject teacher viewed the role of English in the ASEAN Community as an official language and the ASEAN people would use it for communication.

For technical college students, she strongly believed that they were strong in technical skills and work competencies. Nevertheless, they still lacked English communication skills, together with English for technical industry, general English, and English for presentations. She revealed that students' English level was low. It was different from the other ASEAN countries such as Myanmar where the English proficiency was improved. She viewed that ELT in Thailand has not been sufficiently improved. So, the government or concerned parties should solve this problem.

As for English language teaching in her college, teaching technical English has been implemented to technical students. There were three activities. First, foreign teachers were employed to teach

English conversation. Second, Thai teachers taught grammar rules to students. She finally indicated that teaching English technical terms was essential for them. However, she reported the problem of communication between foreign teachers and the learners in the classroom. It was that foreign teachers could not communicate in Thai and vice versa. It was important because technical students were unable to communicate in English. Thus, Thai English teachers needed to act as a moderator to interpret what the foreign teachers taught during the class.

Additionally, a few problems needed to be tackled. First, she claimed that the number of English teaching periods was not enough. From her experience, she taught English to technical students at both certificate and diploma levels, for only two periods a week. Consequently, they did not have enough time to learn and practise English conversation or communication skills. Second, the national English curricula should be revised. It meant that learning English should start very early at the pre-elementary (kindergarten) level.

The fourth subject teacher

In his view toward the role of English, first, it was a *lingua franca* because people used English for communication worldwide. Second, English was the working language; he reported that English was necessary for technical students to communicate accurately with foreign employers and colleagues when they work.

In his technical college, he stated that technical students were encouraged to take English courses such as technical English, English

for technical industry, and English for technical terms of equipment and tools, together with general English. Nevertheless, their English proficiency was still low. For this reason, English related to technical terms of tools, equipment as well as general English such as greeting was taught to improve the learners' English ability and to prepare them for work. He also added that the teaching periods of English should be expanded so that students could have more time to learn since their English knowledge was poor.

The findings demonstrate that four experienced English teachers viewed the role of English in the ASEAN Community similarly. English was described as the main international working language of the community. The subject teachers' answers revealed their particular attention to English for communication and English for work. Thus, this led to their suggestions for ELT.

First, the four subject teachers believed that English communication skills were important to be taught in their English classes. The purpose was to improve learners' English proficiency to compete with the other skilled ASEAN workers. Second, native speaking or foreign teachers played an important role in teaching English, particularly in conversation courses. They could help students gain more confidence to communicate in English in real situations in their future workplaces. Third, extra English teaching should be implemented in the teaching schedule. The reason was to give more English skills to the students. Lastly, the subject teachers said that teaching English for Specific Purposes was appropriate.

However, the first subject teacher pointed out that the self-access learning centre could help English teachers teach English. The purpose was to facilitate teachers to teach English and so that learners could learn and practise English on their own. Additionally,

she suggested that English teachers have the awareness of what to teach and what to improve in learners' English proficiency.

Referring to the second subject teacher's view, teaching non-verbal communication; for example, language signs was essential because they could apply it in the real world. Besides, the third subject teacher recommended the start of English learning at a very young age could benefit all students. In addition, she claimed that the teaching time of the English subject was too limited and she wished the school would consider expanding it.

The vocational college teachers' beliefs about English skills to be taught to vocational students in order to compete for job opportunities in the ASEAN Community

According to the interviews from the four subject teachers about ELT, they mentioned several topics such as teaching English by foreign or native speakers and extra English teaching slots. However, teaching English communication was mostly emphasised. Nevertheless, their suggestions were still general. Therefore, narrowing down their views on ELT, The four subject teachers were asked to express their views about what English skills they believed should be taught.

Beliefs about English skills to be taught

The first subject teacher

The first subject believed that listening and speaking were the most essential skills. She reported that she taught listening and speaking associated with question types. Both skills were used for a job

interview after graduation. Second, writing skill was then taught to strengthen students' ability of writing a report for their future career.

The second subject teacher

The second subject teacher viewed that all four English skills, listening, speaking, reading, and writing, should be emphasised. Moreover, she stated that the four skills should be efficiently linked when teaching. In other words, the four skills should not be taught separately. Apart from the four skills, teaching communication or speaking such as public speaking and speaking in various contexts were taught to students because they needed to acquire those skills for their future jobs.

In addition, in relation to vocational English curricula, many written English communication courses, namely, English for Communication, Business English, and Developing Skills for English Communication were taught to students at both certificate and diploma levels. She revealed that those courses helped them gain English knowledge.

The third subject teacher

The third subject teacher reported that there were three areas to teach students. She explained that she firstly taught technical students English communication skills because they really lacked them. She also explained that the main focus was English in general contexts and English in their fields of study. Teaching communication skills could help students communicate in English in the real situation and their future work. Four English skills, listening, speaking, reading, and writing, were then taught to students. She thought that the four English skills could not be taught separately. Thus, if students learned the four skills, they could present or write

a report to employers. She finally stated that native speakers were important for the teaching of English communication or conversation because they could learn and practise from a direct experience.

The fourth subject teacher

The fourth subject teacher indicated that he first focused on teaching listening and speaking because they were communication skills. He also showed how to teach students. For example, students were assigned to practise greetings. They also sometimes made a dialogue about technical contexts. From his teaching experience, he explained that the technical terms in English together with technical communication were short and simple. He added that writing skills were then taught to technical students.

In addition, the fourth subject teacher said that he had to be aware of choosing appropriate language and cultural content in order to match learners' needs. To do so, his students could apply what they learned in real life. Furthermore, he gave an example that teaching English between certificate and diploma levels was different. He revealed that diploma students had more advantages in learning English than certificate students because the course syllabus allowed teachers to use more teaching media and various English contexts to teach diploma students. However, he revealed that the result of learning was not much better because their English was weak.

The findings show that the four experienced subject teachers' beliefs about English skills to be instructed were rather similar.

Listening and speaking and teaching English communication skills such as public speaking, English in general contexts and technical field were the most important skills to be taught because they would be used for a job interview and communication. The writing skill was then equipped because the ability of writing a report was related to students' future employment.

5. Discussion

The knowledge of the ASEAN Community is not new to vocational English teachers. They all understand that English is going to play a significant role in it. Also, they know that vocational school students may have to face a new challenge in the AEC job market. Thus, for Thai vocational graduates to succeed in severe future competition, sound technical skills and knowledge in the field might not be enough. English skills are in high demand.

To help vocational and technical students get better in English skills, most of the teachers list several English teaching activities to improve vocational students' English proficiency such as teaching communication skills, employing native English teachers to teach students, extra English teaching in classes, and teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP). More importantly, vocational school English teachers believe in teaching communication skills to their students.

However, the low English proficiency of Thai vocational students and graduates seems to be a significant weak point. From the teachers' perspectives, English communication skills are immediately needed. Those skills are important for vocational students because they can use them for communication with future foreign employers and the skilled workforce from other ASEAN countries when they work. Thus, teaching communicative skills are

emphasized in English classes. Still vocational students could not communicate in English. Also, they are not very confident in English communication either. This may be explained by many reasons such as the lack of real exposure to English.

6.   Recommendations and implications

To solve vocational students' lack of real exposure and communication skills, the Communicative approach or Communicative language teaching (CLT) should be considered. CLT is based on a concept of language as a tool for communication and the expression of meaning. This focuses on communication and functional meaning. Learning language is not mainly to master grammatical and structural features. This approach allows learners to communicate and interact while doing communication activities. It means that students have the opportunity to learn English for communication through their real practices (Brown, 1994; Nunan, 1991).

Although most schools claim to apply the communicative approach in their syllabuses, the methods of evaluation still rely heavily on grammar. Thus, it is doubtful if English learning and teaching in Thai schools really focus on students' communication skills.

Another important point to discuss is the target model of teaching. Even though all the teachers understand that vocational students and graduates have more tendency to use English in the ASEAN community than in any native speaking countries, still the teaching is mostly based on native-speaking models, either British or American. With this kind of model, the teaching of English aims for

native-like proficiency and native speakers' norms or culture (Firth and Wagner 1997, 2007; Larsen-Freeman, 2007). If the real aim of teaching English in vocational schools is to prepare the students to be able to participate in AEC successfully, the emphasis only on native speaker model in English teaching may be questionable. First, the native-like proficiency cannot always guarantee intelligibility in communication among non-native speakers (Smith and Nelson, 2006). Second, communication norms and cultures of people from ASEAN countries are more similar to one another than to those of native speakers. Thus, English can be adapted to serve ASEAN ways of communication instead and it is not hard for Thai vocational students to learn. With these ideas, an alternative model of ELT for vocational schools can be suggested. The multilingual model (Kirkpatrick, 2012) is a method of using multilingual settings in teaching. First, it is unnecessary for learners to acquire native-like proficiency, this means that students can speak English in their local accent and do not need to sound like a native speaker of English. This can raise students' awareness and confidence in using English in a variety of local accents. Second, as an alternative, to solve the problem of delaying of teaching and learning English, the multilingual model allows learners to learn English in their secondary school instead of primary school. This is because teachers can firstly teach them to have the fluency and literacy in local languages. As a result, learners have the awareness of using a variety of local languages and see their importance, together with their feelings of identity and self-worth. Then English can be taught to them afterward. Third, the English curriculum should provide the local culture based on the context and learners' needs to help learners gain more intercultural competence. For example, in the ASEAN context, there are diverse cultures, so teaching ASEAN cultures in English should be encouraged. For instance, Thai learners

learn Indonesian culture in English while Singaporean learners learn Thai culture in English. This includes the teaching of ASEAN literatures; for example, poems and novels are written and then taught in local varieties of English. Based on the ASEAN context, new courses in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) such as English for ASEAN Cultures, English for ASEAN Literatures, and English for ASEAN Tourism should be designed to suit the ASEAN learners particularly vocational and technical students and theses courses can be taught by multilingual English teachers (METs) and several English norms can be introduced.

7.   Conclusion

The results of this study indicate that vocational school English teachers are aware of the establishment of the ASEAN Community and AEC in 2015. Also, they realize its significance and challenges. More importantly, vocational school English teachers believe in teaching English communication skills because they can help vocational and technical students to communicate in English with future foreign employers and be efficient skilled workers. Unfortunately, still English communication skills are taught unsuccessfully to students; therefore, it is very important for educational organisations, school management teams, and stakeholders together with vocational school English teachers to seriously consider methods of what and how to teach students efficiently. Thus, this can be the right time for those concerned parties to reconsider an appropriate model of teaching, vocational English curricula as well as their mindset in order to prepare vocational students to get ready for the ASEAN Community and the AEC.

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An Analysis of Preposition Partner Errors in the Written and Spoken Discourse of Non-English Major Thai Students

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to explore preposition-partner errors - the inappropriate use of prepositions - found in the written and spoken discourse of Thai university non-English major students. The authors used the taxonomy of errors proposed by Hemchua and Schmitt (2006) to analyze three categories of preposition-partner errors (omission e.g. rely <rely on>, addition e.g. face up <face> and substitution e.g. depend to <on/upon>). The data of this study was taken from writing compositions, oral presentations, and interviews. The participants of this study were 80 students from Rajamangala University of Technology universities and Kasetsart University in Thailand. The analysis revealed that (a) Case I: Omission Errors were the most numerous errors in spoken discourse and Case III: Substitution Errors were the most numerous errors in the written discourse among students from both academic and technical

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universities; (b) there is a high positive relationship between errors committed in speaking and writing for Case I: Omission Errors and Case II: Addition Errors but no significant relationship for Case III: Substitution Errors from both universities. The results from this research have significant implications in vocabulary teaching and learning, particularly in the Thai context.

Keywords: Preposition partner errors, spoken discourse, written discourse

บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยชิ้นนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาการใช้คำคู่คำบุรพบทผิด(การใช้คำบุรพบทอย่างไม่เหมาะสม)ที่พบในแหล่งรวบรวมงานเขียนและการสื่อสารด้วยวาจาของนิสิตนักศึกษาไทยสาขาวิชาทั่วไป นักวิจัยอ้างอิงประเภทของการใช้คำคู่คำบุรพบทผิดของเหมเชื้อและสมิธในการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูล กล่าวคือ 1) การละคำบุรพบท เช่น rely <rely on> 2) การเติมคำบุรพบท เช่น face up <face> 3) การแทนที่ เช่น depend to <on/upon> ข้อมูลของการศึกษาวิจัยครั้งนี้มาจากงานเขียน การนำเสนอหน้าชั้นเรียน และการสัมภาษณ์นิสิตนักศึกษา ประชากรที่ใช้ในการศึกษาจำนวนทั้งสิ้น 80 คน เป็นนิสิตนักศึกษาจากมหาวิทยาลัยเกษตรศาสตร์และมหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลวิทยาเขตต่างๆ

จากการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลผลการวิจัยพบว่า ก) การใช้คำคู่คำบุรพบทผิดประเภทที่ 1 "การละคำ"และประเภทที่ 3 "การแทนที่"เป็นประเภทที่พบมากที่สุด (ตามลำดับ) ในแหล่งรวบรวมการสื่อสารด้วยวาจาและแหล่งรวบรวมงานเขียนของนิสิตนักศึกษาจากทั้งสองมหาวิทยาลัย ข) มีความสัมพันธ์ในเชิงบวกทางสถิติของการใช้คำบุรพบทผิดระหว่างแหล่งรวบรวมการสื่อสารด้วยวาจาและงานเขียนของนิสิตนักศึกษาทั้งสองมหาวิทยาลัยในประเภทการใช้คำคู่คำบุรพบทผิดประเภทที่ 1"การละคำ" และประเภทที่2 "การเติมคำ" แต่ไม่พบนัยยะของความสัมพันธ์ทางสถิติสำหรับการใช้คำคู่คำบุรพบทผิดประเภทที่3 "การแทนที่" ผลการวิจัยดังกล่าวมีประโยชน์ต่อการเรียนการสอนคำศัพท์ โดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งในบริบทของไทย

คำสำคัญ: การใช้คำคู่คำบุรพบทผิด แหล่งรวบรวมการสื่อสารด้วยวาจาและแหล่งรวบรวมงานเขียน

1. **Background of the Study**

Hemchua and Schmitt (2006) argued that one of the main reasons for committing preposition partner errors is lack of proficiency. Thai students are sometimes not aware of what particular preposition is needed and thus, this results in their erroneous use. This circumstance is inevitable because even young native speakers take years to master prepositions (Durkin et al, 1985). In the recent microscopic analysis (individual) on Thai lexical errors conducted by Hemchua and Honkiss (2013), preposition partner errors were identified as fossilizable - the state of backsliding or lexical errors impervious to negative improvement - for Thai learners. This claim is congruent with that of Littlewood (1984: 59) who claims that *individual differences* simply reflect how quickly – or how far – specific learners progress in their learning. Individual differences also refer to learners' first language and interlanguage, which in turn, are factors influencing erroneous lexical choices. Another factor to consider according to Llach (2011) is the *contextual differences* of the learners. The author referred to the following criteria: learning environment (natural acquisition or formal classroom), teaching approaches, tasks, nature of linguistic input, emotional climate of the learning situations and teacher variables (personality, approach and strictness). However, most research related to preposition partner errors is based on the written discourse of the students. The area of spoken discourse, on the other hand, remains under-researched. In attempting to gain deeper insight into the various types and causes of preposition partner errors, findings are likely to be more reliable and comprehensive if the areas of both written and spoken discourse are analyzed. It will also further increase

reliability if, at the same time, factors of individual and contextual differences are considered. This research aims to conduct an exploratory analysis of preposition partner errors in both written and spoken discourse (individual differences) from the context of both technical and academic universities (contextual difference) among non-English major students. The main reason of conducting this study was the frequency and seriousness of preposition partner errors among Thai learners. Preposition partner error is one of the errors that is considered a serious lexical error in the Thai context because it is one of the most frequent errors of Thai learners (Hemchua & Schmitt, 2006) and considered incorrigible, hence, fossilized (Hemchua & Honkiss, 2013). Erroneous preposition use significantly affects the quality of students' written and spoken discourse and it could lead directly to misunderstandings of the intended message. At worst, constant and persistent exposure to erroneous prepositions could lead to fossilization. Even so, a comprehensive explanation of the root causes of preposition partner errors is still elusive. By and large, there are two frequently cited factors that contribute to lexical errors in general: first, *individual difference,* which means the learner's first language causes him or her to repeatedly commit errors (Andersen, 1983; Han, 2000; Kellerman, 1989; Littlewood, (1984); Selinker & Lamendella, 1978) and, second, *satisfaction of communicative needs,* which means that a learner develops his or her second language competency in order to communicate according to his or her current needs (Corder, 1978; Llach, 2001; Selinker & Lamendella, 1978).

In this study, it was hypothesized that these two commonly cited factors of lexical errors have a great influence on the preposition partner errors of Thai learners. This was the main reason for selecting the participants from different contextual backgrounds i.e. technical and academic universities. At the outset, the use of preposition partner errors were revealed in both of the two productive modes of writing and speaking, thereby triggering the researchers' interests. The findings of this study will be beneficial for English and foreign language teachers and learners, educators, non-formal education professionals as well as parents, to understand the typical existence of preposition partner errors among Thai learners. In addition, teachers and educators can adapt or develop educational instructions, lesson plans and curricula based on both natural language and individual linguistic nature and capacity.

The research questions of this study were as follows:

1. What are the types of preposition partner errors in the writing composition and spoken discourse of the non-English major students from Rajamangala University of Technology universities (RMUTs) and Kasetsart University (KU)?
2. What type of relationships exist between the errors found in both types of the discourse and in both universities?
3. What could be the possible remedies to solve the misuse of preposition partners by the students?

The terms in this study were defined as follows:

1. *Preposition partner errors*–A Preposition Partner Error (PPE) refers to the inappropriate use of prepositions found in participants' written and spoken discourse. The following are cases of preposition partner errors:

    a) Case I-Omission: Example: *Also, you have many things to do and to <u>think</u><think about>.*

    b) Case II-Addition: Example: *I don't have to <u>face up to</u><face> the traffic congestion.*

    c) Case III-Substitution: Example: *There are no traffic jams that result <u>of</u><from> having many cars*

2. *Written discourse*– a collection of written composition of students from Rajamangala University of Technology universities and Kasetsart University.

3. *Spoken discourse* – a collection of oral presentations, discussions, conversations and interviews by students from Rajamangala University of Technology universities and Kasetsart University.

The study identified the numbers of errors found in each type of the three preposition partner error cases. Moreover, the most and least frequently found error categories were also studied. The findings of this study provided some explanations of the typical presence of preposition partner errors in support and in addition to the findings of Hemchua and Honkiss (2013). Lastly, this study

discussed some feasible ways to solve the inappropriate use of preposition partners by Thai learners.

2. Method

2.3 Analysis of Preposition Partner Errors

The analysis of errors in the writing composition and speaking tasks was limited to the analysis of preposition partner errors. Other lexical, grammatical and syntactical errors were not included. The researchers analyzed the data from the students based on the classification of lexical errors proposed by Hemchua and Schmitt (2006). Examples of cases of preposition partner errors are stated in the definition of terms.

Error Count

The authors used the classification of preposition partner errors proposed by the aforementioned researchers to determine a quantitative value of the number of preposition partner errors in the writing compositions and spoken discourse of the participants. In conducting the error count, individual cases of preposition partner errors were counted at a word level, phrasal level and sentential level.

> 1. Single word preposition (for example, *Chiangmai is the most popular of<in> Thailand.*)

2. Complex preposition or phrases of two or more words that function like one-word prepositions (for example, *We stopped <u>outside to</u><of> the city.*)

3. Prepositions in collocation (for example, *The world will <u>come for</u><to><u>an end</u>*)

4. Multiple errors in one sentence or a phrase were counted separately (for example, *I went to the office <u>since</u><at> 8 o'clock with my tidy clothes and <u>waiting</u> <for> my trainer.*)

5. Identical errors made by the same student were counted as one error (for example, *We need to <u>cooperate</u><with> each other* and *If we <u>cooperate</u> <with> each other...*).

3. Results and Discussion

Table 1: Frequency of PPE Errors—RMUTs.

Universities	Speaking Task No of errors	Writing Task No of errors	No. of students who committed errors N=20	
			Speaking	Writing
Rajamangala University of Technology Universities				
Case I: Omission	97	20	20	19
Case II: Addition	56	77	18	16
Case III: Substitution	34	122	16	19
Total	187	219		

Table 2: Frequency of PPE Errors—KU.

University	Speaking Task No of errors	Writing Task No of errors	No. of students who committed errors N=20	
			Speaking	Writing
Kasetsart University— Bangkhen				
Case I: Omission	100	86	20	17
Case II: Addition	52	69	18	16
Case III: Substitution	54	176	16	19
Total	206	331		

The first objective of this study was to determine the frequency of PPEs among the participants from both technical and academic universities in terms of speaking and writing. The authors conducted a series of speaking and writing tasks and the results are summarized in Table 1 and Table 2. Table 1 shows the frequency of both speaking and writing PPE errors from the participants of three Rajamangala University of Technology campuses. The 20 randomly selected participants yielded a total of 187 and 219 PPE errors in their speaking and writing tasks respectively. Among the three cases of PPE errors, Case I: Omission heads the list for speaking tasks and Case III: Substitution for the writing task. In comparison, the number of Case I errors in speaking tasks is almost 5 times higher than in the writing task while the number of Case III errors in the writing task is almost four times that of the speaking task. Another observation that can be drawn from this data is that the type of error with the lowest number of PPE errors in speaking (Case III: Substitution = 34 errors) had the highest number of PPE errors in writing (122 errors).

In the same manner, the type of error with the lowest number of PPE errors in writing (Case I: Omission = 20) had the highest in speaking (97 errors). In general, however, the total number of PPE errors in the writing task is higher than in speaking tasks by more than 15%. This suggests that participants, from both universities, tend to commit more PPE errors in writing than in speaking tasks despite having time to counter-check their writing output. Table 2 on the other hand shows the frequency of errors among the 20 participants of Kasetsart University. The results show congruency with the results from RMUTs in that the incidence of writing task PPE errors was higher than that of speaking task PPE errors by more than double (37%). Similar to the findings in RMUTs participants, the most

numerous errors found in the speaking task were Case I: Omission errors, with a total number of 100 errors, while there was a total of 176 errors in the writing task. Significantly, the lowest PPE errors in speaking (Case II: Addition) was also the lowest in writing. These results show that Thai students are more likely to commit PPE errors in writing and less in speaking, regardless of their university background. From the tabulated results of PPE errors among universities, it can be interpreted that there are two most common denominators between academic and technical universities. First, the most frequent PPE errors seen in speaking were Case I: Omission errors, and second, the most frequent PPE errors seen in writing were Case III: Substitution errors.

Omission Errors in the Spoken Discourse

Case I: Omission errors were the most frequent speaking errors among universities primarily because of, but not limited to, (a) loan-to-localized words and (b) Claque (L1 translation). The loan-to-localized word hypothesis is the assumption that the authors would like to propose as one of the reasons for the omission of prepositions in the spoken discourse. Thais have the tendency to *shorten* some loan words in the process of localizing a word. For example, Thai people would say *kilomet, kilo or lo* when they mean *Kilometers* or *Vet* for *veterinary* or *veterinarian.* Although these two words are not prepositions, it may partly explain the mental lexicon of Thai people in general when dealing with a foreign language and eventually adopting it to local circumstance, particularly in spoken discourse. The word *Vet (My father is a vet.)* was mentioned by one of the participants during the interview but was spelled out in full in the writing task *(My father is a veterinary.)* Although the word *veterinary* requires the proper derivative form in this sentence, the point is that the student may tend to shorten some words when

speaking and may spell out in full when writing. However, the claim of the authors for the validity of the loan-to-localized word hypothesis may not apply to the entire loaned lexis in the Thai language. The authors only consider this hypothesis as applicable to some lexical aspects that were omitted by the students in their speaking tasks but were present in the writing task.

In terms of PPE, Thai people also tend to shorten their sentences when speaking, and PPEs are one aspect that are omitted; for example, *Please <u>careful</u> <be careful of> yourself,* and *My house is <u>next</u> <next to> Future Park (Shopping mall).* One explanation for this comes from the assumption that the natural tendency of Thais to shorten a word or sentence could lead to the omission of preposition. From another perspective however, the omission of *of* may also be a result of Claque or L1 translation (interference). The sentence *Please be careful of yourself* can be literally translated into Thai as *careful (rawang =* ระวัง*) yourself (tua=*ตัว*) please (duay = * ด้วย*).* The verb *be* can be easily omitted because it is not present in the Thai language while *of*, having its own meaning, might not be easily transferred or localized as a part and partner of *careful.* This can be true even for young native speakers, such as in the cases of *near to* or *next to* (Durkin et al., 1985). The presence of the word *please* might also confuse the student as it can be positioned at the beginning, in the middle, or at the end of the sentence depending on the emphasis of the speaker.

Substitution Errors in the Written Discourse

For the writing task, Case III: Substitution errors were the most numerous errors among universities. These findings were similar to the findings of Hemchua and Honkiss (2013), who reported that Case

III: Substitution errors were the most numerous errors and are fossilizable lexical errors for Thai learners. It is notable that the participants in Hemchua and Honkiss (2013) were English major students and the participants in this research were non-English major students and yet, the results were the same. With this premise, it can be assumed that PPE in writing emanate from factors beyond students' academic backgrounds, meaning they are inherent and naturally occurring phenomena.   Case III: Substitution errors were more likely to occur in writing than in speaking based on the following assumptions (a) a drift in the priming of a word, and (b) priming conflict. A drift in the priming of a word, according to Hoey (2005, p.9), "provides a mechanism for temporary or permanent language change."   It is assumed in this study that Thai students, while doing a writing task, were experiencing certain mental preposition crossroads and thus ended up missing the right preposition choice. Unlike speaking that is more focused on fluency, writing gives the students the benefit of time to think and re-evaluate the need for a preposition to meet a certain accuracy level. This short time of *thinking* creates vulnerability particularly if the preposition partners are not properly primed. Hoey (2005, p.13*)* argued that *every word is primed as a result of the cumulative effects of an individual's encounters with the word.* With a severe scarcity of the use of English in Thailand, it is likely that the priming of some prepositions may not fully solidify together with its partner. The students might have an idea of the need for preposition in a particular sentence, but they might not have a solid grasp of which preposition to use. The following sentence provides an example: _At the first place we visited was Chiangmai._ At first, it might look as Case II: Addition error, but what might have been actually in the mind of the students is the prepositional phrasal marker, _In the first place,_ which does not literally mean a place. This is an example of

a drifted primed preposition with respect to Case III: substitution errors.

The priming conflict on the other hand pertains to the prepositions that have the same meaning in L1 but different meanings in L2. In this case, one form of preposition priming is being overwhelmed by another, more dominant form of preposition priming. The prepositions *for* and *to* are two conflicting cases of prepositions, but more often than not, the word *for* is more dominant than *to*. Thai students will commonly say e.g. *I want to have a lot of money <u>for</u>* <to> *build a house* because the word *for* is generally used in their language system, except careful and more proficient learners who know its full form 'in order *to*'. The critical aspect of committing PPE in writing is the matter of time. If the students have time to think, they are more likely to commit substitution errors but if not, particularly in speaking, they might tend to omit the use of prepositions.
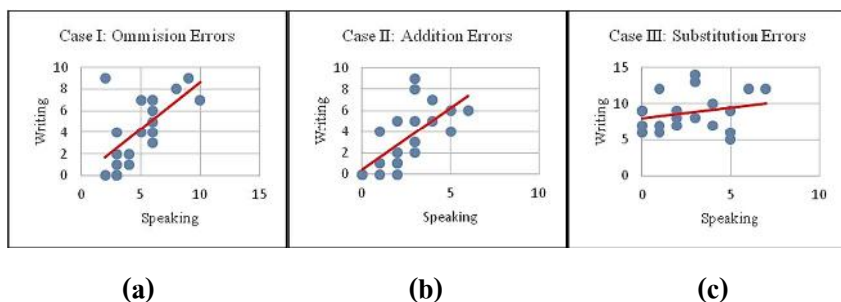

| (a) | (b) | (c) |

Figure 1: Relationship between speaking and writing PPE errors: RMUTs.

The next objective of this study was to determine the relationship among errors on (a) speaking and writing and, (b) between technical and academic universities. In order to address this objective, the authors used the Pearson-correlation coefficient to, first, establish the level of the relationship and, second, identify the level of significance. The results were further defined using a coefficient of determination.

Relationship among Errors on Speaking and Writing

Figure 1 shows the relationship between writing and speaking PPE among the three cases of PPE of RMUTs participants. Figure 1a and Figure 1b shows immediate relationships in terms of writing and speaking while Figure 1c shows little to no relationship. In more detail, Table 3a shows the strong *positive* relationship between Case I PPE in speaking and writing among RMUTs, $r = .763$; $p < 0.01$ (two-tailed). Table 3b also shows the strong *positive* relationship between Case II PPE in speaking and writing, $r = .756$; $p < 0.01$ (two-tailed). However, Table 3c shows a low *negative* relationship between Case III PPE in speaking and writing, $r = -.221$. This suggests that for Case I and Case II errors, whenever the number of PPE errors in writing increases, the number of PPE errors in speaking also increases and vice versa. However, case III - Substitution Errors - showed no relationship and therefore it can be inferred that the factors affecting PPE in writing and PPE in speaking are likely to be different.

To provide a more meaningful and precise interpretation of the aforementioned results, the authors used the *coefficient of determination or (r^2)* to determine the percent of variation in the

values of both variables. For Case I, the value is $r^2 = .58 (58\%)$ whereas Case II gives a value of $r^2 = .57 (57\%)$. This means that for Case I, 58% of variation in PPE in speaking can explain or account for variation in PPE in writing, and for Case II, 57%. To directly interpret this finding, there is a greater than 50% chance that if the speaking ability of the students improves (less Case I and Case II PPE), their writing ability will improve as well. It can also be concluded that although Case I: Omission errors were the most frequent speaking PPE and Case I: Omission errors were the least frequent writing PPE, their strong relationship suggests that at a certain ratio, the two variables are linearly related.

Table 3: Bivariate correlation matrix among PPE cases of errors: RMUTs.

(a)

Case I		RMUTs speaking1	RMUTs writing1
RMUTs speaking1	Pearson Correlation	1	.763**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	20	20
RMUTs writing1	Pearson Correlation	.763**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

(b)

Case II		RMUTs speaking2	RMUTs writing2
RMUTs speaking2	Pearson Correlation	1	.756**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	20	20
RMUTs writing2	Pearson Correlation	.756**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

(c)

Case III		RMUTs speaking3	RMUTs writing3
RMUTs speaking3	Pearson Correlation	1	-.221
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.350
	N	20	20
RMUTs writing3	Pearson Correlation	-.221	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.350	
	N	20	20

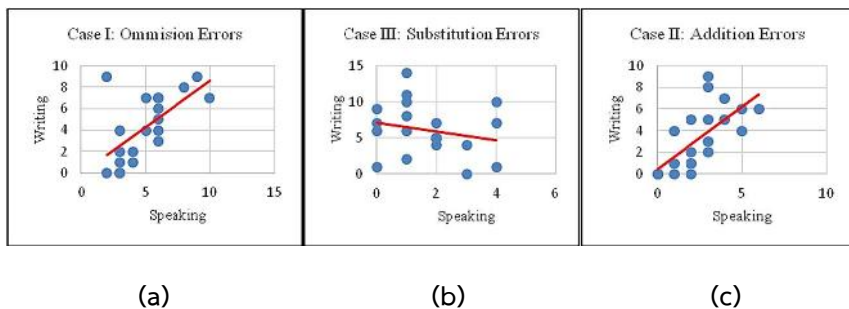(a)   (b)   (c)

Figure 2: Relationship of speaking and writing PPE errors: Kasetsart University.

Figure 2 shows the relationship between speaking and writing among the participants from Kasetsart University. There was a clear *positive* relationship between writing and speaking for Figure 2a and Figure2b. Table 3a shows a moderately *positive* relationship of r = .631**; *p* > 0.01 (2-tailed) while Table 3b shows a moderately *positive* relationship of r = .660**; *p* > 0.01 (2-tailed). However, Table 3c shows low to no relationship of r = .251. The *coefficients of determination* of Case I and II are $r^2 = 40\%$ and $r^2 = 43\%$ *respectively*. For the Kasetsart University participants, there was around a 40% chance that if the speaking ability of the students improved (less Case I and Case II PPE), their writing ability would improve as well. Significantly, the results from RMUTs and KU collaborated with each other. Participants who committed both Case I and II PPE from RMUTs and Kasetsart University both showed moderate to strong *positive* relationships between speaking and writing. This therefore implies that participants' academic backgrounds (technical or academic university) was a major factor in

committing PPE. However, the correlation coefficient findings in this research do not directly imply a causal or dependent relationship between speaking and writing PPE. The correlation coefficient reported above measured only the degree to which the two variables are related.

Table 4: Bivariate correlation matrix among PPE cases of errors: Kasetsart University.

(a)

Case I: Omission (KU)		KU speaking1	KU writing1
	Pearson Correlation	1	.631**
KUspeaking1	Sig. (2-tailed)		.003
	N	20	20
	Pearson Correlation	.631**	1
KUwriting1	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

(b)

Case II: Addition (KU)		KU speaking2	KU writing2
	Pearson Correlation	1	.660**
KUspeaking2	Sig. (2-tailed)		.002
	N	20	20
	Pearson Correlation	.660**	1
KUwriting2	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

(c)

Case III: Substitution (KU)		KU speaking3	KU writing3
	Pearson Correlation	1	.251
KUspeaking3	Sig. (2-tailed)		.286
	N	20	20
	Pearson Correlation	.251	1
KUwriting3	Sig. (2-tailed)	.286	
	N	20	20

Relationship between Technical and Academic Universities

Figure 3 shows the scatterplots of relationships between RMUTs and Kasetsart University in terms of speaking and writing.
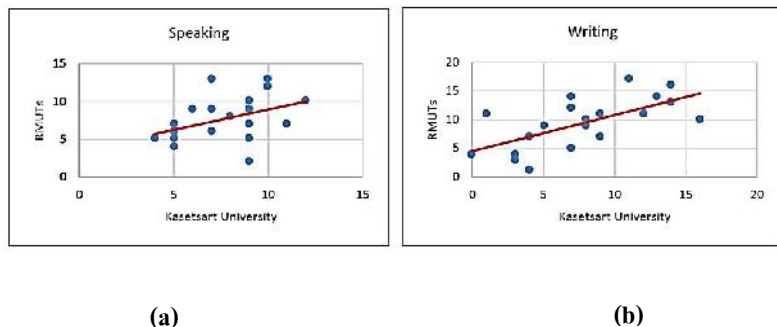

(a)   (b)

Figure 3: Relationship of speaking and writing PPE errors between KU and RMUTs

Figure 3 shows the overall representation of the relationship of errors from Kasetsart University and three Rajamangla Universities. Figure 3a shows the scatterplot of speaking PPE from RMUTs and Kasertsart University while Figure 3b shows the writing PPE. It is noticeable that Figure 3a deviates more from a straight line than Figure 3b, which falls closer to a straight line. Table 4a shows a modest *positive* relationship of r = .419, and Table 4b shows a moderate *positive* relationship of r = .653**; p > 0.01 (2-tailed). The *coefficient of determination* of speaking PPE is r^2 *=17.5%* and Writing PPE is r^2 *= 42.6%.* The data suggests that there is a weaker relationship between technical and academic universities in terms of speaking PPE. There are many factors influencing why speaking PPE demonstrate a weaker relationship between academic and technical universities. For example, language communities (e.g., peers,

faculties, majors, etc.) and habits of an institution may somehow influence the speaking PPE of the students. The majority of the participants from RMUTs admitted that English is still not part of their day-to-day lives on campus.

Kasetsart University students, however, admitted that English might be somehow more common on their campus because of signboards, student activities, university activities and announcements. In terms of curriculum, RMUTs non-English major students study only two general English courses (6 credits) whereas Kasetsart University non-English major students study four general English courses (12 credits). In this case, limited exposure to English language in the classroom situation also limits the students' acceptability and adaptability to the language. Writing on the other hand may be influenced by the kinds of general courses technical and academic universities offer to non-English major students. RMUTs offer English Fundamental and Communicative English. These two general course subjects are also taught in Kasetsart University for non-English major students. However, a complete analysis of these two courses and their effects on the writing skills of students was beyond the scope of this research. The authors only considered the closest possible commonality between the participants.

Table 5: Bivariate correlation matrix among PPE cases of errors: KU and RMUTs.

(a)

Speaking		KU speaking	RMUTs speaking
KU speaking	Pearson Correlation	1	.419
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.066
	N	20	20
RMUTs speaking	Pearson Correlation	.419	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.066	
	N	20	20

(b)

Writing		KU Writing	RMUTs writing
KU writing	Pearson Correlation	1	.419
			.066
	Sig. (2-tailed)		
	N	20	20
RMUTs writing	Pearson Correlation	.653**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The Nature of Preposition Partner Errors

The results of this study provide three main contributions to our knowledge on the typical presence of lexical errors, specifically preposition partner errors. First, preposition partner errors are **distinct**. Although the errors were classified as preposition partner errors and further sub-categorized into three cases, none of the students committed exactly the same errors. Numerous errors pertaining to the same preposition word were committed but considering all peripherals such as the word before/after or its collocates, each preposition partner error was exclusive (for example, *For to <To> relax my body and mind,...and go to the cliff for to <cliff to> see the sun, What do you want to do for to <to do to> fix it?*) to individual students. However, this claim has certain limitations. The task given to the students was a productive task, which means the authors had less control over the output of each student. Although the topic for the speaking and writing tasks was assigned, the students' outputs were totally different from each other. The ideas and use of vocabulary in the composition and interview, not to mention the styles and the organization, reflected the philosophical truth on human distinctiveness; that is, individual differences. Even the least common Case II errors, such as *addition* of the preposition *to* (*I can go to<go> there., I will go to <go> everywhere., I would like to go to <go> with someone.*) and *of (Most of <Most> people realized..., We can do all of <all> three ways*.) were not entirely similar to each other considering the close context.

Second, preposition partner errors are **diverse**. As the number of non-native English speakers increases due to globalization, diversified outputs from students are inevitable. A single word can have a variety of meanings based on the individual's intention and interpretation. More often than not, it depends on the interaction of different disciplinary ways of seeing things. Preposition partner errors are not an exemption to this. One categorical explanation for this is L1 interference. Thai students, when they do not know or are uncertain about the right preposition in English, generally use L1 as a source of reference and dependence. For example, *Stars on <in> the sky*. The sentence *Stars on the sky* is a literal translation from the Thai language system (Stars = ดวงดาว+ on = บน+ the sky = ท้องฟ้า). Thai students might be uncertain whether to use *in* or *on* in this particular instance, but because of L1 they may automatically come up with the preposition *on*. The theory of multiple intelligences proposed by Gardner (1983) in his book *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligence* best describes this classification of lexical errors. Preposition errors are diverse primarily because of user diversity.

Lastly, preposition partner errors are **dynamic**. By looking at the interaction of participants' errors in eighty compositions and presentation and interview transcriptions, we can see that errors are wonderfully interactive. For example, in the most common omission or Case I errors students wrote (*We cooperate <cooperate with> each other; We need to cooperate <cooperate with> each other; or If we cooperate <cooperate with> each other.*). The word omitted was the same – *with* - but had a different function in each case. For the first one, the omitted word *with* along with the word *cooperate* was a suggestive statement, for the second one, however, it has an imperative connotation. For the last one, it was a conditional

statement.   Preposition partner errors cannot be completely confined to an absolute category. Swan (2010) said that native-like fluency is an impossible aim because English language is a moving target. Preposition partner errors are dynamic in the sense that it functions exponentially differently in different situations.

Possible Remedies: Reversal to Nature

The approach to dealing with speaking PPE and writing PPE should definitely be different because both skills have different processes. For this research, the authors would like to suggest theoretical remedies based upon the conception of the detected presence of PPE.

Distinctiveness to Completeness—one of the explorations of PPE is being distinct. Specifically, it is very difficult to fit one preposition to all contexts. Studying prepositions to match each word would only lead to hasty generalizations of their use and would definitely lead to either of the three categories of PPE. As suggested by Nation (2001), *chunking* (for example, *cooperate with, listen to, work in/at/for* etc.) would help students to learn the words. He also suggested utilizing small vocabulary cards or reading aloud to increase students' accuracy in their use of prepositions and partners.

Diversity to Conformity—one of the common variations in the productive skills of L2 learners are their diverse backgrounds or their L1. Adult second language learners can never learn in the way young learners do because adults use L2 for a purposefully

communicative need. Once the purpose is met, stoppage of learning sets in. Han (2004) termed this as *satisfaction of communicative needs*, and she also posited that it is one of the prevailing causes of fossilization. Conformity in this sense means being strict with the Standard English and having high yet attainable goals. Curriculum developers and/or teachers must have a concrete program for PPE correction and inculcation. It is also effective if the phrasal verbs and preposition partners are separately discussed as they tend to cause the students confusion.

Dynamism to Control—the acceptance of *Globalized English, Englishes* or *Local varieties of English* in English Language Teaching would be beneficial for a quick-fix to language fluency but not for long-term accuracy. A Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach might be also helpful in infusing a possible remedy for PPE as long as PPE is to be emphasized. Most often than not, as Hemchua & Honkiss (2013) reported, PPE is neglected in corrective feedback. Hence, if CLT is merely treated as another quick-fix formula, it would not only just create long-term inaccuracy but also a permanent one—lexical fossilization. Control does not mean going back to the traditional deductive approach. It means cultivating the natural learning of the students with proper guidance and adequate feedback which will enable them to go forth and explore PPE but never go back to be stabilized with PPE errors.

4. Conclusion

The distinctiveness of lexis and the distinctiveness of a language community together create a distinct effect on an individual's ability to acquire language, in this case, preposition partners. In the case of PPE, the language communities in which the

students have an opportunity to use the target language play a significant role in promoting or preventing PPE. Contextual parameters seems to be the significant underlying factors underpinning the presence of the three cases of preposition partner errors, where appropriate preventive measures, careful anticipatory plans, and awareness of the teachers as well as all involved sectors could, believably, effectively heal and better this erroneous use of preposition partners among students.

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Appendix

Samples of Preposition Partner Errors

Omission

...want to take course a <*take a course in*> Korea language.

...show many types <*types of* > arts such as drawing.

I need to travel <*travel to*> Phuket.

...emission such as <*such as from*> car, factory or machine.

...co-operate <*cooperate with*> each other/we need to co-operate <cooperate with> each other/if <*cooperate with*> each other[13]

I never take a bus <*for*> 2 hours.

I can speak to the foreigner <from> the different country.

...the student didn't listen <listen to> me.

Sai Keaw beach is about 800 meters long <*with*> white sand.

It has a charm <*charm of*> its own.

Addition

I will go to work at <*work*> there.

I promise with <*promise*> myself...

I need to meet my favorite bands at <*bands*> there.

---

[13] Errors made by the same student on the same essay were counted as one error.

I really want to <u>go in</u> <*go*> abroad.

I will go to my favorite <u>places in</u> <*places*> someday.

The cause <u>from is</u> <*is*> activities of people.

It modifies or <u>increases to</u> <*increase*> value.

Immigration Division 1 <u>serves for</u> <*serves*> many foreigners.

I must visit <u>there for</u> <*there*> once in my life.

I want to <u>visit in</u> <*visit*> France.

Substitution

There are several interesting places <u>on</u> <*in*> the world.

...make me want to see <u>in</u> <*with*> my eyes.

I never travel <u>in</u> <*to*> another country.

It was built in Qin Xi Huang era <u>with</u> <*by*> many Chinese.

You can make it <u>to</u> <*into*> a new one.

We can do the same thing <u>in</u> <*at*> the same time.

...protect <u>of</u> <*from*> global warming.

I learn how to adjusting <u>with</u> <*to*> them.

...say a big thank <u>for</u> <*to*> my university.

...<u>on</u> <*from*> June to October, 2011.

When EFL Students Utilized a Monolingual Dictionary as a Language Learning Tool: Discovering Sub-themes and Explanations of Consultation, Utilization, and Confirmation Strategies

Banchakarn Sameephet[1]

ABSTRACT

This paper reports on a study of monolingual dictionary strategies implemented by EFL university students. Hence, a translation sphere was designed as a research pathway to focus on areas of translation processes—from L1 into L2. It was intended to discover sub-themes and explanations of consultation, utilization, and confirmation strategies. Likewise, this study proposed to examine EFL users' perception of the usefulness of the sub-strategies. A mixed methods study was used. There were two phases of data collections and analyses, i.e. qualitative and quantitative phases. Thirty (30) university English majors participated in the first phase of writing a reflection of using a monolingual dictionary, while for the second phase, 100 EFL users took part in a questionnaire study. The findings showed a wide range of sub-strategies. Notwithstanding, only nine useful strategies were sequentially reported in this study. Furthermore, the results highlighted pedagogical implications to acquaint new students with possible strategies for utilizing monolingual dictionaries when students ask lecturers for advice and support.

Keywords: translation strategy, monolingual dictionary strategy, language learning tool

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บทคัดย่อ

บทความนี้ได้พิจารณาศึกษากลวิธีการใช้พจนานุกรมภาษาเดียวของนักศึกษาที่
เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศในระดับอุดมศึกษา ซึ่งการศึกษานี้
ได้มุ่งไปยังกระบวนการแปลจากภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ โดยวิจัยนี้มี
เป้าหมายเพื่อค้นหาหัวข้อย่อยและการอธิบายกลวิธีการค้น การใช้ และการ
ยืนยันคำ ซึ่งกลวิธีเหล่านี้เป็นกรอบวิจัยในการศึกษาครั้งนี้ด้วย และเป้าหมายอีก
ประการหนึ่งเพื่อศึกษามุมมองของผู้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศ
ต่อประโยชน์ของแต่ละกลวิธี รูปแบบวิจัยในครั้งนี้เป็นการวิจัยแบบวิธีผสมโดยใช้
กระบวนการสำรวจแบบต่อเนื่อง การเก็บข้อมูลในครั้งนี้แบ่งออกเป็น 2 ระยะ
ด้วยกันคือ ระยะแรกเก็บผลสะท้อนการใช้พจนานุกรมภาษาเดียวจากนักศึกษา
วิชาการแปล 30 คน และวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเชิงคุณภาพโดยใช้วิธีจัดกลุ่มเพื่อโยงไป
ยังการเก็บข้อมูลในระยะที่สองต่อไป ในระยะที่สองเก็บข้อมูลโดยใช้
แบบสอบถามวัด 5 ระดับ เพื่อศึกษามุมมองต่อประโยชน์ของแต่ละกลวิธีจาก
100 คน และวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเชิงปริมาณ ด้วยสถิติอย่างง่ายโดยใช้ร้อยละ
ผลการวิจัยได้นำเสนอ 9 กลวิธีย่อยที่ผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามมองว่ามีประโยชน์มาก
ที่สุด ด้านประโยชน์จากผลการวิจัยในครั้งนี้จะนำไปสู่การนำเสนอกลวิธีการใช้
พจนานุกรมแบบภาษาเดียวแก่นักเรียนใหม่วิชาการแปลหรือนักเรียนใหม่ที่ใช้
พจนานุกรมเป็นเครื่องมือในการเรียนรู้ภาษาต่อไป

1. Introduction

Over the past decade, there have been various translation studies in broad areas of problems in translation and translation strategies in Thai contexts, which are focused on the end product of translation activities. Nevertheless, there are only a few studies which focus on a translation process, especially a research project on EFL students' translation strategies along with implementing monolingual dictionaries as language learning tools. Therefore, this study seeks to obtain data which will help to address these research gaps. In view of that, quite a few bodies of knowledge act as teaching and learning guides to introduce practical knowledge of translation and monolingual dictionary strategies for EFL students who are new to translation activities. It is very important to a teacher that he or she should know about EFL students' translation strategies and monolingual dictionary strategies, since such strategies would advantageously aid students in translating Thai into English, while working on translation tasks.

Because of a lack of a practical knowledge from research of how EFL students translate and exploit a monolingual dictionary, a teacher, who teaches a basic translation course, especially translating Thai into English to EFL students in a tertiary setting, is not able to discern a vivid view of EFL students translation strategies and monolingual dictionary strategies in the real world. Therefore, it is an undeniable fact that conducting research on discovering sub-themes and explanations of translation strategies, i.e. consultation, utilization, and confirmation strategies are beneficial to the teachers of translation studies. That is, the results

of the current research would present useful, concrete pictures of translation and monolingual dictionary strategies for the teachers to implement in his or her class as well.

A monolingual dictionary strategy is a supportive tool for EFL students while translating from L1 into L2. In the area of the study, it is not an in-depth study in translation fields, but this study superficially touches upon a translation process by merely using translation activities in order to provide EFL students' experiences in exploiting a monolingual dictionary. For that reason, we could perceive the strategies that they employ during the translating process through their activities. Another thing that we could perceive is that the students exploit the monolingual dictionary as a language learning tool for their own learning pace. Consequently, this current study focuses on the possible sub-themes and explanations of consultation, utilization, and confirmation of monolingual dictionary strategies used by the EFL students and to study the perception of the usefulness of the sub-strategies which are viewed by a heterogeneous group. In addition, the findings suggest several pedagogical implications for the EFL learners towards exploiting the monolingual dictionary strategies to diminish the difficulty of their language learning in the future.
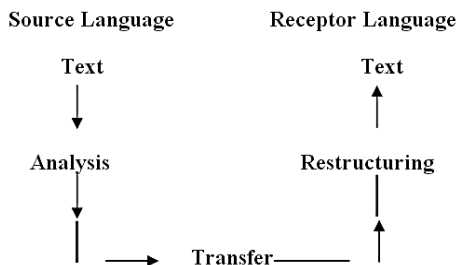
To make it easy to understand the terms used in this study, clarification of terms are provided in this section. The term 'sub-theme' is equal to the meaning of the term 'sub-strategy' in this study. The keyword 'translation strategy' has come to be used to refer to a technique for translating Thai into English at a word level. In this paper, the keyword that will be used to describe a technique for assisting EFL students in translating activities, is 'monolingual dictionary strategy'. Likewise, the keyword 'language learning tool' is

generally understood to mean a monolingual dictionary (an English-English dictionary), which could support EFL students in learning and acquiring the new target language of English. In this study, the term 'translate' (v.) means to transform lexical items in L1 contexts into new forms of lexical items in L2 contexts. Furthermore, the term 'translation' (n.) means the act of transforming L1 lexical items and its meanings into L2. Furthermore, the term 'act' means an activity of translation in this study.

2.　Literature Review

The act of transforming L1 into L2

Using other languages to convey the gist of the original language—it is the way that translations play a role (Catford, 1965). This means translations are about transforming the forms and the gist of the source text to target languages (Nida, 1964). That is, elements of the translations are not just only about delivering meanings, but also using forms to present its significance such as words, phrases, sentences, and statements. Accordingly, word selections are primary steps to build up bigger units, whereby a translator should take word selections into account during translating from L1 into L2. To explicate the process of translation, below is a model of the translation process proposed by Nida and Taber (1974).

```
    Source Language          Receptor Language

        Text                      Text
         |                          ↑
         ↓                          |
      Analysis                 Restructuring
         |                          |
         ↓                          ↑
         |  ──→  Transfer──────     ↑
```

A model of translation process

The possible explanations of the model of Nida and Taber (1974) might be that receiving the text from a source language is in the initial stage of translation activities. The next stage is analyzing the text before transferring it. As you are able to perceive the idea above, transferring the text into another language is the central stage of its process. Then, restructuring tasks take part in this route by selecting appropriate words and structures of a receptor language. Besides, presenting the new text in the receptor language is the last activity to end the process. Another idea of the translation process is shown in Larson's diagram below.
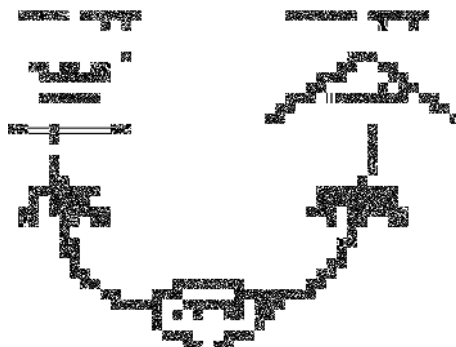
A diagram of translation process

According to the diagram of Larson (1984), this process is focused on the gist of both source and receptor languages. That is, translation activities in this act share the same meaning—as you can explicitly see it in the ellipse above. In spite of this, the source language form is dissimilar to the form of the receptor language which the diagram shows as different shapes, namely a square and a triangle. Another interesting point is that the diagram uses the word 'discover' in the process in order to search deeply for meaning. Larson (1998) suggests that a preparatory stage of translating is to begin with analyzing the gist of the L1 by searching for central concepts. He also pinpoints that when obtaining those clear ideas, the next step is to discover words in L2 which have similar concepts.

Additionally, the idea of translation is not about translating a language, but it is about presenting the gist of materials to the recipients (Seleskovitch, 1976). Unfortunately, translating a word is a major complex problem for translators, for they do not

comprehend word meanings, in contrast, they do comprehend such meanings, but nevertheless do not discern how to express it in the L2 (Newmark, 1988). Because a word could embrace multi-meanings, for this point, it leads the word to a thorny issue of translation (Chafe, 1970). To formulate clear evidence in this spot, there is the good example of Laisuthruklai (2002) about selecting and using the L2 word in contexts throughout the translation process—from the L1 into the L2. For instance, the word "**แนะนำ**" in the L1 has the same meanings of the L2 words, namely *'introduce', 'recommend', 'advise', and 'suggest'*. See the L1 in context:

*ที่งานเลี้ยงแห่งหนึ่ง เพื่อนของฉัน**แนะนำ**ให้ฉันรู้จักกับ จินตหรา สุขพัฒน์*

See what happens if we select the word 'advise' for this context:

*At the party, my friend **advised** me to Jintara Sukhaphat.*

The gist of this sentence is completely incorrect because the word "advise" means "to tell someone what you think they should do, especially when you know more than they do about something" (Longman, 2012, p. 26). Notwithstanding, using the word "introduce" is the right word choice for this sentence since it means "to tell two or more people who have not met before what each other's names are; to tell somebody what your name is" (Oxford, 2010, p. 819). Here is the right word choice in the right context:

*At the party, my friend **introduced** me to Jintara Sukhaphat.*

To utilize the right words, the translators should exploit monolingual dictionaries to check the words before choosing or completing their task. Thus, the next part is about the monolingual dictionary

whereby the students could utilize it as a language learning tool to establish themselves as a language learner. It means that the students are able to gain benefit from using such a tool for their learning method.

A monolingual dictionary as a language learning tool

According to Quirk (2009), the main goal of producing a dictionary is to "provide students and teachers with the most comprehensive and accurate information on the English language whilst addressing users needs". Therefore, EFL students are able to exploit a dictionary for different English learning goals, to be precise, there are a large number of dictionaries which are available for them at all levels (Chan, 2005). Although, there are high-quality and low-quality dictionaries, the thesauri are beneficial to implement it all (Newmark, 1998). For the advantages of this material, the dictionary is an essential teaching and learning tool which takes a core part in the language learning process, especially vocabulary learning and acquisition processes (Ali, 2012). When teachers and students use the dictionary as a teaching and learning tool, they should bring key concepts into practice, which Nation (2005) mentions are the universal concepts of words to teaching and learning, which are "form", "meaning", and "use". Furthermore, the possible reason to support this idea is that there are 2000 words from the academic word list (AWL) in the Oxford 3000 word lists of general English (The Oxford 3000™), in order to make a relationship with learning, the students also express a desire to discern useful dictionary strategies to learn the vocabulary items (Coxhead, 2010). The monolingual dictionary is a sort of reference resource since words explicate its

meanings in an understandable way by using the unchanged language (Hartmann 95). Likewise, nowadays the bulk of the significance of using the monolingual dictionaries is that all of them are based on large corpora.

Furthermore, it is imperative that there are varieties of authentic resources of English language in order to produce language contents in the monolingual dictionaries, such as the "Bank of English", "Cambridge English Corpus", "Longman Corpus Network", and "The Oxford English Corpus". To elaborate this point, the Collins COBUILD dictionary uses the resources from the "Bank of English", which contains a wide range of written and spoken materials, including websites, newspapers, magazines and published books, radio, and TV (Collins COBULD, 2014). In the Cambridge dictionary there is now a multi-billion word collection of written and spoken English in a dictionary from the "Cambridge English Corpus" (Cambridge, 2014). Moreover, the Longman dictionary employs the Longman Corpus Network, which presented 65,000 common collocations and 18,000 synonyms in a dictionary (Longman, 2014). Furthermore, the Oxford dictionary draws the "The Oxford English Corpus" which contains English from around the globe, e.g. the UK, the USA, Australia, India, Singapore, and South Africa (Oxford, 2014).

Underhill (1980) claims that several high frequency vocabulary items are stored in monolingual dictionaries, but other dictionaries are not doing so, because those words are widely employed in English textbooks. It means that students are able to implement it as a language learning tool. Moreover, there are three main reasons why students are able to learn English through the monolingual dictionaries: first, the complete sentence definitions employ the general context in which key words are most regularly found in real

life; second, grammatical patterns present in contexts that aid the students to implement English correctly; and third, natural language definitions introduce the students to discern lexical sets in everyday English (Sinclair, 2009). That is, the dictionary is a helpful learning tool which supports students to learn lexical items in L2 (Crystal, 1987). Crystal also elucidates that a good dictionary is quite straightforward to use in terms of giving clear definitions, guidance to usage and providing synonyms and antonyms.

Scholfield (1982) presents that there are some steps to exploit a dictionary, including searching for an item in more than one location, studying the alternative of the relevant meanings, and selecting the explanation of meanings to the source context of the unknown lexical items. So, when students become more familiar with the resources of the dictionary that they employ, and recognize where to search for responses to trouble they encounter, the students will be able to construct better English (Wright, 2008). When the students experience looking up words by repetition or getting significant words, perhaps they will desire to create flash cards or lexical notebooks to assist their learning (Coxhead, 2010). Scholfield (1982) expresses that the students who exploit the monolingual lexicon will be assisted in accomplishing the habit of thinking in the L2. In addition, Gairns and Redman (2005) also support that use of dictionaries which could lead the learners to become autonomous learners since they could decide what to learn from the resource that they have. That is, learning can occur inside and outside the classroom by "helping students tap into that information efficiently is one of the best ways to help them become independent, lifelong language learners" (Leaney, 2007, p.1).

Monolingual dictionary strategies

Stein (1989) states the key characteristics of monolingual dictionaries, which include the explanation of meanings, the specification of a word's grammatical behaviour, and the illustration of the meaning with authentic English language. Nevertheless, the EFL students do not possess adequate dictionary skills to derive good advantages from available dictionaries (Chan, 2005). Learners could benefit a great deal from gaining the confidence and skills to implement a dictionary properly, first things first, such skills enable learners to resolve his or her difficulty—after all, teachers cannot always be with them all the time when things go off track (Wright, 2008). McIntosh (2013) suggests that "checking the dictionary for meaning and spelling may be what it is used for most, but you can get a lot more out of your dictionary". Furthermore, Swan (2010) interprets that the monolingual dictionary provides English patterns and usage, including most imperative words, key meanings, structures, verbs, adjectives, pronunciations, collocations, synonyms and so on. He also argues vocabulary skills are regarded as necessary for learners; hence they could earn a good advantage by using a pedagogical-oriented monolingual dictionary.

This part introduces the monolingual dictionary strategies from different scholars in order to see various perspectives. Additionally, the researcher also develops these themes below as a research framework in this current study.

Table 1: Themes of monolingual dictionary strategies.

Scholars	Topics of the Study	Themes of Monolingual Dictionary Strategies
Songhao (1997)	The dictionary used as a way of learning vocabulary in SLA	1. Looking for meaning and usage of new words 2. Confirmation of meaning and usage 3. Clarification of similarities in words
Harvey and Yuill (1997)	A study of the use of a monolingual pedagogical dictionary by learners of English engaged in writing	1. Finding out the item exists 2. Checking how the items are spelt 3. Checking meaning 4. Finding the inflection 5. Finding out about grammar 6. Finding out about other words 7. Checking an appropriate item
Gu (2006)	Learning strategies for vocabulary development	1. Dictionary for comprehension 2. Extended dictionary use 3. Looking-up strategies
Wright (2008)	Practicing dictionary abilities with activities	1. Getting started 2. Working with meaning 3. Vocabulary development
Chan (2012)	The use of monolingual dictionary for meaning determination by advanced Cantonese ESL learners in Hong Kong	1. Eliminating an incorrect word class 2. Comparing the structure of a target sentence with the structure of a definition 3. Paraphrasing a key word given in a dictionary definition 4. Utilizing special features

To elaborate on each significant theme from the table above, it is vital to interpret it bit by bit. According to the study of Songhao (1997), he establishes that learners use the monolingual dictionary to **"look for meaning and usage of new words"** when they

encounter a new word. Moreover, his study also discovers that the learners implement **"confirmation of meaning and usage strategies"** to ensure the components of words in contexts. What is more, the learners use the strategy of **"clarification of similarities in words"** when they are confused about the exact meaning, the learners utilize the dictionary to clarify each word afterwards.

Furthermore, Harvey and Yuill (1997) studied the exploitation of a monolingual pedagogical dictionary by learners of English engaged in writing, the results show that the students use **"finding out the item exist strategies"** to search for the new words, which occurred in materials. Another dictionary strategy is that of **"checking how the items are spelt",** the learners use it to check general spellings. When they require using a dictionary to verify meanings, the learners would implement **"checking meaning strategies"** by focusing on definitions only. Moreover, they exploit the dictionary to change the form of words, hence the **"finding the inflection strategy"** would take a role for that. Moreover, using a dictionary to **"find out about grammar"** is a way to look for accurate grammar and structures. Likewise, **"finding out about other words strategies"** takes place when the learners exploit the dictionary to look for synonyms and antonyms. To use the dictionary to find the correct words in contexts, the students employ **"checking an appropriate item strategies"** to assist them to verify the right lexical items.

In addition, Gu (2006) reports the results from his study of learning strategies for vocabulary development. The learners implement **"dictionary for comprehension strategies"** to assist them to understand the text. Also, the learners apply **"extended dictionary use strategies"** to add more ideas from what they have already

learnt. Last but not least, the learners implement **"looking-up strategies"** to search for useful information.

In 2008, Wright also creates monolingual dictionary activities for the students to practice using a dictionary to gain the ability in learning lexical sets, he provides three core dictionary strategies, including **"getting started"** (diagnosing problems with or reservations about dictionary use), **"working with meaning"** (obtaining high priority to establishing and understanding relationship between words), and **"vocabulary development"** (exploiting a dictionary to develop vocabulary lexical sets)

Likewise, there are enormously interesting findings from the study of Chan (2012), in which he studies the exploitation of a monolingual dictionary for searching definitions in a dictionary. The participants in his study are advanced Cantonese ESL learners in Hong Kong. The results show that the students use **"eliminating an incorrect word class strategies"** to realize how to delete wrong words used in contexts. They also use **"comparing the structure of a target sentence with the structure of a definition strategies"** to see the differences of learners structures and structures in a material. To consult a dictionary to gain ideas of how to rewrite an explanation of a key word, the students use **"paraphrasing key word given in a dictionary definition strategies"** to help them along the way. Last but not least, the students use **"utilizing special features strategies"** to derive unfamiliar details (e.g. structures, grammar rules, and forms) from the dictionary.

Research Questions

1) What are the possible sub-themes employed by English major students at the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University?

2) How do the students employ those possible sub-themes when transforming L1 lexical items to L2?

3) What are the students' perceptions on the usefulness of the sub-monolingual dictionary strategies when transforming L1 lexical items to L2?

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Participants

Participants and numbers in this study were divided into two phases during data collection periods. For the first phase, the participants were 30 second-year English major students from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University, who were taking the course of Translation I from 14th October 2013 to 16th February 2014. After finishing the first phase, 100 participants who are currently using a monolingual dictionary for learning purposes were involved in the questionnaire study. In this study, the researcher used a non-probability sampling technique by implementing a judgment sampling pattern to select participants who had direct relevance to what the study was searching for. The core criteria of selection for the first group was set to persons who

had new experiences in using a monolingual dictionary for learning purposes in a higher education setting, focusing on translation activities in translating from L1 into L2. Another criterion to select the second group, was that of current or former English major students who had experience in using a monolingual dictionary to assist in using English for translating or learning language purposes.

3.2 Frameworks and procedures

This research developed frameworks in order to build up a track for managing qualitative data according to scholars previous studies. That is, there are three core themes of monolingual dictionary strategies built up for research frameworks, namely "consultation strategies", "utilization strategies", and "confirmation strategies". To make this point vividly comprehensible to everyone; there is a model of using monolingual dictionary strategies while translating from L1 into L2, which is the research area in this study. Likewise, the explanation part comes along to clarify each strategy.
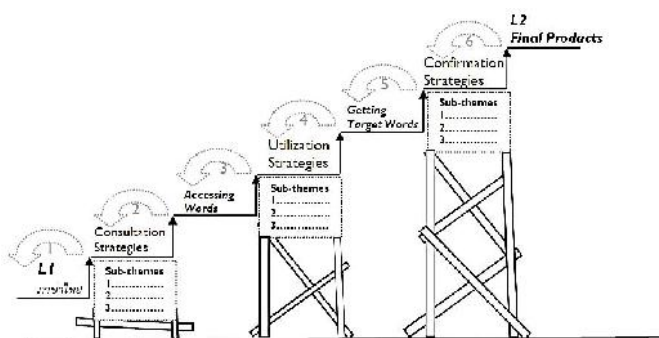

Figure 1: Model of using monolingual dictionary strategies while translating from L1 into L2

The first strategy from the so-called 'consultation strategy' plays the very first role when the students desire to look up words in a lexicon. Hence, the "consultation strategy" in this field is a pre-searching routine. It intends that before applying the dictionary, the students ought to determine their reasons why they should look it up in the dictionary. Additionally, they encounter word problems while translating from L1 into L2. To endorse these ideas, there are similar themes according to the scholars studies such as "getting started", "dictionary for comprehension", "looking-up strategies, "finding out the item exists/other words/the inflection", "finding out about grammar", "checking meaning", and "vocabulary development".

The utilization strategy is the second stage. It takes place when the tasks necessitate the students using words when they have already found out the meaning. That is, the utilization strategy is a while-searching routine, which activates when students make a decision to select L2 words for a target language in contexts. It rigidly looks at how the students select such vocabulary items on word lists in the lexicon. The fundamentals of developing this core theme are from the strategies of "looking for meaning and usage of new words", "clarification of similarities in words", "paraphrasing a key word", "working with meaning", "utilizing special features", and "vocabulary development".

The third strategy is the confirmation strategy that eventually acts when the students exploit the dictionary to double-check their L2 products. It is a post-searching routine which covers the strategies of "checking how the items are spelt/an appropriate item", "extended dictionary use", "eliminating an incorrect word class", "vocabulary development", "comparing the structure of a target

sentence", and "confirmation of meaning and usage".

3.3 Research tools

To gain both qualitative and quantitative data, there were two different research tools implemented in this study, namely a reflection of using a monolingual dictionary and an online questionnaire.

A reflection of using a monolingual dictionary —the primary research tool is intended to achieve qualitative data. The instruction for writing the reflection is that the students ought to reflect their direct experiences in using the monolingual dictionary by answering four open-ended questions in English. The open-ended questions in this current study were developed from the study of Harvey and Yuill in 1997, which was mentioned in *Applied Linguistics Journal*, OUP. After developing research questions to assemble into the study, there were four apposite questions: 1) What is your very first step before looking up unknown and known words in an English-English dictionary?; 2) When you find words in the monolingual dictionary, how do you select and use the right words for your translation task in L2 contexts?; 3) What are your own dictionary techniques when you confirm words after forming new English sentences?; and 4) What have you gained from your own experiences in using the English-English dictionary?. Question number four aspires to achieve supplementary data in order to encourage the foremost research consequences only, thus the data and results from this question are not conveyed to the second phase.

An online questionnaire—the only research tool, endeavoured to attain quantitative data from participants. The results from qualitative data need to be examined by using the online questionnaire, meaning the majority of contents in each section are from qualitative results. Thus, this study used close-ended questions with a 5-point Likert scale to find out the majority of dictionary strategies that are useful to most participants. After creating this sort of research tool, the questionnaire is well developed by a pilot study, by this means the online questionnaire was given to a small group of respondents to give feedback on some particular points that needed to be developed before being used with more participants afterwards.

3.4 Data collection

The first phase of data collection planned to collect qualitative data, thus a reflection of using a monolingual dictionary was assigned to 30 students at the end of the Translation 1 course on 16 February 2014. Their reflections contained around 900-1,000 English words. Also, the students were allowed to submit their reflection via email. After receiving the students' reflections, 10 conversational interviews were set for informal interviews with participants to clarify their indistinguishable points. There were no fixed questions to ask during conversations since the interviewer who conducted the interviews went with the flow. Each interview took 10-15 minutes. After getting qualitative data and results, those results built up to the second phase of data collection. The second phase is aimed at collecting quantitative data. Hence, at the end of a series of data collection, the online questionnaire was eventually given to 100 participants from 24-28 February 2014.

3.5 Data analysis

Categorization is the foremost technique to analyse the qualitative data in the first phase. It means that the researcher categorized such sub-themes of the monolingual dictionary strategies with extracts into three core themes according to the scope of the research framework. After categorizing each sub-theme, the researcher asked for other perspectives to rigidly view each sub-theme. Thus, two raters rated sub-themes in each category to find reliabilities before implementing those sub-themes to the next phase. Moreover, a disagreement did not lead to the second phase and those sub-themes are not reported in this study. Furthermore, the percentage is systematically computed during the second phase of quantitative data analysis in order to discover the impact of perception of the usefulness of the monolingual dictionary strategies.

4. Results

To assist readers to understand technical jargon in this article, the essential terms are defined for the readers in this section. Throughout this present article, 'monolingual dictionary' is therefore defined in terms of **an English-English dictionary as a language learning tool**. The broad use of the term 'monolingual dictionary strategy' tends to be used to refer to a technique of using a monolingual dictionary. To illustrate this point, there are three stages of implementing dictionary strategies in this study, including pre-searching, while-searching, and post-searching.

Furthermore, a pre-searching stage occurs when students ought to determine their aim for looking the word up in the dictionary. A while-searching stage is activated when students make a decision to select L2 words for a target language in contexts. A post-searching stage is acted when students exploit the dictionary to double-check their L2 products.

Additionally, there is the last set of technical jargon which needs to be defined here. In this article, the term 'theme' will be used in its broadest sense to refer to 'consultation strategy', 'utilization strategy', and 'confirmation strategy'. What is more, each theme has three different sub-themes—each individual sub-theme is explained by main themes to be more informative and understandable in the next part.

4.1 Qualitative results

To reiterate , the first two research questions are as follows:

1) What are the possible sub-themes employed by English major students at Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Khon Kaen University?

2) How do the students employ those possible sub-themes when transforming L1 lexical items to L2?

To answer the questions above, there are nine possible sub-themes under the foremost dictionary strategies and explanations of all sub-strategies together with students' learning experiences to support below.

4.1.1 Consultation strategies

Rechecking meanings of known words

The EFL students aimed to exploit the monolingual dictionaries to recheck word definitions that they already know. Also, the students could learn how to form words in sentences. Below is clear evidence for supporting this sub-theme and their learning points.

> *If I am not confident in using the known words I want to check the meaning again to ensure such meaning (EFL student 3).*
>
> *I have learnt that using an English-English dictionary is the best way for searching the word meanings. It shows very clear meaning of the words, and how to use them to perform sentences (EFL student 2).*

Therefore, the student desired to consult the monolingual dictionary to gain confidence in implementing the known words by rechecking meanings first. Besides, learning could occur while using the dictionary since he or she knew how to apply English words to sentences.

Enlarging on meaning of known words

This sub-strategy helps the EFL students to amplify the meanings of known words. The students also gained benefit from using a dictionary to improve their English skills. The contents from students' reflections are evidently shown in these two points.

> Although I knew the word, I also find its meanings from an English-English dictionary. ... I look at the other meanings... maybe a new meaning is suitable for my context...(EFL student 10).

> When I use the English-English dictionary, it can help my reading and writing skills... Also, it can help me using another word instead of the only old word that I use it for a long time (EFL student 3).

Thus, this EFL student fully intended to exploit the monolingual dictionary to enlarge on the meanings of his or her known words to find out the appropriate words for the translation contexts. The dictionary was the tool to support the students to improve their English skills.

Gaining understanding of how to use target words/word choices in grammatical structures

The purpose of using the monolingual dictionary in this sub-theme was to achieve comprehension of the way to implement lexical items according to grammar rules. Likewise, the students could

perceive language patterns for their writing as well. The relevant points are mentioned here.

> *There are a lot of meanings. If I use it wrong, it will change the meaning of the sentence. So, I often use a dictionary to be good at using the right English word (EFL student 11).*
> *When I read definitions from one word, I also get the patterns of how to write to describe something; moreover, it gives the correct pronunciation as well (EFL student 5).*

The students aspired to understand meanings and to realize how to use target words and word choices in grammatical structures. Some students could gain an advantage of exploiting the monolingual dictionary, especially writing English to describe something and word pronunciations.

4.1.2 Utilization Strategies

Utilizing key terms for specific contexts by scanning definitions and examples

This sub-theme assists the EFL students to select and learn the key terms for a specific context in their translation circumstances. At this point, there is a matter for the EFL students below.

> If my translation context needs a special word, I use a key term for each specific context by scanning definitions and examples provided (EFL student 29).

> I learned that in which or what kind of situation that word should be used specifically. Moreover, I have learned to recognize the word's functions when using it (EFL student 1).

Before choosing the key terms, the EFL students scanned definitions and examples which were provided in their monolingual dictionary. In addition, some students learned using English words and their functions for specific contexts.

Noticing how to use words in sentences by checking from examples

To select the words to form English sentences, the EFL students noticed how to implement lexical items through examples. This technique could facilitate the students to learn how to use each word in their writing and translating as well. To obtain vivid pictures, the students reflected on these points.

> I notice how to use words in sentences by checking from the examples before selecting such words (EFL student 1).

> I get the experience in using the English-English dictionary that when I have to

> choose the words, I should choose appropriate words for both writing and translating. Furthermore, I understand how to use each word by using synonyms to make writing more professional (EFL student 13).

And by this, means that noticing and checking play significant roles in this sub-theme to assist the EFL students to select the right words. The student also gained experience in using synonyms in their English writing tasks.

Looking at meanings with clear explanations before locating the words in the contexts

The EFL students paid attention to the meaning and explanation of each lexical item before applying it. This sub-theme may help the students to select the word for his or her contexts.

> I look at the meaning with clear explanations. Then, I make use of it by putting the word in the contexts (EFL student 10).

> … I have known new words and new
> meanings… It made me know about the
> relations between word contexts and
> translation contexts. And I also have
> learned about selecting and using the
> right words for my translation contexts
> (EFL student 16).

In this case, the clear explanation in the monolingual dictionary is
the main focus area of students when they look at useful
information before selecting the words. Also, the students found
the way to choose and use the lexical items in their translation
contexts.

4.1.3 Confirmation Strategies

***Validating sentences by comparing it with grammar rules in
example sentences***

After forming English sentences, the EFL students compared their
work by checking structures from sentences in the monolingual
dictionary. He or she gained some self- awareness of using English
lexical items as well. To illustrate this issue, the students reflected
on this point below.

> I compare my sentences with the
> grammar rules in example sentences to
> improve my translation products (EFL
> student 15).

> I have to concern about parts of speech...
> I cannot use 'Adjective ' instead of
> 'Adverb' because it *is ungrammatical (EFL*
> *student 6).*

As a result, this sub-theme looked at grammar rules in example sentences in the monolingual dictionary to validate sentences by comparing in detail. For this reason, the students used this method as an alternative method of confirming their end products of translation. Additionally, it is significant that students developed an awareness of how to confirm English words or sentences by focusing on the parts of speech.

Implementing an English-English dictionary to monitor and correct words and structures

When the EFL students would like to confirm their sentences, he or she exploited a dictionary to correct words and structures. Another thing that the students could gain from this strategy was that they could recognize techniques to verify their writing. The possible evidence to support might be some interesting contents from the reflection here.

> *I use the English-English dictionary to*
> *monitor and correct many words and*
> *sentences after forming English sentences*
> *(EFL student 3).*

> *I have known more how to use a dictionary to confirm my writing context. It makes me feel more confident in writing text or any essay (EFL student 17).*

This sub-theme could support the students to monitor their English language. The students had self-confidence; he or she behaves confidently because they feel certain of their English abilities after confirming the end products of translation.

Confirming words and meanings in the synonym parts

Another sub-theme in confirmation strategies is "confirming words and meanings in the synonym parts" which is implemented by EFL students. Besides, the students could perceive the benefit of looking up the synonyms and learn how to apply it to their writing as well. One student explained that:

> *... I use this technique to check out meanings which I am not sure whether I pick the right word for the correct meaning or not. Thus, I recheck meanings in the synonym part to look for the right word which can fit my sentences (EFL student 1).*

> *I have learned how much importance of looking up the synonym is... Although most of the words in the categories share the same meaning, it does not mean that*

> *you can use all of them in every*
> *sentence or situation (EFL student 1).*

The synonym parts provided the same meaning of each word; therefore this EFL student was able to use these synonyms to confirm their end products of translation. He or she also understood and gained awareness of the importance of looking up the synonym words.

To link to the second phase of data collection and analysis, the results from the EFL students' reflections which were categorized into three core themes are moved to the second phase to investigate perception of the usefulness of the monolingual dictionary strategies by the heterogeneous group. Therefore, the results from the quantitative data analysis would bring support to the results from the qualitative data analysis in the first phase.

4.2 Quantitative results

Quantitative results from a questionnaire on perception of the usefulness of the monolingual dictionary strategies are presented in this section in order to answer the third question:

3) What are the students' perceptions on the usefulness of the sub-monolingual dictionary strategies when transforming L1 lexical items to L2?

The results are quantified and shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Perception of the usefulness of the monolingual dictionary strategies by the heterogeneous group.

Monolingual dictionary strategies Extremely/very useful strategy	Degree of usefulness of the strategy,	% (N=100)
Consultation Strategies		
1. Rechecking meanings of known words	EXTREMELY USEFUL 49, very useful 29 moderately/slightly/not at all useful 14, 6, 2	78% (very high)
2. Enlarging on meaning of known words	Extremely useful 24, VERY USEFUL 43 moderately/slightly/not at all useful 24, 9, 0	67% (very high)
3. Gaining understanding of how to use target words/word choices in grammatical structures	EXTREMELY USEFUL 40, very useful 34 moderately/slightly/not at all useful18, 8, 0	74% (very high)
Utilization Strategies		
1. Utilizing key terms for specific contexts by scanning definitions and examples	Extremely useful 16, VERY USEFUL 49 moderately/slightly/not at all useful 22, 13, 0	65% (very high)
2. Noticing how to use words in sentences by checking from examples	EXTREMELY USEFUL 44, very useful 31 moderately/slightly/not at all useful 18, 5, 2	75% (very high)
3. Looking at meanings with clear explanations before locating the words in the contexts	Extremely useful 28, VERY USEFUL 43 moderately/slightly/not at all useful 23, 4, 2	71% (very high)

Table 2: Perception of the usefulness of the monolingual dictionary strategies by the heterogeneous group (cont'd).

Monolingual dictionary strategies Extremely/very useful strategy	Degree of usefulness of the strategy,	% (N=100)
Confirmation Strategies		
1. Validating sentences by comparing it with grammar rules in example sentences	Extremely useful 17, VERY USEFUL 49 moderately/slightly/not at all useful 22, 9, 3	66% (very high)
2. Implementing an English-English dictionary to monitor and correct words and structures	Extremely useful 15, VERY USEFUL 44 moderately/slightly/not at all useful 30, 11, 0	59% (moderately high)
3. Confirming words and meanings in the synonym parts 50% (moderately high)	Extremely useful 9, VERY USEFUL 41 moderately/slightly/not at all useful 27, 18, 5	

The table above illustrates some of the core characteristics and impacts of the sub-themes of dictionary strategies. That is, there were 100 participants who viewed on the usefulness of the monolingual dictionary strategies. The significant perception in each category is elaborated into three aspects. The first sub-strategy, **"rechecking meanings of known words"** under the core strategy of consultation is an extremely/very useful strategy which had a very high rate of 78% of perception in support from the homogeneous group. The second sub-strategy, **"noticing how to use words in sentences by checking from examples"** is an extremely/very useful strategy from the utilization strategies which showed 75% of perception towards this strategy—it was a very high level. The third significant sub-theme, the result presents is **"validating sentences by comparing it with grammar rules in example sentences"** under the confirmation strategies is an extremely/very useful one for current and formal EFL students which also explicitly demonstrated a very high scale of 66% of perception of usefulness.

5. Discussion

This study set out with the aim of discovering the importance of sub-themes and explanations of consultation, utilization, and confirmation monolingual dictionary strategies exploited by EFL students. Also, this was designed to investigate the perception of the usefulness of the sub-strategies by the EFL users. The current study found nine essential sub-themes under the three core themes, namely consultation, utilization, and confirmation strategies. Nevertheless, the discussion part brought only three sub-strategies that show very high rates of extremely/very useful strategies to the participants to be discussed in this section.

Consultation strategies are the inherently monolingual strategy that EFL students ought to establish for their purposes prior to employing an English-English dictionary for their translation activities. The current result found that **"rechecking meanings of known words"** was the most useful purpose to consult a dictionary. The EFL users viewed that this strategy was an extremely/very useful strategy which showed 78 percent of perception. This finding further supports the idea of Larson (1998), in which he interprets that the first step of translation triggered off by understanding of an L1 concept, then finding the words in L2 which share similar ideas. That is, although the students recognized the words, they lacked confidence when they needed to utilize such words. Hence, to amend their lacking in language capacities, the students desire to gain more confidence in using known words before forming English sentences by consulting the dictionary.

The explanation of this finding might be that the students lack confidence in using vocabulary items because each word contains multiple meanings, hence this situation creates the bulk of the difficulty to translate (Chafe, 1970). Using the monolingual dictionary is the most excellent method to look up the word meanings for most EFL students. They also learned how to utilize lexical items to produce sentences. This strategy confirms the monolingual strategy of Songhao (1997), that is "looking for meaning and usage of new words". To support this result, the EFL students are concerned about meanings, which corroborate the ideas of Seleskovitch (2008), who suggests that translation is not just translating language, but it is about presenting meaning to readers.

Utilization strategies played a role to aid the EFL students in selecting the appropriate words from a dictionary to their translation

contexts. The results of this study showed that **"noticing how to use words in sentences by checking from examples",** before deciding lexical items the student utilized examples and discerned the approach to apply lexical items from such example sentences. Also, the homogeneous group reflected that this strategy is extremely/very useful, which increased to 75 percent of perception of usefulness. The EFL students earned learning experience in implementing the English-English dictionary while deciding to select the proper lexical items for their writing and translating products. Using the dictionary as language tools, the students could concurrently gain benefit from checking meaning in the monolingual dictionary as well as they could achieve various contents (McIntosh, 2013).

Confirmation strategies play the final role when the L2 products require the students to double-check their end products of translation in L2. Thus, the results discovered that **"validating sentences by comparing it with grammar rules in example sentences"** was one of the strategies employed by the students when they desire to confirm their L2 products, which showed a 66 percent of perception of usefulness, meaning that it is an extremely/very useful strategy. The EFL students could gain knowledge of bringing into play lexis of English sentence productions. In addition, the study of Gairns and Redman (2005) may coherently support this result about the students' monitoring and correcting their own language; that is implementing dictionaries could aid the students to become autonomous learners because they decide what to do with their own work.

6. Pedagogical Implications

In terms of using a monolingual dictionary as translation and language learning tools, this study suggests that the monolingual dictionary strategies should be trained in how to utilize it for the EFL students, even though the English-English dictionary is most suitable for advanced language learners. By this means, those students are still in need of support from the teachers as well. Therefore, the teachers should promote all dictionary strategies to new students who will be taking a translation course or applying the monolingual dictionary for forthcoming learning of English. Subsequently, the students would select their preferred strategies to assist them to complete translation activities. Another imperative practical implication is that when the EFL students are able to revitalize the dictionary strategies, they would gain dictionary skills afterwards. At the end of the process, it could encourage the students to achieve greater self-awareness of exploiting the monolingual dictionary strategies and undergoing the use of the dictionary to support their learning.

7. Conclusion

The purposes of the current study are to discover the EFL students' sub-themes and explanations of three monolingual dictionary strategies, including consultation, utilization, and confirmation, and to investigate the perception of the usefulness of the sub-strategies as viewed by the EFL users. The findings of this study are demonstrated via nine sub- strategies from the core themes. However, there are three sub-strategies from each category which gained the highest degree of perception such as "rechecking meanings of known words", "noticing how to use words in

sentences by checking from examples", and "validating sentences by comparing it with grammar rules in example sentences". While-using the dictionary, the EFL students could learn several perspectives of English language to adopt and adapt to their learning approach. Furthermore, according to the perception of usefulness of the monolingual dictionary strategies, the EFL users viewed that those three strategies are extremely/very useful to them as dictionary users. In conclusion, a possible scenario is that pedagogical implications have yielded dictionary strategies to the EFL students who are truly new to applying the monolingual dictionary for translation and learning English purposes.

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Measuring Vocabulary Size and Vocabulary Depth of Secondary Education Students in a Thai-English Bilingual School

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ABSTRACT

This paper reports findings from a study which measured the vocabulary knowledge of 12th grade students of a Thai-English Bilingual Program in the school. The study investigated two dimensions of vocabulary knowledge, namely breadth or vocabulary size and depth. The Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) version 2 and the Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge Test (DVK) were administered to 104 subjects. The findings indicated that the students could not reach the targeted 3000 word level which was the threshold level for this study. Furthermore, the average vocabulary size was below the 2000 word level. The mean scores of the students' vocabulary sizes at Academic Word List level (AWL) were below the minimum requirement. Likewise, the mean scores of the students' depth of vocabulary knowledge were lower than 50% of the total scores. The results confirmed that over fifty percent of the subjects had some vocabulary deficiencies that would hinder their academic progress.

Keywords: Vocabulary knowledge, vocabulary size, vocabulary depth, academic word list, vocabulary levels test

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บทคัดย่อ

งานวิจัยนี้ศึกษาการวัดความรู้คำศัพท์ของนักเรียนชั้นมัธยมศึกษาปีที่ 6 หลักสูตร สองภาษา ไทย-อังกฤษ ของโรงเรียนแห่งหนึ่ง โดยวัดความรู้คำศัพท์ทั้งสองมิติคือ ความรู้ในเชิงขนาด หรือเชิงกว้างและความรู้ในเชิงลึก กลุ่มตัวอย่างจำนวน 104 คนได้ทำแบบทดสอบสองฉบับ เพื่อวัดระดับความรู้คำศัพท์ในเชิงกว้างและเชิงลึก ผลการทดสอบพบว่ากลุ่มตัวอย่างมีขนาดความรู้คำศัพท์ต่ำกว่าเกณฑ์ที่กำหนดไว้ คือ ระดับ 3,000 คำ อีกทั้งคะแนนเฉลี่ยของความรู้คำศัพท์ต่ำกว่า 2,000 คำ นอกจากนี้คะแนนเฉลี่ยของความรู้คำศัพท์เชิงวิชาการทั่วไปอยู่ในระดับที่ต่ำกว่า เกณฑ์ด้วย ส่วนคะแนนเฉลี่ยของความรู้คำศัพท์ในเชิงลึกนั้น อยู่ในระดับต่ำกว่า ร้อยละ 50 ผลการวิจัยนี้สรุปว่า กลุ่มตัวอย่างจำนวนมากกว่าร้อยละ 50 มีความรู้ คำศัพท์ไม่เพียงพอ ซึ่งจะเป็นอุปสรรคในการศึกษาต่อ ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการใช้ ภาษาอังกฤษในอนาคต

ศัพท์สำคัญ: ความรู้คำศัพท์ ความรู้คำศัพท์ในเชิงขนาด ความรู้คำศัพท์ในเชิง ลึก ความรู้คำศัพท์เชิงวิชาการทั่วไป

1.   Introduction

Vocabulary is not only the key to communication but it also allows the learners to develop other skills. Laufer and Sim (1985) stated that the most pressing needs of foreign language learning were vocabulary, subject matter knowledge and syntactic structure respectively. Accordingly, vocabulary size plays a key role in reading comprehension, fluency in speech, listening, and writing skills. It has been estimated that a native speaker's vocabulary size is approximately 20,000 word families and native speakers will add roughly 1,000 word families a year to their vocabulary size. (Nation & Waring 1997). In reality, the estimation of vocabulary used for daily communication was in the range of 3,000 to 10,000 words. Regarding the words that learners should know, there were different numbers of words required for L2 learners suggested by the researchers. Some researchers stated that 2,000 word families are the minimum amount required (Nation, 1993). Furthermore, some have mentioned that the L2 learners would need to know roughly 5,000 and preferably 10,000 words to cope well with English texts (Nation, 2004). Schmitt (2000) suggested that 5,000 words were required. However, the study conducted by Schmitt (2008) mentioned that knowledge of 3000 words was a threshold which should allow learners to begin to read authentic text. Additionally, Laufer (1997) has stated that the threshold vocabulary size essential for reading comprehension is at the 3000 words level.

Knowing a word means recognition of the word. According to Read (2000), Qian (2002) and Vermeer (2001), vocabulary knowledge consists of the two dimensions of breadth and depth. The vocabulary size or a number of words that one knows is defined as a breadth of vocabulary knowledge. Whereas vocabulary depth

refers to the quality of vocabulary knowledge that a person knows or how well one knows a specific word or set of words. Consequently, both vocabulary size and vocabulary depth should be significant for language learners in their vocabulary study. Furthermore, Nation (1990) stated that knowing just the meaning of a word was inadequate but knowing how to use a word fluently was also needed. There were eight kinds of word knowledge that native-speakers should possess. These were knowledge of a word's meaning, spoken form, written form, grammatical patterns (part-of-speech and derivative forms), collocations (other words which naturally occur together with the target word in text), frequency, associations (the meaning relationships of words i.e. *diamond - hard, jewelry, wedding*s), and stylistic restrictions (such as levels of formality and regional variation). From this perspective, measuring vocabulary size is insufficient to indicate the number of words a person should know. Depth of vocabulary knowledge is also needed in order to measure how well a person knows a word.

The importance of measuring the vocabulary knowledge of the students is to assess the language ability of the students that contributes to their academic success at the higher education level. As a result, some countries have set requirements for vocabulary knowledge the students should possess at each level. For example, the Chinese English Syllabus in 2001 required that Chinese students should learn to use 3,000 words at the high school level (Huang, 2007). In Taiwan, high school students were required to learn 5,500 words to meet the syllabus in 1997. In Thailand, there is some indication in the Thai curriculum of how many English words the Thai students should learn at each educational level. According to the Ministry of Education (2001), the core curriculum for national education at the basic level, out of eight core learning areas, English

was a compulsory subject. 12th grade graduates are supposed to obtain four language skills and are able to use the language in different ways such as communicating about their families, environment, occupations and science and technology. There are approximately 3,600-3,750 words with different levels of usage to be learned. Based on the minimum requirement of vocabulary knowledge determined in the Syllabus of some Asian countries, the estimation of words used for daily communication and some studies conducted by Schmitt and Laufer on the knowledge of 3000 words is the threshold for language learners to read authentic text. The 3000 words have been set as a minimum requirement for this study.

Although learning and teaching subjects at higher education institutions in Thailand are mostly conducted in the Thai language, it is necessary for university students to obtain sufficient English vocabulary for their academic study. Studying how many English words the Thai students know, particularly at the high school level, could be an indicator to assess the achievement of vocabulary teaching and learning in school compared with other countries in Asia. Additionally, measuring both vocabulary size and vocabulary depth of the students would lead to the school's actions in improving vocabulary learning materials which would be appropriate for students' need and requirement of vocabulary knowledge at the higher education level. Previous studies examining vocabulary size and depth of vocabulary are described below.

Measuring Vocabulary Size

Olmos (2009) measured the vocabulary size of students in the final year of high school education in Spain. The Vocabulary Levels Test was used in the study. It was found that no student had reached

the 3,000 and 5,000 word levels. A similar study was conducted in City University of Hong Kong by Cobb and Horst (1997). The first and the second year university students took the Vocabulary Levels Test designed by Nation in 1990. The results indicated that the two groups of students could in fact reach at the 2,000 and 3,000 word levels. It was interpreted that their knowledge at the 2,000 word level was derived from their formal secondary education. In other words, the Chinese students of City University had mastered vocabulary knowledge at the 2000 word level when they had graduated from high school.

Measuring Knowledge of Vocabulary Depth

Wesche and Paribakht (1996) stated that most research on L2 vocabulary acquisition focused on estimates of vocabulary size or 'breadth' measures rather than on the depth of vocabulary knowledge of specific words. As a result, measuring how well the given words are known became the limitation. In addition, research studies related to vocabulary depth focused on its relation to vocabulary breadth rather than solely measuring the vocabulary depth.

Qian (1998) conducted his study on the relationships among vocabulary size, depth of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension in English. The findings were that depth of vocabulary knowledge contributed to the predictions of reading comprehension and also played a role as the foundation of English language learner's reading comprehension processes.

As previously mentioned, English is one of the foreign languages that Thai students are required to study. The 1999 Education Act

emphasized the use of English for communication in the national curriculum. Correspondingly, the Ministry of Education launched the English Program (EP) for bilingual education to raise the quality of English learning and teaching at the school level. The model of bilingual education applied by the school is known as parallel immersion. The core subjects of English, Mathematics, Science and Social Studies are taught by foreign teachers without any language-switching occurring during instruction in class. In other words, the Thai core subjects and English grammar are taught in parallel with the English core subjects by Thai teachers. Consequently, the students in a bilingual school have a number of hours to be exposed to the English language more than that of the students in regular programs at other schools.

It is expected that students in the bilingual program should have higher proficiency levels than do students in the regular programs. Knowing the vocabulary sizes and vocabulary depth of these students would not only prepare them for studies at a higher education level but also provide feedback for improving the quality of teaching and learning through the medium of English for the bilingual program in Thailand.

Objectives of the Study

The aim of this study is to measure the vocabulary size and vocabulary depth of the 12th grade students in the bilingual school.

Research questions

       1. What is the vocabulary size of the students from Science-Maths and English-Maths programs of the final year of secondary education of the Suksa Bilingual School?

       2. What is the vocabulary depth of the students from Science-Maths and English-Maths programs of the final year of secondary education of the Suksa Bilingual School?

2.   Methodology

2.1 Participants

The participants were the 12th grade students from the Science-Maths and English-Maths programs of the Suksa Bilingual School, a fictitious name assigned to maintain the privacy and reputation of the school. The Suksa Bilingual School was selected for this study for being one of the first bilingual schools established in Thailand since 1995. The Science-Maths Program and the English-Maths Program are the major programs which most of the students at the secondary education have selected to study for the reason that both programs will offer them more alternative fields of study at the higher education level. For this reason, all students from the two programs are targeted for this study. The number of participants was approximately 104 participants that included 55 Science-Maths program students and 49 English-Maths program students. The participants were both male and female. They were studying in the first semester of the 2013 academic year. Regarding exposure to English language of the students in both programs, the Science-Maths program students have 6 periods per week to study English subjects whereas the English-Maths program students have 8

periods per week. The students of both programs are given 6 periods per week to learn the 3 core subjects in English that include mathematics, science and social studies.

Instruments

Two data-gathering instruments were used which are described in detail as follows:

1. Vocabulary Level Test (VLT) version 2

The Vocabulary Level Test is used to measure vocabulary size. According to Nation (2008) the test is readily available and widely used by researchers. The test has been well researched as well. The Vocabulary Level Test (VLT) was originally designed by Paul Nations and was described in Nation (1983 and 1990). It was further developed by Norbert Schmitt, Diane Schmitt and C. Clapham. The test was made in two equivalent forms and indicated as VLT version 1 and VLT version 2. According to Schmitt (2008) both version 1 and 2 provided valid results and produced similar scores. Due to its availability during the preparation of instruments, the VLT version 2 was used for this study. The VLT has five levels within the test which consists of the 2000, 3000, 5000, 10000 word levels and the academic word list level (AWL). The 2000 word level is the first section of the test. It includes the high frequency words of general vocabulary. A separate vocabulary size test of the 1000 high frequency words was not used together with VLT to measure the vocabulary knowledge at the 1000 word level for the reason that it was assumed the 12th grade students of the Bilingual Program should already have acquired vocabulary knowledge exceeding the 1000 word level. The 3000, 5000 and

10000 word levels are classified as low frequency words. The academic vocabulary is available as an academic word list level, in one section of the VLT (see more details in the next section).

The VLT contains 30 words or items per level in which 10 groups of 6 words are included. Each group of 6 words, in which 3 out of 6 words are distracters, is presented to match to 3 definitions. Every level of the VLT follows the same format. The VLT has been used by other researchers to measure learners' vocabulary size. It has been successful because it has shown itself to be a quick, reliable and effective tool for measuring the type and amount of vocabulary that students know. A sample test item is provided below.

This is a vocabulary test. You must choose the right word to go with each meaning. Write the number of that word next to its meaning. Here is an example.

1.   clerk
2.   frame
3.   noise   _____6_____a drink
4.   respect   _____1_____office worker
5.   theatre   _____3_____unwanted sound
6.   wine

From the example, as one of 10 groups in the VLT (at 2000 words level), there are three words tested (clerk, noise and wine) with another three distracters (frame, respect and theatre). All of these words are in the same word level.

Academic Word List Level (AWL)

The VLT includes one level test of academic vocabulary. It was designed to come after the first 2000 word level. Developed by A. Coxhead, the Academic Word List (AWL) was compiled from a diverse array of academic texts, with approximately 3.5 million running words. It consisted of 570 word families which were chosen

from all the selected texts. The AWL occurs in all four divisions of Commerce, Law, Science and Arts existing in 28 subject areas such as philosophy, finance and geography. It covered around 10% of running words in academic text, about 4% in newspapers and less than 2% in novels. The AWL is very important for the learners who learn English for academic purposes. The participants of this study intend to go on to academic study at university and they also studied their core subjects through the medium of English. Consequently, the AWL was thus used for this study to measure their general academic vocabulary knowledge. A sample of a test item from the AWL is given below.

1. access
2. gender   _____male or female
3. implementation   _____study of the mind
4. license   _____entrance or way in
5. orientation
6. psychology

2. The Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge Test (DVK)

The Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge Test (DVK) is used to measure the vocabulary depth. It was originally a word association test developed by John Read (Qian, 2004). The test was revised in 2004 by David Qian to assess vocabulary depth knowledge. The DVK measures two aspects of depth of vocabulary knowledge: a) word meaning, particularly polysemy and synonymy, and b) word collocation. The test is designed to produce verifiable evidence of how well the test takers know a target word. It involves a recognition task, where test takers select responses rather than recall them from memory. The DVK test was mostly used to identify the relationship between the depth of vocabulary knowledge and

the ability of learners in other aspects of language learning such as academic reading performance and the perceived ease of L2 lexical inferencing.

The DVK test includes 40 items. Each item consists of one stimulus word which is an adjective and two boxes in which each box contains four words. The box on the left is the word meaning section and the word collocation section is in the right box. One item has 4 correct answers. Among the four words in the left box, one to three words can be synonymous to one aspect of, or the whole meaning of, the stimulus word. Meanwhile among the four words in the right box, it could be one to three words which collocate with the stimulus word. A sample test item is provided below.

Direction: In the test, there are 40 items. Each item looks like this:
Sound

(A) logical (B) healthy (C) bold (D) Solid	(E) snow (F) temperature (G) sleep (H) dance

There are eight words in the two boxes, but only four of them are correct words.

In this example, there are three correct answers on the left (A, B, C) and one on the right (G), but in some other items there will be either one on the left and three on the right, or two on the left and two on the right.

Procedure

The study was divided into the following stages.

1. The participants were given 40 minutes to take the Vocabulary Level Test. They were instructed to skip the answer for any word for which they did not know its meaning. This was done so that the result of the test would not show actual vocabulary knowledge in the event that the guessed answer was fortunately correct. As the 3000 word level was determined as the threshold level for meeting the requirements of the 12th grade students in this study, the students were told to complete the test for the 3000 word level, the AWL level and the 5000 word level. They were allowed to stop the test at the 10000 word level if they found that the words were unknown to them at this level. More than 50% of students did not take the test at the 10000 word level. They said that they were not familiar with the words at this level.

2. The participants were given 1 period, or 50 minutes to take the Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge (DVK) test on the following day. The test includes 40 items of stimulus words with 4 correct answers for each item meaning that the test has 160 correct answers.

Data Analysis

1. *Vocabulary Level Test*: One score was given for a word which was matched to a correct definition. The scores were counted separately at each level providing a maximum score of 30. According to Nation (2008), knowing at least 27 out of 30 words at a given level is considered satisfactory. As a result, a cut-off point of

the score for this study was 27 or 90%. It implies that the participants who take the test at the 2000 word level of VLT and have achieved a score of 27 out of 30 have the vocabulary knowledge at the 2000 word level. The mean and standard deviation of the score of each individual participant at each word level (2000, 3000, 5000 and academic words) and the percentage of students who passed each word level were calculated.

2. *Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge Test:* The correct answer of each word is given one point, meaning that a maximum possible score is 160 points for 40 items or 4 correct answers per item. The word meaning section of the test comprised a total of 79 correct answers whereas there were 81 correct answers in the word collocation section. The means and standard deviation of the total scores, those of the word meaning section and the word collocation section were calculated. After that, the scores of the two sections were compared in order to see which section of depth of vocabulary students were likely to acquire more than the other. There is no indication to decide at what level of the DVK scores could be set as a minimum requirement. In this study, 50% of the DVK score was therefore used as a cut-off point to find how well the students who studied in the last year of secondary education know the word in terms of word meaning and word collocation.

3.   Results

To answer research question 1, the vocabulary sizes of the Science-Maths program students and the English-Maths program students, the results from the scores on the VLT test are presented as follows.

Table 1: Mean scores and standard deviation of students in different programs at the 2K, 3K and 5K words levels.

Participant	N	2K level		3K level		5K level	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Science-Maths Program students	55	25.13	4.51	20.00	5.90	13.09	6.96
English-Maths Program students	49	18.06	6.81	12.04	7.07	7.39	5.49
Science -Maths and English-Maths Programs students	104	21.80	6.70	16.30	7.70	10.40	6.90

Table 1 illustrates that the mean scores of the Science-Maths Program students and English-Maths Program students were 21.80 out of 30 at the 2K level, 16.30 at the 3K level and 10.40 at the 5K level. For the mean scores of Science-Maths Program students, they were 25.13 at the 2K level, 20.00 at the 3K level and 13.09 at the 5K level.

Obviously, the mean scores of English-Maths Program students at all levels were lower than those of the Science-Maths Program students and the mean scores of the combination of students in the two programs. The mean scores of English-Maths Program students were 18.06 at the 2K level, 12.04 at the 3K level and 7.39 at the 5K level.

To determine that the students have mastery of the vocabulary knowledge, they are expected to know at least 27 out of 30 words at each level of the test. This means the students whose scores range between 27 and 30 have reached a satisfactory level. From Table 1, the mean scores of the students in each vocabulary level were below 27 with a great value of standard deviation. However, the results revealed that some students could pass the test at both the 2000 and the 3000 word levels as illustrated in Figure 1and 2. The bar charts show the percentage of the number of students in both programs and the scores they got at the 2000 and 3000 word levels.
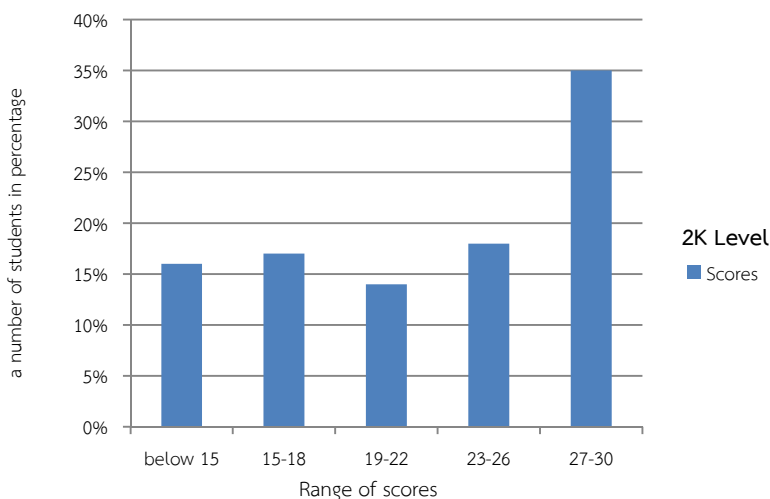

Figure 1: Percentage of the number of students and scores at the 2000 word level.

Figure 1 suggests that 35% of the students could reach the standard 2K level. In other words, 65% of students could not pass this level. The bar chart illustrated that 35% of the number of students in the Science-Maths Program and English-Maths Program scored between

27 and 30, followed by 18% for the scores between 23 and 26, 17% for the scores between 15 and 18, 16% for the scores below 15 and 14% for the scores between 19 and 22, respectively.
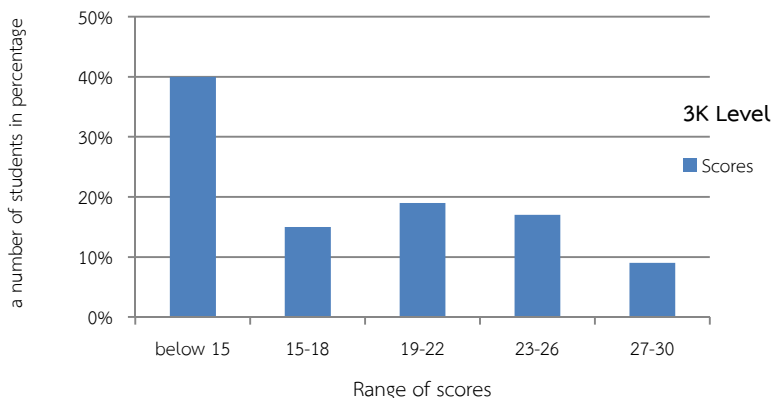

Figure 2: Percentage of the number of students and scores at the 3000 word level.

As shown in Figure 2, the highest percentage (40%) of students in the Science-Maths Program and English-Maths Program scored below 15, followed by 19% of the scores between 19 and 22, 17% of the scores between 23 and 26, 15% of the scores between 15 and 18 and 9% of the scores between 27 and 18 respectively. At the 3000 words level, 9% of the students could reach the standard of this level. Conversely, 91% of students could not pass the 3000 words level.

Since the AWL level was to measure the academic vocabulary, the result from this level of the test was presented separately from the other general English word level test. Table 2 is presented below to

describe the mean scores and standard deviation of students in different programs at the AWL level.

Table 2: Mean scores and standard deviation of students at the AWL level.

Participant	N	AWL level	
		Mean	SD
Science-Maths Program students	55	19.51	6.88
English-Maths Program students	49	12.04	7.07
Science -Maths and English-Maths Programs students	104	15.99	7.88

From Table 2, the academic word mean score of the Sceince-Maths Program students was 19.51. Meanwhile, the English-Maths Program students achieved a mean score of 12.04.

Overall, the mean score of the students in both programs was 15.99. The mean score of academic words of English-Maths Program students was lower than that of the Science-Maths Program students and the mean score of combination of the students in the two programs. Looking at the mean scores of the 5K level in Table 1 and that of the AWL level in Table 2, it should be noticeable that the mean scores at the AWL level were close to those at the 3000 word level.
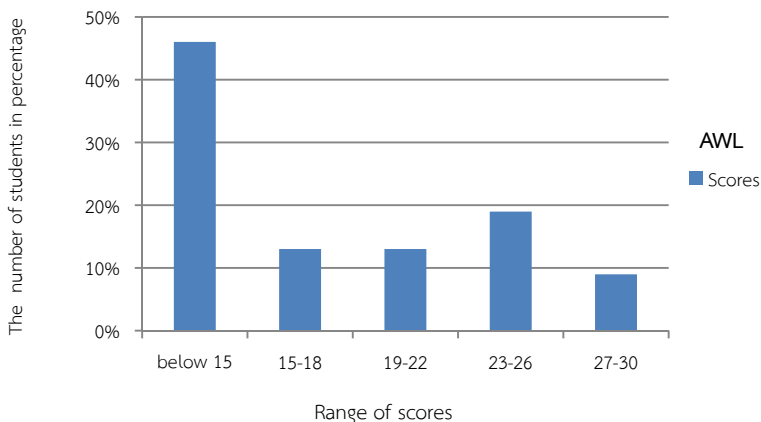
Figure 3: Percentage of the number of students and scores at the academic word list level.

As presented in Figure 3, 46 % of the students in the Science-Maths Program, and English Maths Program scored below 15, followed by 19% for the scores between 23 and 26, 13% for the scores between 15 and 18 and the scores between 19 and 22 and 9% for the scores between 27 and 30 respectively. To sum up, 9% of the students could reach the standard of the AWL level. Conversely, 91% of students could not pass the Academic Word List level. It was observed that the number of students who passed the 3000 word level were the same amount as that of the students who passed the AWL level.

The Scores of Vocabulary Depth

To answer research question 2, on the vocabulary depth of Science-Maths Program students and English-Maths Program students, the mean and standard deviations of students' vocabulary depth test are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Mean scores and standard deviation of students' vocabulary depth test.

Participant	N	word meaning scores (out of 79)		Word collocation scores (out of 81)		Total scores of vocabulary depth (out of 160)	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Science-Maths Program students	55	27.98	16.79	23.22	13.95	51.20	29.91
English-Maths Program students	49	14.98	11.18	12.16	9.70	27.14	20.25
Science-Maths and English-Maths Programs students	104	21.86	15.76	18.01	13.29	39.87	28.38

From Table 3, overall, the mean of word meaning scores were higher than the means of word collocation scores. Regarding the mean of word meaning scores, the Science-Maths Program students scored 27.98. Meanwhile the English-Maths Program students scored 14.98 and 21.86 for the Science-Maths and English Maths Program students.

Regarding the mean of word collocation scores, the Science-Maths Program students scored 23.22. The English-Maths Program students scored 12.16 whereas the Science-Maths and English Maths Program students scored 18.01.

Obviously, the mean scores of word meaning and word collocation of the Science-Maths Program students were higher than those of the English-Maths Program students. Accordingly, the mean score of vocabulary depth of the Science-Maths Program students was higher than that of the English-Maths Program students.

4.　Discussions

1.　*Vocabulary size*

Based on the results, the mean scores of the students' vocabulary knowledge were below 27 at all levels, meaning that the students could not reach the minimum level needed to show mastery of the vocabulary knowledge (see Table 1). It seemed to be in harmony with the results from the study of Olmos (2009) which demonstrated that the mean scores of 2K, 3K and 5K levels of the final year students in a High School in Murcia, Spain were below the minimum level. Kalajahi and Pourshahian (2012) carried out a study on vocabulary learning strategies and vocabulary size of the first year undergraduate ELT students at Eastern Mediterranean University in Northern Cyprus, and the findings revealed that the mean scores of vocabulary knowledge at 2K, 3K and AWL levels were a bit higher than those of the students in this study. However, they were below 27 as well.

Similarly, the mean score of the students' academic word knowledge could not reach the minimum requirement (see Table 2). Interestingly, it was likely that the level of difficulty of vocabulary knowledge at 3K level was equivalent to that of the AWL level. The evidence was that the mean score of the 3K level was more or less similar to the mean score of the AWL level (see Table 1&2). Furthermore, a number of students who passed the 3000 words and the AWL levels were the same as mentioned in the previous section. It was assumed that the students who know the words at 3K level probably know the words at AWL level or vice versa. This assumption could be explained with the reason that the words from the list of the 3K words level are excluded from a list of the high frequency words which appear at the 2K word level. In the meantime, the words from the AWL level are the academic vocabulary that was compiled with the exclusion of the 2000 high frequency words. In other words, the opportunities for students to gain exposure to the words at 3K level might be the same as those at the AWL level.

According to the results of the study, the vocabulary knowledge of the Science-Maths program students was higher than the English-Maths students. This can be seen from the result that the mean scores of the Science-Maths Program students at all levels were higher than those of the English-Maths Program students. Based on the study schedule, the English-Maths Program students had 8 periods per week to learn English meanwhile the Science-Maths Program students had 6 periods of learning English. The reason for the contradictory result could be that most of the students who studied in the Science-Maths Program tended to have high ability in learning English language.

Furthermore, it was clearly seen from the results that the Science-Maths Program students know more academic English words than the English-Maths Program students. In fact, the students in both programs studied the core subjects; English, Science, Maths and Social Studies for 6 periods per week. They therefore had the same numbers of periods of exposure to the academic words. A possible reason was that the background knowledge of the Science-Maths Program students in academic words was greater than that of English Maths program students. To support this point, most students who made a choice to study in the English-Maths Program were those who were poor in science. They thought that language learning was probably less difficult than science. Meanwhile, they also lacked a solid foundation of English language learning. For this reason, they were not able to have academic success in both English as well as other core subjects being taught through the medium of English. It is concluded that both knowledge of the English language and relevant subject matters contribute to the academic success of the learners. In other words, the two components complement each other.

2.　*Vocabulary depth*

As presented in Table 3, it was evident that on average, the mean scores of vocabulary depth of both programs were much lower than 50% of total scores. Comparing the knowledge of word meaning with that of word collocation, the students seemed to have more knowledge of word meaning than word collocation. It responds to the issue that language learning will take place through meaning-focused receptive and productive language use. The learners need to memorize the meaning of the word and are able to use it in speaking and writing. In order to develop fluency, the language

learners may need to encounter the language chunks in the form of collocational sequences many times and then practice speaking and writing. Therefore, acquiring knowledge on collocation tends to be more complicated than word meaning knowledge. Accordingly, it was found that most vocabulary teaching and learning activities in class generally focus on word-meaning memorization rather than word collocations which will develop students' abilities in writing and speaking. Moreover, a time allocation of 4 periods per week for English class in school could limit the balance for language content to be taught.

Apparently, the pattern of mean scores of students' vocabulary size for the Science-Maths Program students and the English-Maths Program students was similar to that of that students' vocabulary depth (see Table 1&3). It supports the study of Nurweni & Read (1999) that suggests there is a possible strong link between depth and breadth or size of vocabulary knowledge. Furthermore, the study conducted by Vermeer (2001) revealed that vocabulary size and depth tended to grow in parallel. She also mentioned that when looking at breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge from an assessment perspective, both dimensions seemed to ubiquitously be highly correlated with each other. The connection between the breadth and the depth was concluded to be that the learners who know more words would be able to describe a stimulus word in greater depth.

5. Implications

The two dimensions of vocabulary knowledge, depth and breadth, contribute to the academic success of the learners. Since the participants' vocabulary knowledge is below the minimum

requirement, it is important for the language teachers to focus their teaching on both dimensions. In order to increase the students' vocabulary knowledge, the teaching and learning activities should be designed in a way that allow students to have more exposure to the words through reading, listening and speaking as well as extra formal study of the words, their collocations, associations, different meanings and grammar. In addition, the teachers should raise students' awareness of collocations and guide the students to notice the collocations when they occur so that they can build their own knowledge of collocation.

It is proposed that the school use a vocabulary level test to measure the vocabulary knowledge of the students at the commencement of an academic year for the upper secondary level. The objective is to diagnose the areas of vocabulary that the students know well and what they do not know. As a result, the language teachers will know the gap between the requirement of vocabulary knowledge level and the students' knowledge level. It will help the teachers better prepare teaching materials and teaching methods that are suitable for the ability and needs of the students especially to assist the weak students. Laufer and Nation (1999) mentioned that it was worthy for the language learners to pay attention to the 2000 high frequency words. Then, the words in the third, fourth, fifth 1000 levels should be taught onwards. Based on the result of study, it is recommended that the teachers should firstly put an emphasis on teaching the 2000 word level prior to the other word levels.

Due to the use of the English language as a medium for teaching the core subjects for the secondary education of the bilingual program, the academic vocabulary should also be taught explicitly to improve the ability to learn subject matter. As the

academic word list is designed to come after the first 2000 word level, it therefore depends on the teachers' decision and the policy of the school to choose at what level between the 3000 word level and the academic word list should be taught after the high frequency word level.

It is recommended that the content-based instruction or Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) could be one of the options for the school to be applied for the current teaching methods of the bilingual program. Stoller (2002) stated that through content-based instruction, which allowed the students to use prior knowledge of some of the topics learned in their L1 facilitated the comprehension and learning of them in English. Such an approach would increase the students' motivation in the sense that the topics, materials and activities used in class are relevant, meaningful, interesting and useful to them at present and in the future.

6.   Conclusion

The objective of this study was to measure the two dimensions of vocabulary knowledge of the 12th grade students in the bilingual school. The mean score of vocabulary depth of the participants in this study were lower than 50% of the total score. Furthermore, their vocabulary size or breadth could not reach the threshold level of 3000 words. It was below the 2K level on average. As a result, it confirmed that more than 50% of the participants had some vocabulary deficiencies that would hinder their academic progress.

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From Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Using English as a Global language: Another Look at Pedagogy for English Education in Thailand

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ABSTRACT

Teaching English in non-English environments has been found problematic in countless studies. When it comes to the language skills of teachers, especially non-native English speaking teachers, the superiority of native speakers in such skills as listening and speaking, reading and vocabulary even causes these non-native teachers, including those in Thai educational contexts, to feel insecure. This is even truer as we have been bombarded with a lot of change in political and educational arenas. To survive with more confidence in teaching, we may take into account critical perspectives in teaching, the new status of English through the lens of World Englishes, and approaches to English instruction so we can train Thai students to be ready for any demanding tasks in job markets—local and regional—where their language competence and cultural identities should both be emphasized.

Keywords: Thailand's English education, English as a global language, critical perspectives, World Englishes, post-method teaching approaches

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บทคัดย่อ

　　　　การสอนภาษาอังกฤษในบริบทที่ไม่ใช่เจ้าของภาษามีปัญหามากมาย และในเรื่องของทักษะทางภาษาของผู้สอนเองโดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งผู้สอนที่ไม่ใช่ เจ้าของภาษานั้น พบว่าผู้สอนมักไม่มีความมั่นใจในความสามารถของตนทั้ง ทักษะการฟัง การพูด การอ่าน และความรู้ด้านคำศัพท์ เมื่อเทียบกับ ความสามารถของเจ้าของภาษา ซึ่งปัญหาดังกล่าวเป็นปัญหาที่เกิดขึ้นกับผู้สอน ชาวไทยเช่นกันโดยเฉพาะอย่างยิ่งในภาวะที่เกิดกระแสการเปลี่ยนแปลงมากมาย ทั้งในเรื่องการเมืองการปกครองและการศึกษา ในการแก้ปัญหาดังกล่าวและเพื่อ เสริมสร้างความมั่นใจของผู้สอนให้มากขึ้น ผู้สอนอาจพิจารณาการผสมผสาน แนวคิดเชิงวิพากย์ สถานภาพของภาษาอังกฤษตามแนวคิดภาษาอังกฤษนานา โลก ตลอดจนแนวคิดในการสอนภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อช่วยผู้เรียนชาวไทยให้มีความ พร้อมตามความต้องการของตลาดแรงงานทั้งในประเทศไทยและประเทศเพื่อน บ้านซึ่งทุกบริบทต้องการผู้เรียนที่มีความสามารถทั้งทางภาษาและอัตลักษณ์ทาง วัฒนธรรมในระดับสูง

คำสำคัญ: การสอนภาษาอังกฤษในประเทศไทย　ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาโลก
　　　　　　แนวคิดเชิงวิพากย์　ภาษาอังกฤษนานาโลก　แนวคิดยุคหลังการใช้
　　　　　　วิธีสอนตามแนวเจ้าของภาษา

1. Introduction

Methodology in ELT has been placed with a number of stumbling blocks, one of which is the notion of competence (see Kirkpatrick, 2007; McKay, 2002; McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008; Pennycook, 1994; Sung, 2012). A number of studies were conducted through the lens of teaching methods, classroom management, learning motivation, and technology-assisted instruction, to name but a few. However, such attempts have rarely located possible culprits and thus left the diseases untreated. Very few researchers and practitioners have realized the discrepancy between the pedagogical principles imposed by outsider scholars, and EFL learners born and bred in different socio-cultural worlds (Jin & Cortazzi, 1996; Sampson, 1984). To extend the learners' learning opportunities and liberate them from the native hegemony, EFL/ESL teachers with reflective teaching should consequently evaluate the perspectives that foreshadow such misused pedagogy so any content and teaching-learning focus can serve the learners' needs more satisfactorily.

 How do we EFL/ESL teachers design our instruction? If wishing to do so, what perspectives do we need to consider? What are the learners' needs that entail the classroom teaching and development of teacher-made materials? What factors do those teachers need to take into account if being to depart from such bandwagon pedagogy? These questions will lead us to a new look of our practice.

Given an increasing number of speakers of English as a foreign/second language, the current status of English as an

international language welcomes the language authority and norms
of these speakers (Phillipson, 1997), and English is thus considered a
very important tool for intercultural communication (Seidlhofer,
2003). Accordingly, critical pedagogy gives some questions about
learners' authority and identity, and a new role of English as a
medium for cross-cultural communication, all of which put more
emphasis on respect for difference, rather than conformity based on
the monolingual model. The perspectives with such concerns have
contributed to considerable changes in cultural, intellectual and
economic dimensions (Jenkins, 2005b).

This is especially true for Thai learners who will be encountering a
large number of obstacles, as a result of change, in not only regional
but also global alliances like the ASEAN community. While a number
of sectors—both governmental and educational—are responding to
this new socio-economic commitment with enthusiasm, how many
are seeing a larger number of threats crawling and attacking some
individual countries who have not prepared themselves properly in
terms of educational foundation, economic infrastructure, cultural
identities, and, perhaps, most importantly, certain policies of
national language and additional ones for economic or international
activities. For English, which will clearly function in interface
cultures, what, why, and how we teach the language should be
reflected clearly. Despite these alarming changes, there is still a
conspiracy of silence in ELT worlds. The teachers, especially those
aspired "to develop in learners a native speaker communicative and
cultural competence," regardless of the teaching contexts Risager
mentioned in her work (1998, p. 244), should realize that we for a
while need to put aside our dream to create perfect native-like

learners, the end product of capitalism-oriented pedagogy. Instead, we, with our collective force, should deconstruct such prescribed methods of teaching, that we have been prescribed for a long time, listen to students' voices, and consider their actual needs. Through the new status of English, along with perspectives of critical linguistics, students' awareness of and attitudes toward English varieties and the consequences for society (see Kachru, 1996) in relation to ELT applications should be explored in individual EFL contexts to develop effective resources for EFL/ESL instruction (Seidlhofer, 2003). In this paper, I consequently discuss perspectives in relation to ELT practice with the hope to help Thai researchers and teachers to equip students with the skills necessary for new types of society.

2. Method in ELT

Theory suggests good practice. But it is truer that best practice relies on sensible theory. Method, among three important elements of ELT practice—approach, methods and technique, has been defined in different ways. Method is viewed not only as a holistic concept covering approaches, design, and procedures (Richards and Rogers, 2003), and theoretical perspectives underlying teaching/learning activities (Prabhu, 1990), but also as a more specific, systematic scheme for instruction of language oriented to theoretical assumptions (Anthony, 1963). In this paper, I position my view with Anthony's, where I also consider approach as a theoretical set that highlights method at such a specific level as classroom activities.

Since the 1950s, approaches and methods in ELT have undergone many changes— audio-lingual method and silent way, suggestopedia and total physical response, tasked-based and content-based instruction, lexical and corpus-based instruction. The newer, the better, a fallacy has made us in a quest of a more fashionable method, jumping from one to another ceaselessly. Salmani-Nodoushan (2006) divides method into three periods, two of which—the method and the post method periods—are of use to practitioners to understand such a quest. In the early period, method was viewed both positively and negative. How Mackey (1950) viewed language instruction is sensible as it included selecting teaching content, sequencing such content, delivering the knowledge by means of instruction, and repeated practice. Although this view is limited to the form and skills of language, it could help teachers understand the very concept of method of this period fairly well. Another helpful view is by Larsen-Freeman (1986), seeing method as insightful as a result of perspectives in applied linguistics and a blessing for instructional activities and procedures. Considering the merit of method, Richards (1990) even argues that it has "a life beyond the classroom" (p. 13).

Despite many more theorists advocating the use of method in classroom teaching, the concept has declined over time due to some perspectives. Agreed among these are some limitations the traditional concept of method offers. That said, there is no purest form of method in practice; method fails for generalizable effects; method is beforehand prescribed; method marginalizes teachers limiting themselves in corners of submissive roles (Akbari, 2008). More alarming are the views that method is used as a tool for those

business educators to designate what method will survive or disappear through publishing houses (Richards, 1990, 2000), and that teaching method was one of the ways to translate linguistic-imperialist messages (see Pennycook, 1994; Tollefson, 1995; Holliday, 1994).

This led educators to the period that follows—the post method period, where a lot of attempts have been made to explore an alternative to method, rather than an alternative method, where new method is not needed, and where language instruction can be achieved with some considerations of critical factors, such as classroom contexts, negotiated interaction, on-going reflection, and more, rather than with relying completely on certain methods or approaches. Here Gebhard's (2005) views are closely related to these suggested ideas. As Gebhard suggests, teachers' empirical exploration of our classroom practice is a paramount requirement. In successful teaching, teachers like us need to develop ourselves by exploring our teaching, "to transcend the idea that development should be based only on the concept of improvement" (p. 2). What can we do to achieve so? In my view, best practice has never come without guiding research findings and theoretical perspectives, so teachers with an 'inner' voice of explorations, need to consult some related factors —critical theory, world Englishes, and some guiding perspectives for classroom practice by Brown (2001, 2002) and Kumaravadivelu (1994, 2001, 2003, 2005, 2006).

3.   Critical Theory

When designing course syllabi or lesson plans for any micro teaching, it is important that teachers first of all reexamine the status of English and instructional contexts so we can translate such ideological perspectives to classroom instruction more effectively. Localized instruction, as I mentioned elsewhere (Thongrin, 2008, 2009a, 2009b, in press), should be a suitable shelter to which teachers resort, and such a good shelter needs to rest on theoretical perspectives, and, at the same time, hold an emic approach, a culturally anthropological investigation of local people's view (Kottak, 2006), by reflecting how such flexible structures of theory shape those local meanings provided by students, and vice versa. The political notion of ELT has been raised by several icons (see Pennycook, 1994). The status quo of ELT has been attached to English education and ingrained "in the rhythms and textures of culture, consciousness, and everyday life" (Apple, 1990, xi). In teaching, pedagogy is important, but pedagogy without localized considerations would harm, rather than help, the students of such individual contexts.

Critical pedagogy, educational philosophy described by Paulo Freire, helps teachers see another angle of classroom practice more clearly. When planning for teaching, we take a closer look at three main principles of this critical perspective (see Freire, 1970). First, we should take into account students' locality or lived experience. Second, what we teach should depend on students' voices and needs (Christie, 1990; Cope & Kalantzis, 1993), rather than on prescriptive, fashionable methods. Students learning English as an

additional language, of course, hold with them unique needs different from those speaking English as a mother tongue. Third, language teachers as political agents look into practice in their target society, analyze opportunities to encourage students' equality, and implement them in their classroom practice, a very small but powerful simulated world. In this regard, teachers are important agents for implanting "conscientization" (consciousness) in students. Implanted gradually with critical minds, students will finally be able to evaluate their education settings and connect their problems and experiences to their own society. Clearly, teachers are expected to encourage the transformed society through the formation between theory and practice, thinking and doing (Giroux, 1988). Teachers with awareness of critical pedagogy, when considering classroom practice an inherently political activity, try to explore more possibilities so those marginalized by gender, race, or social class can be included and counted as community members (Giroux, 1983). In language teaching, it is essential that a teacher incorporate perspectives in critical theory into any teaching scheme. What do we do to design courses with students' inner voice and needs? How can we prepare students for their future workplaces? How do we spell out equality issues in the language classroom so we equip students for a changing society beforehand? In my view,   language teachers with awareness in critical perspectives first and foremost connect students' backgrounds to classroom practice and foster democratic education using language classrooms as platforms for students' transformation (Thongrin, in press). In ELT practice, this critical look can be integrated into classroom teaching through perspectives in World

Englishes—realistic perspectives that help us hold self-reliant teaching methods.

4. World Englishes

 The perspective of World Englishes, localized, non-native forms of English not restricted to conventional English, has been debated, thus questioning the conventional practice in English instruction and creating ill feelings as a result of two extremes between native and non-native teachers. A number of studies have been conducted to explore students' attitudes toward some certain norms of English and multiple localized forms. Such studies have been in unison, putting more emphasis on the new roles of English and the three-circle model by Kachru (1985) who simply reorganizes roles of English in particular regions, all of which have unfortunately been right there politically—the Inner Circle (IC), the Outer Circle (OC), and the Expanding Circle (EC), representing English used as a native language in such economically powerful countries as the United States or the United Kingdom, as a second language by the population of countries with a history of English colonialism, and as a foreign language in countries that were not colonized by any English native-speaking countries, like Japan, Korea, or Thailand. This distinction, however, rarely responds to ELT practitioners' needs to design classroom instruction (Jenkins, 2002, 2005a, 2005b; Kirkpatrick, 2007; McKay, 2003; Shin, Eslami & Chen, 2011; Thongrin, in press). This is strengthened by McKay's (2003) view, arguing that the cultures of IC countries seen as the rich resources for the CLT approach result in some undesirable effects, the "common assumptions of ELT pedagogy" (p. 3):

- Interest in learning English is largely the result of linguistic imperialism.
- ELT research and pedagogy should be informed by native speaker models.
- The cultural content for ELT should be derived from the cultures of native English speakers.
- The culture of learning that informs communicative language teaching (CLT) provides the most productive methods for ELT.

Teaching approaches following the cultures of such IC countries fail to consider the fact that the number of speakers of English in the other circles has been increasing. As a result, the changing status of English and "a new pedagogy" (McKay, 2003, p. 3) are needed. With this conflicting view, Kirkpatrick's (2007) three model analysis, though more or less related to Kachru's model, is helpful for us to translate the concept of World Englishes into classroom practice. First, an exonormative native speaker model is oriented to the norms by native English speakers, thus viewed as the "proper" model with "prestige and legitimacy" (p. 184) for the users of English in most OC and EC countries due to some characteristics of standard English, such as being codified, measured, and rich in resources. Second, the endonormative nativised model is a localized form of English, which requires local teachers, as insiders of social norms, to put together students' socio-cultural background and English instruction with cultural awareness. Although this model is quite promising for teaching English in non-English environments, it is restricted by some limitations, such as insufficient resources and the language, both of which may cause students' lower abilities.

The drawbacks found in the second model, fortunately, open more opportunities as the third model, where students learn English as a lingua franca model for students in OC and EC countries. However, that the language is not codified has caused some shortcomings. Consequently, it is considered an approach to language teaching that encourages students to become culturally competent communicators.

 There have been some attempts adapting these models of World Englishes. Jenkins' series of works (2002, 2005a, 2005b) with emphasis on pronunciation teaching demonstrates well how much she encourages emancipatory language education. For instance, in her 2005a, 2005b works, Jenkins addresses flexibility and intelligibility in pronunciation and grammar as those speakers who use English as a global language still have their own unique Englishes based on their cultural backgrounds and specific needs. While Some sounds, such as /th/ initial sound, /k, p, t/ aspirated sounds, initial clusters, short-long vowel contractions, should be the core features of pronunciation, some sounds like /r/ flexibility should be regarded as non-core features and should be tolerant as long as intelligibility is maintained (Jenkins, 2002).

All the attempts Jenkins and Kirkpatrick have made convince me that some justified models of world English can be spelled out in real-world ELT. Possible implementations, though crating some conflicts between related stakeholders, can accommodate Thai EFL teachers and researchers who support critical pedagogy in language classrooms. As I mentioned in my book chapter (Thongrin, in press), Kirkpatrick's models can be applied in ELT of both OC and EC

countries. Equipping EFL students with the English native speaker model and knowing varieties of English, we will see them use English in their future workplaces fluidly and satisfactorily.

> Imagine young Asian students learning English with native- and non-native teachers, and Asian undergraduates exposed to both standard English and more varieties of English. Such wider channels of English will open the learners' view and expand their abilities, and they will thus become professionals in their future workplace well equipped with language ability and awareness of their own culture. (Thongrin, in press)

What these liberal educators try to announce entails what we language teachers should do in teaching, where we seek help from nowhere but our own locality.

The suggestions by Brown and Kumaravadivelu correspond to this view.

5.   Principled Approach to Language Teaching

A series of works by Brown (1997, 2001, 2002) and Kumaravadivelu (1994, 2001, 2003, 2005, 2006) provide us with flexible but applicable ideas in any language settings. Brown's (2002) theoretical rationale, a theoretical assumption or "a dynamic composite of energies within a teacher that changes…with continued experience in learning and teaching," can explain what, why and how we teach through the applications of his twelve principles, which I reorganize

as three sub-groups based on their shared entities. The first group is related to students' cognitive processing including five principles: (a) meaningful learning that will then contribute to students' long-term retention, (b) automaticity, students' learning development in second language learning started with controlled modes moved on to the automatic processing, (c) students' interlanguage achieved through proper teacher feedback, (d) students' communicative competence including organizational abilities, pragmatic use, strategies, and skills, and (e) language ego, the students' new ways of learning, thinking, and becoming in learning a new language.

To achieve such goals, teachers need to consider another five principles which I put into the second group indicating importance of learning-environment and students' affective factors—(a) anticipation of reward affectively fostering students' learning behaviors, (b) intrinsic motivation or students' self rewarding to sustain such learning behaviors, (c) students' investment of time and attention to learning tasks and producing the language, (d) students' risk-taking behaviors helping them to go through learning processes, and (e) students' self confidence in learning a new language. The third reclassified group contains two principles—teachers' awareness in language-culture connection to be incorporated into language teaching, and the use of students' native language in both negative and facilitative ways

As we can see, these twelve principles represent theoretical assumptions that teachers take on as approaches to language teaching. With the cognitive elements, we set them as the course goals and thus translate them using the principles in relation to

classroom atmosphere and students' motivation. The elements of language and culture, and the use of students' mother tongue in teaching-learning processes inform us of the sensitive issues, that we sometimes neglect their effective use, so we can run our classroom more directionally. Implementing Brown's principled approach into language teaching, we can free ourselves from such confined methods, and thus listen to students' voices clearly and serve their needs more.

In addition to Brown's guiding principles, another appearing helpful for instruction seems to be Kumaravadivelu's "higher order tenets of language pedagogy" (p. xv), a term he calls in his 2006 work to support teachers to depart from such prescribed methods, are apparently sensible. The three parameters of post-method pedagogy he intensifies (2001) best correspond to the nature of language teaching in non-English contexts with a lot of socio-economic, political changes like the AEC.

First, the parameter of particularity keeps us informed about contextualized instruction which can be translated into the goals and processes of teaching. Taking the AEC into account, we may prepare students by equipping them with not only a few forms of standard English but also some varieties of English probably happening in Malaysia, Vietnam or Singapore. Particular aspects of English used in these regions can be incorporated into a course design or school curricular. Simply memorizing factual information of those country members like their capitals, national dresses, traditional festivals, to name just a few, is quite useless as knowing about such superficial facts rarely represents reality of culture,

although these facts are often used as one of the popular activities in school. However, when these issues are brought into some classroom-related action like materials design or lesson planning, they become rich linguistically, culturally, and most importantly, ideologically. Kumaravadivelu's (2001) second parameter of selecting instructional methods is practicality, where a theory-practice dichotomy should be ended but understood as a continuum of teachers' reflection and action along the way of classroom exploration. For plausibility, the third parameter of a post-methods method, as influenced by Freirean's critical pedagogy, indicates teachers' will to encourage subjective understanding and social equality through classroom settings. Concerned with sociopolitical reality lying behind students' cultural identities, teachers create classrooms with empowerment providing opportunities for students to challenge, question, and seek truth from authority in terms of subjectivity and self identity. This, once again, helps individuals realize culturally who they are before we teach them to accept and respect differences in a more globalizing world. With these flexible parameters of pedagogy, we can adjust our instruction to suit students' socio-cultural backgrounds, best serve their needs, and receive positive results of pedagogy, subsequently contributing to, though partly, substantive growth of the country.

As flexible classroom pedagogy for teachers, Kumaravadivelu (2006) provides ten principles used as macrostrategic framework for L2 instruction: maximizing learning opportunities, facilitating interaction, minimizing perceptual mismatches, activating intuitive heuristics, fostering language awareness, contextualizing linguistic input,

integrating language skills, promoting learner autonomy, ensuring social relevance, and raising cultural consciousness.

However, there is no one-size-fits-all phenomenon. Despite a great deal of enthusiastic advocates of such a non-prescriptive practice, many critics still point out some difficulties. As Kumaravadivelu (2003, 2005) realizes, teachers' certain set of beliefs and mentality seem to be main barriers, keeping them standing frozen in their old practice. Also, some critics claim that the ideas mentioned are not new. The notion of particularization has been mentioned by Probhu (1990) through the concept of contextualized instruction in applied methodology. It is also the same as the English for specific purposes approach, where teachers are encouraged to take on the ethnographers' roles when designing any courses in which they have little knowledge. In addition, the plausibility parameter is one of the concepts in critical pedagogy Paulo Freire puts in the hope to liberate schoolers (Mahmoodzade, 2011). Still, Bygate, Skehan, and Swain (2001) even downplay the post-methods method as another form of Communicative Language Teaching approach. By nature, this kind of method, which combines a large number of principles drawn from multiple fields, such as language acquisition, classroom teaching, teacher development, educational psychology, and cultural anthropology into its principles, seems to be part of an eclectic fashion; however, Kumaravadivelu technically defines the term(s) to suit his personalized vision for language teaching. In the midst of chaos, the guidelines given in Kumaravadivelu's works are, however, still of use to language teachers to translate the ideas into actual practice delightfully.

The awareness of such issues in critical perspectives, World Englishes, and more alternatives to language teaching should keep us well informed of what we should consider for effective teaching as long as we tend to explore what works and what does not in our practice. For example, in one of my teaching materials set out to help Thai high school teachers with contextualized writing instruction through the use of culturally local resources (Thongrin, 2012), I designed a lesson carrying a Buddhist view, one of the traits in Thai cultural identities, as in the following:

Creative Writing: Read, Think & Write
Animal Problems
Objective: to describe suffering animals and generate critical ideas for problem solving
Language Function: description
Procedure
Warm-up
1. Divide students into groups of three/four.
2. Distribute a copy of the problem email written by a hen.

Dear Any kind person,
        I am a very sad hen. I have been cooped up in a cage at a big factory for a long time. All I see is four walls, a roof and my feeding master. My job is to eat, to poo, and most   importantly,   to   lay

eggs—many a day. All I want is FREEDOM! Occasionally many visitors observe me for some reason and just walk away. Now I know that I am getting older and older. The master will not feed me any more as I no longer give him as many eggs as before. I will be killed and my meat will be processed for fried chicken with tomato sauce, then packed and sold in many convenience stores. I keep dreaming of the world outside. I want to have a small family and house in the country side. What can I do? Please help out.

Poor Hen

3. Ask students to brainstorm for suggestions and reply to the hen.

4. Ask each group to select an animal and imagine severe problems it might have. (students' imagination is needed here.)

5. Ask them to write a letter or email according to their invented problems.

6. When finishing, the group trades the problem letter to another group to solve the problem.

Example

Poor Hen,

Your problem is very tough. It is hard for you to escape or for anyone else to help out. This is because the owners of that commercial farm have invested a great amount of money in their business, and you are one who can amount of money in their business, and you are one who can

return them some benefits. We are Buddhist. My point is that you should accept your "*kamma.*" While not being able to solve any problems, you may try two important missions. First, be patient; this is a fact of life. Second, practice meditating so that you rest in peace after you are killed. I believe meditation can cut your *kamma* and help you get into heaven after death. Don't forget to make a wish, a very important wish—not to be born a hen again.

Hope this helps.
A Novice Monk

Possible Problems

Students may have difficulty generating ideas for writing in the first place. Teachers should put the students with mixed language abilities and creativity in the same groups so they help fill in any gap in the groups. For example, the students with creative ideas can take important roles in generating interesting theme while competent learners can help those improvers with language.

(Thongrin, 2012, pp. 159-160)

The role of an old hen suffering his life problem was assigned as an input to stimulate students' creativity and critical thinking; a novice monk portrayed Buddhists, Thai students, who would solve the problems through the lens of Buddhism, their cultural reality. This means the activity is flexible for teachers in the southern part of Thailand, where some cultural values can be adapted, and where teachers like us can make some changes based on their teaching context all the time.

Admittedly, while writing this material, I was free from any prescriptive methods. Rather, what I at that time had in mind was

my teaching belief that students can learn best under their situated learning and their cultural reality, and that Thai high school teachers should eventually make use of their contextualized instruction.

What we can do for our classroom practice will truly depend on what results we want to see as the class ends. If nothing else, what McKay and Bokhorst-Heng (2008, p. 195-197) suggest for today's English curriculum could be one of the sources we go for:

- EIL curricula should be relevant to the domains in which English is used in the particular learning contexts.
- EIL professionals should strive to alter language policies that serve to promote English learning only among the elite of the country.
- EIL curricula should include examples of the diversity of English varieties used today.
- EIL curricula need to exemplify L2-L2 interactions.
- Full recognition needs to be given to the other languages spoken by English speakers.
- EIL should be taught in a way that respects the local culture of learning.

So much for our effort.

7. Final Remark

As the post-methods method is closely, or inherently, related to or concepts of postmodernism, reactions to or attempts departing from some grand theories seemingly trying to totalize knowledge or

human activities, research in and of itself departs from a positivist perspective to a constructivist one, where meaning and knowledge are sought through a socially constructed reality. As a result, teachers become "a primary source of knowledge about teaching" (Crandall, 2000, p. 35). Related to this is a shift of teachers' roles from solely passive recipients of prescribed methods to active participants taking part in the process of making meaning. (Kumaravadivelu (1994, 2006; Pennycook, 1989): "it is teachers who have to act as mediators between theory and practice, between the domain of disciplinary research and pedagogy" (Widdowson, 1990, p. 22). This seems to be easier said than done, however. "All teachers by default," mentions Akbary (2008, p. 648), "are qualified or willing to conduct a postmethod class with all its social, cognitive, political, and cultural requirements." Although some may doubt this, I believe that our voice and views as learners and teachers using English as an additional language certainly encourage us to voice ourselves, to resist the orthodox, and to take care of students regardless of race, class, or gender so our students can survive in the era of diversity. "It is not the strongest or the most intelligent who will survive but those who can best manage change." What Charles Darwin said is so true.

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หลักเกณฑ์การเสนอบทความเพื่อพิมพ์
ในวารสารศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยอุบลราชธานี

วารสารศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยอุบลราชธานี เป็นวารสารที่มุ่ง เผยแพร่บทความวิชาการและบทความจากการวิจัยทางด้านมนุษยศาสตร์และ สังคมศาสตร์ โดยเปิดรับบทความจากบุคลากร/นักศึกษาภายในคณะศิลปศาสตร์ และภายในมหาวิทยาลัยอุบลราชธานี ตลอดจนเปิดรับบทความจากบุคลากร อาจารย์ นิสิต นักศึกษา และบุคคลทั่วไปจากภายนอกมหาวิทยาลัยอุบลราชธานี มีกำหนดตีพิมพ์เผยแพร่ปีละ 2 ฉบับ คือ ฉบับที่ 1 (มกราคม – มิถุนายน) และ ฉบับที่ 2 (กรกฎาคม – ธันวาคม) ของทุกปี อีกทั้งยังมีการออกวารสารฉบับพิเศษ ขึ้นมาตามวาระโอกาสต่างๆตามความเหมาะสม

หลักเกณฑ์การส่งและพิจารณาบทความ
1) เป็นบทความที่ไม่เคยตีพิมพ์เผยแพร่ในที่ใดมาก่อน และเป็นบทความที่ไม่ได้ ส่งให้วารสารวิชาการฉบับอื่นๆพิจารณา
2) ต้นฉบับจะเขียนเป็นภาษาไทยหรือภาษาอังกฤษก็ได้
3) ต้นฉบับควรมีความยาวไม่เกิน 25 หน้ากระดาษ A4 พิมพ์ด้วยระบบ Microsoft Word
4) ใช้ฟอนต์ TH sarabun PSK ขนาด 14 พอยต์
5) บทความต้องประกอบไปด้วย
　　5.1 ชื่อเรื่องภาษาไทยและภาษาอังกฤษ
　　5.2 บทคัดย่อภาษาไทยและภาษาอังกฤษ ความยาวไม่เกิน 15 บรรทัด
　　5.3 คำสำคัญ (keywords) ระบุทั้งภาษาไทยและภาษาอังกฤษ ไม่เกิน 6 คำ
　　5.4 ให้ระบุชื่อผู้เขียนทั้งภาษาไทยและภาษาอังกฤษ ตำแหน่ง (เช่น อาจารย์ นักศึกษา) และสถานที่ทำงานหรือสังกัด (เช่น คณะศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัย อุบลราชธานี)
6) บทความที่เขียนเป็นภาษาอังกฤษตลอดจนบทคัดย่อที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษ จะต้อง ผ่านการตรวจสอบความถูกต้องจากผู้เชี่ยวชาญด้านภาษาก่อนส่งบทความมายัง กองบรรณาธิการ

7) การอ้างอิง เพื่อให้เป็นมาตรฐานระบบเดียวกัน ให้ใช้ระบบนามปี ตัวอย่างเช่น

-ในเนื้อเรื่อง ให้ใช้ตามแบบด้านล่างนี้

(ชื่อผู้แต่ง,/ปีที่พิมพ์/:/เลขหน้า)

-เชิงอรรถ ให้ใช้

[1]ชื่อผู้แต่ง,/**ชื่อเรื่อง**,/(เมืองหรือสถานที่พิมพ์:/สำนักพิมพ์,/ปีที่
พิมพ์),/เลขหน้าที่อ้างอิง.

-บรรณานุกรมท้ายเรื่อง ให้ใช้

ชื่อผู้แต่ง./(ปีที่พิมพ์)./**ชื่อเรื่อง**./สถานที่พิมพ์:/สำนักพิมพ์.

*หมายเหตุ เครื่องหมาย / หมายถึงเว้นวรรค 1 เคาะ

สำหรับระบบบรรณานุกรมอย่างละเอียด สามารถอ้างอิงกับ
คู่มือการเขียนบรรณานุกรมระบบ APA style (โปรดดูรายละเอียดได้ที่
http://eportfolio.hu.ac.th/library/images/stories/sample/apa
%20style%20psu.pdf ในกรณีที่บรรณานุกรมที่ส่งมาพร้อมบทความ
หากไม่ตรงกับเงื่อนไขของวารสารฯ ทางวารสารจะส่งให้ผู้เขียนปรับ
รูปแบบให้เป็นระบบ APA ก่อน จึงจะส่งให้กับผู้ทรงคุณวุฒิอ่าน และ
ทางกองบรรณาธิการจะพิจารณาการเขียนบรรณานุกรมโดยละเอียดอีก
ครั้งหนึ่ง เพื่อให้มีการแก้ไขโดยสมบูรณ์เมื่อบทความได้รับการพิจารณา
ตีพิมพ์เรียบร้อยแล้ว

8) ในการส่งบทความ ให้แนบชื่อสกุลผู้เขียน โดยระบุตำแหน่ง สถานที่ทำงาน
หมายเลขโทรศัพท์ และอีเมล์ที่ติดต่อได้สะดวก

9) บทความที่ส่งมาเพื่อตีพิมพ์จะได้รับการกลั่นกรองจากผู้ทรงคุณวุฒิอย่างน้อย
หนึ่งท่าน

10) บทความที่ไม่ผ่านการพิจารณาให้ตีพิมพ์ ทางกองบรรณาธิการจะแจ้งให้
ผู้เขียนทราบ แต่จะไม่ส่งต้นฉบับคืนผู้เขียน

11) กรณีที่มีรูปภาพประกอบหรือแผนภาพ ให้ส่งไฟล์แนบต่างหากจากภาพใน
บทความ ซึ่งสามารถส่งมาในสกุล jpg ขนาดไฟล์ควรอยู่ในระหว่าง 500 kb –
1500 kb

12)ทัศนะและข้อคิดเห็นในวารสารศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยอุบลราชธานี เป็น
ของผู้เขียนทุกท่าน มิใช่ทัศนะและข้อเขียนของกองบรรณาธิการ หรือคณะศิลป

ศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยอุบลราชธานีแต่อย่างใด ผู้ที่จะนำบทความไปผลิตหรือ
เผยแพร่ซ้ำ ให้แจ้งต่อกองบรรณาธิการวารสารศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัย
อุบลราชธานีด้วย

ติดต่อและส่งบทความได้ที่
กองบรรณาธิการ วารสารศิลปศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยอุบลราชธานี
ตำบลเมืองศรีไค อำเภอวารินชำราบ จังหวัดอุบลราชธานี 34190
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หรือทางจดหมายอิเล็กทรอนิคส์ กรุณาส่งมาตามที่อยู่ข้างล่างนี้
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