NIDA
National Institute of Development Administration

GSLC
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

NIDA Journal of Language and Communication

Volume 24 ● Issue 35 ● January - June 2019

http://lcjournal.nida.ac.th

ISSN : 1513-4164

Editorial Board

Administrative Committee

Address: The Graduate School of Language and Communication National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA)
118 Serithai Road, Klongchan,
Bangkapi, Bangkok 10240, Thailand
Tel. 02-727-3152 http://lc.nida.ac.th

Printed by: Pimsuay Co.,Ltd.
5/5 Thetsaban Rangsarit Nuea Rd.,
Latyao, Chatuchak, Bangkok 10900

Copyright

NIDA Language and Communication Journal is the official journal of the Graduate School of Language and Communication, National Institute of Development Administration. The journal, ranked in the first tier of Thai Journal Citation Index (TCI), is currently published as a periodical, with two issues annually (June and December). The purpose of this journal is to disseminate information of interest to language and communication scholars, and others interested in related social sciences. The journal presents information on theories, researches, methods, and ideas related to language and communication as well as related interdisciplinary social sciences. The editors welcome a wide range of academic papers, including research articles, review articles, and book reviews.

Editor's Note

Dear Readers,

In this current issue, we publish six papers and one book review from a diverse selection of interesting topics in linguistics, language teaching, and psychology. The rapidly growing research into the linguistic landscape grants it increasing importance within the field of language studies. Research in this area is grounded in a variety of theories, from politics and sociology to linguistics, and education, geography, economics, and law. The first article, *Inclusion of the Minority Language of Public Signs: Multilingualism in the Deep South of Thailand*, looks into multilingualism and sociolinguistics which could also serve as the foundation for linguistic landscape studies. Perapong Suaykratok and Aree Manosuthikit focus on a variety of text signs and the multiple forms of languages displayed in public spaces in the southernmost provinces of Thailand. From a linguistic perspective, the paper documents the influence of Patani-Malay and other languages such as English, Chinese, Bahasa Malay, Arabic, French and Japanese.

Concerning the standard of all dimensions of English language learning and teaching in Thailand, Thebporn Kanchai presents research on *Thai EFL University Lecturers' Viewpoints towards Impacts of the CEFR on their English Language Curricula and Teaching Practice*. Although all the lecturers had a reasonably good understanding of the CEFR, particularly the domains of assessment, the Common Reference Levels of language proficiency and language teaching and learning applications, they still have little insight into the approach underlying the CEFR, and action-oriented approach. The author also notes that CEFR-related training programs can be useful as they could bring more practical impact on EFL classroom teaching.

In the area of language teaching development, the third paper, *The Introduction of Nihongo Speech Trainer: A Tool for Learning Japanese Sounds*, by Tanporn Trakantalerngsak, introduces an interesting issue on the importance of a computer-assisted pronunciation training (CAPT) program for practicing Japanese speech training. The study focuses on specific sounds which are considered problematic for Thai learners and the result of the study shows that the integration of the CAPT technique is superior in reducing students' pronunciation problems. Similarly, the fourth paper, *Students' Pronunciation Development: A Case Study of Sunrise Boarding School, Nepal*, also concerns language learners' pronunciation problems. Nontawat Wanna and Atinuch Pin-

ngern investigate English pronunciation problems of Nepalese students. The result of this study provides strong evidence that the explicit pronunciation instruction helps improve the students' pronunciation skills.

Moving onto another area in discourse analysis, *The New Discourse of the News Reports of Border Conflict between Thailand and Cambodia through Textual Analysis* is presented by Chulamani Aggadhamvong. The study aims at understanding the linguistic characteristics used in the two most popular Thai-language and English-language daily newspapers, Thairath and Bangkok Post, to report news on border conflict between Thailand and Cambodia. The text analysis shows that the words used in the newspapers do not solely serve the purpose of contextualizing the event, but also create a direct connection with the readers.

The last academic paper, *Revisiting English Learning in Thai Schools: Why Learners Matter* by Sureepong Phothongsunan, concerns English language teaching and learning in the Thai context. The author not only calls attention to English teachers and educators, but also proposes a critical question: whether Thai school students are well enough equipped with English proficiency to be practical and comprehensible in their actual use of English.

In the final part of this issue, thanks for Vikanda Pornsakulvanich who kindly contributes a book review on *Grit: Why Passion and Resilience are the Secrets to Success*. The book offers a psychological theory of achievement the author calls "grit" along with anecdotes, profiles, scientific studies, and personal stories which combine to form an easy-to-read and educational book. Readers who need inspiration to reach their optimal goals in a wishful life would find this book an engaging resource for success.

We, the editorial team, highly appreciate your support and interest in our journal. We are also looking forward to receiving your original work for publication future editions. Thank you very much for your ensuing contributions to the *NIDA Journal of Language and Communication*.

Kasma Suwanarak

Editor

Contents

Ethical Guidelines on Journal Publication

- Authors must ensure that their submission is original, fully referenced and that all authors are represented accurately.
- Authors must openly disclose the source of all data and third party material, including previously unpublished work by the authors themselves. Anything that could compromise the originality of the submission should be expressly avoided.
- Authors must identify any third party material that they intend to include in their article, and obtain written permission for re-use in each instance from the relevant copyright holders.
- Authors failing to comply with the above suggestions risk accusations of plagiarism and can result in retraction of published articles.

Inclusion of the Minority Language on Public Signs:

Multilingualism in the Deep South of Thailand

Received : November 16, 2018
Revised : December 17, 2018
Accepted : December 26, 2018

Perapong Suaykratok

Aree Manosuthikit

Abstract

This study aims to investigate the linguistic landscape (LL) through signs seen in the southernmost communities of Thailand with a specific focus on Patani-Malay, a minority language, yet a mother tongue of the majority of people in the regions. Six streets of each central city of Pattani, Yala and Narathiwat were this study's research locale where a variety of text signs were collected as digital photos and were then coded based on: 1) the number of languages written on the signs (monolingual, bilingual or multilingual); and 2) the types of signs (official or private). The findings revealed that a number of languages (e.g., Thai, English, Chinese, Bahasa Malay, Arabic, French, Japanese, and Patani-Malay) could be detected on the signs on which a single language was most apparent. More specifically, Patani-Malay is inclusively and mainly present on many multilingual public signs along with other languages. Furthermore, through the lens of the trend magnet model proposed by Lee (2015) and some other sociolinguistic aspects, concepts of globalization, regionalization, nationalism and localization should dictate that mentioned languages be placed on signs. This study on multilingualism could shed light on and serve as the foundation for LL studies in Thailand, especially in the southernmost contexts. Significantly, multilingual concepts should also be made to extend the use of Patani-Malay in wider range of domains of language use.

Keywords: linguistic landscape (LL), multilingualism, minority language, linguistic policy

Introduction

With the advent of globalization, most of today's societies in the world are becoming increasingly multilingual (Matras, 2009). More people with different backgrounds and languages live together in a particular community, as immigrants migrate mainly for economic, social or political reasons, or as visitors for traveling. These people bring their own cultural and linguistic practices to

interact within families or communities. Therefore, the use of diverse languages to serve different purposes truly exists. These developments help form and shape the concept of multilingualism, which is broadly referred to as the context where more than one or several languages are used for specific purposes (Stavans & Hoffmann, 2015). This concept is particularly evident in the linguistic situation of those living in the deep south of Thailand.

Malays and their Ethnic Language

The deep south of Thailand consists of Pattani, Yala and Narathiwat. These provinces have been inhabited primarily by ethnic Malays. The Malays are a minority group since they constitute approximately four percent of the entire population of the country, but are the majority within the three southernmost provinces, comprising approximately 1.3 million out of almost 2 million people in the population (Official Statistics Registration Systems, 2018). They are also predominantly Muslims who practice their own culture, beliefs, tradition and ways of life (Boonlong, 2007; Melvin, 2007; Premsrirat, 2008). Importantly, this minority group speaks a dialect of Malay called "Patani-Malay" (Premsrirat, 2008; Premsrirat & Samoh, 2012). This language is considered a minority language, yet the first tongue of approximately 90 percent of the overall population in the southernmost provinces (Premsrirat & Samoh, 2012).

Patani-Malay is powerfully symbolic of the sense of belonging for the Malay minority speakers and is closely connected to their religion, culture and traditions. This language is used as their mother tongue for interaction within the family and their community (Boonlong, 2007; Melvin, 2007; Premsrirat, 2008; Smalley, 1994) whereas in formal communication contexts such as public education or governmental transactions, Malays need to understand the Thai language, regardless of their native tongue. However, in 2009, the Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre (SBPAC) located in Yala begun the inclusion of the adapted Arabic script, the written form of Patani-Malay, besides Thai and English, on the signage of its main buildings. The SBPAC subsequently proposed their language policy, which approved the use of Patani-Malay in formal contexts (SBPAC, 2018). This linguistic policy could be counted as the first official recognition of this ethnic language by the government. Based on this, it can be assumed that written texts seen in this area would be multilingual in nature, in the sense that diverse languages could appear on materials such as pieces of paper, wall writings, advertisements, sign boards and public signs. This use of language(s) on any material in public environment was initially termed as "linguistic landscape" (LL) by Landry and Bourhis in 1997 (p. 23).

In the recent past, there has been a trend to explore LL in Thailand. Pioneers who worked in the Thai context (Backhaus, 2007; Huebner, 2006; Ngampramuan,

2009, 2016a, 2016b) have contributed their empirical work, serving as the basis of LL studies in Thailand. However, LL research that explores the LL in the South, especially the three southernmost provinces is still sparse. This research intends to shed light on and serve as the base of the LL study in the South, specifically in the deep southern communities by focusing on the use of Patani-Malay, a marginalized language in the public environment. Thus, the objective of this study is to examine what languages appear on signs along the streets in the urban areas of Pattani, Yala and Narathiwat. For this reason, this study's research question is posed to examine the phenomenon of LL in the deep south: what languages are used on signs displayed along the streets in the central cities of Pattani, Yala and Narathiwat?

Literature Review

Linguistic Landscape

For more than a decade, linguistic study has emphasized "the language texts that are present in public space" (Gorter, 2006, p. 1). The public sphere can be an excellent place in which several languages are manifested on purpose. Researchers have been observing languages in the material world from various aspects; for instance, multilingual settings (Backhaus, 2007; Ben-Rafael, Shohamy, Amara, & Trumper-Hecht, 2006; Gorter, 2006), government policies (Akindele, 2011; Amos, 2015; Cenoz & Gorter, 2006), the spread of English as a global language (Huebner, 2006; Ngampramuan, 2009, 2016a, 2016b). This public display of languages was first defined by the pioneers Landry and Bourhis (1997), which refers to the use of languages in the material world as:

> The language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings combine to form the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration (p. 25).

Building on this, Ben-Rafael et al. (2006: p. 14) further defined LL as "any sign announcement located outside or inside a public institution or a private business in a given geographical location." This later definition also encompasses signs seen within buildings. By the same token, Shohamy and Gorter (2009) claimed that LL is concerned with "language in the environment, words and images displayed and exposed in public spaces" (p. 1).

Linguistic Landscape and Multilingualism

To date, the study of LL has been fruitfully carried out in the multilingual contexts as researchers in the field have realized that the use of languages in the public sphere "offers a unique lens on multilingualism" (Shohamy, 2012, p. 538). Cenoz and Gorter (2009) also asserted "the use of different languages in signs in bilingual and multilingual countries or regions can be of great symbolic importance" (p. 56). It can be understood that a language used in the sign domain represents its empowered status, the importance of its speakers and the politics within that specific context.

Linguistic Landscape, Language Policy and Minority Language

Shohamy (2006) indicated that any LL item is a means for a language policy to exercise power over the public environment by maintaining a particularly ideal language, together with giving a specific status to a particular language (specifically a minority one) displayed in the space. Likewise, Aiestaran, Cenoz, and Gorter (2010: p. 220) stated that "language policy can have an impact on the way the linguistic landscape is regulated and arranged." In line with Cenoz and Gorter's (2006) research, the findings revealed that the wider use of minority languages on public and commercial signs was mainly due to the strong effects of a national language policy. Importantly, the main factor underlying ethnic language use on signs seems related to the language policy and its status and role within a particular society (especially a multilingual one).

Sociolinguistic Situation in the Deep South of Thailand

Having considered the status and linguistic use of Patani-Malay above, it is also vital to have a background knowledge of other languages used in order of how widespread they are to fully understand the LL in these areas.

Standard Thai and Southern Thai

Thai inclusively refers to the Standard Thai or the dialect most Thai people use to interact in all communicative modes (Smalley, 1994). The Standard Thai is, therefore, a standard variety that all Thais should know in order to achieve full linguistic competence in both formal and informal communication. All Thais, regardless of race, religion or native tongue have to use this variety in public schools as the language of instruction (Kosonen, 2008). Apart from the Standard Thai, Southern Thai, a dialect of the Standard Thai known as Paktay, plays a major role as a dialect that most Thai Buddhists or non-Malay speakers in the southernmost area use as their mother tongue (Smalley, 1994). It is significant to note that this regional language can only be heard, not seen (Smalley, 1994).

Foreign Languages in Southernmost Context

As can be expected, English is one of the several foreign languages used in the southernmost part of Thailand as local people in the areas, like other Thai citizens, have been taught English at the upper elementary level in public schools and use English in higher education for specialized knowledge (Foley, 2005). Furthermore, the deep south is a neighboring area of the Malaysian state (Melvin, 2007) where most of its citizens have the fundamental skills of English (Kirkpatrick, 2012). The local people in the three southernmost provinces are, thereby, frequently exposed to English as a tool for communicating with a large number of tourists from this neighboring country. Moreover, the deep south also has Chinese inhabitants who have been involved in various kinds of businesses in the areas (Hamilton, 2008). These people still practice their own language, both in spoken and written forms. Besides this, a growing number of Chinese tourists from Malaysia and Singapore also travel to the South each year (Hamilton, 2008). These conditions help maintain the use of Chinese in the deep south as it is used by both internal speakers and external speakers to the area. Aside from English and Chinese, others such as Bahasa Malay, Burmese and Cambodian also increased in use as a result of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations, generally known as the ASEAN community.

Concepts and Advantages of Multilingualism

The sociolinguistic situation of the deep south is congruent with the concept of multilingualism, which is generally regarded as a situation where an individual can perform his or her linguistic competence in more than one language in appropriate contexts (Okal, 2014). Stavans and Hoffman (2015) pointed out that the concept of multilingualism also includes the simultaneous use of more than two languages in a particular community by a large number of its speakers. Importantly, these languages can be official, national or native languages; at the same time, they can also be unofficial or foreign languages (Okal, 2014). Furthermore, there are numerous benefits that come with being multilingual. Firstly, multilingualism enhances intellectual flexibility and creativity, and provides room for individuals to learn several languages from different learning contexts (Okal, 2014; Stavans & Hoffman, 2015). In addition, it can also help people understand other cultures, ideas and ways of thinking (Stavans & Hoffman, 2015).

Language Policy Launched by Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre

The language policy imposed by the SBPAC should be included in this study as it might play an important role in languages displayed on signs in the deep south. The SBPAC is the official government section located in Yala province; it is directly under the Royal Thai government. Its main duty is to govern the Southern

Border provinces and to fight against separatism and the ongoing violence in the affected areas (SBPAC, 2018). In 2013, the SBPAC launched its linguistic policy, which included the use of Patani-Malay in official contexts. With regards to this point, "The Action Plan of the Southern Border Provinces Development for 2013-2014" (SBPAC, 2018) has been examined in relation to language use on signs in the surveyed areas, since the new version for 2018 has not been available according to the SBPAC's official website (SBPAC, 2018). One significant aspect of the SBPAC's linguistic policy (SBPAC, 2018) related to this study is its promotion and encouragement of Patani-Malay on public signs.

> 14) To promote and encourage villages and government sections such as schools, hospitals, public health stations, police stations, and local administrative organizations to produce their place names or street signs with at least three languages; namely, Thai, local Malay, English and other languages (according to the cabinet resolution on March 13, 2012) (p. 11).

Research Methodology

Data Collection

In answering this study's research question, several signs and sign boards in the three southernmost provinces were photographed by a digital camera and a smartphone during daytime for analysis. It is of note that the criteria for collecting photographs of signs were also established to ensure research feasibility.

Criteria for Selecting Signs

Two sets of criteria for sign collection, following Ben-Rafael et al. (2006) and Ngampramuan (2016a), were established: 1) Signs that were collected include: a) all signs along the streets which are visible to pedestrians or any sign that is salient to people, and b) text signs such as public signs, public announcements, street names and place-names of the buildings developed by the government sectors and all types of signs produced by the private sectors such as shop signs, business signs and private announcements; and 2) Signs that were omitted, which include: a) signs inside buildings and private accommodations; b) moving signs on light emitting diodes (LEDs), texts on digital billboards and mobile signs (e.g., commercial signs on buses); c) graffiti, paintings or drawings; and d) large billboards.

Surveyed Areas

The central city of the three southernmost provinces, Pattani, Yala and Narathiwat, were chosen as the research locale, since Backhaus (2007, p. 1) states that "The city is a place of language contact". Thus, the central city would be an excellent place where several languages, both spoken and written, are practiced in the environment on purpose.

To be specific, six streets where most government buildings, business offices, shops, and markets are located in each province's central city were chosen as the research fields: 1) *Nong Chik*, 2) *Charoen Pradit*, 3) *Yarang-Nakluea*, 4) *Poon Sawat*, 5) *Sarit* and 6) *Sararom* streets were selected to collect signs in Pattani. For Yala, these following streets were included: 1) *Wongwienrop 1, 2, 3, 2*) *Sukkhayang*, 3) *Sirorot*, 4) *Thonwithi 1*, 5) *Santisuk* and 6) *Phang Mueang 2*. Six streets: 1) *Phuphaphakdi*, 2) *Suriya Pradit*, 3) *Rangaemakkha*, 4) *Panason*, 5) *Chan Uthit* and 6) *Na Nakhon*, were chosen for collecting signs in Narathiwat. Thus, 18 streets in total were selected as this study's field sites to represent the overview of LL in the southernmost areas.

Coding of Signs

A coding scheme was set up and developed from previous studies, namely, Backhaus (2006), Ben-Rafael et al. (2006), Ben Said (2010), Edelman (2010), and Ngampramuan (2009, 2016a). Based on these scholarly work, two main classifications of signs were derived:

1) Occurrence of language on signs (degrees of multilingualism): a) Monolingual sign (written in one language), b) Bilingual sign (written in two languages), and c) Multilingual sign (written in more than two languages);

2) Types of signs: a) Official signs (signs created by the government such as public signs, street signs, or public announcements from governmental organizations), and b) Private signs (signs written by individuals or companies; e.g., shop signs or commercial signs).

Frameworks for Data Interpretation

In his study of language use and language contact in Thailand, Lee (2015) proposed an integrated model called "Trend Magnet Model" which seeks to deeply understand the language contact phenomenon, specifically regarding that of the minority ethnic groups. As shown in this model (Figure 1), the relationship between a language, especially a minority language and social factors influencing the use of particular languages in Thailand are described through concepts such as globalization, regionalization, nationalism and localization (Lee, 2015). These

trends and their attached languages overlap in particular communities, especially in the minority communities.

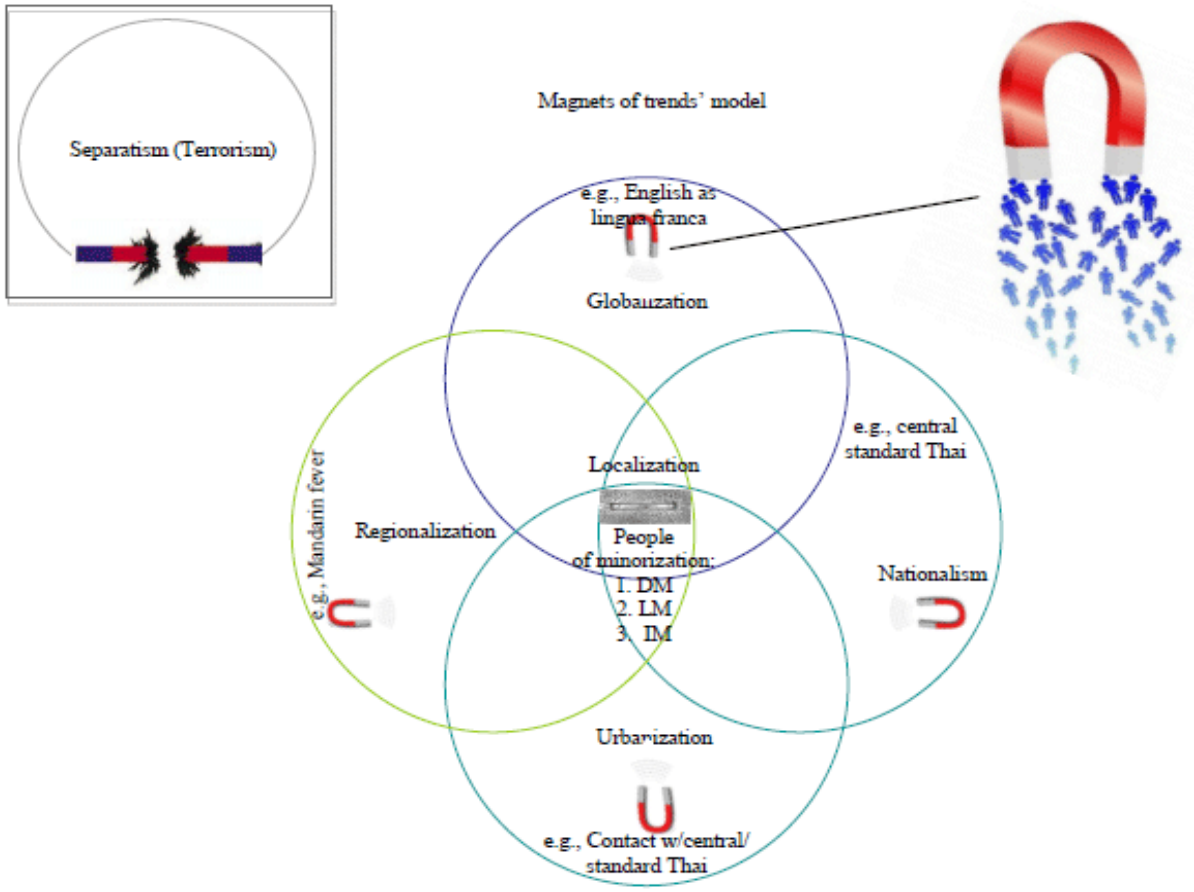


Figure 1. Trend Magnet Model (Lee, 2015, p. 331)

Besides the Trend Magnet Model, aspects of sociolinguistics were also employed for interpreting data. Sociolinguistics involves an investigation of the relation between language and a place or a society where the language is used (Spolsky, 1998; Van Herk, 2012). Additionally, Van Herk (2012) points out that sociolinguistics is also concerned with the study of the relationship between different languages used within a given speech community, specifically a multilingual one where several languages come into contact. Moreover, Spolsky (1998) proposed that the study of language and society can also reveal the power of politics that underlies certain use of a language/languages in a specific community.

Findings

Signs in the Deep South of Thailand

The total number of samples in this study's data collection comprises of 1,746 photos of signs. A total of 518 signs were taken from the given streets in Pattani, 605 signs from Yala, and 623 signs, which constitutes the highest number, from Narathiwat.

In regard to this study's research question, eight languages in total, namely: 1) Thai; 2) English; 3) Chinese; 4) Bahasa Malay; 5) Arabic; 6) Japanese; 7) French; and 8) Patani-Malay were found on signs in the filed sites. These languages on signs can be categorized according to the degrees of multilingualism, types of signs and the order of languages as presented in the tables. It is of note that the shortened forms were used in Table 1, 2 and 3: T = Thai, E = English, C = Chinese, BM = Bahasa Malay, A = Arabic, J = Japanese, F = French, PM = Patani-Malay, O = Official, P = Private, and To. = Total.

Monolingual Signs

For the monolingual signs, it is apparent that Thai had the strongest presence, which was detected on 835 signs out of 875 signs of its types, followed by English (35 signs), Patani-Malay (3 signs), and Arabic (2 signs). It is interesting to note that every single language in this category can be found more on private signs as can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Overview of monolingual signs in the deep south

Provinces	Types of Sign	**Monolingual**				To.
		T	E	PM	A	
Pattani	O	78	1	-	-	79
	P	187	8	-	-	195
Yala	O	88	1	-	-	89
	P	185	23	3	-	211
Narathiwat	O	124	-	-	1	125
	P	173	2	-	1	176
To.		835	35	3	2	**875**

Examples of monolingual signs in the deep south

Figure 2. An official 'T' sign

Figure 3: An official 'PM' sign

Figure 3. A private 'E' sign

Bilingual Signs

Based on the data of bilingual signs (Table 2), varieties of language combinations on signs can be seen in this category with the inclusion of other foreign languages such as Bahasa Malay, French and Japanese. Among these combinations, the Thai-English combination was apparently found the most, which accounts for 520 signs out of the 663 signs. The second rank went to the combination of Thai and Patani-Malay, which accounts for 60 signs, followed by Thai-Arabic, accounting for 34 signs. It might be revealing to note that not only was Thai present as the first language code on signs, but also other languages such as English-Thai, Bahasa Malay-Thai, French-Thai or even Patani-Malay, which can be seen first and then followed by Thai on private signs. It is, however, obbious that these diverse combinations and different orders of language codes were found more in the private category.

Table 2. Overview of bilingual signs in the deep south

Provinces	Types of Sign	Bilingual															To.
		T+E	T+PM	T+A	E+T	T+C	T+BM	PM+T	E+PM	PM+E	C+T	BM+T	A+T	A+PM	J+E	F+T	
Pattani	O	76	3	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	87
	P	72	31	5	1	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	1	113

Yala	O	89	1	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	93
	P	72	20	4	5	7	4	2	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	116
Narathiwat	O	130	3	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	135
	P	81	2	16	15	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	119
To.		520	60	34	22	11	4	4	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	**663**

Examples of bilingual signs in the deep south

Figure 4. An official 'T+PM' sign

Figure 6. An official 'PM+T' sign

Figure 5. A private 'T+C' sign

Figure 7. A private 'E+PM' sign

Multilingual Signs

It can be seen from the multilingual category (Table 3) that Patani-Malay was included in the first three rankings: 1) Thai, English and Patani-Malay (63 signs); 2) Thai, English, Patani-Malay and Chinese (55 signs); and 3) Thai, Patani-Malay and English (45 signs), which were apparently more visible on official signs. We can still see Thai as the first in order, while English was second in the order of languages in almost all combinations, especially the official signs, which is congruent with the bilingual signs as discussed above. In addition, one informative feature to be noted is that even if signs were written with quite a similar set of languages, they were placed in different orders, with different number of languages (three to four languages), which has been seen considerably more in the private category signs.

Table 3. Overview of multilingual signs in the deep south

Provinces	Types of Sign	Multilingual																						To.
		T+E+PM	T+E+PM+C	T+PM+E	T+C+E	T+E+C	T+C+PM	T+A+E	T+C+E+PM	T+BM+PM	E+PM+T	PM+T+E	T+E+BM+PM	T+BM+E	T+A+BM	T+PM+E+C	T+PM+C+E	T+C+PM+E	T+C+BM+PM	T+A+E+PM	PM+A+T	A+PM+T		
Pattani	O	15	-	16	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-		32
	P	2	-	1	2	1	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	1		11
Yala	O	4	50	1	1	1	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-		60
	P	15	4	-	4	4	3	-	2	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	1	-		37
Narathiwat	O	25	1	25	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		55
	P	2	-	2	2	-	-	4	1	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		13
To.		63	55	45	9	8	4	4	3	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		**208**

Examples of multilingual signs in the deep south

Figure 8:An official 'T+E+PM+C' sign

Figure 9: An official 'T+E+BM+PM' sign

Figure 10: An official 'T+PM+E+C' sign

Figure 11: An official 'T+PM+E' sign

Figure 12: An official 'T+C+E+PM' sign

Discussion

The data of each language on signs can be used to reflect the multilingual situation in the deep south, especially the relationship between languages and the factors underlying the use of particular languages on signs in the southernmost community. As Blommaert (2013) states, "Messages in the public space are never neutral, they always display connections to social structure, power and hierarchies" (p. 40). In this light, the Trend Magnet Model proposed by Lee (2015) and the sociolinguistic aspects are used to help describe the language phenomenon on signs from the research sites, along with other sign data and information from previous studies.

Thai Comes First

As is evident in the result section, Thai is present as the first language code on almost all official and private signs, even if such signs are produced by the private sector or individuals in the ethnic communities where Patani-Malay is the mother tongue of its major population. The reason behind this would be the fact that Thai maintains the status of "…national symbol, the official language, the language of the government, education, media and high culture." (Smalley, 1994, p. 25). It is evident that Thai serves as the forefront for almost all aspects of communicative purposes in both formal and informal contexts, which in this case are official and private signs. According to the Trend Magnet Model (Lee, 2015), this phenomenon possibly comes from the concept of nationalism, which underlies the use of Thai as the one and only national and official language of the country. This prestigious status of Standard Thai originates from: 1) the national language policies maintaining Standard Thai in all modes of public and official communications (Warotamasikkhadit & Person, 2011); and 2) a dialect used in the central region where the capital city is located, and accordingly, employed by the highest ranking people and the elites in Thai society (Smalley, 1994). This situation is also apparent in the linguistic policy imposed by the SBPAC, stating Thai is to be the first language to be used on signs. Clearly, the deep south community is inevitably under the shadow of this concept as Thai holds the strongest presence in almost every single sign found in the research sites. Similarly, one of the salient finding of Huebner's (2006) study showed that more than a half of LL in Bangkok and its metropolitan area were in monolingual Thai. It is clear from the statistics that the predominant use of Thai on signs results from and is maintained by both national linguistic policies launched by the central Thai government and the language policy launched by the SBPAC. The data show how the political institution exercises their power through government policy on language, which is able to manipulate more or less the use of a particular language in a specific domain of language use.

English Comes Second

As expected, signs in the deep south are a place where the most influential foreign languages such as English expands its power and identity as the second most seen language on signs. The magnet of globalization (Lee, 2015) would be revealing to the situation of this de facto foreign language of Thailand. English has been brought to this country through economy, trade, education and almost all aspects of human transaction as the dominant world language for communication (Foley, 2005; Huebner, 2006; Kirkpatrick, 2012; Ngampramuan, 2016b). From the lens of regionalization, English is also proposed as the medium of communication of the ASEAN community where Thailand has been a member (Kirkpatrick, 2012). A higher use of English as the second language observed on signs would be a welcoming and communicating platform from related parties to people around the world, specifically to this incorporation among 10 ASEAN member countries. With this significant status at both universal and regional levels, English would undeniably be visible on signs in the deep south as we can see from the wide acknowledgement of "Thai comes first, English comes second". It is more interesting to indicate that even though this phenomenon of 'T+E' has been more common on both official and private signs in the field sites or even throughout the country, Warotamasikkhadit and Person (2011) asserted that there is no legal mention about a standard language in the Contemporary Thai Constitution, while Thai and English have been perceived as the most crucial languages by Thai policymakers for public communication. This would emphasize the roles of globalization and nationalism as shown in the Trend Magnet Model by Lee (2015) when these concepts have a strong impact through the use of Thai and English in the southernmost areas; these two language codes even overshadow the use of Patani-Malay on signs, especially the monolingual and bilingual ones (Table 1 and Table 2, respectively).

Chinese on Signs as the Result of Trade and Tourism

The Chinese language also plays a key role as the language is mostly seen on business signage. With reference to the Trend Magnet Model (Lee, 2015), Chinese on signs may result from the concepts of both globalization and regionalization as Chinese is spoken by one of the world's largest groups of speakers (Hamilton, 2008). Its use on signs may be intended to welcome more Chinese native speakers living around the world, especially in the Southeast Asian countries such as Singapore and Malaysia, the near and neighboring areas to Thailand's deep south. Not only is Chinese on signs is in contact with Chinese-speaking visitors, but also its internal speakers as aforementioned. This helps maintain the use of Chinese in informal contexts such as Chinese writing as a trademark on signs (Figure 4 and Figure 8). The Chinese language is still expanding its predominance on formal contexts when included on official signs

along with Thai, English and the local minority language (Table 3). This would be counted as the policy of the government to provide a wider means of communication to the Chinese consumers living in and outside of the southernmost Thai communities.

Bahasa Malay: Language from the Neighboring Area

Bahasa Malay, the official language of Malaysia, can be visible on both official and private signs in the deep south. Since it is the same language used in certain regions or sub-regions within Thailand, the magnet of regionalization (Lee, 2015) would describe the use of Bahasa Malay. As Patani-Malay is considered a dialect of Bahasa Malay, these two groups of people can, to some extent, mutually understand each other when speaking (Smalley, 1994; Boonlong, 2007; Premsrirat, 2008). However, reading and understanding signs written in Patani-Malay might be difficult for some Malaysian visitors to the deep south to comprehend, in spite of the Malay ethnic group largely sharing the same cultural, traditional and (spoken) linguistic practices with the local Malays in Thailand. This would be because Patani-Malay's script is a simplified form of Arabic, whereas Bahasa Malay uses a Romanized alphabet to transcribe its spoken language. Thus, there is a promotion of Bahasa Malay to be used more in various domains where it is not only commonly heard, but also increasingly seen on signs as to facilitate and communicate information to the Malaysian visitors. With this strategy, the higher the number of tourists visiting the area from Malaysia, the faster the growth of the economy and social units will be in the deep south. Notably, there is no report on the use of any other languages of the ASEAN member countries on signs in the deep south. The two reasonable reasons for this would be: 1) the three provinces are located at the deepest part of the country, which may be difficult in terms of transportation for both foreign tourists and even laborers from other member countries, except for Malaysia; and 2) the deep south is constantly portrayed by the media as the area of insurgency and instability, where foreigners might be reluctant to visit.

Roles of Other Foreign Languages on Signs: Arabic, French and Japanese

Apart from English, Chinese and Bahasa Malay, there are three more foreign languages that are used on signs for different domains of language use.

Arabic: Its Prevalence in the Religious Domain

Arabic is commonly perceived as being relative to the religious domain, since the language often appears on building signage of Islam-related places such as a masjid (Figure 7), a Muslim graveyard, or a non-secular school broadly located in the three southernmost provinces. This perception could also develop from the fact that Arabic is the main language used in the Quran, the central religious text

of Islam (Huda, 2018). Thus, this language inherently possesses the symbolic status of integrating Islam and its believers, with the language found to be widely used on place-name signage in this study.

French and Japanese on Signs for Trade

French and Japanese are the two other languages that can be seen on private signs. These two language codes are added for advertisement purposes only. French can often be found on the building signage of a coffee shop, while Japanese is seen on signs of a restaurant. Through the lens of globalization (Lee, 2015), the use of these languages has resulted from cultural diffusion in which not only the food culture (drinking coffee/tea with bakery and Japanese food) is being flown into the southernmost Thai society, but also the language use of such original cultures. This is supported by Backhaus's (2006) study where the researcher claims that nonofficial signs, which are normally employed by the business sector, offer higher use of foreign languages to represent an overseas atmosphere. This would explain the use of French and Japanese on signs in the sense that it may help provide customers with an authentic feeling of being in a foreign land. This is usually achieved through the packaging of products, the settings of a location, or the use of the local language of a certain country.

Patani-Malay on Public Signs in relation to the SBPAC's Linguistic Policy

It can be noticed that even though Patani-Malay is rarely seen on both monolingual official and private signs (Table 1), this language is frequently present, for the most part, along with the Thai language on bilingual private signs (Table 2). More importantly, Patani-Malay is largely included on many multilingual official signs along with other languages (Table 3). Through the lens of localization (Lee, 2015), this extensive use of Patani-Malay on official signs could mostly result from the linguistic policy imposed by the SBPAC as earlier discussed. The regional government sector might try to take into consideration the language usage of the locals when planning and implementing linguistic policy, which aims to communicate and provide more understanding of various information to most local people in the areas. They have tried to achieve that by promoting and encouraging the ethnic language of the people to be used on public signs. This multilingual phenomenon would not be accomplished without the supportive government policy and the action plans that followed. The SBPAC's policy can then be counted as one of the powerful influencers in achieving more visibility of the Patani-Malay language on public signs.

Standard Pattern of Official Signs

It can be generalized from the analysis of signs in the deep south that the official signs produced by the government sectors normally consist of quite a specific

order of languages displayed on signs. As we can see from the sign results (Table 3), the more visible formulae of languages on multilingual official signs in Pattani and Narathiwat were 'T+E+PM' and 'T+PM+E', while the official 'T+E+PM+C' signs were mostly found in Yala's research sites. It seems that the signs in each province are quite compatible with the locals in terms of their use of the patterns of languages on signs. Following the policy, it has been observed that signs have become more congruent and look-alike.

Private Signs: A Rich Source of Linguistic Diversity

As discussed above, official signs generally employ quite a static order of languages, while private signs have a higher assortment. Private landscaping can be seen as a home of linguistic diversity in which languages are fluidly presented with various numbers and orders of language codes. It is reasonable to say that this productive situation of private signs has been yielded by the private sector and individuals. These signs are distinctly influenced by feelings, opinions and tastes of their owners or producers. The language use on signs and the design of signs are, therefore, subjective. This feature of private linguistic landscaping of the deep south is supported by Backhaus (2006) who pointed out that one can still differentiate official and nonofficial signs, since the latter often produces a diversity of languages compared to the former.

Conclusion

This research offers a perspective on how the deep south of Thailand can be regarded as being in the realm of societal multilingualism. Walking along the streets in Yala, one can see several languages on signs such as Thai, English, Chinese, Bahasa Malay, Arabic, and importantly, Patani-Malay. These languages are displayed on signs with various degrees of language use from monolingual, bilingual to multilingual levels. The languages are also placed on signs in different orders of language codes, with this feature being reported to be seen more on private signs. With the help of the Trend Magnet Model proposed by Lee (2015) and the sociolinguistic aspects, it seems that the concepts of globalization, regionalization, nationalism and localization have brought a multitude of languages to come into contact on signs in the southernmost Thai communities. This is especially true of the inclusion of Patani-Malay on public signs, which was result of the government's promotion and implementation through linguistic policy.

Implications

Public signs could be a rich source of language learning. Multilingual public signs can serve as practical teaching materials, and can explain how languages are practiced in everyday communication. Students can then relate what is taught in the classroom such as grammar rules or word spellings with how people actually make use of language in the real world. These signs can also inspire students to learn languages in a more active and interesting way. As signs can make students more observant, they might start noticing other things around them as sources for learning a language as well, while at the same time, attempting to apply their classroom knowledge into practice. More importantly, several languages on signs could raise student awareness in terms of the need to learn more than one language. Students may be inspired to learn other languages, since they are surrounded by multilingual materials (e.g., signs and billboards) in the public sphere. Consequently, several languages, Patani-Malay in particular, on signs across spaces, outside the classroom and at home can, to some extent, have a positive motivational effect on children's cognitive processes in language learning.

In addition, signs would be one way of language revitalization. An increasing use of Patani-Malay on public signs in the deep south may help provide more exposure to the younger generation who reportedly uses less of this language (Burarungrot, 2010).

Lastly, one of the desired objectives of this research is to potentially raise the government's awareness, especially policymakers, in promoting and encouraging the use of minority languages in formal contexts. The officers should take into consideration the ways of living of the people, and the cultural, traditional and linguistic practices of a particular speech community when planning and issuing linguistic policies to be used in such areas. For example, the government could produce more multilingual signs in areas where ethnic minority languages are used in an attempt to protect and support the citizen's language rights. The act of valuing and embracing an ethnic linguistic reality by the government could enhance the psychological well-being of the minority groups, which could in turn lead to lower conflicts in society. This diversity of languages on signs would also create a more desirable atmosphere for both locals and newcomers to the areas.

Recommendations for Further Study

There are four recommendations that this particular research can provide to a potential future research in similar fields. First, the borderline areas in other regions of Thailand could be a new research locale for investigating whether there

is any use of minority languages or even the use of a neighboring country's languages on signs. The comparison of signs in such areas and the deep south should be made in relation to the linguistic policy and the current situations/tensions in the region(s). Second, it would be more revealing if other modes of textual representation such as graffiti, paintings or even texts written on materials such as pieces of paper or on product packaging in the deep south were examined to see whether they portray any messages in relation to the sociolinguistic situation and the unrest in the areas. Next, the linguistic features of language use on signs could be the research focus in examining the correctness of a particular language displayed on signs, and to what extent such messages can potentially be communicative to passersby, especially foreign visitors. Last, scholars in other relevant academic disciplines such as psychology, communication and peace studies can further study how signs can help resolve political and social conflicts in a given society.

References

Aiestaran, J., Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2010). Multilingual cityscapes: Perceptions and preferences of the inhabitants of the city of Donostia-San Sebastián. In Shohamy, E., Ben-Rafael, E. & Barni, M. (Eds.). *Linguistic Landscape in the City* (pp. 219-234). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Akindele, D. O. (2011). Linguistic landscapes as public communication: A study ofpublic signage in Gaborone Botswana. *International Journal of Linguistics*, *3*(1).

Amos, W. H. (2015). Regional language vitality in the linguistic landscape: Hidden hierarchies on street signs in Toulouse. *International Journal of Multilingualism.* doi: 10.1080/14790718.2015.1103244

Backhaus, P. (2006). Multilingualism in Tokyo: A look into the linguistic landscape. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *3*(1), 52-66.

Backhaus, P. (2007). *Linguistic landscapes: A comparative study of urban multilingualism in Tokyo*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Ben Said, S. (2010). *Urban Street Signs in the Linguistic Landscape of Tunisia: Tensions in policy, representation, and attitudes* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The Pennsylvania State University, Pennsylvania.

Ben-Rafael, E., Shohamy, E., Amara, M. H., & Trumper-Hecht, N. (2006). Linguistic landscape as symbolic construction of the public space: The case of Israel. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *3*(1), 7-30.

Blommaert, J. (2013). *Ethnography, superdiversity and linguistic landscapes: Chronicles of complexity*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Boonlong, F. R. (2007). The language rights of the Malay minority in Thailand. *Asia-Pacific Journal on Human Rights and the Law*, *1*, 47-63.

Burarungrot, M. (2010). Patani-Malay language: The decline of mother tongue usage. Research Institute for Languages and Cultures of Asia, Mahidol University. Retrieved on August 8, 2018 from http://rilca.mahidol.ac.th/storybook/en/documents/2553.08.24-MirindaBR-Malaya.pdf

Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2006). Linguistic landscape and minority languages. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *3*(1), 67-80.

Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2009). Language economy and linguistic landscape. In E. Shohamy & D. Gorter (Eds.), *Linguistic Landscape: Expanding the Scenery* (pp. 55-69). New York: Routledge.

Edelman, L. J. (2010). *Linguistic landscape in the Netherlands: A study of multilingualism in Amsterdam and Friesland* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The University of Amsterdam, Amsterdam.

Foley, J. A. (2005). English…in Thailand. *RELC*, *36*(2), 223-234. doi:10.1177/0033688205055578

Gorter, D. (Ed.). (2006). *Linguistic Landscape: A new approach to multilingualism.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Hamilton, A. (2008). Performing identities: Two Chinese rites in southern Thailand. *International Journal of Asian Studies*, *5*(2), 161-185. doi:10.1017/S1479591408000028

Huda, D. (2018). The importance of the Arabic language in Islam. Retrieved September 2, 2018 from https://www.thoughtco.com/arabic-language-in-islam-2004035

Huebner, T. (2006). Bangkok's linguistic landscapes: Environmental print, codemixing and language change. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *3*(1), 31-51.

Kirkpatrick, A. (2012). English in ASEAN: Implications for regional multilingualism. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, *33*(4), 331-344.

Kosonen, K. (2008). Literacy in local languages in Thailand: Language maintenance in a globalised world. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *11*(2).

Landry, R., & Bourhis, R. Y. (1997). Linguistic landscape and ethnolinguistic vitality: An empirical study. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 23-49.

Lee, H. Y. (2015). Theorizing globalization and minorities in Asian cities: Viewed from the language contact zone of Thailand in the making of languages and minorities. *Journal of Applied Sciences*, *15*, 329-342.

Matras, Y. (2009). *Language contact.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Melvin, M. J. (2007). *Conflict in Southern Thailand: Islamism, Violence and the State in the Patani Insurgency*. Sweden: Stockholm International Peace Research Institute Publisher.

Ngampramuan, W. (2009). *Linguistic Landscape: A case study of signs in major transport hubs in Thailand* (Master's thesis). The Open University.

Ngampramuan, W. (2016a). *English as a Lingua Franca in Thailand: A case study of English used on signs in tourist domains* (Doctoral dissertation). The University of Nottingham, Nottingham.

Ngampramuan, W. (2016b). Intelligibility of English on signs in tourist attractions in Thailand. *Asia Journal*, *3*(5). 44-74.

Official Statistics Registration Systems. (2018). The Numerical Figure of Thai Citizen Population Based on House Registration. Retrieved on July 12, 2018 from http://stat.dopa.go.th/stat/y_stat60.html

Okal, O. B. (2014). Benefits of multilingualism in education. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, *2*(3), 223-229.

Premsrirat, S. (2008). Language for national reconciliation: Southern Thailand. *Enabling Education*, *12*, 16-17.

Premsrirat, S., & Samoh, U. (2012). Planning and implementing Patani Malay in bilingual education in southern Thailand. *Journal of the Southeast Asian Linguistics Society, 5*, 85-96.

Shohamy, E. (2006). *Language policy: Hidden agendas and new approaches*. New York: Routledge.

Shohamy, E., & Gorter, D. (Eds.). (2009). *Linguistic Landscape: Expanding the scenery*. New York: Routledge.

Shohamy, E. (2012). Linguistic landscapes and multilingualism. In M. Martin-Jones, A. Blackledge, & A. Creese (Eds.). *The Routledge handbook of multilingualism* (pp. 538-551). London: Routledge.

Smalley, W. A. (1994). *Linguistic diversity and national unity: Language ecology in Thailand*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Southern Border Provinces Administrative Centre (SBPAC). (2018). *The Action Plan of the Southern Border Provinces Development for 2013-2014*. Retrieved on July 14, 2018 from http://www.sbpac.go.th/index.php/component/attachments/download/245

Spolsky, B. (1998). *Sociolinguistics.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Stavans, A., & Hoffmann, C. (2015). *Multilingualism.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Van Herk, G. (2012). *What is sociolinguistics?* Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.

Warotamasikkhadit, U., & Person, K. (2011). Development of the national language policy (2006-2010) committee to draft the national language policy: The Royal Institute of Thailand. *The Journal of the Royal Institute of Thailand*, *3*, 29-44.

Thai EFL University Lecturers' Viewpoints towards Impacts of the CEFR on their English Language Curricula and Teaching Practice

Received : March 26, 2019
Revised : May 8, 2019
Accepted : May 14, 2019

Thebporn Kanchai

Abstract

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching and Assessment (CEFR) provides a basis for foreign language education, policies and practices. The CEFR influences English language teaching in Europe and beyond. In Thailand, since 2014, the CEFR has been applied to its English curriculum for all levels of education. However, little research has investigated teachers' understandings of the CEFR and their viewpoints towards its use. This qualitative interview study aimed to investigate university instructors' viewpoints of the CEFR and their applications of this framework in their English language classrooms. Thirty-three Thai English as a Foreign Language (EFL) university lecturers (20 females and 13 males) participated in this research project, using semi-structured interviews. The findings indicated that Thai EFL university lecturers had a reasonably good understanding of the CEFR, particularly the domains of assessment, the Common Reference Levels of language proficiency and language teaching and learning applications. However, Thai EFL lecturers have little insight into the approach underlying the CEFR, an action-oriented approach. The use of the CEFR in Thai EFL classrooms appeared to be associated with their understanding. Lecturers' perceptions towards the influences of the CEFR on English education in Thailand were found to be the combination of the positive evaluations and concerns. The current study further suggests that CEFR-related training programs to bring more practical impact on classroom teaching are required for Thai EFL lecturers and school teachers in general.

Keywords: Common European Framework of References (CEFR), CEFR Descriptors, Common European Levels of Language Proficiency, CEFR in Thailand

Introduction

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment (CEFR) is a standardized language learning and teaching document, developed by the Council of Europe (CoE) in 2001. The CEFR

provides practical guidelines and serves as a reference for users and practitioners to reflect on their pedagogical practices. The CEFR contains guidelines for language curriculum design, course syllabus development, language testing and assessment, teaching material development and other areas of language education (MoE, 2014).

The growing influence of the CEFR extends beyond the boundaries of Europe and the framework has been adopted by a number of countries. A number of empirical studies have been found in non-English and English-speaking countries (i.e., Hung, 2013; Minh Ngo, 2017; Valax, 2011; Van Huy & Hamid, 2015) and it has been argued that the framework contains high levels of abstractness (Figueras, North, Takala, Verhelst, & Van Avermaet, 2005). Some (i.e., Byrnes, 2007; Green, 2012) even consider the CEFR an elusive document and its abstractness makes it difficult for practitioners to interpret its descriptors of each level, resulting in an unwillingness to adopt the framework into classroom teaching and other pedagogical practices.

In Thailand, the government believes the implementation of the CEFR has increased the standard of all dimensions of English language learning and teaching. According to the Minister of Education (2014), the framework has also been employed to guide English language education in Thailand, involving curriculum design, language assessment and testing, pedagogic implications, educational material development and communicative language teaching practice. However, in practice, little is empirically known regarding Thai EFL university lecturers' overall understandings of the CEFR, the use of the CEFR in Thai EFL classrooms, and viewpoints on CEFR's influence in their instruction and context.

Literature Review

Overview: Common European Framework of Reference

The CEFR was established by the CoE as a common reference document for language learning, teaching and assessment of European languages (Ahn, 2015; University of Cambridge, 2001). During the 1960s, the CoE developed the language educational policy to focus on language learning for communicative purposes and the exchange of knowledge (Little, 2007).

The CEFR is underpinned by several key concepts: the promotion of coherence and transparency, communicative language use, plurilingualism and partial competences (North, 2014). To promote coherence and transparency in pedagogical practice, a metalanguage (or standardized pedagogical reference)

was developed to establish a mutual understanding of the CEFR for all language professionals across Europe (CoE, 2001). The development of this metalanguage predominantly involved the recognition of learning objectives, which were based on the Common Reference Levels of language proficiency and the specification of contents in relation to the communicative authentic use of language proposed by the CEFR (North, 2014).

Another important concept was the communicative language use or use of "language for a social purpose" (North, 2014, p. 10). Indeed, the CEFR views individuals as social agents who perform language actions to accomplish social purposes (CoE, 2001). North (2014) responded to this concept with "language learning is not perceived as an intellectual pursuit to train minds, but as a practical skill to communicate with others" (p. 15). Hence, the CEFR does not only encourage individuals to master linguistic knowledge of language, but rather fosters individuals to perform language actions. Another salient concept is plurilingualism. The CoE (2001) refers to the concept of plurilingualism as ones' ability to use all linguistic resources or repertoires to convey meanings in a conversation within a specific context, constraint, condition or culture. Significantly, this concept also challenges teaching methods that rely on the native speaker norms of language teaching to embrace the linguistic diversity (CoE, 2001).

The final significant concept is the notion of partial competences. This concept was described as a language that users process in a separate and unequal proficiency level (CoE, 2001). That is, language users generally have uneven competences. Hulstijin (2007) also proposes three language profiles that the CEFR refers to as partial competences. The first profile is those who have a high linguistic knowledge and can effectively engage in communicative language activities. The second profile is users who have limited linguistic knowledge but are able to perform in a wide range of communicative language activities. The last profile is users who have high linguistic knowledge but a limited ability to perform in communicative language activities. Hence, the notion of partial competences recognizes that the levels of proficiency are uneven among language users.

The CEFR provides four fundamental domains for its use. The first domain is the approach underlying the CEFR, known as an "action-oriented approach." The approach focuses on an ability of individuals in using a target language, rather than mastering linguistics features of a target language. The second domain is the Common Reference Levels of language proficiency. The CEFR classifies second language (L2) proficiency into six reference levels: A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 and C2. Each of six reference levels has its own descriptors justifying an ability of individuals in performing in a certain language. For example, "Can understand

and use familiar everyday expression" is the descriptor of A1 users (CoE, 2001). Another domain is Language Teaching and Learning Applications, which refers to the use of the Common Reference Levels to teaching applications. The final domain of CEFR use is an assessment, which is the use of the CEFR for assessment purposes.

Criticisms of the CEFR

The first criticism of the CEFR is that the development of the descriptors addressed in each stage of the Common Reference Levels lack theoretical soundness (Fulcher, 2004; Little, 2007; North, 2007, 2014). That is, the CEFR descriptors are not derived from Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory. More specifically, in the process of developing the descriptors, language teachers in Europe were asked to select which descriptors best justified proficiency in each level. Hence, the descriptors are "scaled teacher descriptors" (North, 2014, p. 23), rather than theory-driven.

Another criticism is directed at the nature of the descriptors in relation to readability. Byrnes (2007) and Green (2012) state that the CEFR is a complicated, abstract and multifaceted document and this might cause misinterpretation and misuse from people outside Europe. In addition, O'Sullivan and Weir (2011) are also critical of the descriptors and question how the broad descriptors could potentially account for a complex, dynamic process when individuals engage in an interactive conversation. Additionally, it has been suggested that the descriptors are not user-friendly (Figueras, 2012; Komorowska, 2004; North, 2009).

The illustrative descriptors may also be problematic in assessments (North, 2014). Assessing students' performance using can-do statements and the descriptors lends the assessment to more subjectivity, resulting in the ineffectiveness of the CEFR implementation for assessment. Additionally, the CEFR has exerted a political influence since it was adopted by a number of governments across the world. Some argue that the CEFR conveys a political agenda of language education, rather than being a language reference document (Fulcher, 2010). More extreme criticism is that the CEFR is a tool of power, "dominating language education at all levels in Europe" (Fulcher, 2010; McNamara & Roever, 2006; McNamara, 2011).

CEFR Studies in Asia

As aforementioned, the influence of the CEFR has expanded across Europe and a number of Asian countries have adapted the framework as a guideline to uplift their language education system. In Japan, during 2008-2011, a team of language researchers and linguists developed the English language framework to best suit

the context of Japan, specifically Japanese learners of English. With the involvement of language learners and instructors, the project resulted in the immergence of the CEFR-J (Negishi & Tono, 2014). The CEFR-J comprises 12 sublevels: Pre-A1, A1.1, A1.2, A1.3, A2.1, A2.2, B1.1, B2.1, B2.2, C1, and C2. The framework was also based on the action-oriented approach and the can-do statements.

In China, there was also an initiative in developing the language framework, labeled as a "Common Chinese Framework of Reference for Languages - CCFR" with the concentration on English instruction (Jin, Wu, Anderson, & Song, 2014). The ultimate purpose of the CCFR development was to promote coherence and efficiency of its language education system as there, in fact, are seven national curricula of English in each level of education (Jin et al., 2014). The CCFR has, therefore, been believed to provide opportunity in examining fundamental aspects concerning English language learning and teaching; however, there has been challenges in administration and stakeholders' acceptance.

In Vietnam, some attempts have been made to establish the language framework called CEFR-V, with V standing for Vietnam (Hung, 2013). Before the development of the CEFR-V, the Ministry of Education and Training utilized the CEFR as a benchmark to gauge English language ability of language teachers nationwide. The exam results revealed that approximately 83 percent of primary level teachers, more than 90 percent of upper secondary level teachers, and 45 percent of tertiary English language lecturers had their English abilities below the required number (Hung, 2013). Hence, the government of Vietnam has employed the CEFR in order to move toward solving problems pertaining to English language teaching and learning.

A number of studies have been conducted to expand the CEFR body of literature. Valax (2011) conducted a survey to investigate teachers' perceptions of the CEFR in Australia, New Zealand, Hong Kong, Taiwan, the UK, and France. The findings suggested that just 20 percent of participants had read the CEFR themselves. Valax argued that "there is little interest in, or enthusiasm for the CEFR among those frontline professionals who will ultimately determine whether it has any real impact on the teaching and learning of languages" (p. 1). However, this study could not ascertain whether those participants had an understanding of the CEFR and whether it had an impact on their teaching practice.

Van Huy and Hamid (2015) conducted a qualitative case study aiming to understand how the stakeholders received, interpreted and responded to the processes of adopting the CEFR within the context of Vietnam. The research revealed, on the one hand, that implementing the CEFR in the context of Vietnam

was perceived as a tool to enhance the quality of English language education. On the other hand, the adoption of the CEFR seemed to be viewed as "a macro political move" rather than addressing critical English teaching problems at the micro level. The study concluded that "the adoption of the CEFR is mainly for accountability and administrative purposes rather than an effective remedial solution to the current language problem" (p. 71). Similarly, Minh Ngo (2017) conducted a study to investigate Vietnamese teachers' perceptions on the use of the CEFR in their language classrooms and their needs. The study found that language teachers in Vietnam had positive attitudes towards the impacts of the CEFR and adopted the framework at various levels. However, Vietnamese teachers required more practical guidance of applying the CEFR to their pedagogical practice. The study proposed that all stakeholders should take actions to sustain the influence of the CEFR.

CEFR in Thailand

The Thai Ministry of Education (MoE) introduced the CEFR in 2014 in accordance with the focus on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The objective of the enactment of the latest English language education policy was to enhance the standard of English education across the nation at all levels (MoE, 2014) and to establish the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC). English is a working language within this community and the economic competitiveness of the AEC requires a high proficiency level of English from Thai labourers.

In the same year, the MoE announced an "English Language Teaching Reform Policy" to enhance the capacity of teaching and learning English across the nation. This was also to provide a nexus between the CEFR and a teaching approach of CLT (MoE, 2014). Within this reform, the CEFR is believed to be a significant conceptual framework for English language education in Thailand, involving all parameters; curriculum design, language teaching development, testing, assessment development, teacher development programs and establishing learning objectives (English Language Institute, 2015). The CEFR levels (A1-C2) are employed as an anticipated achievement of students' performance. That is, the A1 level is targeted for an ultimate achievement for primary school students, A2 is for junior high school students and B1 is set for high school and vocational students. The processes of implementing the CEFR in the context of Thailand were assisted by the British Council in Thailand (British Council Thailand, 2016). The objective of the collaboration was to deliver the teacher training programs, called *Boost Camp*, with a practical emphasis on CLT to enhance the quality of English language teaching across the nation. In addition, this CLT-oriented training program was established for English language teachers and presented as a solution to the English language problem in Thailand (Mala, 2016).

At the tertiary education level, the Office of Higher Education Committee (OHEC) has enacted language education policies to standardize English language teaching and learning. That is, universities in Thailand are required to develop their own language policies or framework to align with the CEFR, as proposed by the government. The universities also need to deconstruct and improve their English language courses with the outcomes associated with the CEFR levels. It is also suggested that other workshops, professional development projects, and extra curriculum activities, which encourage students to use English language, should be established by an educational institution. University students are required to have a placement test or proficiency test, developed by a university, or equivalent standard examinations (IELTS, TOFL) to improve students' English language proficiency (OHEC, 2016).

A group of academics in ELT also developed the ten-level framework of English language, the so-called "FRELE-TH" to be employed in Thai language education system (Hiranburana et al., 2017). Based on the CEFR, the development processes involved: (1) analyzing the CEFR adaptation and related literature in various contexts; (2) developing the levels of FRELE-TH; (3) having stakeholders from the academics (*N=112*) and professionals (*N=100*) refine the developed framework; (4) performing the public hearing stage involving the experts (*N= 150*) from all sectors over the country; and (5) carrying out the completed FRELE-TH. The purposes of the framework development were to: (1) solve the problem of the low proficiency level of English language users or learners as evident in the EF Proficiency Index 2015; (2) establish the coherence across all types of assessments and raise the standards in learning and goals; and (3) be used by the government in describing the levels of English abilities in Thailand's local and international contexts.

To date, there has been few studies shedding light on the CEFR in Thailand. Franz and Teo (2017) conducted a study to investigate perceptions of state secondary school teachers of English towards English language education reform policy. The findings revealed that the CEFR is only perceived as an English test for language teachers and the framework has no further implementation in classroom and assessment. In terms of teachers' understanding and appreciation of the policy, the study suggests that teachers express "indifference and ignorance of the policy" (Franz & Teo, 2017, p. 1).

Akuli and Poonpon (2018) conducted another mixed-methods study to explore the effects of the tasks that were based on the CEFR in enhancing grade-eight students' speaking ability. The tests were administered prior to and after the treatment to a total of 40 students. The study also investigated the students' attitudes towards the use of the CEFR-based speaking tasks, using a questionnaire. Then, 13 students were randomly selected to participate in a semi-

structured interview. The Paired Sample *t*-Test was performed to compare the scores of the pre-test and post-test. The findings revealed that the use of the CEFR-based speaking tasks could enhance students' speaking ability while the qualitative data disclosed that students had positive feelings towards the implemented instruction.

Objectives of the Current Study

Despite the growing influence of the CEFR across nations, we still do not fully know the use, impact and perceptions of the CEFR. First, CoE (2005), Martiynink and Noijions (2007) and Broek and Ende (2013) attempted to capture perceptions in the boarder perspective towards the use of the CEFR, but did not reference the teaching practices of the teachers and the in-depth understanding of the framework. Additionally, the studies conducted by Figueras et al. (2005) and Eckes et al. (2005) limited their focus to the teachers' attitudes on the impact of the CEFR on their instructional practice. Insights into the CEFR from those participants may have therefore been underrepresented.

Regarding the studies in Asia, Valax (2011) used a survey to investigate the perceptions of the use of the CEFR from six different countries, but failed to address the understanding of the CEFR and viewpoints on how the CEFR impacted pedagogical practice. The other two studies in Vietnam (Minh Ngo, 2017; Van Huy & Humid, 2015) involved key stakeholders and did not examine participants' in-depth understandings of the CEFR or their perceptions on the impacts of the CEFR. Finally, the study in Thailand limited its scope to public school teachers only. The current study therefore focused on a Thai context and examined the overall understanding of Thai EFL university lecturers of the CEFR, classroom practice or application and their viewpoints towards the impact of the CEFR on their English language curricula and teaching practice. Three research questions were formulated as follows:

1) To what extent do Thai EFL university lecturers understand the concept of the CEFR?
2) To what extent do Thai university lecturers apply the CEFR in their English language classrooms?
3) What are Thai university lecturers' viewpoints towards the CEFR impacts on English language instruction in Thailand?

Methodology

Participants and Setting

The participants were 33 Thai university lecturers (20 females and 13 males) from two faculties relevant to English language education, *Humanities and Social Sciences* and *Education*, in Thai universities. Participation in the project was voluntary. The criteria to identify potential participants was that the lecturers needed to have applied the CEFR in their classroom teaching and at least one year of teaching experience to ensure that participants had a sufficient understanding of their teaching context and the context of Thailand in general. Participants' demographics are illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Participants' demographics

Pseudonym	Gender	Qualification	Position	Teaching Exp. (year)
Participant 1	F	PhD in ELT and Applied Linguistics	Lecturer	17
Participant 2	F	M.Ed. in Language and Culture for Communication	Lecturer	14
Participant 3	F	Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics	Lecturer	5
Participant 4	F	M.Ed. in TEFL	Lecturer	15
Participant 5	F	M.Ed. in English	Lecturer	10
Participant 6	M	M.Ed. in ELT	Lecturer	2
Participant 7	F	Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics (Continuing)	Lecturer	10
Participant 8	M	Ph.D. in English Language and Applied Linguistics	Lecturer	18
Participant 9	F	Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics	Lecturer	13
Participant 10	M	Ph.D. in Literature Studies	Lecturer	8
Participant 11	M	M.A. in English	Lecturer	5
Participant 12	M	M.Ed. in TESOL	Lecturer	2
Participant 13	M	Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics	Lecturer	6
Participant 14	M	Ph.D. in Linguistics	Lecturer	8
Participant 15	M	Ph.D. in TESOL	Lecturer	12
Participant 16	F	Ph.D. in Language Education	Lecturer	21
Participant 17	F	Ph.D. in Language and Communication	Lecturer	15
Participant 18	F	Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics	Lecturer	6
Participant 19	M	Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics	Lecturer	8
Participant 20	F	Ph.D. in English for International Communication	Lecturer	5
Participant 21	F	M.A. in English	Lecturer	14
Participant 22	F	M.A. in Communication	Lecturer	7
Participant 23	M	M.A. in English	Lecturer	6
Participant 24	F	M.A. in English	Lecturer	4

Participant 25	M	Ph.D. in Literature Studies	Lecturer	18
Participant 26	M	Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics (Continuing)	Lecturer	4
Participant 27	F	Ph.D. in French Education	Lecturer	18
Participant 28	F	M.A. in Translation	Lecturer	22
Participant 29	F	M.A. in Translation	Lecturer	20
Participant 30	F	M.A. in ELT	Lecturer	4
Participant 31	M	M.A. in TEFL	Lecturer	6
Participant 32	F	M.A. in TEFL	Lecturer	1
Participant 33	F	Ph.D. in Education	Lecturer	16

Research Instruments

The current study is a qualitative study that employed data from two sources to examine the overall insights of the CEFR of Thai EFL university lecturers, their viewpoints on the influence of the CEFR, and how the framework impacts their English language instructional practice. Semi-structured interviews were used to collect in-depth data from the participants. The interview format and questions were adopted from the studies of the CoE (2005) and Martiyniuk and Noijions (2007) as they both investigated the perceptions of the overall use of the CEFR across different nations. The interview took place two times – at the beginning and the end of the semester. Moreover, classroom observation was also used to view the CEFR-oriented application in the classroom scenario. Participants' instruction was observed three times over the semester. That is, the observations were in week 5, week 10 and week 15, respectively. Each university lecturer had been asked for permission prior to the actual classroom observation. Twenty participants gave permission to have their English language instruction observed. The researcher acted as an observer throughout the class and did not interfere.

Data Collection Procedures

Prior to the interviews, participants were contacted by email to confirm a preferred time and date. Interviews then proceeded individually, based on participant's schedules. Interviews were audio-recorded. Each interview took approximately 30-40 minutes. The interviews were conducted in their native language to gain more insights from the participants and avoid uncomfortable feelings during interview. After the interview, the data were analyzed using the qualitative data analysis procedures suggested by Creswell (2009). The procedures involve: 1) organizing data for analysis; 2) reading through data obtained; 3) coding the data; 4) establishing themes or descriptions; 5) interpreting themes; and 6) interpreting the meanings of themes. Classroom observation was conducted after the interviews to examine the CEFR-oriented instructional practice.

The current study used a "member-checking" strategy, suggested by Creswell (2014) to ensure the trustworthiness of the transcription process. This was done by returning the transcriptions to the individual participants in order for them to assess whether the transcripts were accurate. The current study enhanced the dependability of the research by providing detailed accounts of research methodology, data collection procedures and analysis. As suggested by Phakiti and Paltridge (2015) and Denscombe (2010), the qualitative dependability can be enhanced by such an explicit justifications of the research method, showing others how the conclusions of the study are drawn.

Findings

Overall Insights towards the CEFR

The qualitative data analysis reveals that the Thai EFL university lecturers appear to have similar conceptualizations of the overall purpose of the CEFR. Specifically, the CEFR was perceived as being a guideline for language testing and assessment that incorporates the six-level scale of language proficiency. Most participants understood the role and purpose of the six level scales – the Common Reference Levels (A1-C2) – that are used to classify individuals' language proficiency levels.

> *The CEFR is regarded as a useful criterion for assessing students' language abilities. The CEFR offers a global scale. It is basically known as A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 and C2 and it is fundamentally used to measure the proficiency level of students. (Participant 4)*

However, none of the lecturers elaborated on their understanding of the CEFR in terms of the possible uses of the framework or demonstrated in-depth knowledge of the CEFR in relation to assessment. For example, lecturers did not comment on the functions of the six-level framework in setting up assessment objectives, developing tests' content specification and comparing among tests in different systems.

Thai EFL lecturers also tended to associate the CEFR with English language teaching and learning, with five out of 11 participants reporting that the CEFR is a guideline for English language teaching. This is illustrated in the following example:

> *CEFR is a systematic scheme of English language teaching approach in European pedagogical context (Kong). It is an international standard used to describe language ability on a six-*

> *point scale – A1, A2, B1, B2, C1 and C2, with C2 indicating someone's' mastery of English. (Participant 2)*

These lecturers appear to be aware that the CEFR is a framework for English language teaching, but not that the framework is also applied to other languages. For example, Kong perceived the CEFR as an ELT approach and Ann stated that the six-level scale justified language proficiency of English of individuals. This is likely because these lecturers teach English.

The lecturers also appear to know the function of the CEFR in establishing learning objectives for language courses. Some lecturers viewed the CEFR as a guideline for establishing learning objectives for their teaching. The Thai EFL university lecturers had very little to say about the approach underlying the CEFR. Only one lecturer stated that the CEFR provides an action-oriented pedagogical approach.

CEFR-oriented applications in classroom

Classroom observation revealed that the Thai EFL university lecturers seemed unaware of the action-oriented approach, which is the underlying approach of the CEFR. Instead, most of the lecturers carried out their instructions only concerning the content matter of each course. Due to the specificity of the university courses, the university lecturers raised that "it seems impossible to implement the CEFR into instructional practice because it is somewhat difficult for me to do so." Some further addressed that "the CEFR seems to act as a level of language competence students are required to reach at the end of the programme." This suggests that instructional practices have not been designed or developed in the line with the CEFR or other related features of the CEFR, namely Can-Do statements and portfolios.

The interviews further demonstrated that the majority of the lecturers appear to have applied the CEFR to in-house assessments. The assessments involved formative assessment and high-stakes examinations, such as an entrance or exit examination. This is illustrated in the following examples:

> *I have used the CEFR for creating examinations to be in line with the CEFR standard. I have created a language examination based on the suggested vocabulary lists on the B2 level, which is required by the policy. (Participant 18)*

> *Yes, I have applied the CEFR. Recently I was involved in a project that required me to develop CEFR-based English tests, which will later be used as an exit exam for undergraduate students at my university. (Participant 20)*

The applications of the CEFR in Thai EFL classrooms appear to be strongly associated with the Common Reference Levels of language proficiency. The data analysis suggests that the six levels of language proficiency were used as a reference in developing and designing teaching materials, including language courses and curricula, and textbook selection. The last aspect of the CEFR applications is the approach underlying the CEFR. As described, only one lecturer discussed applying an action-oriented approach. The lecturer stated that he used a pedagogical approach, which focuses on developing student's actual use of a target language, rather than encouraging learners to only master linguistic knowledge.

Influence of CEFR on English Language Teaching

Regarding the perceptions of Thai EFL university lecturers on the extent to which the CEFR influences Thai EFL classrooms, all the Thai lecturers expressed the view that the CEFR has some degree of influence in the teaching and learning of English language in Thai EFL contexts. Specifically, the CEFR is considered as a useful standardized document for English language learning and teaching. However, some instructors find that the content of the framework contains some abstract and elusive elements.

The majority of the lecturers were of the opinion that the CEFR is a useful document for language education. Thirty participants said that the framework provided useful guidelines for setting up learning objectives, using the Common Reference Levels of language proficiency. Additionally, the CEFR was perceived by most of the participants as a framework that facilitated language course and curriculum design.

> *Instructors know the strengths and weaknesses of their students and find appropriate ways in helping them improve their abilities. Secondly, instructors can adopt the CEFR in writing course development to suit the level of students. Instructors can define clear objectives in each subject. (Participant 28)*

Some of the Thai EFL lecturers believed that the CEFR had little impact on classroom teaching. Korn stated that while the CEFR is evident in the language education policy, it has not been applied to classroom teaching. Korn further believed that the CEFR has less impact on language classrooms. Instead, the CEFR has been mostly used as a guiding document to align their tests with the CEFR.

> *In my context, the CEFR has not been a big influence yet, but it has started to have some influence. I have seen just only at*

> *the policy level. We used it to show that our tests are in line with the CEFR levels. I don't think we apply into classroom teaching. (Participant 32)*

All Thai EFL university lecturers stated that the CEFR is relatively difficult and abstract. More precisely, the participants raised concerns that the descriptors of the six-level framework were too abstract and difficult to make interpretations, resulting in the inability to differentiate learners' performance at each level. Ann, one of the participants, mentioned that "*its descriptors are somehow difficult. Oftentimes, I cannot tell the difference among the levels.*" Ann also highlighted that the descriptors of the CEFR global scale (A1-C2) were difficult to differentiate language performance at each level of proficiency. Further, Ann frequently had to double-check her work against the CEFR website. Interestingly, instead of using the CEFR book, Ann consulted the website for the relevant information confirming her decisions of applying the CEFR. Ann admitted that although she had the CEFR handbook, the book was also written using a policy level language which she considered "abstract and difficult to digest".

Another salient aspect raised by Thai EFL university lecturers is that the CEFR would not play a facilitative role in the Thai context. This is because the characteristics of Thai EFL classrooms, such as very large classroom sizes and a variation of English language levels, seems to undermine the success of the CEFR implementation. The awareness of Thai EFL students' achievements was not associated with the use of language for communication, but rather passing examinations.

> *The CEFR will be used in Thailand but the classroom size, the wide range of difference in language proficiency of the learners in the class and the awareness of the achievement in terms of performance, all these factors will undermine the effectiveness of CEFR. (Participant 26)*

Another issue that was raised is that Thai students might have insufficient language exposure during learning. As stated by one of the participants "*I do not think the intentions of the CEFR to be achieved here in Thailand. Look at the environment we live in. There is very few chance to engage in interactive communication. I mean talking in English with the authentic language use"* (Phong). Encouraging students to use the target language, an intention of the CEFR, may be difficult to achieve as the local environment does not provide a great deal of language exposure in terms of being involved in an interactive communication and acquiring authentic use of language.

A low proficiency level and lack of CEFR knowledge among instructors are also important issues evident in the qualitative data. Tachit shared his concerns about

the low level of English proficiency among Thai English language teachers. He also stated that Thai teachers in general lacked understanding of the CEFR, which they were required to follow according to the English language education policy. Tachit raised these points to question the effectiveness of the CEFR's implementation in Thailand.

> *Many English teachers themselves do not know what the CEFR is and their English language ability is not at a satisfactory level. So, how can they actually teach their students to reach a certain CEFR levels. (Participant 18)*

Tachit shared his concerns about the issue of a low level of English proficiency among Thai English language teachers. He also stated that Thai teachers in general lacked the understandings of the CEFR, which they were required to follow according to the English language education policy. Tachit raised these points to question the effectiveness of the CEFR implementation in Thailand.

Discussion

The findings indicated that Thai EFL university lecturers in this study have a reasonably good understanding of the CEFR in the domains of assessment, the Common Reference Levels of language proficiency, and language teaching and learning applications. The only domain where lecturers have little understanding is the approach underlying the CEFR. This finding is in contrast with a previous study in Thailand that suggested Thai English teachers lacked knowledge of the CEFR and that the CEFR was perceived only as a testing system for teachers, which they were required to take by the MoE (Franz & Teo, 2017). These contrasting results could be accounted for by two factors. First, the participants of the two studies were drawn from different education levels. Franz and Teo's (2017) study involved teachers of English in secondary schools, while the current study drew the participants from a tertiary education level. Hence, the different educational contexts may explain the discrepancy between the two studies. Second, the participants of the two studies have experienced different exposures to the CEFR. As noted by Franz and Teo (2017), the CEFR was introduced to the secondary school teachers through the CEFR-referenced examination, as they were required to sit the test. In contrast, the participants of the current study have been exposed to the CEFR through the training program organized by their university, conferences and self-education. This means that the type of exposure to the CEFR potentially affects the level of understanding of the CEFR in language lecturers and teachers.

Thai EFL university lecturers' understanding of the CEFR appears to align with the aspects of the framework that they apply to their teaching practice. More precisely, the CEFR applications are associated with the use for assessment and the use of the Common Reference Levels of language proficiency. These two aspects of the CEFR applications correspond to the knowledge of the Thai EFL lecturers. Previous studies in Europe (Broke & Ende, 2013; CoE, 2005; Martiyniuk & Noijions, 2007) have also suggested that the CEFR has mostly been applied in these two areas.

The CEFR aims to introduce self-directed learning for foreign language education, particularly by developing learners' awareness of their present language proficiency, encouraging them to set their learning goals and providing self-assessments (CoE, 2001). The self-assessment projects, such as DIALANG, the English Language Portfolio (ELP) and the ALTE can-do project, are proposed and developed within the CEFR framework. Little (2007) states that the ELP provides effective practices for classroom settings. Moreover, the ALTE can-do projects and the DAILANG self-assessment scales also provide important outcomes for self-directed learning for L2 education (Little, 2011). However, the current findings suggest that these frameworks are not well known or used among the Thai EFL lecturers in the current study.

It was also found that Thai EFL lecturers generally do not apply the approach underlying the CEFR, an action-oriented approach, to classroom teaching. The pedagogical function of the action-oriented approach is to prepare students to be able to use the target language for their communicative purposes, rather than only master linguistic knowledge (CoE, 2001). This finding is in conflict with a previous study in Europe, suggesting that public schools in Europe had applied the action-oriented approach to enhance students' ability of productive skills (Broke & Ende, 2013). In contrast, this type of teaching pedagogy had not been applied in the current context, and may not be applied in other contexts in Thailand. As stated by one lecturer in the current study, people in Europe used English for "communicative purposes, not for taking an exam" and their environment encouraged people to use English.

Finally, the Thai EFL university lecturers agreed that aligning their pedagogical practices in accordance with the CEFR guideline provides, at least to some extent, benefits for English language education in Thai EFL contexts. That is, the CEFR provides guidelines in planning language curricula, selecting textbooks, developing language assessment and tests, and designing course syllabi and materials. Hence, having one standard guideline for English language teaching is beneficial for the lecturers to reflect on their pedagogical practice.

The current study illustrates that the main factor affecting CEFR implementation in Thailand appears to be the classroom context. Thai classrooms are normally large and full of varying language abilities and teaching time allowance of each subject is limited – approximately 45 minutes. The current findings also support the claim that there are limited opportunities for language exposure and oral practice (Frederickson, 2002; Sanpatchayapong, 2017). Hence, this might be a tremendous challenge for the MoE to ensure that the CEFR is consistently adopted in Thai contexts.

The CEFR embraces the concept of CLT and believes that learning involves using the target language through interactive communication. Surprisingly, the lecturers do not seem to be aware that the concept of the CLT relates to the CEFR. Previous studies have shown that the CLT has not been widely used in classrooms across Thailand due to many factors (Fitzpatrick, 2011; Kulsiri, 2006; Nonthaisong, 2015; Thongsri, 2005). One of the key factors is the use of a grammar-translation teaching method, which has been the favored method of English language teaching in Thailand. Another factor is discrepancy between teaching and assessment. That is, the Thai education system is exam-oriented and focuses on the ability to pass a test, rather than practice of productive use of language. Hence, the unsuccessful implementation of CLT and this discrepancy between teaching and assessment must be resolved before embracing the CEFR as a means to increase the standard of English language teaching and learning in Thailand.

Another concern expressed by the Thai EFL university lecturers is that the CEFR has little practical impact on English language classrooms. The current analysis suggests that some participants believed that the CEFR has a great deal of impact on assessment and language policy accountability, rather than classroom teaching. This phenomenon has also been evident in other studies, suggesting that the CEFR may have been primarily employed for political and administrative purposes (Broke & Ende 2013; Franz & Teo, 2017; Read, 2019; Valax, 2011; Van Huy & Hamid, 2015). Furthermore, the findings of the current study support the criticism that the CEFR conveys the political agenda of Europe, since it was primarily developed as a metalanguage to be used within Europe (Fulcher, 2010; McNamara & Roever, 2006; McNamara, 2011). In the case of Thailand, the adoption of the CEFR perhaps contributes more to the accountability of the standardization of the national English language education, rather than providing practical usage for language teachers to apply in their teaching contexts. There appears to have been relatively little impact on Thai classroom teaching (Franz & Teo, 2017).

The current results indicate that the CEFR seems to be abstract and perplexing for some Thai EFL lecturers. The CEFR is regarded as a theoretical framework,

which contains detailed descriptions and is relatively difficult to understand. The abstractness of the CEFR, especially its descriptors, has also been commented on in a number of other studies (Byrnes, 2007; Figueras et al., 2005; Figueras, 2012; Green, 2012; Komorowska, 2004; Martiyniuk & Noijions, 2007; North, 2009; O'Sullivan & Weir, 2011). Thus, to promote transparency and coherence in language education, this issue needs to be taken into consideration by policy makers.

Finally, lecturers in the current study raised the point that the English language proficiency of some Thai English language teachers may be quite low, and this undermines the success of the CEFR implementation in Thai classrooms. As demonstrated in the results of the CEFR-referenced examination, administered by the MoE in 2015, 94 percent of Thai English language teachers were assessed to be at the B1 level or A1 and A2 levels. The critical question to be raised here is how teachers of English could potentially prepare students to be able to reach a certain level, required by the national policy – A1 for primary school students, A2 for secondary grade 3 and B1 for secondary grade 6 – if they do not have this level of proficiency themselves. In Franz and Teo's (2017) study, 99 percent of Thai English teachers agreed that language ability of teachers should be higher than B1 in order to teach students. However, Tsang (2017), suggests that "having a native-like or a high proficiency does not equate to successful teaching" (p. 112). Nevertheless, whether Thai teachers of English have low or high English proficiency, the issue of the minimum English proficiency level for teachers requires further study.

Pedagogical and Policy Recommendations

The current study indicates that the Thai EFL university lecturers may benefit from a CEFR training program to provide CEFR knowledge and practical classroom applications. Suggested areas for training include language teaching and learning applications and the approach underlying the CEFR. Some of the lecturers stated that they need more "practical and concrete examples" for classroom applications. Other areas, such as assessment development, syllabus design, language learning need analysis may also benefit from further training. CEFR-related training programs could bring a clearer picture of CEFR implementation in all domains.

Another recommendation is to establish a peer support network for teachers of English to exchange their knowledge and discuss any potential issues with the CEFR and its classroom applications. As suggested by Van den Branden (2009), peer support provides room for teachers to discuss their pedagogical practices in relation to theories, experiences and lessons. Minh Ngo (2017)also argued that it

would help teachers to view the linkage between the framework and applications into classrooms. Peer support could be adopted into Thai EFL contexts, as informal discussion could enhance understanding and awareness, which would assist lecturers to successfully integrate the CEFR into their pedagogical practices.

The disparity between the CEFR and the examination-oriented nature of English language education of Thailand is an issue that needs to be considered. The MoE believes that the shift from a traditional teacher-centred method to CLT has increased the quality of English teaching; however, the end product of the English language education system is to prepare students to sit a multiple choice examination. This critical issue, which is deeply embedded in English language education in Thailand, needs to be taken into consideration by administrators and policy makers to transform language education to be more aligned with the communicative use of the language.

Future Research

To increase the generalizability of the current research, similar studies should be conducted with different stakeholders such as language teachers, administrators, policy makers and students; and in different contexts such as universities, primary and secondary schools. This would provide a broader understanding of the perceptions of the CEFR and issues related to its implementation. Further research might also employ data triangulation to bring more multidimensional results. For instance, qualitative data could be collected from different sources, including document analysis, classroom observation and student interviews. A questionnaire might be of importance in collecting qualitative data from a great number of participants. These data could then be triangulated to form a coherent overall picture (Creswell, 2014). Such an analysis would increase the validity of the current results. Another important area for further research is a pre-service teacher training program and development. That is, following CEFR training, what are the roles of the institutions in ensuring that pre-service teachers successfully implement the CEFR in their classrooms? As stated by one lecturer, the CEFR has been influential in tertiary education, but at the primary and secondary level it has not yet been brought into focus.

Conclusion

The current qualitative interview study was conducted with the objective to investigate Thai EFL lecturers' overall understanding of the CEFR and the

influence of the CEFR on English language education in Thailand. The findings indicate that Thai EFL university lecturers have a reasonably good understanding of the CEFR for the aspects of assessment, the Common Reference Levels of language proficiency, and language teaching and learning applications. However, the Thai EFL lecturers appeared to have little understanding of the approach underlying the CEFR. The attitudes of the Thai EFL lecturers towards the CEFR were also mixed. The context of Thai classrooms was viewed as being one of the main factors undermining the CEFR implementation. Other aspects, such as less focus on CLT, abstractness of the CEFR descriptors and the low language abilities of Thai English teachers were also reported as being issues undermining the implementation of the CEFR in Thailand. Although the CEFR is the comprehensive guideline for language teaching and learning, the participants in this study view its influence in Thailand as being restricted to policy and assessment. The CEFR may therefore be a guideline for policy makers, rather than for practitioner-teachers. Ultimately, rather than adopting a new language education policy such as the CEFR to increase the standard of English language education, the most practical solution is perhaps to first resolve critical ongoing problems that are deeply rooted in the English language education system, particularly within Thailand.

References

Ahn, E. (2015). Book review: M. Byram & L. Parmenter (Eds.), The Common European Framework of Reference: The globalisation of language education policy. *Language Policy*, *14*(3), 293-295. http://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s10993-013-9307-6

British Council Thailand. (2016). Retrieved from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FbvPIQXgM6s

Broek, S., & Ende, I. (2013). *The implementation of the Common European Framework for languages in European education systems* (pp. 9-76). Brussels: Policy Department B: Structural and Cohesion Policies European Parliament.

Byrnes, H. (2007). Developing national language education policies: Reflections on the CEFR. *The Modern Language Journal*, *91*(4), pp. 679-685. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2007.00627_10.x

Council of Europe. (2001). *The Common European Framework of Reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Council of Europe. (2005). *Survey on the use of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR): Synthesis of results* (pp. 2-8). Council of Europe. Retrieved from http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Surveyresults.pdf

Creswell, J. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. London, UK: SAGE.

Creswell, J. (2014). *Research design qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). USA: SAGE Publications Inc.

Crotty, M. (1996). *Phenomenology and nursing research*. South Melbourne, Vic.: Churchill Livingstone.

Denscombe, M. (2010). *The good research guide for small-scale social research projects* (4th ed.). Berkshire, England: Open University Press.

Eckes, T., Ellis, M., Kalnberzina, V., Pižorn, K., Springer, C., Szollás, K., & Tsagari, C. (2005). Progress and problems in reforming public language examinations in Europe: Cameos from the Baltic States, Greece, Hungary, Poland, Slovenia, France and Germany. *Language Testing*, *22*(3), 355-377. http://dx.doi.org/10.1191/0265532205lt313oa

English Language Institute (2015). *Handbook for learning and teaching English in a new way according to the CEFR*. Bangkok: Office of Basic Education Commission (OBEC).

Figueras, N. (2012). The impact of the CEFR. *ELT Journal*, *66*(4), 477-485. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccs037

Figueras, N., North, B., Takala, S., Verhelst, N., & Van Avermaet, P. (2005). Relating examinations to the Common European Framework: A manual. *Language Testing*, *22*(3), pp. 261-279. http://dx.doi.org/10.1191/0265532205lt308oa

Fitzpatrick, D. (2011). *Making sense of the English language proficiency in Thailand: An exploration of teachers' practices and dispositions* (doctoral thesis). University of Exeter, Exeter, UK.

Franz, J., & Teo, A. (2017). 'A2 is Normal' – Thai secondary school English teachers' encounters with the CEFR. *RELC Journal*, 003368821773881. http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0033688217738816

Fredrickson, T. (2002). Swimming in the mainstream. *The Bangkok Post*, p. 1.

Fulcher, G. (2004). Deluded by artifices? The Common European Framework and harmonization. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, *1*(4), pp. 253-266.

Fulcher, G. (2010). *Practical language testing*. London: Hodder Education.

Gibbs, G. (2007). Analyzing qualitative data. In U. Flick (Ed.), *The Sage qualitative research kit*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Green, A. (2012). *Language functions revisited: Theoretical and empirical bases for languages construct definitions across the ability range, English profile Volume 2*. Cambridge, UCLES: Cambridge University Press.

Hiranburana, K., Subphadoongchone, P., Tangkiengsirisin, S., Phoochaeoensil, S., Gainey, J., Thogsngsri, J., ... & Taylor, P. (2017). A Framework of Reference for English Language Education in Thailand (FRELE-TH)—based on the CEFR, The Thai experience. *LEARN Journal*, *10*(2), 90-119. Retrieved from www.researchgate.net.

Hulstijn, J. (2007). The shaky ground beneath the CEFR: Quantitative and qualitative dimensions of language proficiency 1. *The Modern Language Journal*, *91*(4), 663-667. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2007.00627_5.x

Hung, N. N. (2013). Vietnam's National Foreign Language 2020 Project: Challenges, opportunities, and solutions. Retrieved from http://bruneiusprogramme.org/wp-content/uploads/2013-Forum-Publication-Complete.63-65.pdf

Jin, Y., Wu, Z., Anderson, C., & Song, W. (2014). Developing the Common Chinese Framework of Reference for Languages: Challenges at macro and micropolitical levels. *Paper presented at the Language Testing Research Colloquium, Amsterdam, the Netherlands, June 4-6*.

Komorowska, H. (2004). The CEFR in course design and in teacher education. In K. Morrow, *Insights from the Common European Framework* (pp. 55-64). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kulsiri, S. (2006). *A critical analysis of the 2001 national foreign language standards-based curriculum in the Thai schools system* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Canberra, Australia.

Little, D. (2007). The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Perspectives on the making of supranational language education policy. *The Modern Language Journal*, *91*(4), pp. 645-655. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2007.00627_2.x

Mala, D. (2016). English in the news: Govt launches app, Teachers' 'boot camp'. *Bangkok Post*. [online] Available at: https://www.bangkokpost.com/learning/advanced/891472/english-in-the-news-govt-launches-app-teachers-boot-camp [Accessed 12 Jan. 2018].

Martyniuk, W., & Noijons, J. (2007). *Executive summary of results of a survey on the use of the CEFR at national level in the Council of Europe Member States*. Retrieved from http://www.coe.int/t/dg4/linguistic/Source/Survey_CEFR_2007_EN.doc.

McNamara, T. (2011). Managing learning: Authority and language assessment. *Language Teaching*, *44*(04), 500-515. http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/s0261444811000073

McNamara, T., & Roever, C. (2006). *Language testing: The social dimension*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Minh Ngo, X. (2017). Diffusion of the CEFR among Vietnamese Teachers: A mixed methods investigation. *Asean EFL Journal*, *19*(1), pp. 7-32.

Minister of Education. (2014). *Ministry of Education announcement regarding the English language teaching reform policy* [ebook]. Bangkok: English Language Institute, The Office of Basic Education Committee, pp. 1-3. Retrieved from http://english.obec.go.th/english/2013/index.php/th/2012-08-08-10-26-5/60-2014-04-05-08-29-13. [Accessed 5 Oct. 2017].

Negishi, M., & Tono, Y., (2014). An update on the CEFR-J project and its impact on the English language education in Japan. Paper presented at the 5th International Conference of the Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE), Paris, France, April 10-11. Retrieved August 25, 2014 from: http://events.cambridgeenglish.org/alte-2014/docs/presentations/alte2014-masashi-negishi.pdf .

Nonthaisong, K. (2015). *The impact of the English language policy in the basic education core curriculum BE 2551(2008) on English instruction of Thai secondary EFL teachers: A multiple case study in Northeast Thailand*. A Doctoral thesis. The University of Alabama, Alabama, USA.

North, B. (2007). The CEFR illustrative descriptors scales. *The Modern Language Journal*, *91*(4), pp. 656-659. http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2007.00627_3.x

North, B. (2009). *A profiling grid for language teachers*. European Association for Quality Language Services. Retrieved from http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.467.6058&rep=rep1&type=pdf

North, B. (2014). *The CEFR in practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

O'Sullivan, B., & Weir, C. (2011). Test development and validation. In B. O'Sullivan & C. Weir, *Language testing: Theories and practice, palgrave advances in linguistics* (pp. 13-32). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Phakiti, A., & Paltridge, B. (2015). Approaches and methods in applied linguistics research. In A. Phakiti & B. Paltridge, *Research methods in applied linguistics* (pp. 5-25). New York: Bloomsbury Academic.

Read, J. (2019). The influence of the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) in the Asia-Pacific region. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network Journal*, *12*(1), pp.12-18.

Sanpatchayapong, U. (2017). Development of tertiary English education in Thailand. In E. Park & B. Spolsky (Eds.), *English education at the tertiary level in Asia: From policy to practice* (pp. 168-182). London: Routledge.

The Ministry of Education. (2014). *English language teaching reform policy* (pp. 1-20). Bangkok, Thailand: Office of The Basic Education Commission Ministry of Education.

The Office of Higher Education Committee (OHEC). (2016). *Standardization of Language policy in Thai tertiary education*. Bangkok: The Office of Higher Education Committee.

Thongsri, M. (2005). *An investigation into the implementation of 2001 English language curriculum in government schools in Songkla* (Master's thesis). Prince Songkla University, Hat Yai, Thailand.

University of Cambridge. (2011). *Using the CEFR Principles of Good Practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Valax, P. (2011). *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: A critical analysis of its impact on a sample of teachers and curricula within and beyond Europe* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand.

Van den Branden, K. (2009). Diffusion and implementation of innovations. In M. Long & C. Doughty, *The handbook of language teaching* (pp. 659-672). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley-Blackwell.

Van Huy, N., & Hamid, M. (2015). Educational policy borrowing in a globalized world. *English Teaching: Practices & Critique, 14*(1), pp. 60-74. http://dx.doi.org/http://dx.org/10.1108/etpc-02-2015-0014

The Introduction of Nihongo Speech Trainer:

A Tool for Learning Japanese Sounds

Received : January 24, 2019
Revised : March 7, 2019
Accepted : May 2, 2019

Tanporn Trakantalerngsak

Abstract

This paper investigates the computer-assisted pronunciation training "Nihongo Speech Trainer", aimed at helping Thai learners of Japanese to improve their perception and production of Japanese contrasts. The tool focuses on specific sounds which are said to be problematic for Thai learners. Perceptual training using a high-variability phonetic training method ("HVPT perceptual training"), to be specific, a wide range of variations in training stimuli (real words and nonsense words), a number of native speakers' input, multiple phonetic contexts and multiple word positions of the L2 contrasts were used in the tool. Moreover, a tutorial video was also integrated in the Nihongo Speech Trainer. In this article, an overview of the Nihongo Speech Trainer system, key features and the user interface will be introduced.

Keywords: high-variability phonetic training (HVPT) perceptual training, Computer assisted pronunciation training, Japanese sounds, high variability phonetic training, identification task

Introduction

High-variability phonetic training (HVPT) method perceptual training has shown itself to be the most effective tool for improving learners' ability to accurately perceive L2 consonants, vowels and suprasegmentals such as pitch and tone. Furthermore, the improvement gained from this type of training has also been shown to have generalized to new tokens and new talkers, and these improvements were retained in the long-term (Lively, Logan, & Pisoni 1993; Bradlow, Akahane-Yamada, Pisoni, & Tohkura 1999; Hirata, 2004; Iverson, Pinet, & Evans, 2012). Some studies also report that perceptual improvement successfully generalizes to production (Bradlow et al., 1999; Lambacher, Martens, Kakehi, Marasinghe, & Molholt, 2005). However, despite these promising results, very little additional research has directly investigated the application of HVPT in computer-assisted pronunciation training applications (Barriuso & Hayes-Harb, 2018). Moreover, as Thomson (2011) also stated, if a web-based applications were available, it "would allow endless research

possibilities, as teachers and researchers could collaborate remotely, monitoring the effect of perceptual training and its impact on pronunciation, in order to improve future iterations of the software" (p. 760). However, regarding the idea of developing computer-assisted pronunciation training applications, it has been stated that an efficient and effective pronunciation learning requires guidance from a teacher who can evaluate individual students' segmental needs, identify appropriate software, select appropriate study units, and monitor student progress over time, making adjustments as needed (Derwing & Munro, 2015). Tsai (2015) also states that teachers should not expect that technology can solve all the students' learning problems. Instead, they should pay attention to the different roles assigned to technology and other kinds of mediation. If teachers can introduce various mediating tools to their students to facilitate their learning at different learning stages, they will be able to assist them to move to the next advanced learning stage.

This project has created the web-based tool called "Nihongo Speech Trainer", aiming to create a freely available website to Thai learners for teaching Japanese sounds they wish to work on by adopting the theoretical HVPT perceptual training within computer-assisted pronunciation training applications. Moreover, to this end, it is hoped that the teacher role will contribute to the efficacy of the training, and since the ultimate goal of this study is not to replace the teacher with technology (Derwing & Munro, 2015), a combination of traditional instruction by an instructor focusing on the pedagogical task and computer-assisted pronunciation training using HVPT perceptual training were integrated. The tool focuses on the 11 contrasts which are ts, z, tɕ, ɕ, (d)ʑ, d, b, g, long-short vowel, geminate consonant and diphthong/. The reason that these particular contrasts were chosen is because these sounds have been proven to be difficult for Thai learners and are the area in which the most frequent errors are made by Thai learners both in perception and production (Kawano, 2014; Sukegawa, 1993). The development of the Nihongo Speech Trainer was funded by Mahidol University as a one-year project. The project was based at Faculty of Liberal Arts, Mahidol University. This paper describes an overview of "Nihongo Speech Trainer", a web-based online pronunciation training program designed for Japanese pronunciation training.

Description of the System

General overview of Nihongo Speech Trainer

The web-based online pronunciation training "Nihongo Speech Trainer" is a free, open source online website (*www.nihongospeechtrainer.com*) which is easy to learn and to use. "Nihongo Speech Trainer" was designed by Ecgates Solution

Co., Ltd in Bangkok. The tool comprises two components: 1) the video tutorial, and 2) the perceptual training. "Nihongo Speech Trainer" took the form of a web-based learning tool accessible via computers and hand-held electronic devices. The layout of the tool's user interface was kept Japanese-style to attract the young generation of learners with Japanese characters and vivid colors (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Interface of Nihongo Speech Trainer

Components of the tool – Technical and pedagogical features

Nihongo Speech Trainer aimed to offer the following functions.

- Use of variability: Research on perceptual training has shown that increasing the variability of the input – the so-called "HVPT method" – results in greater and more generalizable gains in L2 speech perception. This method provides a wide range of variations in training stimuli, in terms of the numbers of native speakers' input, multiple phonetic contexts and multiple word positions of the L2 contrasts (Lively et al., 1993). To follow the criteria of the HVPT method, the use of multiple talkers (seven Japanese native speakers), various phonetic contexts (/a/, /i/, /u/, /e/, /o/), multiple word positions (initial singleton, intervocalic and final positions) and word types (nonsense words and real words) were used in this tool. Seven Japanese native speakers recorded 11 sets of the target contrasts consisting of 75 minimal pairs (75 words x 2 minimal pairs x11 contrasts = 1,650 tokens). The contrast pairings were /ts/-/s/ or /ts/-/z/; /tɕ/-/ɕ/ or /tɕ/-/(d)ʑ/; /d/-/t/ or /d/-/r/; /g/-/k/; long-short vowel contrasts; geminate consonant & non-geminate consonant contrasts; diphthong & non-diphthong contrasts.

- Tutorial video: According to Tsai (2015), teachers should not expect that technology can solve all the students' learning problems. Instead, they should pay attention to the different roles assigned to technology and other kinds of mediation. If teachers can introduce various mediating tools to their students to facilitate their learning at different learning stages, they will be able to assist them to move to the next advanced learning stage. In other words, the role of the instructor is essential for learners to maximize the effect of the training (Gilakjani, 2017), hence, the production of the VDO tutorial focusing on perception and production techniques was employed in this project. First, vocal tract diagrams to visualize the articulation were presented in each contrast. Strategies such as encouraging learners not to merge the sound that does not exist in Thai such as /ts/ to the similar Thai sound category (/s/) by comparing them the differences of those sounds were used. Moreover, minimal-pairs used to demonstrate that the two phones are separate phonemes in Japanese were presented (Figure 3). Tutorial videos were limited to five minutes for each contrast so that the users did not feel too overwhelmed by the video content.

- Minimal-pairs exercises on perception that target common perception and production difficulties for Thai learners: the presentation of minimal pairs allows learners to focus and promote their awareness on specific phonemic contrasts (Celce-Murcia & Goodwin, 1996). Moreover, the perceptual training exercises use two alternative forced-choice identification tasks, since identification tasks are effective in developing new phonetic categories as they primarily expose learners to within-category variability or variability in the phonetic detail of the target phoneme which consequently facilitates generalization of learning (Logan & Pruitt, 1995; Carlet, 2017).

- Feedback: Feedback is an important feature to give opportunities for learners to detect their errors (Logan & Pruitt, 1995). Each training task included immediate trial by trial feedback and cumulative feedback which was provided at the end of each session. Immediate feedback was given by means of pictographic information (Figure 2) after each response. If the identification of the target segment was correct, participants could listen to the next trial, but if they identified the contrast incorrectly, a message was then displayed, and they could listen to the correct and the incorrect stimulus again and until they could choose the correct sound. Moreover, the participants were also asked whether they want to train on the tokens they misperceive again. Regarding the cumulative feedback, the overall grade (pre-test, training and post-test scores) was reported at the end of the training.

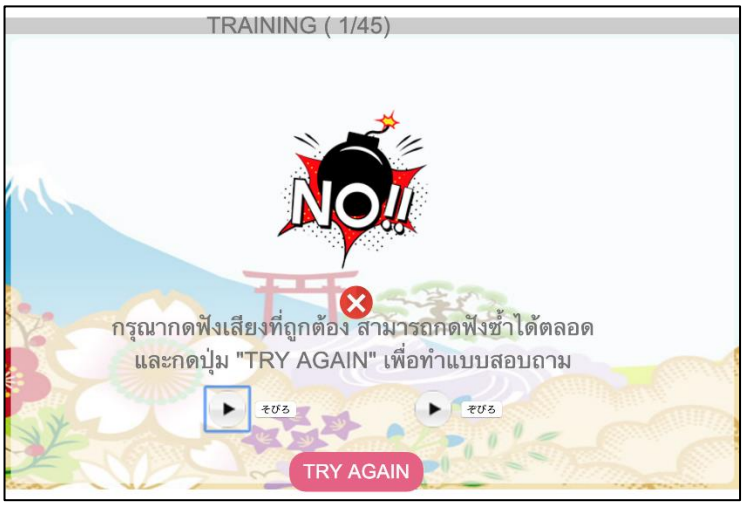


Figure 2. Feedback (a pictograph of a bomb shows up on the page when an incorrect choice is made)

- Design: According to Yan Lin, and Liu (2018), a user-friendly interface can motivate students to participate in more pronunciation practice than traditional paper-based and classroom exercises. Also, to mitigate user's feeling that the computer is "mechanical", the design incorporated an interactive environment based on the modern Japanese style. Moreover, with this specific design it is hoped that learners feel encouraged from the beginning of the training (Figure 1 and 3). In the aspect of new directions in teaching pronunciation proposed by Celce-Murcia and Goodwin (1996, pp. 311-315), this training meet the criteria as illustrated in Table 1. Some features such as speech spectrographic devices is helpful in visualizing the pitch movement (Matsuzaki, 2002). However, this study does not focus on suprasegmentals so the speech spectrographic was not used in this tool. This tool presented here make only a first step into a thorough application of HVPT perceptual training on a computer assisted pronunciation training. The features such as Automatic Speech Recognition and the functions which provide interaction with other classmates are to be considered in the future research since these functions require high performance computing.

Table 1. General features of CAPT

1	Using multimedia in teaching pronunciation	✓
2	Audio feedback	✓
3	Video	✓
4	Computer-assisted instruction	✓
5	Speech Spectrographic devices	
6	System incorporating Automatic Speech Recognition modules	
7	Stress free environment	✓

8	Learners centered: focus on individual problem, allow self-pace and self-directed learning	✓
9	Provides immediate corrective feedback	✓
10	Provides multiple samples of native speakers	✓
11	Interaction with the speakers in the software and classmates (incorporating Automatic Speech Recognition modules)	
12	Focus on those segmental and suprasegmental aspects	✓

System Structure

The training was structured as follows:

1. Introduction

Nihongo Speech Trainer was self-paced and completed outside of class time. Users were given the username and password to log into their own account. The simple instructions of how to use the website in Thai and English were given on the "Home" page. Participants were presented with a list of 11 phonemic contrasts on the page (/ts, z, tɕ, ɕ, (d)ʑ, d, b, g, long-short vowel, geminate consonant and diphthong/). They could choose the contrast that best suited their needs and interest hence the training content differed for each participant, since their problems varied in content and number, which added an extra independent variable that was not controlled for (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Interface of Nihongo Speech Trainer (11 target contrast)

2. Pre/post-test

After participants chose the problematic contrast to train on the main page, they were given a pre-test, the training itself and then the post-test. The pre/post-test were conducted to measure and compare possible improvements on perception

and production ability. The post-test and the pre-test were similar. Participants were asked to perform an identification task before they continue to the training phase. There were 20 words produced by a female native speaker. At least two-alternative forced choices available formed choices relating to the target word (e.g., after hearing "つきに" the participants were asked to identify it as "すきに" or "つきに" or "じゅきに"). The words used in the pre/post-test were not used in the training. There was no feedback provided in this section and they could not replay the stimulus. After they finished the pre-test phase they then were subsequently directed to the training phase. The pre/post-test lasted approximately three minutes.

3. Pronunciation video tutorial

As suggested by Derwing and Munro (2005), it is necessary to have the help of teachers who have a foundation in pronunciation research and are able to draw comparisons between L1 and L2. This training part has a pedagogical basis in providing a tutorial video consisting of a description of Japanese, presented with animated vocal tract diagrams, phonetic and articulatory descriptions and tips for learning Japanese pronunciation. The audio and video recordings were made by the author and a native Japanese teaching assistant. This tutorial aims to help strategy development to guide learners in developing rules to perceive the contrast. To be specific, it focuses on targeted contrasts which are difficult for Thai learners. It is hoped that the tutorial video could help Thai learners understand how Japanese contrasts differ from the Thai contrasts. Ideally with such explanation, it is hoped that learners could narrow down the difference between the Thai and the Japanese contrasts. The tutorial videos were limited to five minutes because it was hoped that it would not be too long for the learners (Figure 4).

4. Training

In each training, participants completed a two forced-choice identification task (e.g., Is the word you hear "あすま /asuma/" or "あずま /azuma/"?). The sounds used in the training are produced by seven different speakers. The order was randomly chosen by the system. Target sounds are provided in a wide variety of phonetic environments (e.g., [a], [i], [o]) situated in various word locations (e.g., initial, medial and final) and word types (nonsense and real words). Moreover, there were three selections of stimuli size in the training of this study to see the effect of stimuli volume and to see which input size participants tend to choose. The users can choose to train with the volume of 45, 60 or 75 minimal pairs on the home screen. The quantity and length of the training varied according to a participants' training performance, varying from 15 minutes to 20 minutes each contrast. In the training phase, participants identified the sounds and were given

immediate feedback regarding the correct answer after each trial. If the identification of the target segment was correct, participants could listen to the next trial, but if they identified the contrast incorrectly, a message was then displayed, and they could listen to the correct and the incorrect stimulus again and until they could choose the correct sound. Moreover, the participants were also asked whether they wanted to train on the tokens they misperceive again. After they finished the training, they were then given the post-test to measure whether an improvement occurred subsequent to the training.

5. Questionnaire

After the post-test, the participants were directed to a Google form to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire aimed to gather more insightful data from the participants. The questions were as follows:

1) What do you think of "Nihongo Speech Trainer"?

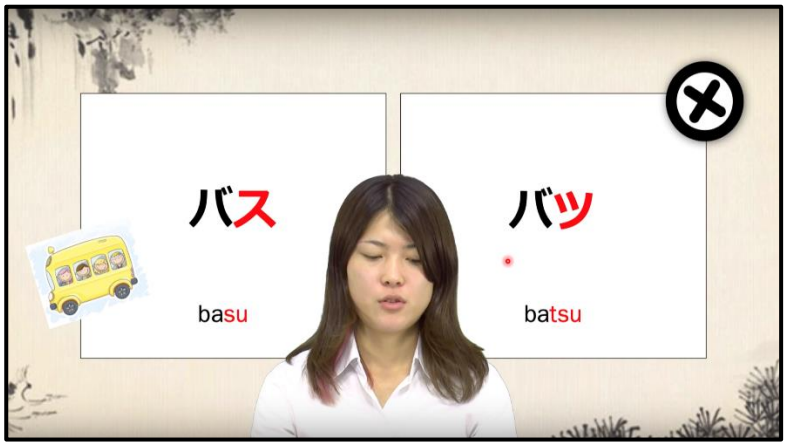
2) Do you think "Nihongo Speech Trainer" help listening and speaking skills? Or one another?

3) Which part of the "Nihongo Speech Trainer" do you think is helpful? a) the video tutorial b) the perceptual training c) both trainings

4) What do you think about the design of "Nihongo Speech Trainer"?

5) Do you think the time spent for each section too long?

6) Apart from the 11 contrasts used by "Nihongo Speech Trainer" Do you have any other Japanese contrasts you want to train on?

(a) 

(b)

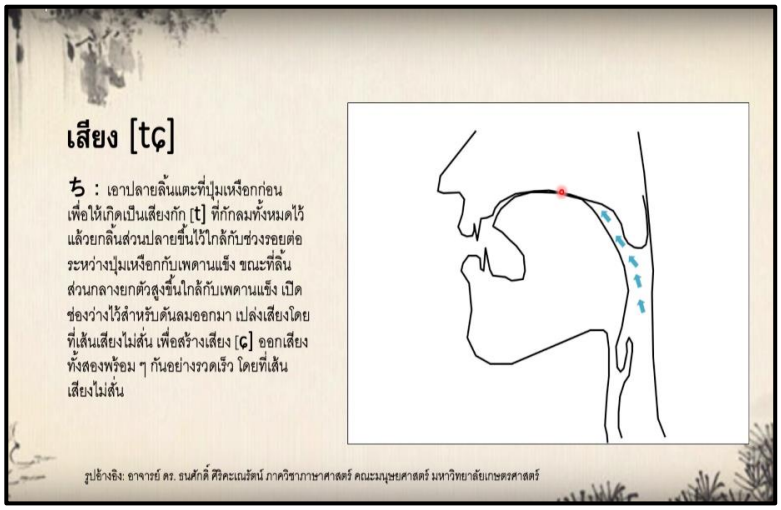


Figure 4. The video tutorial (a) the minimal pair (b) a vocal tract diagram

Conclusions and Future Work

In this paper, Nihongo Speech Trainer using HVPT method perceptual training and video tutorial was introduced. Moreover, the theoretical and pedagogical features were also discussed. The main goal of Nihongo Speech Trainer is to provide a tool for improving Japanese pronunciation. Nihongo Speech Trainer is currently being used to investigate the effect of the system on learning among Thai learners. The empirical evidence of the training's efficacy will also be discussed. Moreover, it is strongly hoped that Nihongo Speech Trainer can expand the target contrast and be conducted among other target learners.

References

Bradlow, R. A., Akahane-Yamada, R., Pisoni, D. B., & Tohkura, Y. (1999). Training Japanese listeners to identify English /r/ and /l/: Long-term retention of learning in perception and production. *Perception & Psychophysics*, *61*(5), 977-985.

Barriuso, T.A., & Hayes-Harb, R. (2018). High variability phonetic training as a bridge from research to practice. *CATESOL Journal*, *30*(1), 177-194.

Carlet, A. F. (2017). *L2 perception and production of English consonants and vowels by Catalan speakers: The effects of attention and training task in a cross-training study* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/10803/403758

Celce-Murcia, M., Brinton, D., & Goodwin, J. (1st ed.: 1996, 2nd ed.: 2011). *Teaching pronunciation: A reference for teachers of English to speakers of other languages*. New York: Cambridge University press.

Derwing, T. M., & Munro, M. J. (2015). *Pronunciation fundamentals: Evidence-based perspectives for L2 teaching and research*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Gilakjani, A. P. (2017). A review of the literature on the integration of technology into the learning and teaching of English language skills. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, *7*(5), 95-106.

Hirata, Y. (2004). Computer assisted pronunciation training for English speakers learning Japanese pitch and durational contrasts. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, *17*(3-4), 357-376.

Iverson, P., Pinet, M., & Evans, G. B. (2012). Auditory training for experienced and inexperienced second-language learners : Native French speakers learning English vowels. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *33*(1), 145-160.

Kawano, T. (2014). *Onsei kyouiku no jissen* [A practice of speech learning]. Tokyo: Kuroshio.

Lambacher, S., Martens, W. L., Kakehi, K., Marasinghe, C. A., & Molholt, G. (2005). The effects of identification and production of American English vowels by native speakers of Japanese. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *26*(2), 227-247.

Lively, S. E., Logan, J. S., & Pisoni, D. B. (1993). Training Japanese listeners to identify English /r/ and /l/. II. The role of phonetic environment and talker variability in learning new perceptual categories. *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, *94*(2), 1242-1255.

Logan, J. S., & Pruitt, J. S. (1995). Methodological issues in training listeners to perceive non-native phonemes. In W. Strange (Ed.), *Speech perception and linguistic experience: Issues in cross-language research* (pp. 351-377). Baltimore, MD: York Press.

Matsuzaki, H. (2002). Learners' mind during repetitious pronunciation practice. *Hiroshima Daigaku Nihongo Kyoiku Kenkyu* [Hiroshima University Department Bulletin Paper], *12*, 33-41.

Sukegawa, Y. (1993). Bogo betsu ni mita hatsuon no keikou – ankeito chousa no kekka kara- [A pronunciation trend as analysed by L1 language]. *Nihongo onsei to nihongo kyouiku monushou juuten ryouiki kenkyuusho kenkyuu seika houkokusho*, 187-222.

Thomson, R. I. (2011). Computer assisted pronunciation training: Targeting second language vowel perception improves pronunciation. *CALICO Journal*, *28*(3), 744-765.

Tsai, P. H. (2015). Computer-assisted pronunciation learning in a collaborative context: A case study in Taiwan. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology*, *14*(4), 1-13.

Yan, H., Lin, J., & Liu, Y. (2018). EFL pronunciation training with computer-assisted adaptive peer review. *English Language Teaching*, *11*(11), 74-82.

Students' Pronunciation Development:

A Case Study of Sunrise Boarding School, Nepal

Received : March 19, 2019
Revised : April 17, 2019
Accepted : May 2, 2019

Nontawat Wanna

Atinuch Pin-ngern

Abstract

The study aimed to investigate English pronunciation problems among Nepalese students and to develop the students' pronunciation in Sunrise Boarding School, Nepal. Sixty Nepalese students were the participants of this study. Before treatment, a pretest was designed to evaluate the students' mispronunciation. The pretest result showed 10 mispronounced English sounds. The dominant stage of this study was treatment in which posters and online lessons were used to support the students' process of pronunciation learning. The lessons were designed based on Interaction Hypothesis (IH), the belief that learners will have development in L2 if they face difficulties and make an effort to interact with other speakers. The results reveal that the students can pronounce English sounds more accurately as problematic sounds were corrected during the treatment.

Keywords: interaction hypothesis, pronunciation, language acquisition, language transfer, pronunciation teaching

Introduction

At present, it is undebatable that people learn English in order to communicate (Beare, 2015). In light of communication, there are four main skills including listening, speaking, reading and writing. Speaking skills, in particular, are extremely important in English communication (Gillis, 2013). One of the major aspects of speaking skills that the learners should be aware of is pronunciation because mispronunciation can cause miscommunication. In society, moreover, people with poor pronunciation are considered uneducated (Gilakjani, 2012).

This research was conducted at Sunrise Boarding School in Nepal, a private school where English is the main language of instruction. The researchers worked there as English teachers for five months and discovered that Nepalese students' pronunciation was problematic, causing misunderstanding between the students and the researchers. When compared with other language skills, pronunciation

seemed to be ignored by the school members, both teachers and students. One possible reason is that they can communicate in English well enough, so they ignore even major mispronunciation. In addition, there were no subjects that aimed to promote English pronunciation. Thus, to bridge the gap in the curriculums, this study was conducted in order to identify pronunciation problems and develop Nepalese students' pronunciation based on the following research questions:

1) What are English pronunciation problems among Nepalese students?; and
2) How can Nepalese students' pronunciation be developed?

Literature Review

This section provides a brief review of related theories and studies on pronunciation.

Phonetic Differences

Sounds in every language are acoustically and articulately different even though they may seem identical. Second language (L2) learners, thus, can adjust their L2 pronunciation to sound more native-like. However, such modification does not guarantee fully-acquired L2 norms. Nevertheless, approximant sounds are the only type of sounds which results in full L2 phonology attainment. The way that L2 learners develop their pronunciation from their first language (L1) closer to L2 norms signifies that L2 learners have unconscious judgments, the ability to detect difference between the norm of L1 and L2 without consciousness (Odlin, 1989).

Phonological Transfer

In the view of Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) proposed by Lado (1950), the acquisition of L2 phonology can be interfered with by L1 since the more difference between L1 and L2 sounds, the harder it will be for L2 learners to acquire their target language pronunciation. Thus, L2 learners need to avoid L1 norms in order to learn L2 norms (Jenkins, 2000).

Phonological Alternations

Phonological alternation is the study of the occurrences of borrowed words. Fasold and Connor-Linton (2006) claim that phonological alternations can occur when contexts make the speakers pronounce the same morpheme, a small unit of

grammar such as prefix, suffix, in different ways. Phonological alternations can be classified into six types.

The first type of phonological alternation is *Assimilation*, the way that different sounds are pronounced more similarly. In other words, when two different sounds affect each other, the speakers will pronounce one sound in the same pattern as in the causative sound. Second, *Dissimilation,* in contrast to assimilation, happens when two sounds are pronounced in different patterns. Dissimilation is commonly found in tongue twisters due to the fact that it is difficult to pronounce the accurate sound next to each other.

The third type is *Epenthesis or insertion*, which occurs when a string of consonants is divided by vowel insertion. It, thus, usually affects syllable structure. Abrahamsson (1999) as cited in Intrasai (2004) classified epenthesis into two type including *anaptyxis*, which happens when the cluster is divided by vowel insertion (CC → CVC), and *prosthesis*, which occurs when the speaker inserts a vowel sound before the cluster (CC → VCC). The clusters which can have epenthesis are /sl/, /sm/, /sn/, /sv/, /st/, /sk/, /spr/, /str/ and /skr/.

Elision or deletion is opposite to epenthesis. A consonant tends to be deleted instead of adding a vowel while pronouncing. For English language, elision is common among native speakers (NSs). For example, the speaker elides the sounds in the word *'going to'* to be the word *'gonna'*. Another sort of phonological alternation is *Lenition and fortition*, another type of phonological alternation. Lenition is a process of weakening sounds while fortition is a process of strengthening sounds. *Metathesis and reduplication* can also be found in phonological alternation. Metathesis means switching the sound order in words, and reduplication means a process of conveying words in a pejorative sense by copying parts of words. The high and front vowels always precede the low and back vowels in reduplication since it is a human instinct (Pinker, 1994).

Interaction hypothesis

According to the interaction hypothesis (Long & Gass, 1978 as cited in Fasold & Connor-Linton, 2006), learners will have development in L2 if they face difficulties and make an effort to interact with other speakers for resolving such problems. Help, or conversational modification provision, from their interlocutors, thus, is needed for L2 learners' development (Fasold & Connor-Linton, 2006). The following are some examples of interactional methods found by Lightbown and Spada (1996):

a) *Comprehension check* is the method NSs use to check non-native speaker's (NNS's) understanding.

b) *Clarification Request* is the method that L2 learners use when they cannot comprehend the NS's utterance. They ask for their request by using words, phrases or sentences such as "Could you say that again?".

c) *Self-repetition or paraphrasing* is the way that NSs repeat their utterance by breaking up sentences or combining sentences.

Apart from these examples, Fasold and Connor-Linton (2006) proposed two more examples based on the work done by Michael Long and Susan Gass (1978) as follows:

a) *Modified Output Production* is the method which L2 learners use when acquiring L2. While interacting with NSs, L2 learners may produce incomprehensible outputs. Their interlocutors, thus, do probably not understand NNS's outputs. L2 learners, therefore, need to improve their utterance by using their linguistic knowledge, such as English phonology.

b) *Recasting* is the way that NSs provide corrective feedback to NNSs. NSs sometimes provide their learners with intended meaning as direct feedback. Such feedback is generally called corrective feedback. Corrective feedback provided by NSs are called a recast. A recast changes the form of utterance without changing the content.

Language learning and identities

Language learning does not only include language acquisition, but it also contains the way the learners adjust themselves into the target-language society. Thus, sociolinguistic competence acquisition is involved in language learning (Rothenberg & Fisher, 2007 as cited in Lu, 2009). Language, moreover, is used to negotiate one's identities as it is a crucial tool to define oneself to others (Ogulnick, 2000, as cited in Lu, 2009). Norton (2000) as cited in Ellis (2015) proposed the Social Identity Theory stating that L2 learners can have various identities. To be an effective communicator of L2, hence, L2 learners must view themselves as decent speakers.

Differences between cognitive and social second language acquisition

Ellis (2015) compared Cognitive Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and Social SLA in different dimensions. In terms of learner identities, Cognitive SLA treats L2 learners as having a single identity, a group of NNSs whereas Social SLA considered L2 learners as various identities which can be changed according to their language learning environments. In the dimension of L2 learners' linguistic background, L2 learners, in the view of Cognitive SLA, have one fluent language which is their L1. Social SLA, in contrast, considers L2 learners as being

proficient in more than one language. Interaction, moreover, is another dimension of this comparison. The Cognitive SLA paradigm is based on the notion that interaction is a means for obtaining L2 inputs as well as a chance for the learners to produce L2 outputs. The Social SLA paradigm, on the other hand, indicates that L2 learners can be socialized into L2 culture by interacting with L2 speakers.

Related studies

Li (2016) conducted research aiming to study the acquisition of phonology as L2 based on CAH. The research was conducted by observing real classrooms where Chinese students were taught English as L2. The findings revealed some mispronunciations in consonant sounds. For example, Chinese students cannot pronounce some consonant sounds (/ð/, /θ/ and /v/) which do not exist in Standard Chinese language. Moreover, the Chinese students cannot pronounce words with consonant-ending sounds, especially cluster-ending sounds, because the Chinese language has only vowel-ending sounds. Therefore, L2 learners tend to add epenthesis while pronouncing consonant-ending words. The retroflex sound or /r/ is another problem of L2 phonology attainment in Chinese students. The students cannot pronounce the /r/ sound in the final position.

Bradlow, Pisoni, Akahane-Yamada, and Tohkura (1997) as cited in Celce-Murcia (2010) conducted an experimental study comparing two groups of Japanese learners, one with L2 exposure and one without L2 exposure. It was found that Japanese students with L2 exposure could discriminate /r/ and /l/. There were two groups of students: a control group and a treatment group. The treatment group, the group exposed to L2 input, could identify differences between /r/ and /l/ and had more development in learning L2. The group with treatment could not only discriminate two sounds but also pronounce both sounds better without being trained than the group without exposure.

Research Methodology

In this section, the details of how the present study was conducted are presented.

Population and sampling

The population of this study was the secondary-level students at Sunrise Boarding School, Gulariya, Bardiya, Nepal. Their L1 is Nepali, and their L2 is English. The sampling group was 60 students from Grade 8, 9 and 10. Purposive random sampling was used as the sampling method since the researchers taught those students.

Research instruments

Three kinds of research instruments were used: (1) pretest, (2) pronunciation lessons and (3) posttest.

a) Pre-test

The pre-test was designed by the researchers to identify problematic speech sounds in English among Nepalese students. The instrument consisted of two forms including the oral pronunciation test and the evaluation form adapted from Nepalese grading criteria. This instrument was used to evaluate the subjects' pronunciation before providing treatment.

b) Pronunciation lessons

The pronunciation lessons included the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) and the problematic sounds discovered in the pre-test. These lessons were used during the treatment in direct teaching.

c) Posttest

The posttest was designed by the researchers to reevaluate the samples' mispronunciation. The instrument included two forms as mentioned in the pre-test. This instrument was used after the treatment.

Data collection

To collect the data, there are three main steps, including pre-test, treatment, and posttest, as shown in Figure 1.

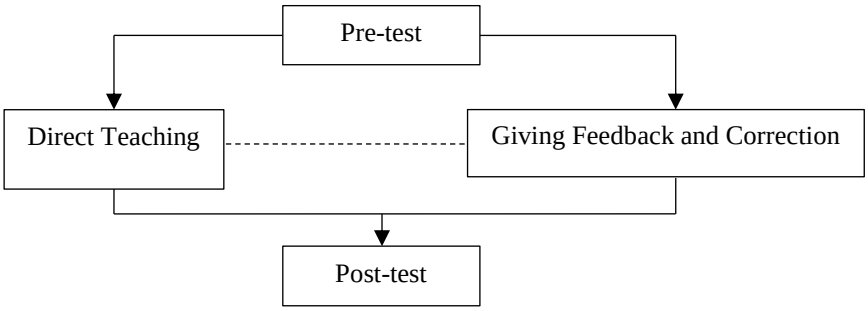


Figure 1. Data collection process

a) Pre-test

Before the pretest began, the pretest, the oral pronunciation test, was prepared. In the oral pronunciation test sheet, every English speech sound was included. In each sound, there were three allophones including aspirated sounds, unaspirated sounds and unreleased sounds. While the students were taking the oral pronunciation test, their pronunciation was evaluated by the researchers using the evaluation form.

b) Treatment

The treatment process can be divided into two steps including direct teaching, and giving feedback and correction.

In light of direct teaching, the samples were taught to read IPA. Some common mistakes, such as mispronunciation in voicing, places of articulation and manner of articulation were also highlighted in that process. The problematic sounds, moreover, were published in posters pasted on their classroom wall to encourage the samples raise their awareness of their pronunciation. An online classroom was also created for the samples and other students to learn the English pronunciation.

The website, www.schoology.com, which can be used to teach and provide some activities for the students, was used to create the online classroom. The students were given the code for accessing the online classroom. In the online classroom, the students were able to learn English pronunciation from NSs by watching the provided videos. The students, furthermore, could do quizzes after watching the videos to check comprehension.

For giving feedback and correction, all feedback of mispronunciation found in the normal English classes was given and all mispronunciation was corrected. Interaction hypothesis (Fasold & Connor-Linton, 2006) was used as the framework in this study. In the classes taught by the researchers, thus, students were encouraged to produce modified output so that they could raise their awareness of their pronunciation and correct it in a precise way.

The duration of the treatment is described in Table 1:

Table 1. Treatment duration

Types of Treatment	Duration
1. Direct teaching	3 hours
2. Giving feedback and correction	90 hours

According to Table 1, direct teaching took three hours (1 hour per week) to complete IPA reading lessons and pronunciation tips. After that, feedback and correction were given during the normal classes for 30 days or 90 hours due to the fact that the normal English classes in Sunrise Boarding School were available for three hours per week.

c) Post-test

After the training program, the students' pronunciation ability was reevaluated through the post-test evaluation form.

Data Analysis

After the test, data were collected and calculated using Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) for Windows Program and interpreted according to the criteria. This criteria is used since it is the common grading criteria for the examination system in Nepal. The marking scheme of the oral pronunciation test is described in Table 2:

Table 2. Marking scheme of oral pronunciation test

Percentage Range	Meaning
51% - 100%	Correct pronunciation
0% - 50%	Error

The results of the pre-test were a guideline to develop the students' pronunciation. The mistakes found in the test, moreover, were published on a poster for the students. The results of the post-test, furthermore, showed the students' development after the treatment.

Results

This section presents the results from the pretest and the posttest of problematic sounds. The results are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Comparison of pretest and posttest results

Sounds	Pre-test	Post-test
1. /k/ (Voiceless Velar Stop)	41.7%	89.1%
2. /t/ (Voiceless Alveolar Stop)	30%	87%

3. /s/ (Voiceless Alveolar Fricative)	33.3%	82.6%
4. /w/ (Voiced Labial-velar Approximant)	40%	82.6%
5. /p/ (Voiceless Bilabial Stop)	6.7%	58.7%
6. /z/ (Voiced Alveolar Fricative)	16.7%	52.2%
7. /ʃ/ (Voiceless Post-alveolar Fricative)	16.7%	43.5%
8. /v/ (Voiced Labio-dental Fricative)	15%	39.1%
9. /ð/ (Voiced Interdental Fricative)	18.3%	37%
10. /θ/ (Voiceless Interdental Fricative)	8.3%	34.8%

According to Table 3, the subjects could pronounce the following sounds more accurately after the treatment: the voiceless velar stop sound (89.1%), the voiceless alveolar stop sound (87%), the voiceless alveolar fricative sound and the voiced labial-velar approximant sound (82.6%), the voiceless bilabial stop sound (58.7%), the voiced alveolar fricative sound (52.2%), the voiceless post-alveolar fricative sound (43.5%), the voiced labio-dental fricative sound (39.1%), the voiced interdental fricative sound (37%) and the voiceless interdental fricative sound (34.8%).

Discussion and Conclusion

According to the results of the pretest, there are 10 sounds which the students could pronounce correctly. Such sounds are [k], [w], [s], [t], [ð], [ʃ], [z], [v], [θ] and [p]. Some possible explanations are as follows:

The students added voicing in some English voiceless sounds because such sounds are voiced in their L1. They, for example, pronounced [ga:r] for the word ‘car’ [ka:r]. It can be seen that the voiceless sound [k] became voiced [g] when the students pronounced it. Moreover, the students omitted the semi-vowel sounds in the cluster occurring in the initial position. One example from this case is that they pronounced ‘swoon’ [swu:n] as [su:n]. This example illustrates that the students have difficulties in pronouncing the voiced labial-velar approximant sound [w] in the cluster.

Prosthesis, the way that L2 learners insert a vowel before the cluster (CC to VCC) (Abrahamsson, 1999 as cited in Intrasai, 2004), is another evidence found in the

pretest. One case of prothesis found in the pretest was the vowel insertion before the voiceless alveolar fricative sound [s] functioning as the cluster. In the Nepali language, the short central mid vowel or /I/ is always added in front of the cluster – the voiceless alveolar fricative sound [s], so the students transferred such phonotactic constraint to their L2, English. For instance, they pronounced 'school' [sku:l] as [Isku:l].

Some English speech sounds tended to have lenition. That is, the subjects pronounced aspirated sounds as unaspirated sounds as in the following example: 'pea' [p^hi:] is pronounced as [pi:]. The students changed places of articulation to the closest position which they could pronounce. They, for example, tended to pronounce 'think' [θIŋk] as [tIŋk]. In this example, the students changed the position from interdental to alveolar. Some different sounds, sometimes, were pronounced instead of the actual sounds. For instance, they pronounced 'video' [vIdiəʊ] as [wIdiəʊ]. In this example, [v] was replaced by [w]. This is possibly the result of L1 phonological transfer because there is no /v/ I L1 directory. This result is in line with that of Li (2016) who found that his Chinese subjects had difficulties pronouncing /v/, /θ/ and /ð/ because these sounds do not exist in the Chinese sound system.

According to the pretest results, it is possible that English, the target language, was interfered with by Nepali, the students' native language. Much evidence demonstrates the differences between L1 and L2 sounds. The students, for example, tended to transfer phonotactic constraint from their L1 to L2. From this, thus, it can be inferred that L1 is one of the main factors causing students to pronounce some speech sounds in L2 wrongly. After the treatment, some students could pronounce those sound correctly. Some students could not pronounce the sounds correctly but showed their will to improve their pronunciation in the correction process.

Comparing the results of pre and post-test, it was found that the students had development in pronunciation after the treatment. They tended to pronounce their previously mispronounced sounds more accurately. This demonstrates that direct teaching and giving feedback as well as correction are possible effective approaches for teaching students English pronunciation. The online lessons, however, are not effective due to lack of effective Internet connection in some areas of the town, so most students could not access the prepared online classroom. Some students who attended the online classroom, moreover, did not have better English pronunciation when compared to those who did not. The findings suggest that the online classroom is an ineffective approach to teach pronunciation in this study and cannot be used without direct teaching. In addition, it cannot provide appropriate feedback, such as negative feedback,

according to the interaction hypothesis. Instructors using the direct teaching method, therefore, are still important for pronunciation development.

For developing students' pronunciation, teachers should raise the awareness of pronunciation. They, moreover, should spend some time giving feedback and correction for mispronunciation. After students receive feedback for a certain period of time, their pronunciation will gradually develop. They, then, will have better pronunciation allowing them to communicate more effectively.

In light of identities, it was found that the students' English pronunciation was mixed with the Nepali accent to some extent. It, thus, can be inferred that their English pronunciation is influenced by Nepalese, their home-country culture, as the English courses provided by the school do not promote sociolinguistic competence, but solely aim to teach English linguistic aspects such as vocabulary and grammar. The findings, hence, are not in line with Social Identity Theory as these students may not see themselves as legitimate members of their L2. English teachers, thus, need to make their target language more acceptable in their minds and spend some of their courses on basic pronunciation sessions as well as on sociolinguistic competence so that students can use English more effectively in international contexts.

The results of the students' pronunciation posttest, moreover, tends to agree with Cognitive SLA. These students were NNSs whose identities were maintained as can be seen when they added some sound features in their L1, Nepali, in their English pronunciation. Although the students obtained treatment, they still mispronounced some sounds reflecting their L1 cultural identity. This shows the influence of L1 interference on L2 pronunciation. The interaction with the researchers can be viewed as the students' L2 input as well as their chance to communicate in L2 due to the controlled treatment plans which focused on correct pronunciation of English speech sounds.

The present study has some limitations in terms of the instrument validity because the spelling of some words in the pretest and posttest might be confusing to the subjects (e.g., Eiffel, regime). To ensure validity, clearly-spelled words should be used to conduct the tests. Further studies ought to be concerned about such limitations.

In conclusion, this study was conducted to improve the pronunciation of the students at Sunrise Boarding School with the aim of investigating problematic sounds among the students and to develop their speaking skill. Before the treatment, the subjects transferred phonotactic constraint from L1 to L2. From this, thus, it can be inferred that language interference from L1 is one factor which negatively influences the students' pronunciation of L2. However, after the treatment they can pronounce English sounds more accurately. The online

classroom, on the other hand, is not an effective approach to teach the students pronunciation.

References

Abrahamsson, N. (1999). Vowel epenthesis of /sC(C)/ onsets in Spanish/ Swedish interphonology: A longitudinal case study. *Language Learning, 49*(3), 473-508.

Beare, K. (2015). *Ten reasons to learn English*. Retrieved July 13, 2017 from https://www.thoughtco.com/ten-reasons-to-learn-english-1211277

Bradlow, A. R., Pisoni, D. B., Akahane-Yamada, R., & Tohkura, Y. I. (1997). Training Japanese listeners to identify English/r/and/l: IV. Some effects of perceptual learning on speech production. *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, *101*(4), 2299-2310.

Celce-Murcia. M. (2010). *Teaching pronunciation.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, R. (2015). Understanding second language acquisition (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Fasold, W. R., & Connor-Linton, J. (2006). *An introduction to language and linguistics.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gilakjani, A. P. (2012). *The significance of pronunciation in English language teaching*. Retrieved July 14, 2017 from https://www.questia.com/read/1P3-2645546891/the-significance-of-pronunciation-in-english-language

Gillis, G. (2013). *The importance of speaking skills*. Retrieved July 12, 2017 from http://www.geraldgillis.com/importance-speaking-skills

Intrasai, J. (2004). *Language acquisition.* Bangkok: The Faculty of Industrial Education Press.

Jenkins, J. (2000). *The phonology of English as an international language.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Li, F. (2016). Contrastive study between pronunciation Chinese L1 and English L2 from the perspective of interference based on observations in genuine teaching contexts. *English Language Teaching*, *9*(10), 90-100.

Lu, F. (2009). Second language learners' identity toward their home culture: adding pragmatic knowledge to language learning curriculum. *Asian Social Science*, *5*(9), 43-51.

Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (1996). *How languages are learned.* (6th ed.) Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Odlin, T. (1989). *Language transfer: Cross-linguistic Influence in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Pinker, S. (1994). *The language instinct.* London: Penguin Books Ltd.

News Discourse of the News Reports of Border Conflict between Thailand and Cambodia through Textual Analysis

Chulamani Aggadhamvong

Received : February 18, 2019
Revised : May 8, 2019
Accepted : May 14, 2019

Abstract

Using textual analysis, this paper investigates the linguistics characteristics used by Thairath and Bangkok Post, the most popular Thai-language and English-language daily newspaper to present news about border conflict between Thailand and Cambodia. The purpose is to identify linguistic characteristics employed in the presentation of the government, military and other related parties to present their standpoint regarding the border conflict from 2011 to 2013 and to investigate the functions of these characteristics in constructing the news discourse. The present study adopts John E. Richardson's textual analysis progression (2007) to analyze text on two levels: micro-level textual analysis and macro-level textual analysis. These linguistics characteristics have different communicative functions to present various standpoints of people presented in the news. It also helps text producers achieve their aims in influencing and shaping audience's perceptions in a negative and non-negative ways regarding the border conflict between Thailand and Cambodia.

Keywords: textual analysis, border conflict between Thailand and Cambodia, daily newspapers in Thailand

Introduction

As most countries in the world have shared borders with neighboring countries, border conflict with neighboring countries is not uncommon. Thailand is one such country that experiences conflict. The territory adjoining Preah Vihear is categorized by its multiethnic and multilingual population and syncretic culture and history (Feigenblatt, 2012, p. 5). The use of military force to settle the conflict became the preferred method for both countries (Kasetsiri, Sothirak, Chachavalpongpun, 2013, p. viii). The tension did not only threaten bilateral relations between Thailand and Cambodia, but also caused disharmony to regional peace and stability (Kasetsiri et al., 2013, p .viii). Moreover, this tension, caused predominantly by the fallout from Thai domestic political fighting,

provoked pervasive criticism and stimulated a sense of nationalism among Cambodians and Thais (Kasetsiri et al., 2013, p. viii). From 2002 to 2007, there was a continuing argument between the two sides on whether Thailand should assent to Cambodia's decision to propose Preah Vihear as a Cambodian World Heritage site or whether the temple should be cooperatively proposed by Thailand and Cambodia (Grabowsky, n.d., p .6). The border dispute erupted in 2008 when Cambodia proposed to the World Heritage Committee's 32nd Session that Preah Vihear Sanctuary be registered as a UNESCO World Heritage Site (Kasetsiri, 2009; Martin, 2011, p. 31; Kasetsiri et al., 2013, p. 25). The conflict breached the objectives of having a world heritage site as there was a militarily clash between Thailand and Cambodian troops near Phu Ma Khua area of Sisaket province on February 4, 2011 (The Nation 2011, 4 February 2011).

While the government of Abhisit Vejjajiva (from December 2008 to August 2011) and thereafter that of Yingluck Shinawatra faced the conflict with Cambodia, nationalists triggered the government to use aggressive tactics against Cambodia and also to discard the verdict of the International Court of Justice (Bangkok Post, January 28, 2011; The Nation, November 5, 2013 as cited in Lee, 2014, p. 52). However, political instability in Thailand resulted in a sharp rise in nationalist rhetoric and in a much more aggressive stand towards Cambodia for possession of the small plot of land adjoining the temple (John, 1994; Lintner, 2009; Murphy, 2009; Ungpakorn, 2010; Dalipino, 2011; Dressel, 2009; Feigenblatt, 2009a, 2010b, 2010c as cited in Feigenblatt, 2012, p. 20). Also, there was the evidence of military's challenge which aimed at increasing the conflict with Cambodia (there were three armed clashes in 2008, one in 2009, three in 2010, and two in 2011) (Bangkok Post, 2011 as cited in Chachavalpongpun, 2013, pp. 71-72).

Therefore, during this time of border conflict, news reports played an essential role as they could be a medium of communication for different related parties such as the government, authoritative office, military, and others in order to show how they present their standpoint regarding the border conflict. Nonetheless, the news reports may not be grounded only on facts but also on the journalism's viewpoint (Bennett, 2007). That is, the press may turn strongly critical, highlighting disagreement, and focusing on biased attraction. On the other hand, they may be supportive, highlighting agreement, and focus on solutions. Therefore, the population's perceptions of the border conflict are not only shaped by their direct experience and feeling received from other individuals but also by the newspapers.

In this regard, the textual analysis of newspapers is challenged as readers may not know whether the feeling and perceptions are influenced by linguistic patterns. In this context, the border conflict between Thailand and Cambodia is worth

exploring. This study will examine headlines, subheads and body of the news in order to determine what types of linguistic characteristics are employed and to investigate the functions these characteristics serve. The study will pursue two research questions :

1) What types of linguistic characteristics are employed in the news reports of border conflict between Thailand and Cambodia?

2) What functions do the strategies serve in such a conflict?

Theoretical and Methodological Framework

Erjavec (2004) stated that "the analysis of discourse as text is a form-and-meaning analysis" (p. 555). Fairclough (1995) believes that it is difficult to isolate these two features of text and meaning as "meanings are necessarily realized in forms and differences in meaning entail differences in form" (as cited in Jahedi & Abdullah, 2012, p. 60). Fairclough (1995 as cited in Richardson, 2007, p. 46) explained that there are two major structures of texts to consider during analysis: the structuring of propositions and the combination and sequencing of propositions. The first structure concerns the representation of individuals and other social actors, and the analysis clauses presenting actions, processes and events. The second structure concerns the organization of these single clauses into a coherently structured sentence. Richardson (2007) developed the progression of textual analysis by examining news text from the micro-analysis of words, through sentence and onto macro-analysis of the organization of meaning across the texts. The study has applied the progression of textual analysis which can be seen in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Progression of textual analysis

Structuring of propositions	Words (lexical choice) Sentences 1) transitivity Sentences 2) modality Presupposition	Micro-textual analysis ↓
Combining propositions	Rhetoric Narrative	Macro-textual analysis

Source: Richardson (2007, p. 47)

The analysis of specific words used in the newspaper text is the first step of text analysis. Words convey both connoted and denoted meaning to convey the inscription of society and of value judgements. Lexical choice is widely accepted as the choice of words that is not influenced by journalist's own creation but by something to do with the journalist's society (Pan, 2002, p. 51). According to Trew (1979a, 1979b as cited in Pan, 2002, p. 51) and Van Dijk (2006), perception which is embedded in lexicalization involves ideology. Van Dijk (2006) elaborated that ideology is primarily some kind of ideas—belief systems—that is manifest and shared by the members of a collectivity of social actors. In this study, the researcher examines lexical choice especially the cluster of words to explore how Thai and Cambodian sides are reported by journalists and then reveal the demonstration of "us & we, them & they" in the news reports.

The study employs an 'ideological square' strategy which performs a specific role in the contextual strategy of *positive self- representation* and its out- group counterpart *negative-other presentation* (Oktar, 2001, p. 319-320). The strategy consists of four moves : 1) Express/emphasize information that is 'positive' about *us*, 2) Express/ emphasize information that is ' negative' about *them*, 3) Suppress/ de- emphasize information that is ' positive' about *them*, and 4) Suppress/de-emphasize information that is 'negative' about *us*.

With this approach, the researcher believes that the lexical analysis of news reports is a fundamental and crucial stage, which can depict intended information about the news regarding the border conflict to readers and hence is a clue to the underlying ideologies on the part of the media in general and journalist in particular.

Regarding to the sentence construction, the study investigates transitivity and modality. According to Halliday (1973), "transitivity is the set of options whereby the speaker encodes his experience of the process of the external world, and of the internal world of his own consciousness, together with the participants in these processes and their attendant circumstances" (as cited in Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). In other words, the system of transitivity offers choices for indicating experience in terms of process types, participants, and circumstances. As stated by Richardson (2007), transitivity depicts the relationship between participants and the role they take part in the processes described in the news reports (p. 54). It can show 'who does what to whom' and types of verbal processes for example 'doing' vs 'happening' (Wodak & Krzyżanowski, 2008, p. 44). In this regard, the study examines the participants, the process and the circumstances associated with the process described in reporting. According to Richardson (2007), transitivity can be examined by looking at "how actions are presented; what kind of action appears in a text, who does them and to whom they are done" (p. 54). In this regard, to study transitivity, the study will examine the

four principal types of verbs (Richardson, 2007, p. 54-55). The types of verbs which are: 1) verbal verbs, 2) mental verbs, 3) relational verbs, and 4) material verbs (action verbs) will be examined. Eggins (2004) explained transitivity in the following (as cited in Au-On, Trakulkasemsuk, & Vungthong, 2017, p. 23-25).

First, the verbal verb is the verb of saying. The participants of verbal verbs are Sayer, Receiver, and Verbiage. Sayer is the doer of the verbal verb, whereas Receiver is the participant to whom the verbalization is directed, and Verbiage is a nominalized statement of the verbalization or a noun presenting some kind of verbal behavior such as report, question, answer or statement. Second, the mental verb is the verb of feeling, thinking or perceiving. There are two participants: Sensor and Phenomenon. Sensor is a conscious participant who feels, thinks or perceives; while Phenomenon is what is felt, thought, or perceived by the Sensor. Third, relational verb is a kind of being or having. Relational verb can be classified into two modes: Attributive and Identifying. The key participants in the Attributive mode are Carrier and Attribute. Carrier is an entity being described, whereas Attribute is the description of the entity. In Identifying mode, two main participants are Token and Value. Token is an entity being identified, while Value is the identifier which defines the Token. Last, the material verb presents the concept of acting and happening. There are four possible participants in this type. The two key participants are the Actor and Goal. The Actor is the one who does the action, while Goal is the one who is affected by the action. Two other participants in the material verbs are Beneficiary and Range. Beneficiary is the one who profits from the process. Range is an addition of the process that is created by the use of dummy verbs, such as have, make, give, do and take.

As for the modality, this refers to judgments, comments and attitudes in the text and talk (Richardson, 2007, p. 59). Modality can show the expression of certainty versus vagueness and high versus low commitment to proposition on the part of the speaker (Wodak & Krzyżanowski, 2008, p. 44). In this regard, the researcher explores the use of modal verbs (e.g., must, could, should) and their negations (e.g., must not, could not, should not) to see a form of 'opinioned' genres of journalism.

After examining transitivity and modality, presupposition are also analyzed in order to study the implicit claim embedded in the explicit meaning of news reports. Bekalu (2006, p. 151) noted that the term first showed in the work of the German philosopher Gottlob Frege (1892). In his writings, Frege's summarized the main claims on the nature of reference and referring expressions as follows:

- Reference expressions (names, definite description) convey the presupposition that they do in fact refer.

- For a sentence to have a truth value, its presupposition must hold.
- A presupposition of a sentence is also a presupposition of its negation.

Nevertheless, Renkema (1993 as cited in Bekalu, 2006, p. 152) explained that although the term has its origin in the philosophy of logic, the term has been viewed in much the same way as 'implied meaning' in most writings. As Richardson (2007) stated, "not all meaning is immediately 'there' in a text to be simply read from the manifest content; there are also *hidden* or *presupposed* meanings in texts" (p. 63). At this stage of analysis, the researcher employs what Reah (2002) proposed to analyze linguistic structures that are common to presupposed meaning (as cited in Richardson, 2007, p. 63). These structures are: 1) words that indicate the change of state verbs (e.g., start, restart, begin stop, continue) and 2) wh- questions (e.g., why, when, who).

As for the rhetoric of the news reports, the study examines the rhetorical moves used by journalists because, as stated by Thomson (2006), the journalist employs rhetorical strategies to influence others to adopt the same point of view (as cited in Richardson, 2007, p. 65). However, this does not mean that journalism merely works on rhetoric to seek agreement and support, as mentioned earlier, the argumentation in the news is in fact embedded with opinionated statements that shape prevailing values of a society and reflect the actions, attitudes and feelings of the journalists and others. According to Corbett (1990) and Jasinski (2001), there are many rhetorical moves recognized by rhetorical theorist (as cited in Richardson, 2007, p. 65). At this stage of analysis, the researcher employs three of the rhetoric moves suggested by Van Dijk (2006) and Richardson (2007) that are useful to the analysis of the news discourse to reflect sensationalism and to disclose the standpoint of journalists. First, the study analyzes hyperbole—an excessive exaggeration made for rhetorical effect. Second, they study examines metaphor—a concept that operates through transference of a similar characteristic. Last, metonym—a concept that operates through a direct form of association to substitute the name of one thing with another commonly associated with it, normally a part of it— are analyzed.

Regarding the narrative of news reports, journalists draw on information they themselves produce, and on that which they are offered—by news agencies, in press conferences, press releases, previous stories on the topic and a variety of other documents such as reports and minutes (Bell, 1991 as cited in Wodak & Krzyżanowski, 2008, p. 33). A considerable source of the input journalist use comes from organizational sources that have "organized relationship with the press" (Van Dijjk, 1998 as cited in Wodak & Krzyżanowski, 2008, p. 33). Journalist newsgathering routines thus invariably tilt the balance in favor of

powerful elite sources (Bell, 1991 as cited in Wodak & Krzyżanowski, 2008, p. 33). Many studies have been conducted on the news narrative (Richardson, 2007). The research examines the contents of news stories and the ways that such stories are reported. Bell (1991, 1998) constructed the model of news structure which are: 1) abstract, 2) source attribution, 3) event, 4) background, 5) commentary, and 6) follow-up (as cited in Renkema, 2009). In this study, the researcher employs Bell's model as it is the model that has been developed recently and has already been applied by Kong (2006 as cited in Renkema, 2009). At this stage, the paper examines the components of news reports regarding the border conflict and counted them in terms of their occurrence in each report and total occurrence in all reports to see the extent to which these reports were similar to typical news structure suggested by Bell. Moreover, this strategy is useful to expose the news narrative used by different news agencies.

Research Methodology

Data Collection

The study analyzes news reports of the border conflict between Thailand and Cambodia reported in Thailand from 2011 to 2013. Data were collected from two popular Thai-language and English-language newspapers : Thairath and Bangkok Post. Data to be analyzed were collected from the official websites of the two news agencies: 1) Thairath (www. thairath. co. th) and 2) Bangkok Post (www.bangkokpost.com). The news reports that were released from February 4, 2011 until November 30, 2013 will be analyzed because of two reasons. First, the border conflict was amplified when there was a militarily clash between Thailand and Cambodian troops near Phu Ma Khua area of Sisaket on February 4, 2011. Second, based on International Court of Justice (ICJ) website, https//:www.icj-cij.org, retrieved on April 23, 2019, the Kingdom of Cambodia submitted to the ICJ on April 28, 2011 to file a request for interpretation of the judgement rendered by the Court on June 15, 1962 and the Court recalled Cambodia's request for the case's hearing on the judgment on November 11, 2013. The researcher believes that the collection of the news reports that were released during this time period will allow the researcher to acquire linguistic features that can be analyzed under the scope of this study at their best.

The selection of newspapers in Thailand is based on the following steps. In the first step, the researcher selected the news agencies based on the readership of their origins .Based on Nielson IMS·s record collected between July 17 to June 18, 2018 nationwide, the total population was 59,418,000 people aged 4 years or more. The record shows that in the Thai-language newspaper, Thairath has the

highest readership (Thairath has a readership of 2,650,000). In English-language newspapers, Bangkok Post has the highest readership (Bangkok Post has a readership of 4,000). In the second step, the researcher chose the news being analyzed from the 'broadsheet' (so-called 'highbrow') daily newspaper that has online sources. In the third step, the researcher chose the sources from the linkage of news topic towards the conflict being analyzed using the keywords "Thai + Cambodia + border." The corpus of the database from Thairath is 44 and Bangkok Post is 139. The total number of news reports is 180.

Data Analysis

The study concentrates on headlines and the whole content of the news reports. The study employs Richardson's textual analysis progression to analyze the micro and macro levels of news texts as previously stated. The study combines various approaches to reveal what kinds of linguistic characteristics are employed in news reports and to investigate the functions these characteristics serve in the news.

Research Findings

The study examines the texts presented in the two daily newspapers in Thailand. The findings are as follows.

Micro-Textual Analysis

Lexical Choice

At this stage, the researcher examines lexical choice especially the cluster of words to explore how Thai and Cambodian sides are reported by journalists and then reveal the demonstration of "us & we, them & they" in the news reports. The frequency of lexical choices strategy that consists of four moves is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Frequency of lexical choices in news reports

News Reports	Express / emphasize information that is 'positive' about *us*	Express / emphasize information that is 'negative' about *them*	Suppress /de-emphasize information that is 'positive' about *them*	Suppress /de-emphasize information that is 'negative' about *us*
Bangkok Post	64 (20.92%)	123 (40.20%)	95 (31.01%)	24 (7.84%)
Thairath	6 (20.69%)	8 (27.59%)	2 (6.90%)	13 (44.83%)

Examples of lexical choices in Bangkok Post and Thairath are as follows**:**

Bangkok Post :Express/emphasize information that is 'negative' about *them*.

"Cambodia is trying to say that some part of the map [Annex 85D] is not important in the case. But, in fact, the court used it to illustrate the temple's vicinity. Moreover, the Cambodian lawyer has accepted the 4.6 sq km area has nothing to do with the temple's vicinity," he said.

The negative issue that is associated with Cambodia concerns the map Cambodia used in the ICJ.

Thairath :Suppress/de-emphasize information that is 'negative' about *us*.

กลุ่มไม่เอาสงครามรวมตัวอนุสาวรีย์ชัยสมรภูมิ ร้องรัฐบาลต้องยุติสงครามระหว่าง ไทย-กัมพูชา ระบุ ทำให้ชาวบ้านและทหารในพื้นที่ต้องเสียชีวิตและทรัพย์สิน ขณะที่เห็นว่าที่รัฐบาลประกาศสงครามเพียงเพื่อต้องการกลบกระแสทางการเมืองเท่านั้น (Translation: Anti-war group gathered at the Victory Monument and requested the government to end the war between Thailand and Cambodia.The group indicated that the war made locals and solider lose their lives and property. At the same time, the group saw that the government declared war just because they only want to obscure political issue.)

The negative issue that is associated with the Thai government is about a hidden political issue the government used to declare war.

In Bangkok Post, although having a heterogeneous group of readers (any readers who have English language skill), the lexicalization that involves ideology shows negative-other presentation. Whereas in Thairath, although having less heterogeneous group of reader (only readers who have Thai language skill), the lexicalization that involves ideology shows negative self-presentation.

Sentence Construction

Regarding the analysis of sentence construction, the researcher studies transitivity and modality.

Transitivity

Richardson **(**2007**)** explained that transitivity forms the representation, describing relationships between participants and roles they play in the processes described **(**p**.** 54**).** The study examines choices that present an event's participants and choices that the event itself is presented **(**Richardson, 2007, p**.** 54**).** According to Eggins (2004 as cited in Au-On et al., 2017), the process can be classified as follows (pp. 23-25).

As previously stated, the verbal verb is the verb of saying. The participants of verbal verbs are Sayer, Receiver and Verbiage. Sayer is the doer of the verbal verb, whereas Receiver is the participant to whom the verbalization is directed, Verbiage is a nominalized statement of the verbalization or a noun presenting some kind of verbal behavior such as report, question, answer or statement.

The Sayer participants in all news reports are applied for various purposes. For example, they are used to describe the current situation, to show cooperation between countries, and show Thai authority's negativity towards Cambodian's doing. The purposes that were found in the news reports reveal the various ideational meanings of social actors portrayed in the news. Both Thailand's and Cambodia's parties were represented as the parties which acted in both negative and non-negative ways. Below are the examples of Sayer participants in the news reports.

Bangkok Post : *Adisorn Pokmontri, an ambassador-level official, said the Thai and Cambodian governments wanted to settle the case amicably as bilateral relations between the two countries were gradually improving.*

Thairath :*นายอภิสิทธิ์ กล่าวว่า ไม่ควรจะมี และเราไม่เป็นฝ่ายเริ่มต้นก่อนอยู่แล้ว หากเกิดเหตุต่างๆ ขึ้น เราต้องชี้ให้เห็นอยู่แล้วว่า กัมพูชาใช้วิธีนี้ตลอดในการยกระดับของปัญหา (Translation :Mr. Abhisit said that it should not have had and we were not the one who started it. If something happens, we will have to point out that Cambodia always uses this strategy to escalate the level of problem.)*

Below are the examples of Receiver participants in news reports which show the participants to whom the verbalization is directed. Here, Receiver participants are expressed in a passive construction. Such transitive choices mostly involve a degree of submission or negativity. However, it is important to note that the

Receiver participants which are "was told", "would not be mentioned", "will be told", "were mentioned", "were told", "ถูกกล่าวย้ำ" or "is repeatedly stated" rarely occurred in the news reports as illustrated in Table 2 and Table 3.

Bangkok Post : *Meanwhile, the Senate's committee on corruption investigation and good governance promotion was told by a lawyer that Thailand could refuse to comply with any new ruling of the ICJ.*

Thairath :*ทั้งนี้ สุภชัยให้สัมภาษณ์กับ "ทีมเศรษฐกิจ" ว่า "แต่การทำธุรกิจต่างบ้านต่างเมืองคงไม่ใช่เรื่องง่าย ปี พ.ศ.2546 เกิดเหตุการณ์จลาจลในกัมพูชา จากความเข้าใจผิดกรณีนางเอกไทยที่ถูกกล่าวหาว่าพาดพิงกัมพูชา โรงแรมรอยัลพนมเปญถูกเผา พร้อมกับสถานทูตไทยและธุรกิจของคนไทยอีกหลายแห่งในพนมเปญ" (Translation :In this regard, Supachai gives an interview with "economic team" that "but to do business abroad is not easy .In 2003, the turmoil occurred in Cambodia from the misunderstanding towards Thai actress who was accused of passing judgement on Cambodia. Royal Cambodia was destroyed by fire along with the Thai Embassy and other businesses owned by Thai people in Phnom Penh.")*

The Verbiage participants in the news reports are applied to report numerous past and current situations in the news reports. Below are examples of Verbiage participants.

Bangkok Post : *The court granted bail to Mr Panich, a Democrat MP for Bangkok, and Ms Narumol, one of two female detainees, on condition that they stay in Cambodia and report to the authorities there when summoned.*

Thairath :*สถานีโทรทัศน์ของกัมพูชารายงานยืนยันผู้แทนทหารของกัมพูชาและไทย สามารถเจรจาบรรลุข้อตกลงหยุดยิงแล้ว (Translation : Cambodian television station reported and confirmed that the representatives of Thai and Cambodian military were able to negotiate and made a cease-fire agreement.)*

Second, the mental verb is the verb of feeling, thinking, and perceiving. There are two participants: Sensor and Phenomenon. Sensor is a conscious participant who feels, thinks or perceives, whereas Phenomenon is what is felt, thought, or perceived by the Sensor. In this study, the examples of Phenomenon participants in news reports cannot be found; however, Sensor participants are applied for two main purposes which are to show participants' thought and perception toward the current conflict, the ICJ's verdict, and other related situations in negative and non-negative ways. Below are examples of Sensor participants in news reports.

Bangkok Post : *He was concerned that anti-government, nationalistic forces were exploiting and politicising the ICJ issue.*

Thairath : *ไทย-กัมพูชารบพุ่ง ชาวบ้านน้อยใจ "คนเสี่ยงตายไม่ใช่เรื่องธรรมดา" (Translation: Thai-Cambodia fight. Villagers are offended "Risking people's life is not normal.")*

Third, relational verb is a kind of being or having. Relational verbs can be classified into two modes which are Attributive and Identifying. The key participants in the Attributive mode are Carrier and Attribute. Carrier is an entity which is being described, whereas Attribute is the description of the entity. In Identifying mode, two key participants are Token and Value. Token is an entity which is being identified, while Value is the identifier which defines Token.

Below are examples of Carrier participants of Attributive mode that were given certain Attribute in various ways. For example, to describe a situation or entity, to attack Thai nationalist group, and to show cooperation with the international community. Theses purposes that were found in the news reports reveal negative and non-negative descriptions of different participants portrayed in the news.

Bangkok Post : *Phnom Penh is still silent on the discovery of the landmines on the border*.

Thairath :*เราต้องทำหน้าที่ของเราให้ดีที่สุดก่อน และต้องขอความกรุณาว่า เวลาที่พูดจากับประชาชนขอให้อิงกับข้อเท็จจริง เพราะอย่างน้อยที่สุดยืนยันได้ว่า รัฐบาลไม่ได้มีผลประโยชน์ในทางที่จะไปสร้างเสียหายของไทยเลย แต่พยายามกล่าวหากันมาตลอด ทั้งๆ ที่ไม่เป็นความจริง (Translation: We must do our duty the best we can and must request to use fact when speaking with people. Because, at least, the government does not have any benefit in the way that causes problems in Thailand. But what has been accused all this time is not true.)*

Below are examples of Token participants of Identifying mode that were given certain Value in negative and non-negative ways in news reports. For example, to identify entity, to attack Cambodia, and to emphasize peace.

Bangkok Post*: "For both governments, Phnom Penh and Bangkok, the common ground is peace," he said.*

Thairath :*ขณะที่การปะทะยังไม่หยุด จึงเป็นความพยายามขยายผลของกัมพูชา ที่จะยกระดับเรื่องนี้เข้าสู่เวทีนานาชาติ (Translation: The fight has not been stopped. This is an attempt by Cambodia to escalate the issue to the international level.)*

Last, the material verb presents the notion of acting and happening. There are four possible participants in this type. The two main participants are Actor and Goal. Actor is the one who does the action, whereas Goal is the one who is affected by the action. Two other participants in the material verbs are Beneficiary and Range. Beneficiary is the one who benefits from the process. Range is an addition

of the process which is constructed by the use of dummy verbs, such as have, make, give, do, and take.

Below are examples of Actor participants who does the action in news reports. From the findings numerous Actor participants are portrayed in the news. Different parties from both Thai and Cambodian sides were represented as the Actors who acted in both negative and non-negative ways.

Bangkok Post : *He maintained his position that Thailand should withdraw its membership of the ICJ, which is to deliver its judgement in October on Cambodia's request for an interpretation of the 1962 ruling over the Preah Vihear temple*.

Thairath : *นายอภิสิทธิ์ เวชชาชีวะ นายกรัฐมนตรีได้ให้หลักการว่า ความสัมพันธ์ที่ดีต้องรักษาไว้ และต้องไม่ให้กระทบกระเทือนเช่นกันนั้น (Translation : Mr .Abhisit Vejjajiva, the Prime Minister, gave principles that good relationship must be kept as well as it must not affect too.)*

Below are examples of Goal participants affected by the action in news reports. Similar to the findings of Actor participants, numerous Goal participants are portrayed in the news . Different parties from Thailand's side were mostly represented as the parties which is affected by the action or situation in the news in a negative way.

Bangkok Post : *At least five people- three Cambodians and two Thais-have been confirmed killed and scores of others wounded in the skirmishes which caused damage to the world heritage-listed Preah Vihear temple*.

Thairath :*ส่วนประชาชนชาวบ้านก็แตกตื่น วิ่งหนีตายหัวซุกหัวซุน หลบลูกกระสุนปืนใหญ่และระเบิด (Translation :The villagers freaked out, ran away from death, and hid from big bullets and bombs.)*

Whereas, the Beneficiary participants cannot be found in the news reports, below are examples of Range participants in news reports constructed by the use of dummy verbs, such as have, make, give, do, and take to show an extension of the process.

Bangkok Post : *Gen Thanom went on: "Foreign experts have inspected the Khao Phra Viharn area and given the view that it is impossible, when the question of the watershed is taken into consideration, for the temple to be in Cambodian territory. The judges never came here to look at the terrain."*

Moreover, from the findings of transitivity revealed in the news reports, the verbs are used for different purposes to construct sentences in the news. Table 2

illustrates the number of process types of transitivity found in Bangkok Post. At this stage, only the verbs classified based on the types of verbal verbs, mental verbs, relational verbs, and material verbs mentioned earlier are considered.

Table 2. Number of transitivity in Bangkok Post

Types	Number of Findings	Percentage
Verbal Verbs	will say (1), can say (2), cannot say (1), say (9), would say (1), do not say (1), says (27), has said (4), said (611), can explain (1), explained (3), had explained (1), states (2), stated (1), did not mention (4), not to mention (1), had not mentioned (2), would not be mentioned (1), did not mention (1), must tell (1), was told (2), had told (1), will be told (1), told (41), report (3), reported (1), asked (77) Total = 800	22.40%
Mental Verbs	don't think (1), did not think (13), think (3), was decided (1), had decided (1), argued (6), argue (6), has argued (2) argues (1), love (1), want (25), wanted (29), wants (17), does not want (3), did not want (8), do not understand (3), did not understand (1), could not understand (1), should understand (1), would understand (3), will be able to understand (1), must understand (1), may understand (1), understand (5), do not know (2), don't know (4), did not know (2), knows (1), know (7), will know (1), knew (2), were very concerned (1), were moderately concerned (1), was also concerned (2), concerned (1), was concerned (3), is concerned (1), concerned (1), am concerned (1), are concerned (1), are still concerned (1), would like (10), don't like (1), would agree (1), agree (7), will agree (1), agreed (28), had agreed (5), has agreed (4), have agreed (10), was agreed (2), realise (4), hope (6), hopes (5), hoped (5), wish (1), learnt (1), had learnt (1), see (3), will see (4), would see (1), would not see (1), should see (1), can see (3), did not see (1), should not even recognise (1), could look (1), may look (1), should look (1), looks (1), looked (2), is looking (2), perceived (1), believe (9),	8.73%

Types	Number of Findings	Percentage
	didn't believe (1), do not believe (1), don't believe (1), believed (20), believed (18), was believed (1), are believed (1) Total = 312	
Relational Verbs	seem (3), seems (3), seemed (4), have (268), has (297), did not have (6), does not have (3), had (263), is (456), am (5), are (208), was (401), was not (20), were (213), were not (9) Total = 2,159	60.44%
Material Verbs	fight (22), fighting (3), take (52), takes (6), took (23), taken (23), run (1), running (2), solve (11), solved (2), resolve (12), send (12), sent (26), walk (4), walked (1), play (7), played (3), invite (3), withdraw (46), withdrawn (3), reject (9), rejects (1), rejected (16), killed (13) Total = 301	8.43%
Total	3,572	100%

Table 3 illustrates the number of transitivity found in Thairath .At this stage, only the verbs classified based on the types of verbal verbs, mental verbs, relational verbs, and material verbs mentioned earlier are considered.

Table 3. Number of transitivity in Thairath

Types	Number of Findings	Percentage
Verbal Verbs	กล่าว (state) (49), กล่าวว่า (state that) (38), กล่าวหา (accuse) (4), บอกว่า (say that) (10), พูด (say) (30), อธิบาย (explain) (1), แจ้ง (inform) (4), ชี้แจง (clarify) (10), หารือ (discuss) (42), อ้างว่า (claim that) (4), ระบุ (identify) (22), ประกาศ (announce) (3), ออกแถลงการณ์ (make a statement) (1), ถามว่า (ask that) (16), รายงาน (report) (20) Total = 254	17.74%
Mental Verbs	คิด (think) (6), ไม่คาดคิด (do not expect) (1), ตัดสินใจ (decide) (4), ต้องการ (want) (21), เข้าใจ (understand) (2), ไม่เข้าใจ (do not understand) (1), วิตก (is worried) (3), วิตกกังวล (is worried) (2), ไม่วิตกกังวล (is not worried) (1), เห็นชอบ (agree) (1), เห็นด้วย (agree) (1), มุ่งหวัง (expect) (1), สิ้นหวัง (is despaired) (1), ผิดหวัง (is disappointed) (1),) หวังว่า (hope that (3), หวัง (hope) (3), ไม่หวัง (do not hope) (1), คาดหวัง (expect) (1), มุ่งหวัง (expect) (1), รู้ว่า (know that) (1), ไม่รู้ว่า (do not know	9.57%

Types	Number of Findings	Percentage
	that) (1), เห็นว่า (see that) (14), มอง (see) (7), มองว่า (see that) (2), เห็นชอบ (agree) (1), เชื่อ (believe) (9), เชื่อมั่น (believe) (5), ยัน (determine) (15), ยืนยัน (confirm) (25), น้อยใจ (is offended) (2) Total = 137	
Relational Verbs	ดูเหมือน (seem) (1), เป็น (is) (284), อยู่ (is) (114), คือ (is) (46), มี (has) (335), ไม่มี (does not have) (40), ยังไม่มี (still has not had) (11) Total = 831	58.03%
Material Verbs	ตอบโต้ (fight back) (3), รักษา (protect) (26), ต่อสู้ (fight) (1), สู้ (3), ปะทะ (confront) (23), ยิงปะทะ (fire) (2), ไม่นำมา (does not bring) (1), ไม่ถูกนำมา (is not brought) (1), นำมา (bring) (2), วิ่ง (run) (3), เดินทาง (travel) (55), เดินหน้า (move forward) (6), เดินได้ (can move on) (1), หนีตาย (escape from death) (2), วิ่งหนีตาย (run away from death) (1), อพยพหนีตาย (evacuate to run away from death) (1), อพยพหนี (evacuate and run) (2), อพยพ (evacuate) (5), วิ่งลงหลุม (run to a shelter) (1), วิ่งเข้า (run into) (1), แก้ไข (solve) (8), ส่งผล (cause) (11), ส่งเข้าตรวจสอบ (send to investigate) (2), ส่ง (send) (11), เชิญ (invite) (6), อัญเชิญ (summon) (2), ถอน (withdraw) (18), หลบ (hide) (1), รวมตัว (gather) (3), เรียกร้อง (request) (2), เปิดเผย (reveal) (5), ไม่ขอเปิดเผย (do not reveal) (1) Total = 210	14.66%
Total	1,432	100%

From the findings, transitivity depicts the relationship between participants and the role they play in the processes described in the news reports in numerous ways. Moreover, this study reveals transitivity processed most in the news reports as shown in Table 4. Bangkok Post and Thairath employed relational verbs the most at 60.44 **%** and 58.03 **%** respectively .The verbal verbs were applied in the second highest rank at 22.40 **%** and 17.74 **%** respectively. The mental verbs and material verbs were applied with similar frequencies.

Table 4. Number of transitivity in news reports

Types	Bangkok Post	Thairath
Verbal Verbs	22.40%	17.74%
Mental Verbs	8.73%	9.57%
Relational Verbs	60.44%	58.03%
Material Verbs	8.43%	14.66%

In conclusion, the findings of transitivity reflects various ideational meanings used in sentence construction which can help journalists achieve their goals in the news discourse.

Modality

Here, the researcher studies the use of modal verbs)such as must, could, should and their negations (such as must not, could not, should not) to see a form of 'opinioned' genres of journalism. Table 5 shows the frequency of modality found in the news reports.

Table 5. Frequency of modality in news reports

News Reports	Must	Must not	Could	Could not	Should	Should not
Bangkok Post	64 (25.30%)	4 (1.58%)	88 (34.78%)	12 (4.74%)	65 (25.69%)	20 (7.90%)
Thairath	124 (76.54%)	7 (4.32%)	16 (9.88%)	2 (1.23%)	11 (6.79%)	2 (1.23%)

As for the English news reports, Bangkok Post employs modality that shows vagueness (could, should, could not, and should not) slightly higher than commitment (must and must not). As for Thai news reports, Thairath employs modality that shows commitment (must and must not) much higher than vagueness (could, should, could not, and should not).

Presupposition

After examining sentence constructions, presupposition is analyzed in order to study the implicit claim embedded in the explicit meaning of news reports. As Richardson (2007: 63) stated, "not all meaning is immediately ·there ·in a text to be simply read from the manifest content; there are also hidden or presupposed meanings in text". The researcher employs what Reah (2002) proposed to analyze linguistic structures common to presupposed meaning (as cited in Richardson,

2007, p. 63). These structures are: 1) words that indicate the change of state verbs (such as start, stop, continue) and 2) wh-questions (such as why, when, who).

Words that Indicate the Change of State Verbs

Table 6 illustrates the words that indicate the change of state verbs (such as start, restart, begin, stop, continue).

Table 6. Words that indicate the change of state verbs

News Reports	Start	Restart	Begin	Stop	Continue
Bangkok Post	25 (30.12%0	0 (0%)	15 (18.07%)	18 (21.69%)	25 (30.12%)
Thairath	21 (28%)	0 (0%)	5 (6.67%)	41 (54.67%)	8 (10.67%)

In Bangkok Post, the words that indicate the change of state, start and continue, are found the most frequently. Whereas, in Thairath, the word that indicates the change of state, stop, is found the most frequently. Below is an example of the word, start that indicates the change of state verbs. Here, the collocation of the words suggests who started the event, which event happened earlier, and which event happened next in Bangkok Post, the example of the word that indicate the change of state is shown below.

Statement : *"Cambodian troops started firing into Thai territory and we fired back," he said . "We retaliated and gave them what they deserved."*

Below is an example of the word, stop, that indicates the change of state verbs. Here, the collocation of the words suggests which party or which situation had to stop or be stopped.

Statement : *ขอพธม.หยุดใส่ร้าย สมคบ 'ฮุนเซน' แก้ปมไทย-กัมพูชา (Translation : Ask People's Alliance for Democracy to stop framing that Thai Government conspires with Hun Sen to solve the conflict between Thailand and Cambodia.)*

Wh-Questions

Next, from the data in Bangkok and Thairath, wh-questions which are presented as wh-question and as conjunction are examined. Table 7 shows the number of wh-questions found in the news reports.

Table 7. Wh-questions found in news reports

News Reports	What	When	Where	Why	Who
Bangkok Post	62 (15.98%)	84 (21.65%)	34 (8.76%)	15 (3.87%)	143 (36.86%)
Thairath	25 (60.98%)	2 (4.88%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.44%)	13 (31.71%)

In wh-questions, 'who' is used the most by Bangkok Post at 36.86%. As for Thairath, 'what' is used the most at 60.98%. In Bangkok Post, examples of wh-questions are as follows.

Statement : *When asked whether what was agreed yesterday was in response to the call by the United Nations Security Council for a permanent ceasefire, Asean chair and Indonesian Foreign Minister Marty Natalegawa said: "It is what it is. A ceasefire is a ceasefire, as long as things are quiet."*

The wh-questions employed above are actually being used to ask one question : the explicit request to explain the issue that was agreed. Yet, the answer with wh-questions that was employed remains implicit. In Thairath, the example of wh-questions is as follows.

Statement :*ก่อนที่ศาลยุติธรรมระหว่างประเทศ หรือศาลโลก จะอ่านคำพิพากษาวันที่ 11 พ.ย.นี้ว่า คงต้องเฝ้าติดตามสถานการณ์ว่าจะมีอะไรเกิดขึ้น (Translation : Before the International Court of Justice or World Court is going to read the verdict on this November 11, it is necessary to follow the situation to see what is going to happen.)*

The wh-question employed in this statement embeds the presupposition that the situation prior to the ICJ's verdict is apparently about the future that they want to know.

Macro-Textual Analysis

Rhetoric Moves

The researcher employed three of the rhetoric moves suggested by Van Dijk (2006) and Richardson (2007) that are useful to the analysis of the news discourse to reflect sensationalism and to disclose the standpoint of journalists. Table 8 shows the use of hyperbole, metaphor and metonym in the news reports.

Table 8. Use of hyperbole, metaphor, and metonym in Bangkok Post, The Nation, Thairath and Daily News

News Reports	Hyperbole	Metaphor	Metonym
Bangkok Post	√	√	√
Thairath	√	√	√

As shown in Table 8, Bangkok Post and Thairath employ all three rhetoric moves **.** In Bangkok Post, the examples of rhetoric moves are as follows**.**

Hyperbole: *"Even if Cambodian troops storm our village, we will fight."*

Metaphor: *Maj Gen Tharakorn said he backed the Thai-Cambodian Regional Border Committee's (RBC) agreement that soldiers on both sides should live together in a peaceful manner "like brothers", holding talks or making phone calls to discuss border-related issues.*

Metonym: *On Saturday, Phnom Penh accused Thailand of using chemical weapons against Cambodian troops in the fighting, which has forced the suspension of border trade and triggered the evacuation of thousands of residents.*

In Thairath, the examples of rhetoric moves are as follows.

Hyperbole : *คณะของ สุวิทย์ คุณกิตติ รมว.ทรัพยากรธรรมชาติและสิ่งแวดล้อม เดินทางไปหารือนอกรอบกับคณะกรรมการมรดกโลกที่ประเทศฝรั่งเศสอีกกระทอก เดิมทีสุวิทย์ตั้งใจจะถอนตัวเพราะกำหนดการหารืออยู่ในช่วงหาเสียงเลือกตั้งพอดี และเกรงว่าจะเป็นความรับผิดชอบผูกพัน ตกเป็นเหยื่อความขัดแย้งทางการเมืองไปฉิบ (Translation :The group of Suwit Khunkitti, the Minister of Natural Resources and Environment travel to discuss with the World Heritage Committee in France again. Before, Suwit wanted to withdraw because the meeting schedule is during an election campaign and he was afraid that it would be a binding responsibility, which could result in becoming a victim of political conflict.)*

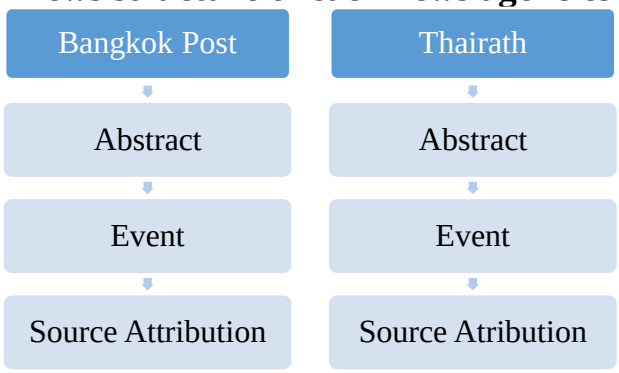
Metaphor : *ในวันงานเปิดตัวโรงแรมอย่างเป็นทางการ เมื่อสัปดาห์ที่ผ่านมา คณะบุคคลสำคัญๆของกัมพูชาได้เข้าร่วมแสดงความยินดี ... จนทำให้บรรยากาศการเปิดตัวอย่างเป็นทางการของโซฟิเทล พนมเปญ โภคีธราครั้งนี้ราวกับเป็นการสังสรรค์กระชับความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างสองประเทศ (Translation :In the official opening day of hotel last week, a group of important people of Cambodia came to congratulate …This time, it made the atmosphere of the official opening day at Sofitel Phnom Penh Pokeethra look like the celebration of relationship between the two countries.)*

Metonym : *หาก "ไทยรัฐออนไลน์" ลองไปสอบถามตาสีตาสา ยายมียายมา หรือแม้แต่ลูกเด็กเล็กแดง รับรองทุกคนต้องบอกเป็นเสียงเดียวกันว่า "อยากกลับบ้าน" (Translation: If "Thairath Online" tries to ask any local people or even young children, everyone will say that they "want to go home.")*

Narrative

In this study, the researcher employs Bell's model as it has been developed recently and has already been applied by Kong (2006) (as cited in Renkema, 2009). Bell (1991, 1998) constructed the model of news structure which are: 1) abstract, 2) source attribution, 3) event, 4) background, 5) commentary, and 6) follow-up (as cited in Renkema, 2009). Figure 2 presents the model of news structure of each news agency.

Figure 2. Model of news structure of each news agencies



Both news agencies do not follow Bell's model of news structure. However, they both share a similar news structure, with both beginning with abstract, event, and source attribution. In the abstract, journalists typically provide a brief explanation of the situation. In the event, they typically describe what happened or what will happen. Then, in the source attribution, they typically provide a quotation or reported speech from an elite source (expert testimony, authorities or personal testimony). Most reports do not provide background, commentary or follow-up steps. If the journalists have further information, they typically write a follow-up article.

Conclusion and Discussion

Based on textual analysis, the news discourse of the border conflict between Thailand and Cambodia is proposed not only to convey particular meaning, but also to influence public perception toward the conflict. Journalists from both daily newspapers employed different linguistic characteristics to serve different functions in the news reports of the border conflict. The analysis reveals that the journalists choose what they want to present in their news writing. Their texts can be strongly critical, highlighting negative statements and disagreements, and focusing only on wrongdoing. On the other hand, their texts can indicate non-negative statements, highlighting agreements, and focusing on peaceful solutions.

In general, both newspapers presents both negative and non-negative statements toward government, military, and related people in Thailand and Cambodia. The dissimilar coverage of the same issue represents the various points of view held by the individual journalists, which are rooted in their ideological position. Discursively speaking, their different ideologies are instantiated in their choice of lexicons, transitivity, modality, and some specific propositions in their news narratives covering the border conflict.

Moreover, this study underlines that various news reports reflects the media's own ideologies. The process of this news production is closely in accordance with the underlying ideological positions presumed by the individual news organization, which are closely related to the political beliefs, cultural values, and institutional practices. Journalists have guidelines from editors about how to cover stories. These guidelines are effective because editors hold sway over what becomes news and which reporters advance in the organization. Over time, the journalists tend to adjust their styles to fit harmoniously with the expectations of their news agencies (Bennett, 2007: 168). The tone, editorial voice, and format makes one news market different from another. This level of formula reporting is as agreeable as it is unavoidable in any kind of news agency that follows a standard operation of news production. The power of news reports is primarily concerned with certain institution's discourse domination through exercising the power of language and communication that fundamentally has the capability to control people's minds.

Recommendations

As this study focuses only the textual analysis of news reports covering the border conflict, future researchers could investigate related social and cultural practices around the circumstances of this conflict. The researcher suggests that further studies may explore other approaches of examination to have a well-rounded analysis of the news discourse of the border conflict between Thailand and Cambodia.

References

Au-On, Sawarinn, Trakulkasemsuk, Wannapa, and Vungthong, Sompatu. (2017). Who is Burning down Rohinya Villages? The Portrayal of Rohingya through Transivity Analysis. *REFLections. 24*, 20-35. Retrieved from https://www.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/reflections/article/view/112292/87510

Bekalu, Awoke Mesfin. (2006). Presupposition in news discourse. *Discourse & Society*. *17*(2), 147-172. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Mesfin_Awoke_Bekalu/publication/230688834_Presupposition_in_news_discourse/links/5783d93808ae37d3af6c10c3.pdf

Bennett, W. Lance. (2007). *News: The Politics of Illusion* (7th ed). New York: Pearson Education, Inc.

Chachavalpongpun, Pavin. (2013). Thai-Cambodian Conflict: The Failure of ASEAN's Dispute Settlement Mechanism. *Asian Journal of Peacebuilding*. *1*(1), 65-86. Retrieved from http://s-space.snu.ac.kr/bitstream/10371/83422/1/04_Pavin%20Chachavalpongpun_4th.pdf

Erjavec, K. (2004). Beyond advertising and journalism: Hybrid promotional news discourse. *Discourse & Society*. *15*(5), 553-578. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/249713136_Beyond_Advertising_and_Journalism_Hybrid_Promotional_News_Discourse

Feigenblatt, F. Otto. (2012). Exploring the relationship between prospect theory and international conflict: The Thai-Cambodian border dispute as a case study. *Revista de Comunicación Vivat Academia*. *119*, 14-30. Retrieved from https://dialnet.unirioja.es/descarga/articulo/5104502.pdf

Grabowsky, Volker. (n.d.) Heritage and Nationalism in the Preah Vihear Dispute. [Online Paper]. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/277013407_Heritage_Nationalism_and_Discourses_on_the_Preah_Vihear_Dispute

Halliday, M. A. K. & Matthiessen, C. M. (2004). *An introduction to functional grammar* (3rd ed.). Beijing, China: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

International Court of Justice. (n.d.). *Request for Interpretation of the Judgment of 15 June 1962 in the Case concerning the Temple of Preah Vihear (Cambodia v. Thailand) (Cambodia v. Thailand)*. Retrieved from https://www.icj-cij.org/en/case/151

Jahedi, M. & Abdullah, F. S. (2012). Post-September 11 discourse: The case of Iran in the New Your Times. *International Journal of English Linguistics*. *2*(1), 60-70. Retrieved from https://www.academia.edu/1559574/Post-September_11_Discourse_The_Case_of_Iran_in_The_New_York_Times

Kasetsiri, Chanvit. 2009. *Siamese/ Thai Nationalism and Cambodia: A Case Study of the Preah Vihear Temple*. Samutprakarn: Toyota Thailand Foundation.

Kasetsiri, Chanvit; Sothirak, Pou and Chachavalpongpun Pavin. (2013). *Preah Vihear: A Guide to the Thai-Cambodia Conflict and Its Solutions*. Bangkok: White Lotus Co., Ltd.

Lee, Sang Kook. (2014). Siam mismapped: Revisiting the territorial dispute over the Preah Vihear temple. *South East Asia Research*. *22*(1), 39-55. doi: 10.5367/sear.2014.0196

Martin, Wagener. (2011). Lessons from Preah Vihear: Thailand, Cambodia, and the Nature of Low-Intensity Border Conflicts. *Journal of Current Southeast Asian Affairs*. *30*(3), 27-59. Retrieved from https://journals.sub.uni-hamburg.de/giga/jsaa/article/download/474/472

Nielson IMS's record. (2018). *Readership of Newspaper and Magazine in Thailand on July 17 to June 18, 2018*. Bangkok: Nielson IMS's record

Oktar, Lütfiye. (2001). The ideological organization of representational processes in the presentation of us and them. *Discourse Society*. *12*(3), 313-346. doi:10.1177/0957926501012003003

Pan, Xiaping. (2002). Consensus behind disputes: A critical discourse analysis of the media coverage of the right-of-abode issue in postcolonial Hong Kong. Media, *Culture & Society*. *24*, 49-68. doi:10.1177/016344370202400103

Renkema, J. (2009). *Discourse, of course: An overview of research in discourse studies*. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins B. V.

Richardson, J. (2007). *Analysing newspaper: An approach from critical discourse analysis*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

The Nation. (2011, March 2). Retrieved from http://www.nationmultimedia.com/2011/02/04/national/Thai-Khmer-border-skirmish-breaks-out-30147945.html

Van Dijk, T. A. (2006). Ideology and discourse analysis. *Journal of Political Ideologies*. *11*(2), 115-140. Retrieved from http://www.discourses.org/OldArticles/Ideology%20and%20Discourse%20Analysis.pdf

Wodak, Ruth & Krzyżanowski, Michal. (Eds.). (2008). *Qualitative Discourse Analysis in the Social Science*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Revisiting English Learning in Thai Schools:

Why Learners Matter

Sureepong Phothongsunan

Received : November 14, 2018
Revised : December 17, 2018
Accepted : December 26, 2018

Abstract

Given the increased prominence of English as a language for international communication, a question arises whether to what extent Thai school students are equipped with adequate English proficiency to be viable and intelligible in their actual use of English. In this paper, instead of simply calling attention to new English teaching methods and possibly unique types of teachers, the writer argues that what may be in need concerns the ways learners of English are perceived and the way English learning is understood. It is therefore suggested that learners who are at the core of learning be heard comprehensively. Based on learners' needs and interests, opportunities and insights to help Thai school English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners to better develop their English skills can be had.

Keywords: English as a foreign language, EFL learners, perceptions, student voice, Thai schools

Introduction

English is regarded as the most distinguished foreign language in Thailand and the significance attributed to it affects the learning of the language profoundly. English education has recently become an issue of public debate as it is believed that it is timely that Thai learners be more proficient English users after having studied it for more than 10 years from kindergarten to high school and even until university. The main responsibility for ensuring that the learners can be capable English users inevitably lies within the authority of the Ministry of Education of Thailand where so far various efforts have been made to improve English language administration in Thai schools. Despite these efforts, there remain issues at school level that seem to hinder the improvement of English language provision, which will be explored. First, an overview of how English is characterized in Thailand is presented.

Overview of English in Thailand

English has long been viewed as pivotal to the development of Thailand in terms of business, education, science, and technological headway, all of which require proficiency in English. In fact, English has been a compulsory element of the national education curriculum for decades. English has been included in the national education curriculum since 1980. In 2001, it was declared in the new national curriculum that English would be a compulsory foreign language subject starting from level 1 in primary education (from 6 years of age). English is also one of the eight compulsory components that Thai students have to take in the core and elective courses. Generally speaking, the study of English in Thai schools is divided into four levels: level 1 (preparatory level) and level 2 (beginning level) in primary education; level 3 (expanding level) in lower secondary education and level 4 (expanding level) in upper-secondary education.

Officially, English is a foreign language equivalent to French, German, Chinese, and Japanese. However, English is clearly accorded the highest status and value (Boonkit, 2002). It has also been described as "the essence of being an educated and cultured Thai" (Wongsothorn, 2000: 314).

In some urban and suburban areas where there is a high level of social and economic activity, English has been accepted and recognized in society as a language of communication and interaction (Crystal, 1995). In other parts of the country, English is seen more as of value for international relations and economic and academic purposes.

English is inexorably present in all professions (Kirkpatrick, 2012) throughout Asia including Thailand. It is widely employed in the media and various forms of publication in English for both academic and non-academic purposes are largely available around the country. The language is extensively used in newspapers, broadcasting and in the entertainment business (Pennycook, 1994). With recent development of information, communication and technology (ICT), English is also easily accessible through the Internet. In other words, throughout the country, Thai EFL learners of different ages can access English through one means or another.

Issues in English Education

Regarding English language teaching practice, educational reforms which have recently taken place have brought about policies regarding education. These include the leeway of compulsory education from six to nine years, the transfer of a highly centralized system of administration and curriculum to school level,

and a shift from a teacher-centered approach to student-centered education (Thamraksa, 2003). Since then, the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which focuses more on learners than teachers as the center of learning, has played a more important role particularly in the area of English language teaching. On the one hand, it is claimed that through this methodology, Thai teachers of English are adopting the learner-centered approach and that this is favored by English teachers in Thailand (Chayanuvat, 1997). On the other hand, Kirtikara (2003) states that the English curriculum for the most part still focuses on grammar and reading comprehension and that students and learners' goals are overall guided by grammar-centric exams.

Whereas the demand for English is high with its greater role in Thai society, however, the standard of English teaching and learning at Thai primary and secondary schools has been broadly critiqued. Noom-ura (2013) found unsatisfactory outcomes when considering student achievement in English at years 6, 9, and 12.

What could account for such a consequence in Thai student learning achievement standard in English? Firstly, over the years, learners' achievement in English in national examinations is inevitably compared with their achievement in other subjects, and it is perceived to be at an unsatisfactory level. Secondly, there is an issue of disparity in the levels of proficiency among learners according to their socio-economic status, and between learners in rural and urban schools. Therefore, this creates an imbalance in the distribution of English proficiency among learners in the country. Thirdly, of wider concern, most Thai graduates are perceived as lacking command of the English language. Results of national entrance English tests in the past few years reflect Thai students' inadequate English skills, with scores as low as 30-40 out of 100 and that the poor outcomes could impact the country's forte in the regional market (O-NET report, 2016).

However, to entirely purport that the standard of English in Thailand has declined seems rather excessive. In fact, in the present system of education, English is a compulsory or a core subject in both Thai primary and secondary schools. In other words, the language is accessible to all learners across the country. Currently, English is more widespread and at large more Thais are better able to use English for general communication. Therefore, the issue of the standard of English in the country needs careful consideration prior to a claim that the standard has deteriorated.

Nonetheless, it is important to note that since the activity of learning English is pervaded with social and economic significance, the government needs to ensure that Thai students both in the urban and rural areas acquire an adequate level of proficiency in English. Particularly, this is because Thailand realizes that a

diversity and level of proficiency is required for participation in today's global community (Pica, 2000). It is therefore crucial that learners succeed in learning English both in the classroom and in actual use in life to enable the country to compete and participate in the twenty-first century knowledge-based economy.

Toward English Learning in Schools

There have so far been continual efforts on the part of the Ministry of Education to improve the standard of English in the country. Over the last decade different strategies have been adopted and various changes made in the system to improve the quality of English education at school level.

New teaching methods and techniques have been introduced. The use of information technology (IT) is advocated in schools across the country as part of the government's nationwide effort to elevate the overall standard of education. It is thought this might enhance the use of English and encourage learners in the learning process, at the same time providing teachers with more sophisticated teaching tools.

With these teaching innovations and tactics in support, however, schools' reactions have been varied as they seem to have different perspectives with reference to the issue of improving English.

Some teachers are reluctant to use IT in their English lessons. They may be older teachers who have difficulty catching up with technology, and thus willing to rejecting its integration into teaching. Moreover, some argue that what learners experience with IT would not be examined. In this respect, the main concern at school level is to ensure that learners are on track to pass English examinations. In fact, it has been acknowledged that overall the Thai education system can be considered as examination based or examination oriented (Wiriyachitra, 2002). As learners' performance in English has from the start been measured on the basis of their academic achievement or their cognitive ability, the effort at the school level seems more concentrated on improving English learning in the light of the examinations. This is partly because schools in general believe that they will be held accountable, as the examination results reflect teachers' effort and, more importantly, the effectiveness of schools (Wiriyachitra, 2002).

Different orientations schools may have toward improving English can also be attributed to the background of each school, and school leadership, for example, whether the heads of schools are in favor of promoting and using English. While it is acknowledged that there are other contributing factors influencing the way teachers and schools react to and implement the English language provision, the

core issue might lie in the way teachers, schools and even the Ministry of Education perceive and understand learners and English learning.

Perceptions of Learners and English Learning

In relation to learners' interest, which is a crucial force in determining whether learners embark on a task at all, it is suggested that learners be viewed from a more dynamic perspective with the possibility that it is the learning environment or even learners' psychological and emotional state which influences their perceived interest or lack of it.

The emphasis given to examinations has skewed the way learning English is perceived. While it is acknowledged that examinations are important for certain purposes, it should also be noted that examinations can be very limited and constraining as they do not provide a broad holistic framework for assessment (Goodwyn, 1995). However, the point is that this notion of examinations seems to have given school administrators, teachers and even learners the impression that the classroom is the most important context for language learning. Other contexts outside the classroom appear to be negligible to the learning of English. In reality, it is learning outside the classroom which is often perceived to be more productive (Brown, 2001).

The notion of examinations also appears to have impelled teachers to focus their teaching in the classroom in a way that implies learning English is solely an academic endeavor. This suggests that teachers perhaps perceive learning English in terms of individual learners embarking on the learning task in the classroom on their own through using their individual capacity, without any social element. As revealed by research in Second Language Acquisition (SLA), this is a relatively narrow view of learning.

With the curriculum mandating what learners should learn and, more importantly, what learners will be evaluated in, teachers may also come to the conclusion that if learners follow their teaching closely, they would learn. In this sense, teachers believe in the notions of covering the syllabus and that teaching leads to learning. There indeed seems to be a belief within English education in Thailand that there is a direct relationship between teaching and learning. Teaching is perceived as diffusion, involving a one-way flow of knowledge and skills from the teacher to the learners. One example is the Ministry of Education's long endeavors to efficiently and systematically improve the English language teaching approach. By enhancing the use of English through proper schooling, learners would be influenced to have positive attitudes for learning the language, and by helping teachers to acquire the appropriate skills, and through introducing the use of

technology, it is assumed that teaching would be more efficient and thus this would result in better learning. This is in fact just a fallacious assumption. Inconsistent as this may be, what is most significant to note is that schools, teachers and Thai education policymakers perhaps have not fully recognized that these efforts focus more on matters related to teaching rather than issues on student learning.

In fact, the significance of students' voices has become explicit in the growing body of research dealing with students. Existing empirical research findings show that collaborative work between teachers and students not only created a better relationship mutually but contributed to a better understanding of learning that ultimately could enhance engagement, motivation, and eagerness within learners (Cook-Sather, & Felten, 2011; Houghton, 2001; Rodgers, 2006).

Conclusion

In this paper, it is asserted that the main concern in English education in Thailand should be to provide learning experiences that would help learners become proficient English users in a country where English carries saliently higher social and economic values. However, as previously discussed, while the government, the public and the education system strive to improve the quality of English education, the debate has been on issues other than learning itself. This may not be unforeseen as the issues of English learning have been perceived mostly through the eyes of the government, stakeholders and even teachers, as these are the people who have the most influence on education at policy and school levels.

Learners who are in fact at the heart of the matter have often been overlooked and therefore insights into the issues concerned with learning English remain vague. However, if the issues of learning English are to be addressed, it is necessary that teachers or in this context educators try to understand the complexity of learners' experiences. In language teaching, various methods and techniques have often failed to produce effective learning although they may have appeared rational in theory (Littlewood, 1984). To discover why, we must study the learner. We have to listen to what learners can offer us in terms of how they perceive their learning and the extent to which their experiences affect them as learners of English as well as their English development and performance.

Attention has thus to be drawn to students' voices which appear critical to the successful implementation of educational reform (Yonezawa & Jones, 2009). In fact, students' voices are found underutilized and underrated in the realm of EFL (Murphey, Falout, Elwood, & Hood, 2009). Until students' learning experiences

and voices are extensively documented and uncovered, it is posed a challenge to see Thai school students use English intelligibly and efficiently.

References

Boonkit, K. (2002). Listening strategies for 'real world' English on TV. *Silpakorn University International Journal*, *2*(2), 65-96. Retrieved 31 August 2018 from www.journal.su.ac.th/index.php/suij/article/viewFile/61/60

Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language Pedagogy* (2nd ed.). New York: Longman.

Chayanuvat, A. (1997). Diversity and learner's choice: The true challenges of Thailand's EFL classrooms. In G. Jacobs (Ed.). *Language classrooms of tomorrow: Issues and response*. Singapore: SEAMEO RELC.

Cook-Sather, A. & Alter, Z. (2011). What is and what can be: How a liminal position can change learning and teaching in higher education. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly*, *42*(1), 37-53.

Crystal, D. (1995). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of the English language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Goodwyn, A. (Ed.). (1995). *English and ability*. London: David Fulton Publishers Ltd.

Houghton, P. (2001). Finding allies: Sustaining teachers' health and well-being. *Phi Delta Kappan*, *82*(9), 706-711.

Kirkpatrick, A. (2012). Teaching English as a lingua franca in ASEAN: Maintaining linguistic and cultural diversity. *Proceedings of the 2012 International Conference on Cultural and Linguistic Diversity in ASEAN*. Suan Dusit Rajabhat University, Bangkok, Thailand, 17-25.

Kirtikara, K. (2003). *On Language Acquisition and Learning – A Personal Note.* Invited paper presented at the Conference on Research in ELT, 9 April 2003, at King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi Thailand, Bangkok.

Littlewood, W. (1984). *Foreign and second language learning.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Murphey, T., Falout, J., Elwood, J., & Hood, M. (2009). Inviting student voice. *Asian EFL Journal*, *36*, 1-34. Retrieved 18 October 2018 from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/PTA-May-2009.pdf.

Noom-ura, S. (2013). English-teaching problems in Thailand and Thai teachers' professional development needs. *English Language Teaching, 6*(11), 139-147. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v6n11p139

O-NET report. (2016). Retrieved September 2017 from http://www.onesqa.or.th/onesqa/th/download/index.php?

Pennycook, A. (1994). *The cultural politics of English as an international language.* London and New York: Longman.

Pica, T. (2000). Tradition and transition in English language teaching methodology. *System, 28*(1), 1-17.

Rodgers, C. (2006). Attending to student voice: The role of descriptive feedback in learning and teaching. *Curriculum Inquiry, 36*(2), 209-237.

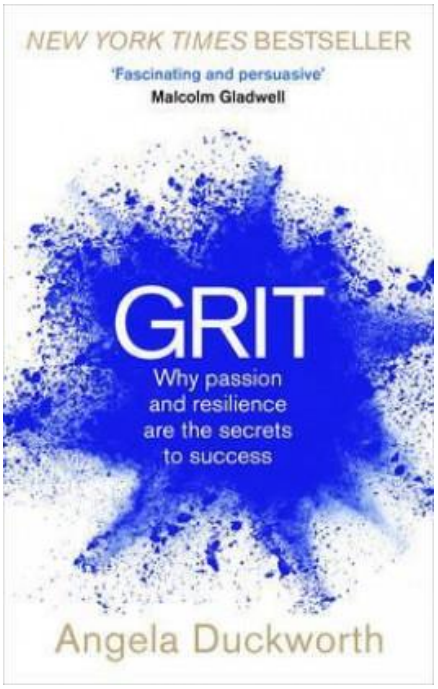
Thamraksa, C. (2003). *Student-centered learning: Demystifying the myth*. Retrieved 18 July 2018, from http://www.sc.mahidol.ac.th/sclg/sllt/Issue5.pdf

Wiriyachitra, A. (2002). English language teaching and learning in Thailand in this decade. *Thai TESOL Focus*, *15*(1), 4-9.

Wongsothorn, A. (2000). Thailand. In H. W. Kam & R. Y. L. Wong (Eds.), *Language policies and language education: The impact in East Asian countries in the next decade* (pp. 307-320). Singapore: Times Academic Press.

Yonezawa, S., & Jones, M. (2009). Student voices: Generating reform from the inside out. *Theory Into Practice, 48,* 205-212.

Book Review



Title: *Grit: Why Passion and Resilience are the Secrets to Success*

Author: Angela Duckworth

Publisher: Penguin Random House, U.K.

Year: 2017

Number of pages: 333

Reviewed by *Vikanda Pornsakulvanich*

This book is for those who need inspiration to reach their optimal goals and succeed in life. The book highlights factors essential to be successful. Why do some people give up so easily, while others never give up and continue to do things over and over again until their goals are reached? To understand this, the author, Angela Duckworth, explicates a psychological theory of achievement, what she calls "Grit." According to Duckworth, grit refers to factors or characteristics leading to achievement in life. Grit is about "holding up the top-level goal for a very long time."

The author posits this concept into what she calls the equations of achievement, which contain four main variables: talent, skill, effort, and achievement. She explains that skill comes from talent and effort (talent x effort = skill), while achievement comes from skill and effort (skill x effort = achievement). In short, talent is how quickly our skill is improved when we put in effort. Achievement is what happens when we use our skill with effort to do things.

Overall, this book is easy to read and full of insightful information to understand the concept. The author, as a psychology professor, wrote this book based on her research conducted over many years. The case studies and data obtained from various organizations and institutions are interesting and useful.

To be more specific, this book contains three parts: Part 1 includes five chapters highlighting what grit is and why it matters. The first part presents an overview of the concept and how grit is crucial for achievement. The author also presents

the theory and the equations of achievement and the Grit Scale. In the last chapter, the author raises an interesting question, "How much of our grit is in our genes?" She concludes that grit and any psychological traits relevant to success in life are affected by genes and also by experience. One more interesting question, "Can grit grow?" is raised, and the answer is yes. Grit grows as we age, as we grasp our life philosophy, and as we develop passion and perseverance.

Part 2 of the book illustrates how to grow grit from the inside out. The author discusses four psychological assets: interests, practice, purpose, and hope by presenting each asset in chapters 6 to 9. The author is convinced that grit can grow from inside. We have to be interested in what we are doing. In short, we can build grit from our state of mind, our inner-being that leads us to do things differently.

In Part 3, the author makes the point of building grit from the outside in. What we learn from the Part 2 is that our psychological factors are crucial for achievement. However, outside factors such as parenting, family, friends, society, and culture are also related to growing grit. The author suggests that wise parenting with support, respect, and high standards can encourage children to imitate their parents. Wise parenting is relevant to grit and could be passed down from generation to generation.

In conclusion, this book is a must read for those who want to dig deeper into what grit means and how it relates to our success. One major point that I learnt from reading this book is to set my top-level goals in life, and to pursue them with enduring effort. Persistence is a key to success. However, grit is not everything for success. There are other factors that are important such as our goals or destination. It is our journey to have new experiences, to meet new friends, to maintain existing ones, and to explore what we can give back to our community and society.

Reference:

Duckworth, A. (2017). *Grit: Why passion and resilience are the secrets to success*. UK: Penguin Random House.

Notes on Contributors

Perapong Suaykratok is an M.A. student in Language and Communication at the Graduate School of Language and Communication, National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA), Thailand. His main areas of interest are linguistic landscape (LL), minority languages, and multilingualism.

Aree Manosuthikit is currently a lecturer at the Graduate School of Language and Communication, National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA), Thailand. She received her Ph.D. in Second Language Acquisition from University of Wisconsin-Madison, U.S.A. Her research interests include second language acquisition (SLA), language ideologies, and multilingualism.

Thebporn Kanchai is an English language lecturer at Mahasarakham University, Thailand. He obtained his M.Ed. in TESOL from the University of Sydney, Australia. His primary research interests fall into the fields of English Language Teaching (ELT), Teacher Education, CEFR in Thailand, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), DA and L2 pedagogy.

Tanporn Trakantalerngsak is a Japanese lecturer at Mahidol University, Faculty of Liberal Arts in Thailand. She was funded by Japanese Government Scholarship for her M.A. and Ph.D. in Japanese Studies. Her specialisations are Japanese Studies, Japanese Phonetics, Second Language Pronunciation and Second Language Acquisition.

Nontawat Wanna is a recent graduate from the Faculty of Liberal Arts, King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang. He is an English tutor at Engster English Academy and an English teaching assistant at Andrew Biggs Academy. His research interest is on Phonetics, Second Language Acquisition, Sociolinguistics and World Englishes.

Atinuch Pin-ngern is a full-time lecturer at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang. She earned her Ph.D. in English as an International Language from Chulalongkorn University. Her research interests include Cross-cultural and Variational Pragmatics, Sociolinguistics and World Englishes.

Chulamani Aggadhamvong works as a lecturer at the Department of Advertising, Albert Laurence School of Communication Arts, Assumption University, Thailand. She has an M.A. in Language and Communication (Hons) from the Graduate School of Language and Communication, National Institute of Development Administration, Thailand. Currently, she is a Ph.D. candidate of the Graduate School of Communication Arts and Management Innovation, NIDA

Sureepong Phothongsunan is an Associate Professor at the Theodore Maria School of Arts, Assumption University. Holding a doctorate in TEFL from the University of Exeter, U.K., he has published books, articles, and research in English Language Teaching.

Vikanda Pornsakulvanich is an Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Journalism and Mass Communication, Thammasat University. She received her Ph.D. in Communication Studies feom Kent State University, U.S.A. Her research interests are on media uses and effects, new media, and corporate communication. Her recent research deals with the influence of new media and social media on well-being.

Call for Papers

NIDA Journal of Language and Communication is the official journal of the Graduate School of Language and Communication at the National Institute of Development Administration. Its purpose is to disseminate information of interest to language and communication scholars, and others interested in related interdisciplinary sciences .The journal presents information on theories, research, methods, and ideas related to language and communication as well as related interdisciplinary sciences .This journal publishes original scholarship for both local and international readership on all practice-oriented linguistic standpoints, and on communication as a theory, practice, technology, and discipline of power, especially in applied contexts.

Types of Manuscripts Accepted

NIDA Journal of Language and Communication welcomes research paper as well as academic articles which explore and/or investigate the area of language, communication and the interplay between language and communication. Humanistic in its orientation, the journal endeavors to develop better understanding of the forms, functions, and foundations of human interaction. It is not restricted to particular theoretical or methodological perspectives, and publishes manuscripts and book reviews that will be of interest to scholars, researchers, teachers, practitioners, and students across the linguistics, applied linguistics, and communication fields. Interdisciplinary in nature, the journal provides a forum for scholarly studies in linguistics, sociolinguistics, communication, rhetoric, language teaching, pragmatics, discourse studies, media studies, cultural studies, literary studies, gender and sexuality studies, translation studies, applied linguistics and other area of linguistics and communication research.

Contact and Mailing Address:

Inquiries should be directed to Jareeporn Kaewsuksri, Coordinator
Graduate School of Language and Communication
National Institute of Development Administration
118 Serithai Road, Klongchan, Bangkapi, Bangkok 10240 THAILAND
E-mail: chompoo49@hotmail.com
Telephone: +66 (0)2-727-3152, fax +66 (0)2-377-7892 (between 9.00-16.00 hrs.)

Manuscript Format Guidelines

- Manuscripts submitted to the journal must conform to the stylistic guidelines prescribed by the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA), 6th edition (2010).

- Submitted manuscripts must be typewritten, double-spaced, and in 12-point Time New Roman font with margins of 1.5 inch for top and 1 inch for bottom, left and right sides.
- Papers should not exceed 30 pages (A4 or letter size), exclusive of tables and references.
- All pages must be numbered except the title page.
- Page numbers must be placed at the top of the page in the upper right hand corner.
- The article title and headings must be printed in bold style and placed at the center of the page. Sub-headings should be italicized and positioned at the left margin.
- Manuscripts must be thoroughly checked for errors prior to submission.

Reference Format

All sources cited in the manuscripts must follow the American Psychological Association (APA) guidelines (*Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 6th edition*), and must be alphabetically ordered. Purdue University provides a comprehensive on-line source for APA guidelines which can be accessed through its website (https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/1).

In-text citation

Within the text, only brief author-date citations should be made, giving the author's surname, year of publication and page number(s) where relevant. With the exception of Thai language sources, only first name(s) or first name(s) and surname(s) can be cited.

> According to Jones (1998), "manuscripts must be properly cited" (p. 199).

Long quotations

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

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

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

Summary or paraphrase

> Kojchakorn Sareechantalerk (2008) states in her study of Thailand's feminine beauty discourse that the traditional description of beauty (before 1868 A.D.)

can be segregated by class and ethnic distinctions into different sets of rules governing the presentation of attractive bodies and postures that are said to indicate individual class and ethnic identities (p. 26).

Examples of References

Books

Butler, J. (1993). *Bodies that Matter: On the discursive limits of sex.* London: Routledge.

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

Articles in Periodicals

Lau, H. H. (2004). The structure of academic journal abstracts written by Taiwanese Ph.D. students. *Taiwan Journal of TESOL*, *1*(1), 1-25.

Li, L.J. & Ge, G.C. (2009). Genre analysis: Structural and linguistic evolution of the English-medium medical research articles (1995-2004). *English for Specific Purposes*, *28*(2), 93-104.

Articles in Edited Books

Mulvey, L. (1985). Visual pleasure and narrative cinema. In B. Nichols (ed.), *Movies and Methods* (Vol. 2). Berkley: University of California Press.

Tonkiss, F. (1998). Analysing discourse. In C. Seale (ed.), *Researching society and culture.* (pp. 245-260). London: Sage.

Unpublished Theses

Kojchakorn Sareechantalerk. (2008). *A Discursive Study of Thai Female Beauty: Multidimensional approach* (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Thammasat University, Bangkok, Thailand. [in Thai]

Notes on Thai Language References

- According to Thai convention, Thai scholars are listed and referred by their first names.

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

Manuscript Submission

- Authors are advised to submit manuscripts online at www.lcjournal.ac.th.
- Each submission must be accompanied by an abstract of no more than 250 words and a bio-data or author identification paragraph of 50 words. A separate title page should include: 1) the title identification of the author(s); 2) the address, telephone number(s), and an e-mail address of the contact person together with his/her institutional affiliation(s); and 3) data pertinent to the manuscript's history.
- All references to the author(s) and institutional affiliation(s) should be removed from the text of the manuscript, leaving only the title and the abstract on the first page.

Copyright

- Authors publishing in *NIDA Journal of Language and Communication* retain their copyright. The journal asks only for a license to publish the article as the first publisher. Request for reproduction should be directed to authors.
- After publication, two hard copies of the journal will be sent to the corresponding author. More copies can be requested. Please contact our coordinator.

Submission Policy

- Manuscripts should address, but need not be limited to, issues that are significant to the diverse areas of language and communication, and should make an important, substantive contribution to existing or emerging bodies of knowledge.
- Research accessible to both scholarly audiences and the learned public is encourage.
- Papers submitted for publication must not be under consideration by any other publishing outlet at the time of submission. By submitting to the Journal, each author maintains that he/she will not submit the manuscript to another outlet without first withdrawing it from consideration by the Journal.

- Authors should not submit the same manuscript, in the same or different languages, simultaneously to more than one journal. Papers that overlap substantially with one already published, without clear, visible reference to the previous publication will not be accepted.
- Authors will usually receive a decision on their manuscript within 8 weeks after submission.
- The Editorial Board cannot be held responsible for errors or any consequences arising from the use of information contained in this journal; the views and opinions expressed are those of the author(s) and do not necessarily reflect those of Editorial Board and the Graduate School of Language and Communication.
- The Editorial Board reserves the right to make minor adjustments and, if necessary, shorten the article without altering the meaning. However, the author(s) will be informed if the content alteration is considered necessary.

Peer Review Policy

- All manuscripts submitted for publication to *NIDA Journal of Language and Communication* are initially reviewed by the Editor for appropriate content and style. If a manuscript is clearly outside the scope of the journal areas, its author(s) will be notified, but the Editor reserves his/her right not to return such manuscript.
- If approved by the Editor, manuscripts are then reviewed by two anonymous reviewers (one internal and one external). Reviewers are chosen by the Editor based on their expertise with a submitted manuscript's topic, methodology, and research foci.

On special occasions or in special editions, the Editor may invite authors with a particular expertise to submit manuscripts. In such cases, the publication decision rests with the Editor. Such manuscripts are designated as "invited".

NIDA Journal of Language and Communication Volume 24 ● Issue 35 ● January - June 2019

NIDA

WISDOM for Change

GSLC

Graduate School of Language and Communication

http://lc.nida.ac.th