The Proceedings of the First English Language Studies in the Context of ASEAN 2014 (ELSCA) International Conference

“Expanding the Realm of Knowledge of English Language Studies and Literature in English”

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Preface to the Proceedings of the First English Language Studies in the Context of ASEAN 2014

Welcome to the proceedings of the first ELSCA Conference, which took place in March 2014, hosted 28 presenters who shared their academic works from a variety of disciplines in the fields of language learning and teaching, and literature studies. Four of our presenters decided to publish their papers in our online conference proceedings. It should also be noted that eight papers presented at the Conference have been published in the journal of one of our partner universities, the Journal of Liberal Arts, Ubon Ratchathani University, which is included in the Thailand Journal Citation Index (TCI) database.

In these proceedings, four full papers contribute ideas and research findings in diverse areas of language teaching and learning. Shedding light on globalization and the growing number of Chinese students studying in universities in many Asian countries, Zhiguang Huang proposes a preliminary study to explore learning strategies that Chinese speaking students use to survive in the EFL learning context at a Thai university. He consults language learning strategies (LLS) research and the development of complexity theory (C-T) for theoretical background, and adopts R. Oxford’s Strategic Self-Regulation (S²R) Model as the theoretical framework of LLS.

In the second paper, Kuldeep Nagi points out the pressure on Thai universities to compete with others inside and outside the country and the requirements that Thai students need to be equipped with English proficiency, information synthesis, and social skills to migrate to work in borderless job markets. He dissects possible issues concerning medium of instruction and proposes how eLearning can be implemented to improve English proficiency of Thai students. He further discusses how Thai universities may attract students from ASEAN countries and others.

The third paper by Wichuta Chompurach contributes research results on Thai university students’ opinions towards English teachers’ writing feedback. Findings indicate that students prefer teacher feedback on their writing to peer feedback and require consultation sessions for it. However, students have some difficulties in understanding the feedback given in English. Thus, the author suggests that the feedback should be provided in both L1 and L2 to reduce language difficulty and to maximize the provision of teacher feedback.

The fourth paper discusses the importance of vocabulary in language learning. Mayureesirin Siriwan covers major aspects of vocabulary necessary in achieving learning another language, including the types of vocabulary, the meanings and functions of vocabulary, as well as the types of words to be targeted.

In the fifth and final paper, Arnunnit Manorom presents her research findings showing the benefits of implementing videos and the project approach in teaching English to Thai students in a cross-cultural communication course. Findings show that students gained significant English knowledge and were satisfied with the learning management.

On behalf of the conference organizing team, we would like to wholeheartedly thank our presenters and authors who shared their academic works at our conference and published their works in these proceedings.

Tikamporn Wuttipornpong
2014 ELSCA Proceedings Editor
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Learning and Using English in the Asian Context: An Ecological and Complexity Perspective on Chinese Overseas Students’ Language Learning Strategy at Assumption University of Thailand

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ABSTRACT

Nowadays, more and more Chinese students travel overseas for education, and the Asian region in particular is becoming an important destination. Against this background, this paper points out the necessity for the second language (L2) education and English language teaching (ELT) research field to pay adequate attention to the Chinese students’ acculturation to the multilingual and multicultural Asian contexts, rather than exclusively focusing on those in the Western Anglophone countries. The paper subsequently proposes an exploratory research project that aims to investigate the Chinese overseas students’ use of language learning strategies (LLS) at Assumption University of Thailand (AU) for their English learning and use during their first year of study as a case of probing into the Chinese students’ acculturation to this particular Asian linguistic-cultural-educational context. The paper further argues that adopting an educational philosophy based on ecologism and a methodological basis of complexity theory (C-T) is necessary for this study. This is supported by an overview of the literature of LLS research and the development of C-T, its application to SLA and L2 education research, and a pilot study. The paper then introduces R. Oxford’s Strategic Self-Regulation (S²R) Model as the theoretical framework of LLS. Lastly, the research methodology is outlined.

Keywords: English language teaching, language learning strategy, ecologism, complexity theory, English as a lingua franca

Globalization: The growing phenomenon in education

Today, we are living in a world that is experiencing an era of rapid globalization never before seen in human history. As the trend of globalization grows, education has become more and more internationalized and commercialized. This results in the rapidly increasing international student mobility in recent years. More and more people are choosing to study abroad for their educational degrees.

In this process of educational globalization, China has been playing an important role in the sense of outputting large amounts of overseas students and contributing economic profits to the destination countries. According to the statistics from UNESCO, by the year 2008, the number of Chinese overseas students had outweighed that of any other country, representing 14% of the total number of overseas students in the world (Wang et al., 2009).

Meanwhile, the globalization of education has another significant characteristic. Nowadays, the Chinese people no longer only favor the Western Anglophone countries as their destinations for overseas education; more and more Chinese have preferred to study in some newly-developed or developing Asian countries in the regions around China, such as Singapore, Korea, Thailand, Malaysia, the Philippines, and India. In this new trend, the Asian region is now becoming a popular study-abroad destination among Chinese. According to China’s official statistics, the Chinese overseas students in Asia had risen up to 25.2% of the total number of Chinese overseas students in the world by 2005, which is rather close to the number of 27.9% taken up by those in Europe, and the number of 32.1% taken up by those
in North and South American countries.

The growing numbers of Chinese students in overseas education have been had a strong influence on Chinese society as well as the destination countries in various ways. Therefore, the social science research field has gradually been paying more and more attention to the issues related to Chinese overseas students. Meanwhile, it is also becoming a big concern in the second language (L2) education and English language teaching (ELT) research fields, in researching the Chinese overseas students’ English learning experiences in their host countries, since their English proficiency is a critical factor in determining the degree of success in their overseas education. A common finding from this line of research is that all the Chinese students will unavoidably have to face ‘culture shock’ to some degree and experience a process of acculturation; at this point their English proficiency will play a critical role, as it is a transformation point on the length of transition or acculturation (Xue, 2011: 17).

However, very little attention from the L2 education and ELT research field has been paid to the Chinese overseas students in Asia; the attention has been exclusively focused on those in the Western Anglophone countries. There are two important reasons. First, most researchers in the field have not recognized the rapidly increasing number of Chinese students in the Asian regions; second, many researchers have not realized the significance of contextual difference for English learning. As a result, the Western Anglophone countries are still taken as the benchmark for Chinese students’ overseas educational environments, and the studies on those in the Anglophone countries are considered representative and significant enough to serve as the reference for those in other parts of the world. However, it is time to change this conception. Context is very important in conducting and evaluating learning. Now we know that the English language used in Asia today is mostly a regional lingua franca between non-native speakers (Kirkpatrick, 2010); and thus the Chinese students will have to face a socio-cultural-linguistic environment that is different from their counterparts in the Western countries. In addition, those who prefer to study in Asia may also share common features in family backgrounds, future career orientation, and personal interests that are different from those in the Western countries. These external and internal factors that are specific to the Chinese students in Asia thus make it necessary for us to use a ‘local eye’ to look at them, so as to understand the issues and situations they are confronted with in the Asian context. By doing this, we can broaden the scope of L2 education and the ELT research field to the area of overseas education in Asia, and provide implications for improving local pedagogical practices.

**Assumption University of Thailand as a case**

The Assumption University of Thailand (AU) is taken as the case for an exploratory study on the Chinese students’ English learning experience in the Asian context. AU is a Western-style Catholic university with English as the instructional language. The lecturers and students of AU come from all over the world, but mostly from Asian countries. Meanwhile, there are lots of Thai cultural elements and Thai language used by the large numbers of Thai students, teachers and staff. Most importantly, AU has been attracting large amounts of Chinese students. These features indicate that AU is a multilingual and multicultural context, and can be seen as a typical case for the purpose of this study.

**Focusing on language learning strategy (LLS)**

This study specifically focuses on language learning strategy, taking it as a point of penetration for investigating the Chinese students’ English learning experiences at AU. This is because to succeed in English learning and use at AU means that the Chinese students have
to adapt to this particular context, and successful adaptation depends on their ability to recognize, evaluate and establish a harmonious relationship with the context, making effective use of the various social, cultural and linguistic resources on the different layers of the environment. The realization of these processes is driven by the use of strategies. Therefore, the use of strategy can best reflect the process of adaptation.

It can be assumed that adaptation is necessary on at least two dimensions. First, the Chinese students will need to use strategies to adapt to learning and using English as a lingua franca (ELF) at AU from their past days in China, where English is learnt as a foreign language (EFL); second, they will need to use strategies in adapting to local linguistic features, and dealing with communicative difficulties, such as communicative breakdowns, misunderstandings (Kirkpatrick, 2010) and identity issues (Kramsch and Whiteside, 2008). Issues in these two aspects indicate the significance of studying the Chinese students’ use of strategy at AU. A careful record of the students’ use of strategy across a period of time will be able to capture their processes of English learning and use; and an insightful analysis will enable us to probe into their processes of adaptation to this context, and discover the interactions in between.

Research questions

The following questions are considered as significant to be answered.
1. How do the Chinese students use strategies for English learning and use at AU (both as an intact cultural group and as individuals)?
2. How do the Chinese students’ uses of strategy change as they study at AU (as an intact cultural group and as individuals)?
3. What are the reasons for the changes in the Chinese students’ uses of strategy?
4. What similarities and differences do the Chinese students’ uses of strategies at AU display?

Answers to these questions are expected to contribute to benefiting the ELT pedagogies in local and other similar contexts with implications for developing appropriate strategy assistance for the students.

Taking an ecological and complexity perspective

In order to appropriately record and interpret the Chinese students’ strategy use processes, this study takes ecologism as the philosophical basis. This has significance in two aspects. First, an ecological perspective on L2 learning is able to encompass the considerations of the language acquisition and language socialization processes, being more able to understand complicated sociolinguistic issues in multilingual and multicultural settings. Second, ecologism reflects a philosophy of education that is most appropriate to current late-modern times, as students need to develop a mindset of cultural diversity and a spirit of cooperation. Holding this philosophy will allow us to be more sensible in evaluating the students’ use of strategies for pursuing the value of education.

In addition to the ecological mindset in language and education, a corresponding methodological approach to describing, examining and interpreting research data is also needed. In the L2 research field, there have been two main approaches, namely the psychological and the social approaches. However, with the difference in ontology, these two approaches have been considered as being competing and irreconcilable (Seidhofer, 2003). In response, in recent years some researchers with an awareness of the ‘ecological challenges’ (Mahmoodzadeh, 2012) in L2 education have suggested adopting an approach that is based on complexity theory (C-T), as it supports a social participation view of SLA
without excluding the psychological acquisitionist perspective (Larsen-Freeman, 2002), shares common ground with the ecological perspective on language education (Tudor, 2003), and can discern and study the intricate effects of ecological variables in a more optimal manner than others (Mahmoodzadeh, 2012).

At this point, consulting the literature of LLS research and C-T is helpful in seeing whether C-T is appropriate for LLS research.

**A review of LLS research**

Although the research on LLS has been going on for four decades, there is still no agreement on the definition of LLS. A long list of definitions can be found in the LLS research literature (Ellis, 1994). Different researchers have defined LLS in various ways based on their own perspectives on language and L2 learning. A number of different key words, or synonyms, have been used to define LLS by different researchers. These key words include ‘techniques’, ‘device’, ‘behavior’, ‘activities’, ‘thoughts’, ‘actions’, ‘skills’, ‘tricks’ and ‘approaches’ (Zhu, 2010).

The reason why different researchers used different synonyms to refer to LLS, according to Ellis (1994), is because they do not have agreement on the understanding of several aspects of LLS. These aspects include whether learning strategies are to be seen as behavioral (and therefore, observable) or as mental, or as both; whether learning strategies are treated as general approaches or as specific actions or techniques used in particular areas of learning; whether learning strategies are to be seen as having direct or indirect effect on interlanguage (IL) development; and what motivates the use of learning strategies. Different perceptions of these five aspects have driven researchers to view LLS in different ways, and thus resulted in the fuzziness of the LLS definition in the literature.

In a more fundamental sense, the variation in researchers’ perceptions on LLS can largely be attributed to the difference in their historical and theoretical backgrounds. This is reflected on the different trends in the LLS research.

Generally, there have been three trends in the history of LLS research, which represent three general approaches to examining and interpreting LLS.

The first trend has a focus on those who are considered as ‘good’ learners, and looks at the ‘tricks’ they used for learning an L2 (e.g. Naiman et al., 1978; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975). A series of typical learning behaviors or strategies were identified in the early stage of the LLS research in this trend. But this trend of research is restrictive as being descriptive and speculative, because there is no learning theory to be referred to as the theoretical basis to explain the roles and functions of the strategies identified in the L2 learning process (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990).

The second trend is the psychological approach. It began in the early 1980s, and is still influential today. It is based on the learning theory of information processing that was originally developed from cognitive psychology. This trend has been of important significance to the LLS research. A number of strategies were identified and classified (e.g. O’Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990), and a few influential strategy assessing questionnaires were devised (e.g. Cohen et al., 2003; Oxford, 1990; Rubin and Thompson, 1994).

However, the psychological approach sees language learning as a computer-like information processing mechanism, without considering the social influences on the learner and learning adequately. Along with the ‘social turn’ (Block, 2003) of SLA research, therefore, some other
researchers (e.g. Donato and McCormich, 1994; Gao, 2006, 2010; Parks and Raymond, 2004) have taken a different perspective on L2 learning that is based on the Vygoskian sociocultural theory to investigate the contextual and situational factors on the learner’s LLS use. This is the third trend of LLS research.

But there is also limitation with the sociocultural approach to LLS research, as it exclusively focuses on the social influences on the learner; and it is criticized by the psychological approach for not being able to explain the cognitive learning mechanism of the learner. In fact, this conflict is a reflection of the psychological-social dichotomy in SLA research. Neither of them is comprehensive enough. Therefore, there is a necessity to find a way out of this dilemma, and as such C-T may be able to serve as a solution.

**Complexity theory**

Complexity theory (C-T) has been developed from complexity science since the late 20th century. Complexity science concerns issues and phenomena in complex systems, which emerge in a nonlinear and uncertain fashion from the constant interactions between large numbers of components or agents. Complexity science holds the idea that the universe, nature and human society are full of complex systems that cannot be appropriately perceived with the reductionism and determinism thinking pattern that underlies the traditional Western science. So complexity science rejects the classic scientific paradigm that values the method of analysis by separating the objects into their components and studying them individually; rather, it considers the synthesis of emergent wholes from studying the interactions of the individual components (Larsen-Freeman, 2002).

Complexity theory holds the idea that all the complex systems share a series of common features. These features include dynamicity, complexity, non-linearity, chaos, unpredictability, sensitivity to initial conditions, openness, self-organizing, feedback-sensitivity and adaptability.

In the past three decades the scope of complexity studies has been expanded from natural sciences to social and humanistic sciences; C-T has been applied to various research fields such as biology, geography, economics, psychology and education. In particular, it has also been applied to SLA and L2 education research. Larsen-Freeman’s *Chaos/Complexity Science and Second Language Acquisition* published in 1997 is considered as the first work in this regard. In this article, the author makes a demonstration that language and SLA are both complex and nonlinear systems that display such features as dynamicity, complexity, sensitivity to initial condition and fractal. The author suggests that the adoption of C-T perspective is able to shed new light on a series of significant issues in the field. After this, applied linguists began to take the C-T perspective to inspect linguistic and SLA issues in the theoretical dimension (e.g., de Bot et. al 2005; Ellis and Larsen-Freeman, 2006; the ‘Five Grace Group’, 2009). In light of the complexity perception of language and SLA, C-T has also been applied to the practical and pedagogical dimension of L2 education in investigating such issues as corrective feedback (Hong, 2011), L2 assessment (Ahmadi, 2011), classroom practices (Burns and Knox, 2011), philosophy of L2 education (Conlon, 2004) and the effect of past learning experiences (Finch, 2010).

**A pilot study**

It seems clear that C-T also has the potential for benefiting LLS research. The underlying assumption is that the L2 learner’s LLS use is also a complex and dynamic system, as the learner has to apply various strategies to deal with different resources at both psychological and social levels, such as learning materials, other people, the learner’s past
learning experiences, affects and current L2 proficiency, etc. All these elements are evolutionary in themselves and interdependent on the others. Accordingly, the use of strategy is evolutionary and interdependent with those elements.

A pilot study has been conducted in order to verify this assumption. The pilot study is a revisit to the research data of Huang’s (2011) project, which was to investigate how contextual and individual factors had influenced the learner-and-researcher in using strategies for learning the Thai language independently across twelve weeks in Bangkok. The learner-and-researcher kept a diary on a daily basis to record the learning process, and adopted the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) to record the frequencies of the use of different strategies in every four weeks as a different phase of learning. The results of SILL showed that the learner’s strategy use pattern at the end of each learning phase was different; and the analysis of the diary further revealed that the learner’s strategy use pattern was evolving throughout the learning process, and this evolution was caused by the learner’s constant constructing, arranging and adjusting of various activities for learning on the basis of the learner’s consideration, evaluation and judgment of current social, situational and individual factors. In other words, the learner’s strategy use pattern was constantly altered, and this resulted from the constant interactions of the external and internal factors of the learner throughout the learning.

For this revisit of data, the C-T perspective was adopted to re-interpret the learner’s learning process. It was found that the learner’s strategic learning process had displayed a series of features that echo those of a complex system: it was complex, as it had been affected by various material, social, cultural, political, historical, economic, cognitive, affective, and physical factors that were internal and external to the learner; it was also adaptive, as it was frequently adjusted in response to the learner’s evaluation and assumption of context and situation through feedback that had been derived from experience. Positive feedback would reinforce the learner’s motivation to continue a corresponding effort, whereas negative feedback would drive the learner to make adjustment. This constant adaptation reflects the dynamism of strategy use, which was brought about through its openness to the dynamism of context. This process of dynamic adaptation to the complex context resulted in non-linearity of strategy use. In addition, the above features could be found in the strategies functioning at a few different levels of the language learning hierarchy, including the psycholinguistic processing level, learning activity level, and activity chain level. These levels were the subsystems constituting the overall strategy use systems. In the C-T terms, they were fractals, exhibiting self-similarity among each other and to the overall system.

This pilot study indicates that the L2 learner’s strategy use is a complex system that evolves under the influence of its context. With qualitative data, features of complex systems in strategy use can be captured. As such, the Chinese students’ strategy use can also be studied from the C-T perspective, which will provide us with insights into understanding LLS in a more fundamental sense.

**An integration of C-T and the Strategic Self-Regulation (S²R) Model**

On the basis of the ecological and C-T perspective on L2 learning, I have chosen Oxford’s (2011) S²R model, among a number of others in the literature, as the LLS theoretical framework for this study. I consider the S²R model to have included the advances in the field, and to be compatible with the ecological and C-T perspective. This can be reflected in its definition and classification of LLS.
The definition of LLS that the S²R model holds is as follows:

'Self-regulated L2 learning strategies are defined as deliberate, goal-directed attempts to manage and control efforts to learn the L2.' (Oxford, 2011: 12)

This definition reflects a more advanced understanding of L2 strategy. Oxford uses a new key word attempts to refer to strategies. 'Attempt' is not as explicit nor tangible a pattern as those adopted previously by others, such as 'behavior', 'technique' and 'action'; rather, it refers to a property that lies in function or purpose, which is abstract. This can be further explained by the term 'tactics' that Oxford includes into the model to contrast 'strategy'. In this sense, strategies are functions, while tactics are forms. When a strategy is realized by tactics, it is called strategy use. This function-and-form distinction of strategy use is significant, as it 'helps reduce the imprecision that has dogged prior strategy models' (Oxford, 2011: 31), and supports us in investigating, comparing and regulating L2 learners' specific actions (which are 'tactics') taken in different sociocultural contexts or particular settings to achieve certain functions for learning (which are 'strategies').

Meanwhile, an updated classification of LLS is presented with the model. It includes strategies of three categories: the cognitive, the affective and the sociocultural-interactive (SI). This reflects an integration of the psychological and social dimensions of L2 learning, as cognitive and affective categories correspond to the psychological dimension, while SI category refers to the social dimension. The SI category includes strategies not only for specific social interactions, but also for dealing with culture and personal identity. This shows a more updated understanding of L2 learning at social dimension. In addition, the model also includes 'metastrategies', which refers to crucial mental processes or tools that help the learner control and manage the use of cognitive, affective and SI strategies (Oxford, 2011: 15). The concept of 'metastrategy' is an extension of 'metacognitive strategy', to covering the affective and SI categories as well. Accordingly, there are also meta-affective and meta-SI strategies. The classification of LLS in the S²R model reflects a holistic conceptualization of the multidimensional reality of the L2 learner.

**Research methodology**

Currently the research project is in the process of data collection. In order to be compatible with the complexity perspective, ethnography is used as the general approach. Ethnography refers to the research on an intact cultural group in its own setting. The researcher participates in that natural setting, and studies the cultural group for a certain time period by using extensive fieldwork, in which multiple forms of data are gathered. This approach can provide a holistic, complex view on various aspects of the cultural group’s experience.

The researcher has currently included 12 first-year Chinese students at AU as the research participants. They were invited, and volunteered to participate in the project shortly after they began their study at AU. These students are from different parts of China; among them seven are males, five are females. They are from a few different faculties, including business, architecture, arts, and engineering. The duration of data-collection is expected to last for one year, until their first-year of study has ended.

The specific research instruments and methods that the researcher have been using include semi-structured interview, on-line conversation record, students’ (micro) blog texts and photos and a research journal. The semi-structured interview will be conducted twice, with the first time on the students’ arrival at AU, and a follow-up one at the end of their first-year
study. The first interview has been conducted between the researcher and each participant separately. Each interview has been audio recorded. Each interview lasted approximately one hour.

The researcher has also been collecting the on-line chatting record between himself and the participants, as well as the (micro) blog texts and photos that they posted on line as the sources of data. In addition, the researcher has been keeping a research journal, in which are recorded the researcher's socializations with participants and his observations on the participants' life and study inside and outside the classroom.

Concluding remarks

This paper shows concern for the acculturation of Chinese overseas students who are pursuing educational achievements in Asia, which is an educational context that has not received adequate attention from the global research field. For an exploratory study, the researcher has taken the Chinese students at Assumption University of Thailand as a case, and tries to investigate their LLS use process at AU for one year, hoping to understand the impact of this particular social context on their accommodation to their English learning and use. On the other hand, more attention needs to be paid by the L2 education and ELT research field to the overseas students from other Asian countries, and to those in other contexts of education that have not received adequate attention from the mainstream, such as those in South America, Africa and the Middle East. This diversity will build up the ecology of research, and the outcomes will benefit the education community in constructing a mindset of ecology, complexity and strategy for people from different cultural backgrounds to achieve mutual understanding in the time of globalization.

Bio data
Zhiguang Huang is a Ph. D student at Assumption University of Thailand. His academic areas of interest include various sub-areas of Applied Linguistics and Foreign Language Education. He is currently working on a doctoral research project at Assumption University.

References


Promoting English as a Medium of Instruction (MOI) through eLearning Programs

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Abstract: Each public university in Thailand was created by special legislation and is considered to be an extension of the government. In the past, the majority of them were funded by the government and had no need to compete on regional or international level. In this new century, increasing privatization of higher education and importance of World University Rankings as an indicator of quality is adding more pressure on universities. It is quite evident that in this new era of knowledge-based economies, Thai students will need new kinds of competencies ranging from proficiency in second languages including English, information synthesis and social skills to migrate to places wherever the new jobs may become available in the ASEAN or elsewhere in the world. Hence, teaching and learning of English language has to become a high priority. This paper dissects issues regarding medium of instruction (MOI) and provide some insight into how eLearning can be used to enhance proficiency in English language and help Thai universities to attract students from within ASEAN and beyond.

Keywords: ASEAN, eLearning, English, Higher Education, Internet

Introduction

At the pinnacle of the Roman Civilization, Latin was the lingua franca of most Europe, Asia Minor and North America. After centuries of colonization by major European nations there is no official definition of a global or world language which is characterized not only by the number of its native and second language speakers, but also by its geographical coverage, and its use in international organization such as U.N., EU, G7, ASEAN and in various other diplomatic operations. Through its continuous expansion and use by various countries around the world, English language has become the lingua franca of the modern world. By default it has become a common language that enables people from diverse cultures and ethnicities to communicate on more or less equitable basis. The influence of any language can be determined by three measures: the number of countries using it as their native language or mother tongue, the number of countries adopting it as the official language of communication and the number of countries teaching it as a foreign language of choice in educational institutions.

In addition, intrinsic qualities of a language, the size of its vocabulary, its literal quality and historical significance, its association with great religions and cultures, are all significant factors in the popularity of any language. But history has shown that a language can only become global because of the political power of its native speakers and the economic power it is able to exercise to expand its influence (Michael, R., Shughart, W.F., & Tollison, R. D. 2004). This has been well demonstrated by the colonization of a large part of the world by the British in the last three centuries. But in this new era, the forces of globalization are expanding the use of English all over the world. With the advent of the Internet 25 years ago, English language is evolving faster than any time in the human history.
Medium of Instruction (MOI) in Education- Winners and losers

Based on the dominant pattern of usage of English within countries, a few linguists such as Moag (1982) have grouped countries into three major categories:

i. **English as a native language (ENL)**: In this first category of nations, most people grow up speaking English at home. As such, English becomes their default language of communication. Largely, people residing in the UK, USA and Australia fall into the category of native speakers.

ii. **English as a second language (ESL)**: In the second category of nations English is mostly learnt after people have learned their mother tongue. Often people are introduced to English at school. Here, English is not the default language but is widely used in everyday life and is also used for official purposes. Countries such as India, Singapore, Ghana and The Philippines fall into this category.

iii. **English as a foreign language (EFL)**: In this last category of nations, people who know English mostly learn it in the schools. English is hardly ever used outside the classroom. A few countries in this category include France, Japan, Thailand and Vietnam.

Rapid expansion of Internet has drastically changed the significance of the use of English language in education (Avevolo, W., & Latham, L. 2005). Within the ESL countries, a high level use of English is virtually universal among those who have access to the Internet. In these countries, being educated and knowing English goes hand in hand. Within most of the ENL countries, a privileged and highly educated person may not have an extra advantage. Thus, in practice, the usefulness of learning English for someone from a poor ESL country provides considerable mobility and advantage in the job market (Kyeyune, R. 2004). By default, a person growing in the ESL region will have the opportunities to master more than one language.

Many studies have also linked English language to variation in Gross Domestic Product (GDP). With increasing globalization and expansion of borderless job markets, we need to objectively examine the question of medium of instruction (MOI) at every level of Thai education. For a less cultural but more economic reasons, the question to ask is “which languages should we encourage students to learn well?” Table-1 given below is an attempt to prioritize and rank languages by the GDP produced globally in those languages. It is not very easy to pin down the role of a language to a nation’s GDP, but the table derived from a blog hosted on Wordpress provides not-so-surprising rankings in which “2014-GDP” is derived from Purchasing Power Parity (PPP).

It is clear from the table that although China projects a continued growth rate of 8-10%, the GDP of the English speaking world leads Chinese by 50%. In the English language category, only the percentage of the population that was considered native or to speak “well” by the source, were counted (for example, in the USA only 96% was used), while for other countries, for example, in Francophone Africa or Latin America, 100% of the population is assumed to speak French or Spanish.
Table-1 Languages & GDP
(Source: http://profond.wordpress.com)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>2014 GDP</th>
<th>Countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>$23,485</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>$15,467</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>$7,324</td>
<td>20</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Indian Languages</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>German</td>
<td>$3,937</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>$3,614</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>$3,583</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>$3,534</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>$2,876</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>$2,058</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Bahasa</td>
<td>$1,950</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>$1,843</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Turkish</td>
<td>$1,196</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>$1,112</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Farsi</td>
<td>$1,048</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>$910</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Thai</td>
<td>$747</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>$428</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>$415</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Countries with a national language where English is used mostly for international business (for example, Hungary or much of Southeast Asia) are counted as zeros towards English. Chinese is aggregated as a single language, and includes the Cantonese spoken in Hong Kong, all the regional dialects on the Mainland and the island of Taiwan.

**Face-to-Face (F2F) learning vs. eLearning**

In spite of increasing use of the Internet and 3G/4G mobile networks, the traditional method of Face-to-Face (F2F) mode of teaching and learning is still very dominant in Thailand. Students usually opt for eLearning because they could use it to catch up on missed lectures or for doing their assignments, quizzes and exams on-line. With increasing use of portable devices including smart phones, they often find eLearning to be a useful tool. According to Leadbeater, W., Shuttleworth, T., Couperthwaite, J., & Nightingale, K. P. (2013) students whose native language is not English will find eLearning as a more preferred option. On the other hand, Von Konsky, B. R., Ivins, J. & Gribble, S.J. (2009) suggests that more mature students with higher motivation tend to prefer eLearning. While eLearning provides alternative to F2F learning, the majority of Thai students still prefer to go to on-campus classes and receive lecture materials. In his own work this author found that video lectures provided in English medium with an intention to reinforce eLearning were not used as a preferred media (Nagi. 2012). Table 2 given below highlights the advantages and disadvantages of traditional F2F learning versus eLearning (Zhang, D., Zhao, J. Leon., Zhou, Lina., & Nunamaker, J.F. (2004).

Students in the U.S.A and many other parts of the world are able to work, learn and study whenever and wherever they want. Portable devices such as laptops, notebooks and smart phones allow anyone to connect to the Internet from anywhere. Traditional ways of using
ICT in the classrooms is gradually becoming obsolete. The world of work is becoming more collaborative and it is leading to changes in the way people learn. Teaching paradigms across all sectors are shifting to include on-line learning and collaborative models. In the U.S.A, the use of Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) is proliferating. The abundance of Internet resources and social networks such as Facebook, Google+, and LinkedIn is gradually diminishing the role of educators. In spite of expansion in the use of portable devices, the eLearning scenario in Thailand remains very different. eLearning is slowly growing but is still limited because of the language and some other cultural barriers. Advantages and disadvantage of F2F and eLearning are listed in Table-2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table-2 Face-to-Face (F2F) learning vs. eLearning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Face-to-Face Learning</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Advantages</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Being familiar to both instructors and students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Motivating students</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Cultivation of a social community</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Instructor-centered</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Learner-centered and self-paced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Time and location flexibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Cost-effective for learners</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Unlimited access to knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Potentially available to global audience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Archival capability for knowledge reuse and sharing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Disadvantages</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Increased preparation time for the instructor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Not comfortable to some people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Potentially more frustration, anxiety, and confusion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear that student enrollment in ASEAN universities will continue to expand, and the population will become more diverse (Figure-1) with increasing number of women, international students, older and part-time students. As a result, the social base of higher education will also broaden. Question of access for disadvantaged groups across ASEAN is becoming central to debates about education. The academic profession is becoming more internationally oriented and specialized. The need for ever expanding numbers of universities is posing new challenges for highly qualified faculty, which in turn is leading to more part-time lecturers and lower quality in education. In addition, faculty’s lack of training in integrating eLearning along with new technologies into their teaching continues to pose a serious threat to competitiveness of universities. One of the main purpose of promoting English as MOI is that it enables greater mobility; it widens access and choices; it enhances academic and research collaboration; it leads to joint efforts for creating a common "knowledge based economy"; it increases human resource development and strengthens ASEAN identity both within the region and across the globe.
Importance of English as MOI in ASEAN

Higher education systems in ASEAN are highly diverse. Asian students who may want to study outside their own country face adjustment problems with regards to instructional practices, cultural diversity and barriers to communication due to linguistic differences, as well as curriculum incomparability. Regional differences in education targets and requirements make any assessment of quality of education in ASEAN very difficult. Unless urgent steps are taken in harmonizing higher education frameworks in ASEAN universities, they will be at the losing end of the education spectrum. The idea of harmonization not only requires bridging of the diverse educational systems but also a common MOI. The desire of each member state to preserve its national identity and cultural diversity – as reflected in its educational system – poses a challenge to the complete overhaul of its system. One significant way to neutralize the differences in the systems is to adopt a common language of instruction. One of the characteristics of eLearning is that it is borderless. Promoting a common MOI through eLearning programs is the most suitable framework in harmonizing higher education in ASEAN.

As mentioned earlier, each public university in Thailand was created by special legislation, and is considered to be an extension of the government. Moreover, university employees are under government regulations and civil service rules, and bureaucratic red tape still dominates their operations. However, in this new century a vast majority of academics believe that time has come to pay attention to the growing “relevance gap” in higher education. In this new era, failures to teach things that have relevance in the current job market will have dire consequences. It is quite evident that in the new era of knowledge-based society and digital economies students will need new kinds of competences ranging from proficiency in second languages including English, information synthesis and social skills to migrate to places wherever the new jobs may become available in ASEAN or elsewhere in the world. Of special importance is the capacity to draw on one’s communication and learning skills. Since its inception Higher Education (HE) in every country has remained focused on meeting local social, cultural and economic needs. But with increased use of the Internet and eLearning becoming an option, universities all over the world are changing their course. This shift is the role of universities is captured in the 4-P Model in Figure-2 given below.
More than 2.5 million students are now studying out of their home country; the number is estimated to grow to 7 million by 2020. Much of the migration is mostly a South-North phenomenon. Education can’t be treated as local product or service any more. Many universities based in U.S.A, Europe and Australia have turned education into an export. The world is moving from a competitiveness model based on cheap manpower to one based on brainpower. In total, India, China and Russia educate over 20 million university students each year, as many as in the USA. These students quickly become young professionals eager for success, who are relatively affordable and highly motivated. They are also very proficient in the use of English language. Through internet technologies, these brains can be accessed from all over the world. Thai universities have yet to recognize these trends. To participate in the increasingly competitive market of higher education, every university in ASEAN need to recognize new and emerging forces shaping the job markets. Although there may be some dissimilarity among various universities in ASEAN, a common medium of instruction as highlighted in the 4-P model (Figure-2) can help in harmonizing the region’s higher education. In comparison to Europe, the diversity in education systems and economic development across ASEAN presents many more challenges. But there is still hope that Thai universities will realize that in an emerging Asian Economic Community (AEC) English language can become a common language and act as glue that can bind the region together. However, it is quite unclear whether the 2016 deadline to establish a well-integrated educational system will come to fruition. Some efforts are being made by ASEAN University Network (AUN) to provide more opportunities for student exchanges, credit transfer systems and improving quality assurance (QA) mechanisms, but so far the progress has been very slow. As a small effort to raise standards, AUN began operating a regional QA system to assess undergraduate programs at its member universities in 2007. Since 2009, national QA agencies from various countries have been meeting regularly to learn from each other. It is still working on expanding the QA system to postgraduate programs in ASEAN universities. While there are no attempts to standardize curriculum or grading systems across the region, there is awareness of the need to align different academic calendars across ASEAN universities. Many universities in the region are now complying with a common calendar. However, aligning calendars should not the first thing the AUN should be doing. The agency needs to focus more on expanding membership to all major universities (public and private). Many rectors of private universities believe that AUN should refrain from turning into a club where only some government sponsored universities become the guiding light for the whole region. Educational experts also believe that huge disparities in ASEAN educational systems would make it difficult to replicate the European Union’s Bologna Process which focused on
creating parity among diverse educational systems by adopting common standards. It may happen here in ASEAN but may take a very long time. Parity among member nations cannot be created just on the basis of deliberations and goodwill. Increased educational collaboration among member nations is required. With so many regional problems, it will be difficult to create a common compatible framework of higher education. Many governments in the region are still preoccupied with establishing their own political and economic systems. Half of the members of ASEAN have already adopted English as a major language to promote their business interests beyond Asia. Some also believe that countries such as Korea, Japan, Taiwan and China are more willing in terms of regional cooperation in higher education, partly because their universities are more established and have better educational leadership and government support. These countries also give lot of emphasis on learning English. In some small ways, whatever is working for East Asian countries can be replicated in ASEAN. As depicted in the 4-P model (Figure-2) these challenges include policies and projects that respond to globalization including mobility projects, branch campuses overseas and inter-institutional partnerships, English as the MOI, benchmarks and standards required to properly evaluate unfamiliar foreign qualifications.

**Strategies for creating eLearning content in English**

Much like everything else in life, a little proactive planning for extending eLearning program beyond one’s own borders requires understanding the underlying challenges. If a university decides on developing regionalization strategy, it is bound to pay off in multiple ways. The following discussion is derived from a recent report published in 2013 by Lionbridge, a private company based in Waltham, USA. Only part of this report has been utilized to discuss strategies for developing on-line eLearning content in English. The full report can be accessed from their corporate website (http://www.lionbridge.com).

In this new century every university realizes that providing more eLearning programs has the following benefits.

- Higher enrollment, faster with less effort
- Creating eLearning content for regional markets has become easier, faster and cheaper
- Updating of on-line programs and course contents have become much more efficient

So, before a university decides to create new eLearning programs, especially those in English, they need to think about the following strategies.

1. Deciding what eLearning content should be created in English and how much to adapt it for regional expansion
2. Planning for infrastructure and technologies ahead for regionalization
3. Creating high quality and relevant content meeting the goals of the region
4. Going regional with eLearning programs using on-line marketing tools

Over time, many strategies have been expounded for marketing eLearning content. How to make what is taught in courses accessible via eLearning includes clear and concise use of language, visuals and systematic organization of knowledge. In addition, universities will need sufficient time, money and resources to appeal to a wider market. The four steps given below in Figure-3 can ease the process of developing eLearning programs in any educational institution. The first two steps are key to creating a niche in the borderless market of higher education. The last two steps will require help from consultants and technology service providers.
The four step process depicted in Figure-3 above can be combined with additional strategies to create eLearning.

1. **Region-ready content**: A solid baseline for all eLearning content to be “ASEAN ready” market should be culturally neutral, avoiding jargon, jokes, colloquialisms, culturally sensitive images and anything that might confuse a translator or a non-English speaker. ASEAN-ready content should be the baseline for all eLearning programs.

2. **Translation**: If needed, basic but effective translation option should be provided within English language based programs. It is sometimes called a “straight translation” because it involves turning over a piece of region-ready content to be translated directly into another language. This will result in materials that are more effective for non-native English speakers, since some students learn best in their own language. Fortunately, now all internet browsers such as Microsoft Internet Explorer, Firefox and Google Chrome provide instant translations.

3. **Customizing**: This is the sweet spot of accessibility and affordability. Customizing is a hybrid approach that starts with ASEAN-ready content in a modular design. The base content should be translated into target languages, while specific sections are built, replaced or customized based on the linguistic and cultural requirements that have been identified. This modular approach produces content that is highly nuanced and culturally relevant, and gives the development team the flexibility to identify and work around roadblocks without having to create separate training programs for every language and culture.

4. **Origination**: This is the gold standard for high stakes projects. In origination, cultural and native designs can be used for building the content from scratch. This approach delivers the highest level of quality, but it is also the most time-consuming and costly. It is appropriate for projects where outcomes are critical and the subject matter is highly nuanced. Identifying the level of adaptation is very important for a successful regionalization effort.

Creating eLearning programs in English language will also require some clear strategies. After a university decides on the type of specialized content, it is capable of creating, it will be ready to start planning for relevant eLearning programs. But first, it is helpful to familiarize with the regional markets (Wilfried Admiral, G. W., Kees de Bot. 2006). This will allow universities to build an ASEAN-ready program and avoid stumbling blocks later in the process.

The success of any new eLearning program in English language depends on the following:

- **Instructional strategies**: Learning styles and standards are the most difficult elements to translate across various nations and their cultures. Be sure that the universities understand the cultural and legal factors surrounding the learning environment in target countries.
- **Content**: It is important to make sure the content elements are appropriate and relevant for all audiences, also accounting for cultural and legal framework among countries.
- **Languages**: The target countries may have different character sets and text orientation than English. This will affect the interface design, layout and even program length. It will
also affect subtitling or dubbing, if a university is planning on using videos. More considerations for use of English language in eLearning is discussed below.

- **Technology:** It is important that the technologies that are being planned for use are compatible with regional ICT capabilities, like available bandwidth and end-user devices such as notebooks and smart phones.

- **Assessment and feedback strategies:** Here, cultural and legal differences apply too. The regional partners and the HR department of the university can be a great resource for identifying possible issues. Once a university understands how these factors will impact an eLearning project, it should identify the regional team that will help to develop and execute the eLearning programs.

**Considerations for creating eLearning content in English**

When the content team begins creating eLearning programs with regionalization in mind, it is important that the content provided in English is clear, concise, and grammatically correct, which cuts translation costs and timelines (Morrison, 2011). Specifically, the content writers should keep in mind the following tips:

- Write short, simple sentences in an active voice
- Avoid noun strings with multiple modifiers
- Avoid abbreviations and acronyms
- Avoid idiomatic or colloquial language, jokes and puns that may completely stump translators and confuse non-native speakers
- Use a glossary and style guide to improve consistency and avoid confusion of terms.

It is important to keep in mind that ASEAN-ready content is neither “boring” nor “dumbed-down.” Using these techniques will help create controlled and regulated content that not only makes it easier and less costly but also easy to use.

Successful expansion of eLearning programs across ASEAN requires cooperation among countries and their various universities. Hence, a platform to promote hassle-free mobility also requires an effective on-line Southeast Asian Credit Transfer System (SEA-CTS). For successful adoption of eLearning programs, organizing summer workshops and academic exchanges on a regular basis will pave the way for increasing the standard of higher educational in ASEAN.

**Conclusion**

The issue of whether the English language should be adopted as common MOI has long been a controversy in Thailand and elsewhere in ASEAN. If schools and universities continue to allow use of native languages in the classroom, the opportunities for students to learn English will be lessened. With increased penetration of the Internet, the number of students learning English is likely to increase. Various universities in Thailand and elsewhere in ASEAN are investing heavily into eLearning as a solution to meet increasing demands of technology savvy students. Hence, new eLearning options will continue to increase adoption of English language in academia and businesses across ASEAN. There are no comparable historical precedents on which to base predictions, but it well may be that the emergence of English as a dominant language is a unique, even an irreversible, event. In short, a well-designed eLearning programs using the strategies and techniques discussed in the last few sections of this paper can help in further expanding the use of English language as MOI.

**Bio Data**

Kuldeep Nagi is a Fulbright Fellow from Seattle, WA, USA and currently working at Assumption University, Bangkok. He has written score of articles for regional and international conferences and a regular contributor to NATION and BANGKOK POST newspapers.
References


Feedback from Writing Teachers: What Students Think

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ABSTRACT
Over the last two decades, issues related to which type of feedback can best improve ESL/EFL students’ accuracy in grammar and content development have been extensively investigated. However, students’ views on feedback have been relatively less explored. Using a qualitative approach to collect the data, the present study investigates how Thai EFL university students think of feedback received, including teacher written feedback, peer feedback, and teacher-student conferencing and how they use the feedback. Ten students from two Thai public universities in the Northeastern region are interviewed. Their first and final drafts in English writing classes are analyzed. The feedback received is perceived to be helpful for the students’ academic writing in terms of language and stylistics in writing classes and also in other subjects. The findings reveal that the students value teacher feedback more than peer feedback and prefer consultation sessions as a channel to receive feedback although some of them reported difficulties in understanding the feedback given in English. The findings suggest a need for a combination of L1 and the target language in order to help facilitate learning for the EFL learners.

Keywords: feedback, error feedback, teacher written feedback, teacher-student conferences

Introduction

Over the past two decades, feedback or response has been viewed as an essential element in assisting students to develop their writing skills (Hamidun, Hashim, & Othman, 2012; Hyland, 2003; Leki, 1991; Raimes, 1983; Timperly & Parr, 2010). Myriad studies have been conducted to investigate which types of feedback (i.e. teacher written feedback, peer feedback, and teacher-student conferencing) are beneficial to students and preferred and the extent to which feedback could improve students’ quality of writing in terms of accuracy and organization. Scholars in the field of ESL and EFL writing have conducted studies to explore which type of response is the most preferred by students. The findings of these research studies have reported that teacher feedback is preferred by more students than other forms of feedback such as peer feedback and self-feedback (Hyland, 2003; Leki, 1991; Miao, Badger, & Zhena, 2006; Zhang, 1995). Although these research studies have indicated students’ preferences, their perceptions in terms of why they choose such feedback and how they find it useful for their writing or revising have been less explored.

With regard to areas of feedback, attention has been paid to whether the teacher should provide corrective feedback or feedback on grammatical points, but research has reported mixed messages. On the one hand, overt grammatical correction does not help students improve their writing or understand the complexity of language and “should be abandoned” (Truscott, 1999, p. 112). On the other hand, some research studies report that ESL/EFL students’ writing improves after receiving the feedback on errors (Ferris and Roberts, 2001; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Lee, 1997). Moreover, students want and value teacher feedback on surface level (Hull, 1987; Lee, 1997; Radecki & Swales, 1988) because second language students deem error-free writing or writing accuracy as one of the ultimate goals in writing (Hyland, 2003).
To fully comprehend students’ expectations of feedback and good writing, listening to students’ voices is essential. A strand of educational research highlights the significance of students’ voices. The term ‘student voice’ was defined by Rogers (2005) as:

Student voice is the active opportunity for students to express their opinions and make decisions regarding the planning, implementation, and evaluation of their learning experiences. (p. 3)

Taking students’ voices into account can develop their “stronger sense” (p. 2) of membership, respect, self-worth, and agency (Rudduck, 2004) and can be seen as one aspect of argument and acknowledgement of students’ rights (Rudduck, 2004; Cook-Sather, 2006) “as active participants – as citizens – in school and beyond it” (Cook-Sather, 2006, p. 366). If attention is not paid to students’ voices, Cook-Sather (2006) asserts the role of students will become “recipient or victim of teachers’ … decision-making processes” (p. 366) instead. As a result, their preferences, their comments, and their choices should be taken into account and considered (Thiessen, 1997 as cited in Cook-Sather, 2006).

Motivated by a less investigated research area of students’ voices in ESL/EFL writing research, the present study used a concept of student voice as a conceptual framework to gain a better insight into students’ views towards teacher feedback in Thai EFL contexts. Also, this study was guided by the following research question: How do Thai EFL university students think of feedback from their writing teacher?

**Methodology**

**Qualitative research paradigm**

The qualitative paradigm provided guidelines and a framework for data gathering strategies; in this study, the researcher aimed to address the research questions concerning students’ attitudes towards feedback received from their writing classes. In gathering data, the paradigm allowed the researcher to adopt the two of the most common methods of qualitative research: (1) an interview approach and (2) an examination of written document and artifacts (Stake, 2010). Using semi-structure interview, the researcher could listen to the students’ voices in order to discover what students wanted and how they viewed and thought about feedback from their writing classes. With this interview format, the students were encouraged to share their own experience and express their voices by open-ended questions which could be rearranged. To gain a better insight, the paradigm also allowed the researcher to collect students’ writings and course syllabi to examine how and how often the feedback was given. These data sources helped complement one another.

**Recruitment of participants**

In terms of criteria to recruit the participants, the researcher considered the participants’ experience in taking English writing courses and receiving feedback. To assure this, the researcher considered English program curricula shown on each university’s websites and decided to collect data from third year students majoring in English. Moreover, the researcher considered whether feedback-providing process was mentioned in a course outline. If not, the researcher further contacted writing teachers of these writing courses.

After the consideration, the researcher recruited the participants by sending informed consent letters to the department of foreign languages of the four prospective universities. The universities were four Thai public universities in the North East region providing English writing courses, with feedback-providing processes used in these courses. English major students from two of the universities agreed to participate in the study. The researcher sent
informed-consent letters to the universities to ask the potential participants to participate in
the study. In the letter, the researcher informed the future participants the brief details of the
present study, the objectives of the study, the instruments used, the confidentiality for them
and their institutions, their rights to refuse to answer any questions or to drop out at any
time, and how to contact the researcher. Upon their agreement to voluntarily participate in
the study, altogether 10 students (five from each university) signed and returned the
consent forms.

Participants

The participants in the present study were 10 Thai university students majoring in
English, five from King University and the other five from Queen University (pseudonyms).
These 10 students had enrolled in the courses of English Writing I, II, and III. In their
writing classes, the students worked in drafts (the first, second, and third drafts) and
experienced receiving teacher written feedback, peer feedback, and teacher-student
conferencing or consultation. The demographic information for the 10 participants including
the pseudonyms to replace their names and institutions, ages, majors, current year of study,
and experience with English writing was summarized into in Table 1.

Table 1. Demographic Information for the 10 participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>University</th>
<th>Major</th>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Experience with English Writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Yaya</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Queen University</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Pammy</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Queen University</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Grace</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Queen University</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Tom</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Queen University</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Anne</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Queen University</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Kathy</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>King University</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Nanny</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>King University</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Nick</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>King University</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>3 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to table 1, the 10 students shared similarities in their major, the current year of
study, and the amount of years they had studied English writing.

Data collection tools

Semi-structure interviews

The interview questions used to collect the data consisted of 16 questions (see
Appendix A). The set of interview questions included five subtopics: (1) general overview of
the revisions carried out and feedback used, (2) feedback on global areas, (3) feedback on
localized areas, (4) on comments and corrections ignored, and (5) student evaluation of
feedback in revising. The questions were adapted from those used in Hyland’s 1998 study. In
so doing, the researcher adopted some questions related to students’ views and attitudes
towards feedback and translated those questions into Thai to suit the prospective context.
Then the researcher had the specialist check and correct the questions. After that, the
interview questions were piloted and edited for those unclear questions.
**Written documents and artifacts**

In the study, the written documents and artifacts used in the analysis were students’ writings (drafts) and course syllabi. With these, the researcher could examine how and which type of feedback was given to the participants in practice, and whether or not feedback in any form was mentioned in the course syllabi. Together with interview data, these documents helped reveal a clearer picture of which type and how feedback was given. In other words, the researcher could use the written data sources to complement the interview data.

**Data collection procedure**

At the end of the course, the researcher started the interviews. Before the interview, each participant signed the informed consent form and the participant information sheet. Each student was individually interviewed. Before interviewing, all participants were informed about the nature of the study and their rights to refuse to answer any questions or to drop out at any time. Also, the researcher asked the participants for permission to audio-record the interview, take notes, and photocopy their drafts. The interview was conducted in Thai, the participants’ native language, and the researcher also took notes during the interviews. The interviews were between 18 to 48 minutes in length.

Upon receiving the students’ permission, the researcher photocopied their drafts (the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd drafts). However, the drafts of two students were not included in the database because one refused to bring her first draft with her while the other informed the researcher that her drafts were lost.

The interview time used per participant and the collection of the written documents (students’ 1st, 2nd, and 3rd drafts) were summarized in Table 2.

**Table 2** Interview time and the number of drafts collected

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Interview time (minutes)</th>
<th>Drafts collected from the participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Yaya</td>
<td>38.54</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Pammy</td>
<td>21.27</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Grace</td>
<td>26.04</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Tom</td>
<td>27.48</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Anne</td>
<td>48.37</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Kathy</td>
<td>23.33</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Nanny</td>
<td>23.21</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Will</td>
<td>18.29</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Adam</td>
<td>27.19</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Olive</td>
<td>25.50</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Data analysis**

After the interview, the researcher transcribed the data verbatim and translated the data into English. To analyze the collected data, the researcher used open and axial coding method and written document analysis.
**Open and axial coding**

Transcribed interview data were coded through the open and axial coding process. To perform the open coding process, the obtained data were "broken down into discrete parts, closely examined, compared for similarities and differences (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 62)". Then the coded data were put “back together in new ways by making connections between a category and its subcategories (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 97)”. The researcher broke the transcribed data into words, phrases, and sentences. The similar codes were highlighted in the same color with highlighter pens. Then the researcher put the same-color-highlighted codes together. In so doing, the researcher could group the related-content data or same theme data together (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) as open-coding. In the process of open coding, the researcher examined the data for similarities and differences across the categories and developed the open coding schemes. The next stage was to rename, rearrange, regroup, or relabel the codes; therefore, the researcher could see the categories overlapping. Each group of codes was named following the similarities.

**Written document analysis**

To analyze students’ writings and artifacts, the researcher adopted written document analysis. By the process of a written document analysis, the researcher could be able to get the information concerning words and language (Creswell, 1994). Otherwise, “key categories” (p. 152) in such written data could be established (Creswell, 1994). The researcher adopted this to analyze, categorize, and code students’ written documents and artifacts to explore how students use teacher feedback in their revisions.

The researcher used these questions to guide the analysis: (1) which types of feedback (coded, uncoded, overt correction, all or some of them, or others) did the teacher give to the students?; and (2) which areas (form, content, or both) did the teacher give feedback on?

The content of the course syllabi were analyzed in terms of whether providing feedback was mentioned in the course syllabi or not, how each type of feedback was given, how many times each type of feedback was given, and how many weeks there were in one semester. In so doing, the researcher could obtain information on how the feedback was given in practice. The analysis of the written documents and artifacts complements the interview data.

**Results**

The analysis reported that students’ attitudes toward two sources of teacher feedback (i.e. teacher written feedback and teacher-student conferencing) were seen in these four aspects: 1) students thought that teacher feedback was useful for their academic writing skill in writing classes and other subjects; 2) students thought that teacher feedback was a source of motivation; 3) students valued teacher feedback more than peer feedback; 4) students preferred teacher-student conferencing as a channel to receive the feedback; however, two students reported difficulties in understanding English oral feedback.

**Students thought that teacher feedback was useful for their academic writing skill in writing classes and other subjects.**

Having received the three sources of feedback including teacher written feedback, peer feedback, and teacher-student conferencing through English writing courses, the students in the study indicated that teacher feedback, including oral and written, made them more knowledgeable about academic English. Tom, for example, said that he had gained general knowledge from the writing teacher’s advice. He said:

The teacher explained those incorrect points, and I was happy to go back and edit
the mistakes. For me, receiving the feedback on grammar, vocabulary, structure, and so on, was enough. For the feedback about other matters, it was kind of a piece of advice not really related to the writing. For example, I wrote that English major students had to be able to speak four to five languages. The teacher commented that it could not be [written] like that. That the English majors could be able to speak just two languages well was enough. For those other languages, the level of proficiency may just be fair. That was the comment about the ideas which I liked. It was like the teacher taught the students as usual, about life and so on.

All of the ten students thought that teacher feedback could be applied or utilized to revise their drafts, to write an exam or a report, and to write for other English courses such as Romantic Poetry, and Translation I and II. One student, Tom, who received the teacher feedback on several writing patterns, said that he could utilize such knowledge in the next tasks as well as in applying for a job. The quotation below illustrates this point.

"I might utilize the feedback for the following tasks. Umm, I mean for the tasks with particular patterns; for example, job advertisement, advertising, recipe, resume, and so on. Also, this could be used further in revision as well as in job applications. For applying for jobs, I already knew some about the pattern; therefore, this could be further used easily. Well, I have learned many things about writing; several types of writing are different such as advertisement, memo, e-mail, profile, and resume. With this, I have gained experience and could use what I have learned correctly."

The data showed that the students felt teacher feedback was useful not only for their following drafts, but also for applying to other subjects and particular purposes.

**Students thought that teacher feedback was a source of motivation**

The analyzed data showed that there were two types of teacher written feedback which four students perceived as a source of motivation. The two types of feedback found were (1) feedback or comments on their drafts and (2) overall evaluation.

After receiving teacher feedback on her drafts, Grace who would like to write more correctly acknowledged the significant role of teacher feedback; she stated, “[The comment or feedback] motivates me to, kind of, study further [about] grammar and so on. So, I could write accurately.” Likewise, Anne bought two to three grammatical handbooks to read to gain a better understanding of the mistakes in her drafts. She added:

"[The feedback] made me more enthusiastic because I bought two to three pocket grammar books and studied them. I underlined points. Suppose that I did not understand a point, I went through the book to find out the principles."

After studying on her own, Anne revealed, “my writing improved.” She also added, “I have learned how to write.”

With regard to the teachers’ overall evaluations including negative and positive evaluations, three QU students Tom, Yaya, and Anne felt that such feedback was the source of motivation. Tom receiving the teacher’s evaluation “good” and “excellent” for his essay said, “I appreciated it; it was like I was admired.” Likewise, Grace whose essays evaluated as “Best”, “Very good”, and “Okay” added:

"I appreciated [the evaluation], but I also had to correct a few mistakes. Usually, I have got the evaluative adjectives “Very good” and “Okay”. This encourages me to work more."

Yaya, in the same way, felt encouraged after receiving the evaluation “Okay” and “Very good”; she said:
Giving me overall evaluations, like, “Okay” and “Very good”, the teacher might see that my writing was good. Then I read [the writing] once. Well, it was [rated] as “Very good”, and this encouraged me. I seldom receive that evaluative adjective.

Interestingly, another student, Anne, upon receiving negative evaluations stating “Bad” and “Do again” took these teachers’ negative evaluations as a source of motivation. She said:

It was one of the sources of motivation to study more because the native teacher often said that [my writing] was not good; you are not good. This was like words that looked down on me but then I thought the teacher did that to encourage me.

**Students valued teacher feedback more than peer feedback**

The analyzed data revealed that students felt that feedback from their teachers was more trustworthy than feedback from their friends. Nick, Tom, Olive, Kathy, and Adam similarly revealed that teacher feedback was more reliable or trustworthy. Nick viewed that the writing teacher knew best how the writing should be; he said, "The teacher knew best how to revise the draft. I think I could know more from teacher. If I asked my friends, they would not know. Me too."

Comparing peer feedback to teacher feedback, Tom found that the latter was more reliable. He elaborated, “Most of the time, I trusted the teacher. I was like, how to say, at least, the teacher has got higher degrees.” Similarly, Olive added, "The feedback from the teacher was better because the teacher was more experienced." This was similar to Kathy’s view. Although Kathy revealed that the feedback from her friend could help her spot grammatical errors, she felt that the feedback was less reliable than the teacher feedback. She elaborated, "It was because the teacher was more experienced. She could spot more the mistakes.” Kathy also added, "I trusted the teacher that she knew better.” For Adam, he preferred teacher feedback because he thought that peer feedback was just an assignment from the teacher. He said:

Most of the time, I followed the teacher feedback. For peer feedback, if that one was better than me, I might trust him 50 percent, something like that. For the other 50 percent, I would trust the teacher. In terms of the experience of the teacher and friends were, of course, different. So, I got more from the teacher than I expected whereas the feedback from peers was what they just gave to each other because the teacher assigned us to do so.

Since teacher feedback was more reliable, the analysis also revealed that three students decided not to follow their peers’ comments. Not making any changes as her peers corrected, Olive, Adam, and Nick, explained that their peers wrongly corrected their writing. Olive, for instance, expressed:

Well, sometimes, my peers edited my writing from the correct version to the incorrect, something like that. I then told them that this was correct already. That was the previous task that the teacher already corrected, so the writing was correct. Then I used the sentences in the following task, the new task which my peers wrongly corrected. It concerned conjunctions: “however”, “furthermore”, and so on.

In the same way, Nick expressed, “As I have said, my writing would be incorrect again if I let my peers edit it.” Similarly, Adam revealed, “My friends wrongly corrected the points which the teacher already corrected. It always happened.” He added, “I also gave my friends the wrong comments on errors.”
Students preferred teacher-student conferencing as a channel to receive the feedback

The analysis reported that the students preferred teacher-student conferencing. From the students’ views, the reasons why the conferencing was the most preferred out of the three channels of feedback providing could be concluded as these two reasons: (1) the conferencing was a channel of clarification and (2) the conferencing enhanced the students’ learning experience.

Three students, Grace, Yaya, and Anne revealed they preferred the conferencing because it was a channel to ask and answer the teachers for those unclear points. Preferring conferencing with the teacher, Grace explained, “I preferred talking to him. It was because I could clearly understand. I could ask him many things. For his written comments, he just checked my writing but did not ask anything.” Her views were similar to Yaya’s. Viewing the conferencing allowed her to ask the teacher, Yaya said, “When I had a conference with him, I could ask him. Then he explained. That was what I got from him”. Other than asking her teacher any unclear points, Anne said:

For me, I wanted to ask him why he gave a comment saying I was wrong. He said that it was correct in the first draft. I did need to. I wanted to conference with him. The teacher could ask me; I could so.

Grace, Tom, and Anne revealed in the same way that they have gain a better understanding after consulting with the teachers. In conferencing, Grace and her teacher most of the time talked about an unclear point. Grace said:

I asked him why he commented on that point. He explained that the sentence was not appropriate to use in expressing that you wanted to thank. The teacher then advised to use the other sentences instead. So, I applied this in revising.

After conferencing with the teacher, Grace expressed, “I better understood.” This was the same as Tom. In the conferences, Tom asked his writing teacher, “why that point or sentence was wrong and why the teacher marked a circle.” After the teacher explained, Tom revealed, “I understood [the feedback he asked of the teacher] crystal clear.” Before having a conference with the teacher, not only Grace and Tom, but also Anne, showed that she did not understand why some of those sentences were wrong. Anne said:

I did not get what the feedback from the teacher meant. Why did he write on the draft like that? How can I apply that in my revising? I really needed to ask him why I had to use this word instead. Teacher, what did the word mean? Something like that.

During the teacher-student conferences, Anne told the researcher that “The teacher explained to me why those sentences were wrong. I should use this word instead of that one because this one made the sentence make sense.” After conferencing, Anne felt, “I felt better than not asking him.”

The analysis also revealed four students, Yaya, Olive, Pammy, and Grace, expressed their preference for conferences because it enhanced their learning experience. Yaya stated, “Having a conference with the teacher, I felt better and much better. What made me feel better were many new unknown things I learned from the teacher.” This was similar to Olive, who learned new synonyms from her teacher. Olive said:

I wanted new ideas from the teacher. I might use this word, but the teacher told me that I could use the other word instead; for example, used ‘firstly’ instead of ‘first of all’.

Olive added that through the conferencing she also received feedback with more details. She
said, “Conferencing with teacher was between my ideas and the teacher’s. What I got was more detailed feedback which was also correct.”

The analysis also reported two students, Pammy and Grace, preferred conferencing because they have gained more confidence in talking to their foreign teacher. For Pammy, she said, “Conferencing encouraged me to talk to the teacher confidently. I meant talking to him in English. Conferencing motivated me to be brave to talk in English.” Similarly, Grace asserted, “Conferencing made me braver to ask. As usual, I was not quite talkative.”

However, the analysis showed that there was a language barrier in communication during teacher-student conferencing. Two students, Yaya and Anne, revealed that they expected to receive oral feedback from their teacher and explanations in Thai. Through conferencing, Yaya, who was having problems in communicating with her foreign teacher in English, stated:

I prefer conferencing with the teacher, but I need to talk to him in Thai. I do not understand because the foreign teachers teaching me in the previous courses sometimes talked to me in Thai. Then I got what they said. But the teacher who is teaching in the current course does not talk to me in Thai at all. Sometimes, he speaks too fast, so I cannot get what he says. If I can get some few words, I might understand him.

This was in line with Anne, who revealed that she “felt depressed” and found that the teacher’s questioning was “scaring”. Anne also gave some reasons why she preferred Thai conversation. She said:

It was because Thai teachers could explain better than the foreigners could. For example, this was an adjective; (Thai teachers could explain) how the word was used, and what the word modified. This helped me understand what I did not, crystal clear. Supposing that I ask the teacher about grammatical point; he would explain to me this was followed by adverbs, adjectives, or verbs, something like that. This was the way the Thai teachers illustrated, so I could understand. On the other hand, the foreign teacher did not explain, so I did not get what to do because I did not understand him.

Although the findings reported that the students preferred oral feedback or teacher-student conferencing as a channel to receive teacher feedback, the findings also suggest that a combination of L1 and English comments was needed in order to help EFL students understand the feedback clearly.

Discussion

How do Thai EFL university students think of feedback from their writing teachers?

The results showed that the students valued teacher feedback in both modes i.e. teacher written feedback and teacher-student conferencing and that the students found teacher feedback more credible than peer feedback. Moreover, the analysis revealed students’ preferences and expectations of feedback from writing teachers.

Students’ positive views on teacher feedback

The findings indicated that the students valued teacher feedback in both oral and written forms and thought that teacher feedback was useful and trustworthy. The findings corroborated the two surveys conducted by Leki (1991) and Miao et al. (2006). Leki’s survey showed that ESL students thought that the teacher feedback was the most useful source or best source in helping them correct their drafts. In the same way, Miao and his colleagues’
survey showed that students perceived feedback from writing teachers as ‘useful’ and ‘very useful’. Using interviews to listen to the students’ voices, the researcher was able to expand Leki’s and Miao et al.’s surveys with three reasons why the students thought teacher feedback including written and oral modes was useful. That is, if the teacher feedback was perceived as: 1) a source of knowledge about English academic skills and general knowledge; 2) a source of motivation; and 3) a reliable source. These findings of the present study revealed how the students thought of the feedback they received. In other words, the students’ voices illuminated their perspectives on the sources and the quality of feedback they received. This, therefore, could help the teachers reflect on their own feedback-giving practices.

That teacher feedback was found to be more trustworthy or credible when compared to peer feedback in this study was in agreement with Miao et al. (2006) and Zhao (2010) who reported that Chinese students trusted teacher feedback. In Miao et al.’s study (2006), the students viewed that teacher feedback was more “professional, [...] experience, [...] [and] trustworthy” (p. 188), while Zhao (2010) did not report why the students trusted teacher feedback. Using the concept of students’ voices to guide the study, the researcher could identify the three main factors that contributed to the students’ perceptions: 1) teachers’ higher degrees, 2) teachers’ greater experience, and 3) teachers’ knowledge about English writing. Interestingly, it was found in the present study that there were doubts about their peers’ linguistics knowledge which was in line with the findings in Miao et al. (2006). This might explain why the students in both studies checked whether peer feedback was correct by consulting grammatical textbooks or asking their teachers.

It can be argued that the students’ voices raised the teachers’ awareness of the effectiveness and the practicality of peer feedback; their voices revealed delicate issues related to trust and reliability which may jeopardize collaboration in the writing classroom. The results thus lent support to Hendrickson’s proposal (1979), “Peer-correction or self-correction with teacher guidance may be a more worthwhile investment of time and effort for some teachers and learners” (p. 18).

**Students’ preferences and expectations of feedback from their writing teachers**

When asked about their preferences, Thai EFL students expected and preferred the teacher-student conferencing as a source of receiving feedback. This finding is in line with those of Paulus (1999), Zhang (1995), and Zhao (2010) who reported that ESL students preferred and expected feedback from their teachers. With the qualitative paradigm, the researcher could attend to the Thai students’ account of their expectations and needs regarding teacher-student conferencing. This finding is in line with the study of Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994) who reported that FL and ESL writers’ preferences of teacher feedback mode was giving feedback and meeting with them. Using semi-structured interviews to gather the data, the researcher could expand the findings of Hedgcock and Lefkowitz (1994) on why teacher-student conferencing was more preferred. Two reasons were identified; the students found that 1) the conference was a channel of clarification and 2) the conference enhanced the students’ learning experience. Interestingly, the present study found that two students needed explanation in Thai, so they could understand the feedback clearly and understand the reasons why certain parts of their work needed to be revised.

The findings of the present study revealed the students’ needs and expectations of feedback. In the light of student voice, it was their right to express preferences and expectations of feedback which echoed their needs. These formed a basis of communication between teachers and students. While the students in the present study accepted the teachers’ feedback and expressed their intention to improve their writing, the teachers should also
show respect to the students’ rights. This could be achieved by taking the results into a policy-making process. It could be said that this could contribute to a shift in power dynamics between teachers and students. In other words, as Cook-Sather (2006) noted, when students’ voices were attended to, the students’ role will be to become policymakers. More importantly, such policies were likely to match students’ needs.

**Pedagogical implications**

The present study reported findings concerning Thai EFL students’ views, preferences, and expectations. Hence, it cultivates pedagogical implications for EFL writing. The preferences, positive attitudes, and expectations of teacher feedback in all sources found in the present study support the role of teacher feedback and the teacher-student relationship in teaching and learning writing from the students’ perspectives. However, it is worth stressing that following teacher feedback without full understanding, might not promote students’ independent learning. Therefore, according to the participants’ voices, teacher-student conferencing is likely to be the most useful approach to enhancing student writers’ awareness of their own learning to write in another language.

**Conclusion**

Guided by the concept of students’ voices, the present study was conducted with the aim of gaining a better insight into Thai EFL university students’ views and expectations of feedback from their writing classes. The data were gathered from semi-structured interviews with ten English major students at two public universities, the students’ drafts, course syllabi and guidelines.

The findings showed that the students valued feedback from teachers and preferred teacher-student conferencing the most. This was in line with the previous research studies on students’ preferences of feedback types. Taking students’ voices into account, the researcher could further identify the reasons for the students’ perceptions and preferences for feedback provided through their writing classes. The data revealed (1) the students perceived that teacher feedback was useful for their academic skills, including subjects other than English; (2) the students perceived that teacher feedback was a source of motivation; (3) the students valued and trusted teacher feedback more than peer feedback; and (4) teacher-student conferencing was perceived to be the most preferred source of feedback.

When put together, the findings shed light on the students’ perspectives on their feedback-receiving experiences which could reflect how they learned to write in a foreign language and factors associated with their learning. By taking students’ voices into consideration, the study underlined a teacher-student partnership that is likely to promote mutual respect and communication in the feedback-giving and feedback-receiving process as well as in their writing classes. These include mutual understanding during teacher-student conferencing, significance of language learning, and peer feedback training.

**Bio Data**

Wichuta Chompurach is currently a master's degree student completing her MA degree in Applied Linguistics at Mahidol University. One of her areas of interest is teaching writing skill to EFL students, in particular, feedback giving and feedback receiving process in writing skill development.
References


### Appendix A

**Retrospective Interview Prompts**
*adapted from Hyland’s, 1998*

**General overview of the revisions carried out and feedback use**
1. In your writing class(es), did you receive teacher feedback?
   - How? (In which mode? Content? Form?)
   - What use did you make of the feedback?
2. On what areas did your teacher give feedback? For example, on your ideas, meaning, organization, or grammatical correctness?
   - Why do you think your teacher has made such comments/corrections?
3. Could you describe what you did first as you revised? For example, did you read the feedback first or did you refer to the feedback as you revised?
4. Did you get feedback from any other sources? If any, where?
   - What use did you make of the feedback?
5. Are there any comments or feedback that you did not use in your subsequent drafts? If any, why?
6. What do you think was the most important change you made to your drafts?

**Prompts**

**On Global Areas e.g. ideas or contents, focus, genre, and organization and changes**
1. Why do you think your teacher has made the comment(s)?
2. What changes did you make to the writing after you read these comments? Did you understand the feedback? If not, why?
3. Do you feel more satisfied with your writing after making changes according to your teacher feedback?
On Local Areas e.g. sentence and word levels and writing mechanics and changes
1. What do you think the comment(s) is asking you to do?
2. What changes did you make to your writing after you receive the comment(s)?
3. Do you think the changes have improved the writing? In what ways?

Student evaluation of feedback in revising
1. When you look at you 1st and 2nd drafts, do you feel satisfied with your revisions?
2. Do you feel that essay has improved? How?
3. In revising your drafts, what kind of feedback was the most useful your teacher gave to you? Why?
4. Is there anything about teacher feedback that you had from any classes that you find useful for your writing in the future?
3. ในการแก้ไขงานเขียน นักศึกษาคิดว่า Feedback ประเภทใดค่ะ ที่เป็นประโยชน์ต่อนักศึกษามากที่สุด เพราะเหตุใดคะ (ยกตัวอย่างเช่นการให้ Feedback ในแง่ของความหมาย โครงสร้างและความต่อเนื่องงานเขียน หรือในแง่ของ Grammar part of speech)
4. จากการแก้ไขงานเขียน นักศึกได้รับความรู้ได้จาก class เรียนที่จะนำไปใช้ในการเขียนงานชิ้นต่อๆไปบ้างหรือไม่คะ
The Importance of Vocabulary in Language Learning

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ABSTRACT
Although vocabulary is a sub-skill of a language, it is commonplace to say that understanding any language is impossible without knowing its words, whether in the spoken or the written form. This article aims to present the importance of vocabulary as an essential part in learning, understanding, and communicating in a language: the types of vocabulary, the meanings and functions of vocabulary, the number of words a language learner needs for the four language skills, and which words need to be learned.

Keywords: vocabulary, vocabulary learning, the four language skills

Introduction
It is generally acknowledged among language teachers and learners that vocabulary is considered as a very essential component of any language, as well as the core of language learning and communication. Taylor (1992: 30) states, “Vocabulary permeates everything language learners or language teachers do in an English language class, whichever skill or language point is being practised”. “Understanding any language, whether in the spoken or the written form, is impossible without knowing the meaning of the words” (Schmitt 2000). Although vocabulary has always been a crucial part of language learning, teaching and communication, many scholars (e.g. Allen 1983; Carter & McCarthy 1988; Hughes 1989; Lewis 1993; Long & Richards 1997; Maley 1986; Meara 1982; Richards 1985; Schmitt 1997; Zimmerman 1997; Read 2000; Jackson & Amvela 2000) specifically highlight the neglect of vocabulary studies. The teaching and learning of vocabulary has never aroused the same degree of interest within language teaching as have such issues as grammatical competence, contrastive analysis, reading, writing, phonology or discourse analysis, which have received considerable attention from scholars and teachers. Vocabulary has long been neglected in the language classroom because language teachers have been told a great deal about new discoveries in English grammar, but they have heard much less about ways to help students learn new words. Consequently, this article aims to review the importance of vocabulary in language learning, so as to look at what we know about English vocabulary, as well as to reflect on how this has been applied in language teaching and learning.

The importance of vocabulary
There is no question that in a good language learning classroom, both vocabulary and grammar are essential, but vocabulary should receive more attention than grammar. Allen (1983) indicates that in the best classes, neither grammar nor vocabulary is neglected, but vocabulary is more essential and should be taught before grammar. Likewise, Flower (2000: 5) states the importance of vocabulary in that, “Words are the most important things students must learn. Grammar is important, but vocabulary is much more important”. “Vocabulary is the centre of language teaching and learning since language consists of ‘grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar’ and grammar, as structure, is subordinate to lexis” (Lewis 1993: 115). “Without grammar, very little can be conveyed; without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed” (Wilkins 1972: 111). Lexical errors tend to impede comprehension more than grammatical errors (Ellis 1994). Choosing words carefully in certain situations is
more important than choosing grammatical structures because learners cannot use structures correctly if they do not have enough vocabulary knowledge (Harmer. 1991). That is to say, these scholars suggest that vocabulary takes precedence over grammar. This confirms what we know from experience that one can understand others even if they pronounce words badly, and make grammatical mistakes, but without the mediation of words, any meaningful way of communication is rather impossible. Vocabulary is the key to language learning, and thus, should be accepted to be more important than grammar.

Vocabulary is also basic and crucial in communication situations. Davies & Pearse (2000) assert that it is frustrating for language learners when they discover that they cannot communicate effectively because they do not know many of the words they need. McCarthy (1990) states, “No matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successfully the sounds of L2 are mastered, without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way”. Similarly, Lewis (1993) affirms that if language learners do not recognise the meanings of the key words used by those who address them, they will be unable to participate in the conversation, even if they know the morphology and syntax. Likewise, Krashen & Terrell (2000) maintain that if language learners wish to express some idea or ask for information, they must be able to produce lexical items to convey their meaning. Besides, Allen (1983: 5) suggests, “Wrong vocabulary frequently interferes with communication; communication breaks down when people do not use the right words”, and Smith (1998) asserts that learners not only communicate in words but also do most of their thinking in words since words are the tools they use to think, to express ideas and feelings, as well as to explore and analyse the world around them.

As can be seen from the scholars’ citations above, it is commonplace to say that vocabulary plays a dominant role in learning, understanding, and communicating in a language, and in the learner’s study life. Language learners with an extensive vocabulary can achieve a great deal of success in their classroom, their social life, and in their continuing acquisition of the target language. A large, rich vocabulary gives language learners the right words to use at the right time, and enables them to express their real thoughts, ideas, and feelings in real world situations.

Types of vocabulary

In order to understand how vocabulary items work or relate to the four language skills, it will be helpful to divide the skills into two groups. There are two ways to do this.

Firstly, listening and speaking are the skills necessary in oral communication, they can be grouped together. For some learners, this is the main focus of their interest. Reading and writing can also be grouped together since they are the skills necessary in written communication, and this may be the main focus or motivation for other learners. Alternatively, we can group listening and reading together, since they both are used to understand language produced by other people. To this extent, listening and reading are known as receptive skills, and speaking and writing are productive skills.

Based on types of vocabulary in general, there are four categories of vocabulary learning: listening vocabulary, speaking vocabulary, reading vocabulary, and writing vocabulary. Listening vocabulary refers to the words learners use to understand what they hear. Speaking vocabulary is the words they use when they speak. Reading vocabulary concerns words in print that they recognise and use to understand what they read, and writing vocabulary involves words they use in their own writing.
Meanings and functions of vocabulary

Since all vocabulary items are overlapped in meanings and functions, it is worth discussing the meanings and functions of each vocabulary type concerned with the four language skills in detail:

1) Meaning/Oral vocabulary refers to words language learners use to understand what they hear in speech, and words they use when they speak. This involves both receptive and productive vocabulary. For listening, if they lack meaning/oral vocabulary knowledge, they would have difficulties in what they are hearing in authentic situations or from authentic texts. That is, they probably miss the point of what they are listening to. For speaking, Nation (1990) suggests that in order to speak English, it is not necessary to have a large vocabulary. In developing learners' spoken English vocabulary, it is best to give learners practice in being able to communicate a lot, using a small number of words.

2) Literate/Written vocabulary refers to words language learners use to understand what they read, and words they use in writing. This, again, includes both receptive and productive vocabulary. Receptive vocabulary involves being able to recognise it when it is seen. As with meaning/oral vocabulary, one needs fewer vocabulary items for writing than one needs for reading.

3) Receptive vocabulary concerns words language learners use to understand what they hear in speech, or read in text. It is generally acknowledged that language learners need receptive vocabulary for their listening and reading. The better one's vocabulary knowledge, the easier one would find it to understand the conversation or a large amount of reading. However, when comparing vocabulary learning from listening with vocabulary learning from reading, Read (2000) points out that vocabulary learning from listening has received much less attention than learning vocabulary items through reading.

As for vocabulary and reading, Nation and Coady (1988) point out that vocabulary is likely to be a predominant causal factor for reading comprehension. Similarly, Laufer (1997) emphasises that no text comprehension is possible, either in one's native language or in a foreign language, without understanding the text's vocabulary. Besides, Rubin (1993: 1) stresses, "A good vocabulary and good reading go hand in hand. Unless language learners know the meaning of words, they will have difficulties in understanding what is read. And the more one reads, the more words one will add to one's vocabulary". That is to say, a rich vocabulary is essential to successful listening and reading comprehension. A large vocabulary is more specifically predictive and reflective of high levels of reading achievement.

4) Productive vocabulary involves words language learners use to express their thoughts and ideas in speaking and writing. Since both speaking and writing are productive skills, Nandy (1994:i) highlights the relationship between vocabulary and expression of speech and writing in that "An extensive vocabulary, besides empowering us to give expression to a wide range of thoughts, also enables us to vary our forms of expression, and so, make our speech or our writing more pleasing to hear or more interesting to read. No one can ever become an effective speaker or a ready writer if he does not have at his command a wide vocabulary to which he is continually adding." In terms of vocabulary and the written text, Schmitt (2000) indicates that vocabulary knowledge is indispensable since the text involves the use of difficult words to convey more complicated ideas than the spoken one.

All in all, vocabulary items can be generally categorised into four main groups as 'receptive (or passive)', 'productive (or active)', 'meaning/oral' and 'literal/written' vocabulary based on their meanings and functions. It is apparent that vocabulary is vital for the improvement of the four language skills. To improve language skills, language learners need to involve receptive and productive, meaning/oral, and literal/written vocabulary.
The number of words a language learner needs for the four language skills

To be successful in developing their language skills, language learners need to know sufficient vocabulary. Therefore, vocabulary size is an aspect of vocabulary that is worth mentioning and discussing since it is important for all four language skills.

It is important to know the number of vocabulary items students need to draw on for listening, speaking, reading, and writing, so that language teachers may look into ways to help their students enlarge their vocabulary. However, the number of words a foreign language learner must know in order to understand authentic situations or authentic texts is still questioned. The factors of concern are language skill, level of the language learner’s education, vocabulary learning goals, and communication situations a language learner deals with. Schmitt (2000) indicates that the number of words language learners need also depends largely upon the realistic goal: around 2,000 word families should be the threshold for daily basic conversations, but this will not cover every conversational topic. Allen (1983) recommends that about 3,000 words would be necessary ‘productive’ items to be used in writing and speech. Nation & Waring (1997) recommend that 3,000-5,000 word families are needed to provide a basis for comprehension, or to begin reading authentic texts, and about 15,000 to 20,000 to equal an educated native speaker of English.

In summary, in dealing with the four language skills, it is crucial for a language learner to have enough vocabulary: 2,000 word families for basic conversation; 2,000-3,000 for productive speaking and writing; 3,000-5,000 for reading authentic texts; 10,000 for challenging university textbooks; and 15,000 to 20,000 to equal an educated native speaker of English. Expanding the vocabulary is one of the main goals of vocabulary learning since a language learner with rich, large vocabulary will achieve success both inside and outside the language classroom as well as in their social life. Therefore a language learner should be taught skills, known as language learning strategies, to expand their vocabulary.

Which words need to be learned?

It is essential to know which words students need to learn in dealing with a particular context so that language teachers may take this into consideration when planning their lessons. As there are in every language a large number of words a foreign language learner must know in order to understand authentic situations or texts, the minimum number is questionable and difficult to ascertain. This might be a factor of the language skill required, the level of the language learner’s education, or the communication situations the language learner deals with.

Nation (1990) affirms that the words language learners need to learn also depend largely upon the vocabulary learning goal. Since the high-frequency words occur frequently in all kinds of texts, then high-frequency words (the most frequent 2,000 words) must be taught. This is because they are essential for any real language use (Nation, 2001). Schmitt (2000) proposes that a vocabulary of about 2,000 words would be a realistic goal. If a language learner is dealing with most kinds of academic texts, then academic vocabulary must be focused on. Similarly, if a language learner is dealing with a specialised text, technical vocabulary must be taught. Since the low-frequency words do not occur very frequently, strategies for dealing with these words must be taught and trained to learners.

To sum up, learning high-frequency words will help a language learner deal with all kinds of text. Learning academic vocabulary is a high priority goal for learners who wish to do academic study in English. Likewise, technical vocabulary will help language learners identify words that will be useful for a particular discipline, or writing technical reports. Strategies that
are most suitable for dealing with low-frequency words must be taught to language learners.

**Conclusion and implications**

This article concentrates on the importance of vocabulary in language learning, the types of vocabulary, meaning and function of vocabulary, the number of words a language learner needs for the four language skills, and which words need to be learned, respectively. It is important and useful for language teachers, language learners and researchers in the field of vocabulary learning because it will shed light and reflect on the conceptions and misconceptions of vocabulary learning. Language teachers may be able to make use of this article to improve their vocabulary teaching and to help language learners learn, acquire and enlarge their vocabulary to serve their particular vocabulary learning purposes. Language teachers can also make use of this article as a guideline to design vocabulary learning activities in a language classroom, as well as help change the misconceptions about vocabulary learning of their students, if any exist at all. Besides, this article can be helpful for researchers as evidence of, or reference to, related literature and supporting or underlying the research results of their studies in the field of vocabulary learning.

In conclusion, the author realises that English vocabulary is an essential factor in understanding English texts and communicating in both oral English and written English channels, including acquiring more knowledge through learning vocabulary. Therefore, teaching vocabulary focuses on four dimensions: meaning, pronunciation, spelling and usage. In this article, the author will present her strategies for learning English vocabulary focusing on meanings of English words.

The author has experience in teaching reading courses for undergraduate students majoring in English at Rajabhat Maha Sarakham University for over ten years. During that time, she has found that morphemic analysis and context clues to meanings are essential strategies for learning English vocabulary. Results can be gained by using their background knowledge and analysing the components of English words and phonemic analysis to understand unknown or unfamiliar words. The phonemic analysis is necessary for learners to increase their English vocabulary. Common English words are mainly composed of a base with the principle meaning of a word, and new English words can be constructed by adding a pre-fix and/or suffix to the base. It is common to change meanings of English words by adding a prefix to the base, such as negative, number, degree, position, distance and other miscellaneous prefixes. Whereas, adding a suffix to the base usually changes parts of speech and some words also change meanings, such as singular to plural (book - books). According to her experience in teaching reading courses, she has found that the top ten students of the reading strategies course used two main reading strategies for reading comprehension: phonemic analysis and context clues to meanings. To summarise, the author recommends that a good model for teaching English vocabulary should emphasise four dimensions, and essential strategies for teaching English vocabulary.

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Bio data
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References


Use of Video and Project Approach in Teaching an English for Cross-Cultural Communication Course for 2nd-year English-Major Students at Nakhon Phanom University

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ABSTRACT
The aims of the research were 1) to examine learning activities in an English for Cross-Cultural Communication course for second-year English-major students, according to the classroom learning standard criteria of 70/70, by using videos and the project approach; 2) to examine the index of effectiveness of using videos and the project approach learning management in the English for Cross-Cultural Communication course, and 3) to study satisfaction of the second-year English-major students toward English learning with the use of videos and the project approach. The statistics used in the data analysis were mean, percent, standard deviation, and t-test. The results revealed that the students English proficiencies in cross cultural communication of the prior and the post learning were 84.01/73.54. The pre-test score is 12.46 percent and the post-test is 22.46 percent. The effective index of students prior and post learning is 0.55. The students’ post-learning ability level in the English for Cross-Cultural Communication course is higher than the pre-learning level at .05 of statistical significance. In terms of students’ satisfaction toward the use of video multimedia and project approach, the aspect which receives the highest mean score is the benefits of using video multimedia and students’ projects, the second most beneficial aspect is the integration of use of video contents and the students’ projects, and the length of video, respectively.

Keywords: video, project approach

Background and rationale
The development of teaching materials plays an important part in helping students understand and apply their studies well in the context of their daily lives. Many technologies are currently being used in education, including video and audio multimedia. Teaching materials play an important role in communication between educators and learners, as educators have been developing new strategies for effective teaching, they have found multimedia to be a necessary aspect to be integrated among the traditional basic skills. Videos effect the emotions and thoughtfulness of students, therefore the question arises whether all courses taught in colleges should use video clips as an instructional tool so their students can gain powerful cognitive experiences. The learning outcomes are to grab students’ attention; focus on students’ concentration; improve attitude toward content and learning; provide a freedom opportunity, and inspire and motivate students, Berk (2009: p.2). In addition to the use of video multimedia in teaching, other diverse methods are being introduced. Students are being given the opportunity to create their own body of knowledge by the teaching approach of student projects.

The project approach is one of the student-centered learning ideas that have been in use in the classroom for many years. Students have the opportunity to create and share ideas and knowledge to aim for the objectives of their assigned learning. Therefore, the project approach is an instructional activity conducted in a friendly, student-centred environment, where learners feel free to learn, and are given freedom to create their own activities, as they are the important persons in the learning process (Makkhasaman, 2001). Learners are encouraged to express their own ideas and operations by making various activities, creating
ideas relevant to the content assigned by the teachers. The teacher merely plays the role of supporter or facilitator when required. Instead of focusing on a narrow curricular goal, this method rather focuses on the broader enhancement and achievement of the learners. In other words, the project approach is a teaching strategy by which teachers guide students to in-depth learning in specific contexts. This approach is commonly employed at all educational levels, from pre-school onward. According to Pholyothin (1999), the project approach is not a new teaching method in Thailand, nor in other countries. In this approach, children are influenced to perceive and acquire profound lessons. It also helps children integrate knowledge based on the concept of ‘student-centered learning’, developing students’ ability to take responsibility for their learning by focusing on their skills and practices in the spirit of life-long learning.

For the reasons mentioned above, the researcher will focus on the teaching method of using video multimedia to teach English terms, definitions, and the contexts within the Cross-Cultural Communication course. Moreover, the researcher will focus on the evaluation of the students’ English skills and understanding at the completion of the Cross-Cultural Communication course, by appraising the students’ videos assigned by the teacher using the project approach. The researcher anticipates that the integration of video multimedia with the project approach will be beneficial for second-year students majoring in English at the English Department, Liberal Arts and Science Faculty, Nakhon Phanom University. In addition, it will help them gain further knowledge and expand their creativity upon completing the course.

**Objectives**

1. To examine the efficiency value of learning management in English for Cross-Cultural Communication for third-year English-major students based on the standard criteria of 70/70, by using videos and the project approach.
2. To examine the index of effectiveness on learning management, by using videos and the project approach.
3. To study satisfaction of the second-year English-major students toward English learning, by using videos and the project approach.

**Research questions**

1. How efficient were the learning activities in English for Cross-Cultural Communication for second year English-major students, based on the standard criteria of 70/70, by using videos and the project approach?
2. How effective was the learning management, by using videos and the project approach?
3. What was the satisfaction level of the second-year English-major students towards English learning, by using videos and the project approach?

**Hypothesis**

1. The second-year English-major students increasingly developed their English learning skills and knowledge in English for Cross-Cultural Communication, by using videos and the project approach.
2. The post-test scores of second-year English-major students are higher than the pre-test scores, by using videos and the project approach.

**Terms used**

Visionary Forces (2015) defines ‘video clip’ as follows:
Video clip is a non-linear editing environment. A clip indicates data of either video or audio that has been clipped out (copied) from a larger environment such as a reel or a video tape. In essence, a video clip is a snippet of video. Video clips usually are folders/directories that contain a great number of individual image files (frames) which combined, form the video sequence. The image files can be stored in a wide variety of picture file formats (e.g. BMP or TIFF). However, video clips can also be stored in a single file in a container file format such as QuickTime or Windows Media.

Katz & Chard (2000) also define the nature of the project approach as follows: Project approach refers to an in-depth study of a particular topic, usually undertaken by a whole class working on subtopics in small groups, sometimes by small groups of children within a class, and occasionally by an individual child. The key feature of a project is an investigation- a piece of research that involves children in seeking answers to questions they have formulated by themselves, or in co-operation with their teachers, and that arise as the investigation proceeds.

**Overview of educational video**

Audio-visual materials have been valuable educational tools for many decades. Many educators use various forms of audio-visual materials such as video, television, and film, both in the classroom and other environments. Video is an effective teaching method to attract learners' attention because of its sound features and vivid images. Furthermore, it captures learners’ attention to interpret themes and content while they are watching, so as to gain the meaning and understand the content easily, as Kitajima & Layman-Hager (1998: p. 40) pointed out:

- Video clips can serve various purposes: they can help students infer main ideas of communicative events, figure out the meaning of unknown words, organize information from linguistic input, and build schemata for situational contexts.

Many educators have used video for the instruction of various fields of research studies. In terms of socio-cultural learning, the use of technology-based instruction can easily enhance the learner's experience. Choi & Johnson (2005) used video to instruct on learning and motivation in online courses. They examined whether video-based instruction could influence the students’ learning by proposing the four following aspects: attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction, by comparing learners’ perceptions of both video-based instruction and traditional text-based instruction in an online context-based lesson. The findings revealed that learning by using video-based instruction was more accessible than traditional text-based instruction for the learners, which could imply that context-based video in online courses has the potential to support the learners’ retention and motivation.

Current research and educator surveys CIP (2004) cited in Cruse (2006), summarized that educational television and video are beneficial to learning by reinforcing reading and lecture material, helping in a common base developing students’ knowledge, increasing comprehension and discussion, offering better accommodation of various learning styles, increasing students’ persuasion and encouragement, and promoting effectiveness of teachers.

Apart from teaching, video also improves the functioning of the brain. According to Berk (2009), video focuses the students’ brain to facilitate their learning in terms of these core intelligences: verbal and linguistic, visual and spatial, musical and rhythmic, emotional, triune brain, brain wave frequencies and video brain conclusion. Video also promotes learning in many aspects. The research conducted by educator survey CPB (2004) cited in Curse (2006)
indicated that educational video and television use in classrooms has increased gradually over the past 20 to 30 years. The survey was conducted to determine forms of use and teachers’ attitudes, including their prior expectations of the outcomes. The survey indicated wide use of these technologies and also a high value placed on the more efficient and imaginative teaching method.

**How does research support the use of video in the language classroom?**

Video has been used in the classroom in a number of fields, including language, psychology, sociology and science. Educators either create their own videos, or search out interesting videos from diverse sources, in an attempt to grab students’ attention, particularly in the language classroom in order to increase student interest.

Berk (2009) examined the potential value of using video clips in the college classroom. The video clips chosen in teaching were based on the three following conditions: 1) criteria for selection, 2) type of videos, and 3) sources for selecting videos. In terms of criteria for selection, he took into account the characteristics of the students. In terms of type of videos, he selected them depending on the instructional purpose or desired outcome, plus students’ interests, such as action, comedy, documentary, etc. In terms of sources for selecting video, he chose materials from film, video, and TV production.

The results showed that video clips are a major resource for teaching and for drawing upon students’ multiple intelligences and learning styles to enhance the achievement of every student. Video and multimedia learning offers an experimental foundation for their use in teaching, particularly to aid in explaining an introductory course to novice learners, and to increase students’ memory, comprehension, understanding and deeper learning. Video also draws out the imagination and creativity, which make a huge difference in the classroom. Moreover, he also pointed out that video clips provide an added dimension for teachers to teach the videos’ contents sustainably.

Kitajima & Lyman-Hager (1998) conducted research on Theory-Driven Use of Digital Video in Foreign Language Instruction at San Diego State University. They described several theories based on the context-dependent authentic video in foreign language instruction, and found advantages to using digital video clips organized by communicative functions and linguistic features in the pilot project. They also examined the effect of visual cues on students’ cultural awareness. The findings revealed that in terms of building communicative strategies, video clips provide good opportunities for students training to use effective communication strategies, (CSs) where the learners attempt to solve communication problems. Theoretical and applied linguistics give strong support for video, as it offers sources of culture, and social and linguistic data, in universal contexts. These allow students to modify their cognitive structures by adapting their background knowledge to new data. For building student’s comprehension of words, students are able to build both on their imaginations and on a script of the video’s contents.

Video is a new technology which can expose new diverse experiences for learning to be explored. Curse (2006) stated ‘video’ is a combining (general) term to refer to the whole range of multimedia audio-visual contents applied in schools. The concept frameworks covered were the aspects of: multiple intelligences, multimodal learning style, dual channel learning, motivational and affective learning, early literacy development, visual literacy, and media literacy. The findings revealed that collecting clips and integrating them into multimedia lesson plans encourages the learning experience more creatively and more simply than in previous teaching methods.
Overview of project approach

Meaning and importance

Project approach is one of the teaching methods used to give learners the freedom to create their learning activities independently. Learners are able to share ideas with their peers in order to build their knowledge together. They are able to learn in diverse environments as well as the classroom. Based on this learning concept, instructors play the role of assistants, giving advice as well as helping students facilitate work that suits their various interests.

According to Banlangphattama (2013), the meaning of the project approach to learning management is that the students do the research. The aim is to give them the opportunity to create a new body of knowledge by themselves, supported by the teachers who act as their consultants. The project approach is classified into four types: the survey project, the experimental project, the inventing project and the hypothesis project. The process of the project approach has been given the acronym, ‘PDCA’ (Plan/Do/Check/Action). It can be applied to teaching in a variety of subjects, such as Thai language, mathematics, sciences, English, arts, music, physical education, etc.

The concept of project approach has a wide definition. Educators also point out that it is suitable for teaching young children, especially at the preschool level, because it motivates the children to feel excited and delighted to study outside of the classroom. Students also gain new experiences and get in touch with the outside environment (Makkhasaman, 2001). In addition, other educational levels such as primary, secondary and undergraduate levels put emphasis on this method as well. Pholyothin (1999) defines the project approach as a teaching method offered to help learners gain in-depth topical knowledge which enables them to facilitate in classroom management, either individually, as part of a group, or with the whole class. The project approach provides opportunities for the learners to discover and directly study topics relating to persons, stories, places and events among their communities, consistent with the way they individually understand these topics. The learners also obtain the chance to evaluate themselves— to look into reasons for accomplishment or failure of their implemented activity, and toward further development. If instructors use this teaching method appropriately, learners are motivated to enthusiastic participation. Importantly, the instructors play the role of facilitators; the learners are independent in designing the patterns of the activity creation and operation during the period of studying the various topics.

Project approach’s learning management is divided into three following phases:
1). Review the learners’ knowledge and interests
2). Offer opportunities to learners to gain new experiences
3). Reflect on feedback after students’ create the project, and exchange the projects

The main important activities designated in the project approach are:
1) Group discussion
2) Field work
3) Preparation/Action
4) Investigation
5) Display of the work prepared by the learners
At the end of the activity, learners will be evaluated through observation of their projects, focusing on the criteria of their individual achievement, and on the requirements to help them. The table of implementation of the project approach activity is shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period of project approach process</th>
<th>1st Phase</th>
<th>2nd Phase</th>
<th>3rd Phase</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group discussion</td>
<td>- Share past experiences and knowledge concerning the topics</td>
<td>- Preparation the works, fieldwork and interview - Learn from the primary sources</td>
<td>- Prepare for exchange about the project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Field work</td>
<td>- Talk with persons concerned about the past experience</td>
<td>- Go out of the class to survey in the field work - Interview the experts</td>
<td>- Review and evaluate the project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparation/Action</td>
<td>- Draw pictures, build activities, do role-plays to exchange experience and knowledge</td>
<td>- Draw the outlines or record from the field work - Draw the mind map to present what we have learned.</td>
<td>- Summarize the activities learned for exchanging with others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Investigation</td>
<td>- Ask questions based on the old knowledge</td>
<td>- Prepare questions before starting study - Study from the field work - Ask further questions</td>
<td>- Ask new questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display of learners’ work</td>
<td>- Exchange the activities presented from the old experience individually</td>
<td>- Exchange new knowledge from doing the presented activities. - Record the progress</td>
<td>- Summarize what students have studied throughout the project</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data collection

The course of English for Cross Cultural Communication was taught in the second semester of academic year 2012 for the 2nd year English-major students, Nakhon Phanom University. Therefore, the particular English terms and definitions relevant to cross cultural communication were randomly classified from each chapter of the 4 chapters taught throughout the semester. The total English definitions and the contents relevant to cross-cultural contexts conducted in the research comprise 12 different terms. They are as follows:
1. Ethnocentrism
2. Discrimination
3. Racism/race
4. Stereotype
5. Kinesics
6. Proxemics
7. Face culture
8. Talking up
9. Talking down
10. Social indirection
11. Cultural shock
12. Nationalism

The videos used to teach in the classroom were categorized by the concepts of the terms mentioned above. The length of the videos varied between is between 1.25 minutes to 3 hours depending on the particular contexts. The videos were selected from You Tube and movies. They included 13 You Tubes and 2 English movies. The details are shown in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Terms</th>
<th>Title of videos/movies</th>
<th>Length of video</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Talking  up/Talking down</td>
<td>Yingluck speaks Northern dialect in Songkran Festival, Chaing Mai [video link]</td>
<td>1.25 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Gesture</td>
<td>American Hand Gestures in Different Cultures - 7 Ways to Get Yourself [video link]</td>
<td>2.04 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Stereotypes</td>
<td>Korean Stereotypes [video link]</td>
<td>2.20 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Proxemics</td>
<td>Proxemics Experiment [video link]</td>
<td>4.00 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Face culture</td>
<td>World Faces [video link]</td>
<td>4.19 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Kinesics</td>
<td>Nonverbal Communication - Kinesics [video link]</td>
<td>4.33 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ethnocentrism 1</td>
<td>1. “Ban Sai Thong drama”/Ying Lek, broadcasted from You TUBE [video link]</td>
<td>5.00 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ethnocentrism 2</td>
<td>2. “Wanida” drama, broadcasted from You TUBE [video link]</td>
<td>5.30 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Face culture</td>
<td>Visages du Monde - Faces of the World - Vizajoj de l’Mondo [video link]</td>
<td>5.30 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Race/Racism</td>
<td>What Would You Do black doll [video link]</td>
<td>7.46 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Discrimination</td>
<td>European Racism in football [video link]</td>
<td>10:10 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Cultural shock</td>
<td>The movie, “Bitter/Sweet”</td>
<td>1.15 hours</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Nationalism</td>
<td>The movie, “The Lady”</td>
<td>3 hours</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Population**

The population was the second year English-major students, at Nakhon Phanom University. There are 160 students from 3 classes in the second semester of academic year 2012.

The samples were 45 students selected by purposive sampling due to the students’ English learning measurement being lower than the rest of the two classes. Moreover, students lack of enthusiasm in learning and preparation for the lessons.

The factors of conducting research include:
1. Learning management using video multimedia
2. Learning achievement of students and students’ satisfaction in using video and project approach for the English for Cross Cultural Communication course

**Instruments**

Instruments include: Lesson plans, students’ behavior evaluation form, five-rating scale questionnaire, students satisfaction questionnaire, pre-test/post-test, and work sheets.

**Video**

1. Inform the objectives of the lesson plans.
2. Reflect on the learning management activities.
3. Evaluate the students’ learning results at the end of activities with learning achievement test and students’ satisfaction of the questionnaire.

**Project approach**

The project approach took the form of different activities: worksheets, role-plays, booth exhibitions, cultural performances, and group presentations relevant to the contexts of Cross Cultural Communication. The theory of project approach proposed by Pholyothin (1999) was used for the analysis.

**Data analysis**

Qualitative and quantitative approaches were employed in this study as described below:

1. Qualitative: using students’ behavior check form, the learners’ interviewing form, work sheets and assignments were analyzed in order to find weak points and problems, then come up with countermeasures for further study.

2. Quantitative: taking the data of each exercise, work sheet and learning achievement test so as to figure out the mean, and the percentage for comparing based on the learning standard criterion of 70/70. The data of students’ satisfaction questionnaires was calculated by statistics: mean standard deviation, percentage, and t-test of one sample pair test.

**Data analysis and discussion**

The purpose of this research was to study how the use of video and the project approach in the classroom enables students to develop their comprehension and facilitate their study of English. The subjects of the research were 45 of the 2nd-year English-major students in class 2/3 of the English Department, Faculty of Liberal Arts and Sciences. The research using video multimedia and the project approach was conducted over eight weeks, with a total of 24 one-hour periods. The method of data analysis was described as follows:

**Part 1: Score comparison of students’ proficiency in English comprehension before and after the period of study**

The researcher tested students’ proficiency in English comprehension before and after the period of study, and brought the scores to be analyzed by t-test statistics of one sample pair. The results were as follows:
Table 1: The comparison between the mean scores of before and after study are shown as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores of English comprehension test</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Before study</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>12.4611</td>
<td>3.03388</td>
<td>22.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>After study</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>22.0611</td>
<td>2.71107</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Statistical significance level of .05.

Table 1 shows that the mean scores of English for Cross-Cultural Communication before and after study were different, at the statistical significance level of .05. After analyzing the means, it was found that the means were different. The scores of the post-test were higher than the pre-test, at a statistical significance level of .05. It is said that the learning activities in terms of using video multimedia and the project approach enhanced the students’ English comprehension, as shown from the higher student scores after study, with a mean differential of 9.60.

Part 2: The results of efficiency of learning management in teaching English, using videos and the project approach

Table 2: The efficiency of learning management using video multimedia and the project approach in teaching English is shown as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Detail</th>
<th>No. of students</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Total score</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency of process(E1)</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>1890.15</td>
<td>42.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency of results (E2)</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>992.75</td>
<td>22.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Efficiency of learning management (E1/E2) = 84.01/73.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 2, efficiency of learning management using video multimedia and the project approach in teaching English for Cross-Cultural Communication (E1/E2) equals 84.01/73.54, which is higher than the criteria indicated.

Part 3: The results of the effectiveness index in using videos and the project approach for English learning activities

Table 3: The effectiveness index (E.I.) of learning activities using video multimedia and the project approach in teaching English for Cross-Cultural Communication is shown as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>No. of student</th>
<th>Full score</th>
<th>Total score</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>E.I.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>560.75</td>
<td>12.46</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>992.75</td>
<td>22.07</td>
<td>2.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows that the effectiveness index (E.I.) of lesson plans using video multimedia and the project approach is 0.55, representing that students’ progress was higher, equaling 55 percent.

Part 4: The results of survey of Satisfaction of Students on learning activities using video multimedia and the project approach

The researcher collected the data using a questionnaire based on a five-scale rating of satisfaction levels of students on learning management. Each question was rated as follows:
Level 5 = very strongly agree
Level 4 = strongly agree
Level 3 = neutral
Level 2 = disagree
Level 1 = strongly disagree

The five-ordering scores are described below:

- 4.21 - 5.00 means highest (very strongly agree)
- 3.41 - 4.20 means high (strongly agree)
- 2.61 - 3.40 means average (neutral)
- 1.81 - 2.60 means low (disagree)
- 1.00 - 1.80 means lowest (strongly disagree)

**Table 4**: The results of the survey of Satisfaction of Students on learning activities using video multimedia and the project approach were shown as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Item Evaluated</th>
<th>Satisfaction Level</th>
<th></th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Please rate your knowledge of meanings of vocabulary and terms used in English for Cross-Cultural Communication prior to study.</td>
<td>2.82 0.73</td>
<td></td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>After study, have you gained new knowledge about the meaning of vocabulary and terms of English for Cross-Cultural Communication?</td>
<td>4.13 0.58</td>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The length of videos was appropriate.</td>
<td>3.56 0.57</td>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The contents of the videos were relevant to the subject.</td>
<td>4.40 0.53</td>
<td></td>
<td>Very strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Combining the use of video multimedia and student projects was beneficial.</td>
<td>4.44 0.49</td>
<td></td>
<td>Very strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>The use of video and student projects was effectively integrated into the course of English for Cross-Cultural Communication.</td>
<td>4.36 0.67</td>
<td></td>
<td>Very strongly agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total** | **3.95** | **2.29** | **Strongly agree**

Table 4 shows that student satisfaction toward learning activities using video multimedia and the project approach at an overall level of 3.95. The four top individual aspect ratings were: Benefits of video and project approach (= 4.44, or “very strongly agree”), the content of video (= 4.36, or “very strongly agree”), effective integration between using video and the project approach (= 4.4, or “very strongly agree”) and the length of video (=3.56, or “strongly agree”).

**Discussion**

The results of the research on the Use of Video and Student Projects in Teaching English, for the Cross-Cultural Communication Course for 2nd year English major Students, Nakhon Phanom University are as follows:

1. The 2nd year English-major students gained new knowledge of vocabulary and terms after learning by video multimedia. They gained English comprehension through thinking skills and applications in imaginary situations as seen in the project of dramatic role-plays. Thai soap-opera dramas from YouTube were employed to study the concept of “Ethnocentrism”. Students could observe the characters of the main actors, then, after
watching the video, they imagined and created portrayals of Ethnocentrism for those characters in the imaginary situation assigned. This is consistent with Berk (2009), who stated that collecting clips and integrating them into multimedia lesson plans encourages creativity in the learning experience.

2. It was found that students gained higher test scores after studying the concept of "culture shock" via watching the film "Bitter/Sweet," which portrayed a story about the cross-cultural communication between an American actor and a Thai actress. It is difficult for students who do not have any experience in travelling abroad to easily perceive the diverse cultures in other countries, or to understand the concept of "culture shock." However, through use of a film to teach the concept, the students are able to perceive and understand the contents of the film quickly. Leon and Angst (2005), cited in Adam (2009: p.94), indicated that using the film in the classroom created shared content and increased class discussion.

3. The students were able to improve their English perception on terms and contexts during the course through watching various video multimedia, particularly the film, "The Lady". They gained knowledge and information from the movie relevant to the cross-cultural contents studied. This reinforces them to bring the knowledge portrayed through the film to the project of "International Cultural Exhibition (ASEAN+6)". This is consistent with Montree Kotrakhana (2003: online) cited in Srisomwong (2006), who stated that conducting research is a way for the learners to search for knowledge. As the learners do research, the learners can learn survival skills and gain self-reliance. They showed that they obtained and perceived examples of people's ways of life through the movie, such as politics, national costumes, ethnicity, language, culture, etc., and applied new knowledge from the movie both in doing the post-test and in presenting the booth exhibition. This is consistent with Marshall (2003), cited in Adam (2009), who believed that learning through any video clip or film is a teaching method for educators to open students' minds, enabling them to recall powerful memories which enhance their learning.

4. The effectiveness index of the use of video multimedia and student projects in the English for Cross-Cultural Communication course is 0.55, meaning that the students showed a gain in progress equaling 55 percent. The pre-test mean score was 12.46, and the post-test mean score was 22.07, out of a full score of 30. The effective index of 0.55 shows that the students gained more knowledge through watching the videos and conducting the projects than they had before the study began. Therefore, as shown in their test performance, the students had gained a body of knowledge of the terms involved in English for Cross-Cultural Communication. This is consistent with Berk (2009) who concluded that to include the various intelligences so that every student can be successful, video clips are the main teaching method.

5. The students' satisfaction towards using video multimedia and the project approach was at the "strongly agree" ( = 3.95) level, overall. When comparing individual aspects, it was found that the four getting the highest rankings were the length of the videos, the contents of videos, the method of combining the use of videos and student projects, and the integration between the use of video and student projects. The use of video multimedia and project approach in teaching English was rated at the "strongly agree" level overall. This is due to the fact that both themes and contents of the videos offered are various, encouraging the students' alternative perspectives towards the new body of knowledge. In particular, the contexts of world-wide cross-cultural communication are quite beyond the students' backgrounds. Students lack opportunities to deal with people from diverse cultural contexts; they do not know how their cultures differ from other contexts, and what make them differ from other communities. Therefore, the use of videos is more interesting for them to acquire knowledge of cross-cultural communication indirectly. Moreover, it helps them to quickly understand the contents. With the contexts of the wide variety of the video features: sound, colors and graphics, as well as the stories portrayed, these enrich students’ interests in learning. Additionally, student projects are a very effective learning method for the students to research, explore, and create, as well as to develop their English learning perception.
Finally, students also create their own work using the body of knowledge from the videos, then integrate it into the project presentation. Consequently, choosing an effective teaching method is important to motivate learners’ attention, as pointed out by the Academic Department (2001): educators are required to consider the aim of the curriculum to be consistent with the current status by emphasizing the importance of learners using English for socio-cultural functions in developing creative thinking, leading to good English attitudes, advantages and values, when seeking knowledge for future works.

**Conclusion**

The project approach is an effective method of teaching, not only in the classroom, but also in the outside environment. Students feel that they are independent to create what they need to perform, as well as to create based on the teaching concept of the 'Student-Learning Center', that is the proper path to sustainable learning in the new era of education. These include the following aspects: The lesson plans using video multimedia and the project approach in teaching English for Cross-Cultural Communication has efficiency (E1/E2) that equals 84.01/73.54, which is higher than the standard learning criteria indicated. In addition, the effectiveness index of lesson plans using video multimedia and the project approach in teaching English for Cross-Cultural Communication equals 0.55, which means that students have a learning progress of 55 percent. Lastly, students have a high overall satisfaction level toward the use of video and the project approach in teaching English for Cross-Cultural Communication. Video enhances students’ ability to understand concepts of cross-cultural communication.

**Recommendations**

1. For project approach teaching, there should be sufficient time for students to operate the project completely without interruption.
2. To divide the groups of students, there should be a mixture between the clever, average, and poor students. The teacher should guide in the division of the groups of students.
3. There was a time barrier in implementing the culture exhibition, as the time allotted for the presentation of each country was limited to only half a day. Because of this, the students were unable to present the complete contents of the cultures of the countries they were assigned. Therefore, allotting an entire day for exhibitions would be more interesting, and allow more complete presentations.
4. Finally, in the future, the exhibition project should be announced to organizations outside the university, to enable students to showcase their learning of the cross-cultural concepts, and their ability at producing International Cultural Exhibitions as well.

**Bio Data**

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