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Note from Editor of RJES Volume 1 Number 2

Dear RJES readers,

This second issue of RJES draws on six research articles from academics in Thailand and from Indonesia. Almost all of them focus on ELT or English Language Teaching. The 3 main skills: speaking, reading and writing were discussed. These research projects were conducted in a classroom context with participants ranging from the Primary to Tertiary levels. Besides, a study of arts teaching techniques and primary students’ achievement was included in this volume. A research paper by the Thai author on ‘information and communication technology competence development’ reveals a current focus in teaching practices. Last but not least is our ‘Professional Reflections.’ This section is like a coffee corner in an academic environment. This issue provides a discussion on ‘creative thinking and ways to enhance it’.

The contents of Volume 1 Number 2 vary; they are good sources for both academics and interested readers.

We thank all of our authors from different universities in Thailand and Indonesia for your papers for RJES. As known, ASEAN is expected to bring us closer. Your shared ideas and expertise definitely contribute not only to academics, but also to a greater body of knowledge where people from all walks of life can reap the benefits.

Best wishes,
Ubon Sanpatchayapong, D.Ed.
Editor of RJES Volume 1 Number 2
December 12, 2014

Ruja Pholsward, Ph.D., Chief Editor 1
Jamie Wallin, Ph.D., Chief Editor 2
The Effects of Art Teaching Techniques on Art Learning Achievement of Primary School Students in Nakhon Si Thammarat Province

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Abstract
This research project is a qualitative method of inquiry. It was conducted to determine the impact of art teaching techniques on art learning achievement. The project was carried out among selected primary school students in Nakhon Si Thammarat Province. The target schools were chosen based on students’ best national test score (O-NET) in art subjects, namely drawing and painting, dancing, and music. Participants were administrators, teachers, guest speakers, and primary school students. Data were collected from classroom observations, interviews, and focus group discussions.

The target schools used five different teaching techniques to enhance student learning and development: (1) do-it-yourself scheme, (2) teaching media and technology, (3) demonstrations, (4) field visits, and (5) participation in art competitions. These techniques supported primary school students in Nakhon Si Thammarat to earn their highest scores on the national tests in art in 2011. In addition to these data on art achievement, the researchers identified four key factors associated with learning outcomes: (1) administrators’ support for art teaching and learning, (2) responsible and caring teachers, (3) students’ motivation, and (4) community support.

Keywords: art teaching techniques, primary school students, art learning achievement

1. Introduction
According to the 1999 National Education Act, education is defined as a learning process by which individuals and the society are developed through knowledge transfer, training, culture inheritance, creativity, and the sustainability of academic progress. Additionally, it refers to the construction of knowledge resulting from the management of environment, learning society and the factors supporting lifelong learning in order to enable learners to become intellectual, happy, and refined persons as well as to instill a sense of ‘Thainess’ into them. In particular, educational management at both primary and secondary levels (Prathoms 1-6) needs to respond to learners’ interests with emphasis on real learning situations, learning by doing with fun activities, personality and aesthetic development as well as specific skills and creativity to share with others (NEA, 1999).

The art learning group is a learning section designed to promote learners’ creativity and artistic imagination. The activities done in this group are outlined to enhance learners’ body, mind, intellect, emotion, and sociability as well as to develop their learning atmosphere and lifestyles. (Department of Academic Affairs, 2008)

The ideas above were not new, as in previous decades Lowenfield and Brittain (1987) also supported them. They noted that art learning could promote children’s development in various areas such as their body and mind, emotions, social skills, intellect, as well as perceptual, creative and aesthetic growths.
The researchers, as school directors in the province or in Nakhon Si Thammarat, had experienced a number of problems at the school regarding art teaching and learning. For example, (1) some art teachers did not major in this field, so they had no art teaching experiences; (2) some teachers taught only theories. As a result, they did not focus on practices; thus students lacked adequate hands-on experiences; (3) there were neither sufficient art teaching materials nor equipment in the areas where the schools are located; (4) the art learning sources were rare; and (5) students studied mostly in the classroom, so they did not have the opportunities to see others’ work outside the school. In addition, during the past three years, the O-NET (Ordinary National Education Test) at the researchers’ school revealed unsatisfactory average scores on this particular learning group. The score in 2009 was 42.49 while in 2010 and 2011 remained the same or it lower at 41.10 (Office of Primary Education Area 2, 2010-2011). This evidence points to the scores in 2010 and 2011 lower that 50%, and it was, unfortunately, lower than that of 2009. This evidence also reveals that that there were persistent problems in art teaching and learning at the researchers’ school, and they were in an urgent need for proper and practical actions or solutions from all parties concerned.

The problems mentioned above made the researchers look for some practical ways to help solve them. Tracing back which primary schools in Nakhon Si Thammarat earned the highest scores on art was one way. That was why the best three schools that gained the highest score on the O-NET were examined. The aims were to find out how the art teachers taught their students, what techniques they used, and how much the stakeholders supported the schools and students toward high achievements in art. The expected results of the study could be applied to art teaching at the researchers’ school. Likewise, they could be disseminated to other schools to enhance the quality of art teaching and learning. It was expected that the applications would benefit all students in art learning groups.

2. Aims of the Study

This study was conducted to identify the most practical art teaching techniques employed in the primary schools in Nakhon Si Thammarat where students earned their highest scores in art. The obtained findings were to be disseminated to art teachers and interested individuals, who might apply them to art teaching and learning in specific school contexts.

3. Scope of the Study

3.1 Population and Sampling

The participants in this study were 12 Primary school administrators, 12 Primary school art teachers, 12 local art experts and 48 Primary 6 students. Purposive sampling was used to select participants from 12 Primary schools whose students obtained the highest O-NET scores in 2011. In this sampling, the top 3 primary schools were selected from each of the 4 educational areas in Nakhon Si Thammarat.

3.2 Research Methodology

This study was a qualitative method where data were collected via interviews and observations, documents, and focus group discussions. (1) The interviews: the semi-structured interviews were used with the school administrators, art teachers and local art experts. They were asked about administration, curricula, teaching media and equipment, teaching methods and methods of allocation of art teachers to classes. The students, on the other hand, were asked about art teaching methods in accordance with the curriculum and the key performance indicators of art subjects for Primary 6 students such as visual
arts, music, and dance. (2) Observations: These techniques were to observe the teaching and learning activities in art classes at the selected schools. (3) Documents: The documents on art teaching methodologies were examined, and data were collected accordingly. (4) Focus group discussions: The researchers talked to the school administrators, art teachers, and local art experts to triangulate data on art teaching, training, activities, and assessment with the other data obtained from the interviews, observations and documents.

The data mentioned above were analyzed by Strauss & Corbin’s (1998) grounded theory. The coding process involved three levels of analyses: (1) Open coding where data obtained from the interviews and group discussions were organized in a systematic manner; (2) Axial coding was used when data were identified and categorized; and (3) Selective coding was employed to categorize data and interpreted them to garner the study results.

4. Results

The results of this research showed that the primary schools where students earned higher scores on art, employed five major teaching techniques: (1) the use of a learning-by-doing scheme, (2) application of teaching media and technology, (3) demonstrations by teachers and local art experts, (4) the setup of art hubs and art learning sources visits, and (5) participation in art competitions. It was also found that practical management, teaching techniques, close supervisions as well as suitable atmosphere and environment supported the increase of higher art learning achievements. The students were satisfied with their learning by doing. Many of them produced high quality paintings, dances and concerts, sculpting, and product designs. They also earned the highest O-NET scores in the province. These teaching techniques constituted a good art teaching model for other schools. Achievements in art made the students, their teachers and community active in art teaching and learning as work of pride in their specific educational district.

5. Discussion

In the light of data analysis, the researchers found out that the five techniques identified in the study showed significant outcomes as follows:

5.1 Learning by doing techniques involved students’ practices on drawings and paintings. This technique was also used in playing Thai musical instruments such as xylophones, flute, and tom-toms. Thai classical dances were taught with the use of these instruments. Interactions were encouraged for the students to enjoy art classes. Since these activities enhanced students’ creativity, the students were able to create some art work with their own unique designs.

It should be noted that parents, teachers, and those working with children should give them opportunities to do things by themselves. As Hose (2012) suggested: “There’s no better way to foster imagination in children than to let them create something whether it’s a drawing or painting, something made from modeling clay, or jewelry made from beads”. This idea supports teacher’s practicum in that “an art teacher teaches students to practice and deal with a problem themselves, or discuss it with their team members. This teaching technique often yields positive results to teaching and learning, and it is the heart of art teaching” (Wattanasin, 1998). When using this technique in particular, teachers should facilitate students with advice, suggestions, and equipment needed for their
created art objects. It can be concluded that learning by doing technique is an effective method in putting theory into practice.

5.2 As for teaching media and technology, the students learned art from various kinds of media, for instance, pictures, charts, audio/ video cassettes, and the Internet. These teaching tools helped boost students’ learning attention. According to the Department Academic Affair, Ministry of Education Thailand, teachers can use and develop various local learning tools such as printed matters, photos, toys, environment, and technology to support active learning. As known, teaching media and technology can help bring joy and inspiration to learners.

5.3 The use of demonstrations by teachers and local art experts engaged students in art learning. It was found that demonstrations of creating art objects, for example, those of drawing, singing and dancing could inspire students to learn how to do them on their own or in a group. From the researchers’ observation in the study, when a Thai musical instrument expert showed the students how to play Thai musical instruments, students observed their demonstration attentively. After these demonstrations, they asked questions and tried playing those instruments themselves. At this stage, the expert helped with suggestions and gave more demonstrations. The point on learning enthusiasm as such was made in the work of Wattanasin (1998) who suggested that giving theories would not be enough to support learning. Teachers need to show their students how to do things via appropriate learning activities. It should be noted that live demonstrations essentially require good preparations and a step-by-step guide. Art teaching usually aims to make all learners creative, confident, and self-reliant. Thus, students’ own ideas to create things should be in focus. Alternative ways of learning via demonstrations could be by watching YouTube, setting classes outdoor, and arranging field trips with relevant art experts or artists were also useful to students.

5.4 Visits to the organizations and the fields promoted students’ learning enthusiasm. Wattanasin (1998) also suggested: “A field trip is an effective way of learning because learners can get a direct contact with the real world where professionals did their job. Visiting different interesting places such as a zoo, a park, and an arts museum could inspire students with their off-school experience.

5.5 Participation in art competitions was an important technique which provided an opportunity for students to get involved in challenging activities. When playing a part at different levels of competitions, the students enjoyed the real atmosphere where they competed with outstanding competitors from various different places. They had a chance to encounter new things and new peers which were to give a good impression on their art learning. As Wongyai (1994) pointed out: “The learning management in which students are most important can help students learn by themselves and take part in making their own product meaningful to them.” In other words, the most powerful learning process occurs when learners take part in doing some good things relevant to and significant for them. The researchers observed in data collection and noted that participation in art competitions is an excellent way to promote learners’ skills. It generates pride in learners in showing their talents to the other distinctive competitors as well as the audience in public.
6. Suggestions

Based on the results of this study, the researchers would like to suggest two things:

6.1 Art teachers should use different teaching techniques appropriate to students’ ability, background, and needs in specific teaching and learning contexts.

6.2 School administrators should recognize significance of art teaching and seek collaboration from the school personnel and local art experts. It is crucial that all stakeholders take part in making high quality of art teaching and learning in their school.

7. The Authors

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8. References


Basic Information and Communication Technology Competency Development for Teachers and Schools in Preparation for ASEAN Commencement

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Abstract
The purposes of this research were to identify basic Information and Communication Technology (ICT) competency areas that school educators require in order to develop their teachers, and to explore basic ICT competency that schools need in their preparation for ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) commencement in 2015. A mixed method of quantitative and qualitative research was used in this study. Surveys and focus group interviews were conducted. The first group using a simple sampling method, 143 school educators completed the questionnaires. The second focus group selected by using purposive sampling method, ten school administrators in the central, northern, and southern provinces of Thailand were interviewed. The data collected from the survey-questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were analyzed and interpreted by using rating scales and content analyses. The descriptive analysis described mean, standard deviation, and simple frequency distribution values. The findings from school educators reveal four ICT competency areas for teachers at high to highest level of requirement, and the ICT competency that the focus group in four areas are related to the first group. The findings on basic ICT competency in preparation for ASEAN commencement in 2015, and responses from the focus group informatively expressed positive opinions and useful suggestions in five main points. The results of this study suggested further studies to explore in broader dimensions of ICT competency standards for teachers. The research outcomes have implications for schools that wish to embark on human resource development planning.

Keywords: Information and Communication Technology, ICT competency, school educators, school administrators, teachers’ professional development

1. Introduction
Educational Technology has been integrating Information and Communication Technology (ICT) within all subject areas whilst real world technology evolves continuously. Most basic education schools in the world were encouraged long ago to adopt ICT in teaching and learning (UNESCO, 2002). In order to cultivate high-quality teaching, support for ongoing professional development in schools is essential. Teaching quality has been defined as instruction that enables a wide range of students to learn. Additionally, teaching quality is in part a function of teacher quality (Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, and Orphanos, 2009; Darling-Hammond, 2012; Gallimore, Ermeling, Saunders, and Goldenberg, 2009; Hanushek, 2011; Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarloss, and Shapley, 2007). According to National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) survey data, they also confirmed an unfortunate reality that teachers were typically not using ICT in the most effective ways (Wenglinsky, 2006), and could not keep pace with the rapid changes of technology (Greene & Crespi, 2012).

2. Background of the Study
The education sectors have strongly emphasized that basic ICT literacy is important to teacher development (Wildová, 2010) and high quality teachers are the most important asset of schools, but no appropriate policies ensure that schools have good quality of teachers on hand (Hanushek, 2011; The Wallace Foundation, 2012). A particularly noteworthy finding is the empirical link between schools and improved student achievement (Webster-Wright, 2009). Therefore, school administrators who are key persons will be able to gear their schools toward modern digital teaching and improved
learning environments, and they require appropriate ICT preparation in order to support and strengthen their teachers (Namfa, 2012), especially for ASEAN preparation by 2015.

Within ASEAN, the Networked Readiness Index 2013 in Global Information Technology Report 2013 (WEF, 2013a) indicates that Thailand ranks 74th out of 144 countries and trails by more than 70 and 40 places behind Singapore and Malaysia, respectively. Thailand exhibits a number of weaknesses across the board. Looking back at the history of the reports, Thailand ranked 34th in 2006, 77th in 2012 and 74th in 2013; its ICT competitiveness has clearly deteriorated. In addition, the Global Competitiveness Report 2012-2013 (WEF, 2013b) ranks Thai education bottom out of eight ASEAN countries surveyed. Among the ten ASEAN countries, Singapore, Malaysia and Brunei Darussalam take the top three spots, respectively, while Cambodia comes in sixth and Vietnam seventh, followed by Thailand. Myanmar and Laos were excluded in the survey. The report also states that money is not the most important factor in guaranteeing a good education, and that high-income teachers often do not possess adequate teaching capabilities. However, the ASEAN ICT Master plan of 2015 has been targeted within 10 years of cooperation and yielded to the changes in the ICT landscape and the influential shift toward new areas such as ICT applications for e-education (ASEAN, 2011). In Thailand, for instance, One Tablet per Child project (Walker & Pruekchaikul, 2012) in 2012 strongly urges schools to integrate technology which has been granted to more than 800,000 first-grade students, so it is the right time for the concept of ICT competency for teachers’ to be adopted by school administrators in the twenty-first century and preparedness for ASEAN commencement.

A number of research projects have shown that teaching quality is the strongest school-related factor that can improve student learning and achievement (Darling-Hammond, 2012; Hollins, 2011; Vega, 2013). The school administrators, teachers and ICT policy makers are the major influences of teachers’ ICT development. Lack of basic literacy in information and communication technology and computer skills can limit a teacher’s ability to enhance the quality of classroom learning. Hence, it is important for teachers to understand how ICT can improve the standards of basic education in Thailand and to see how ICT can be used as a tool for more effective instruction. The education sectors have reiterated that basic ICT literacy is important to teacher development (Alharbi & Drew, 2014; Rambousek, Štípek, & Wildová, 2012; Trucano, 2005) and according to Almalki and Williams (2012), Azer (2005) and Yeap (2010), the major focus in education is strengthening the quality and effectiveness of the teacher workforce by raising teacher quality around the world. In addition, Stewart (2010) confirms that a high-quality teacher workforce is not the simple result of some traditional cultural respect for teachers only; it requires deliberate policy support as well.

Since the school administrators and teachers are significant school-related factors of the ultimate goal of student achievement, and ICT competency for teachers is needed as a tool for teaching and professional development (Lertlit, 2012; Waitayangkoon, 2008). Lack of basic ICT competency can limit a teacher’s ability to enhance the quality of classroom learning. This research, therefore, rationally focuses on ICT competency areas for teachers that school administrators need and prepare for ASEAN commencement in 2015.
3. Objectives
The objectives of this research were to identify basic ICT competency areas that are required in order to develop the teachers, and to investigate ICT competency for teachers that schools need in preparation for 2015.

4. Research Questions
The findings of this study were expected to answer two research questions as follows:

4.1 What basic ICT competency areas do school educators require in developing their teachers?

4.2 What basic ICT competency for teachers do the schools need in their preparation for 2015?

5. Methods and Instruments
The mixed-method research designs: a quantitative and qualitative inquiry was employed in order to gain the in-depth understanding and collaboration. The researcher aimed to validate the results obtained from a large sample of school professionals by using quantitative research and generalize findings from school administrators via a qualitative research method. The mixed method of quantitative and qualitative research including two different groups of samples in the collection procedure was explained as follows:

5.1 Quantitative research: The school educators were the first group of participants who completed the opinion survey questionnaires. In this first group of the opinion survey, the 200 seminar participants who attended the 2012 annual academic conference held by the Faculty of Education at Rangsit University were the population consisting of school educators and administrators, teachers, instructors, and education-related personnel from varied provinces such as Bangkok, Pathum Thani, Nonthaburi, and Prachinburi. These selected respondents by a simple random sampling method were asked questions relating basic ICT competency required for teachers’ professional development. With a 71.50% response rate, a total of 143 valid questionnaires were collected. Based on Krejcie and Morgan’s (1970) table for determining sample size toward a given population of 200, a sample size of 127 would be needed to represent adequate samples of the population. The survey included five closed-ended Likert (1932) rating scaled questions asking for their requirement levels according to Vogt (1999) (rating questions of 1 - 5 levels; the rankings were evaluated as 1 = lowest, 2 = low, 3 = average, 4 = high and 5 = highest), and also included open-ended questions asking for additional comments. The content validity of the survey questionnaires was measured by using Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) (Rovinelli & Hambleton, 1977) and scored 1.0. The reliability of the instrument was determined by Cronbach’s alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1951).

Data from survey-questionnaires were analyzed and tabulated showing mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) values. The average mean (M) scores range interpretation was indicated as follows:
5.2 Qualitative research: The focus group, the second group of participants, was interviewed using a research instrument of semi-structured interviews. The focus group, the second group of participants, was selected by using a purposive sampling method according to Kerlinger (1986). Ten school administrators with doctoral degrees in education comprised of school directors, school licensees, and school owners in the central, northern, and southern provinces of Thailand. Semi-structured interviews were conducted in this focus group and were used as a measurement to endorse data validity and reliability from the first group. The first part of interview questions was about basic ICT competency required for teachers’ professional development. The second part of open-ended interview questions was about basic ICT that schools need in their preparation for 2015. To assure the validity of the instrument, the content validity was checked by experts and measured by using Rovinelli & Hambleton’s IOC which scored 0.80. The reliability of the instrument was determined by Cronbach’s alpha Coefficient. Data from the first part of focus group interviews were analyzed using the same rating scales analysis as the first group, and data from the second part of interviews were analyzed by using content analysis and simple frequency distribution interpreted in descriptive results.

6. Results

The data analyses from the survey of the first group of 143 respondents and the focus group of ten demonstrated that basic ICT competencies were found in four areas. The four basic ICT competency areas included (i) Internet Usage, (ii) Using ICT for Communication, (iii) Basic Software and Hardware Knowledge, and (iv) Teaching Media Production. The data analyses of both groups were tabulated showing statistical values of mean (M), standard deviation (SD), and ranking, including data interpretation (DI) in Table 1 as follows.

Table 1: Basic ICT competency areas from the first group of school educators and the focus group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ICT Competency Area</th>
<th>First Group (N=143)</th>
<th>Second Group (N= 10)</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet Usage</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>0.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT for Communication</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic Hardware &amp; Software Knowledge</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Media Production</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
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</table>
The results of basic ICT competency areas requirements of two different groups in Table 1 are as follows:

The first group of school educators requires Internet Usage and ICT for Communication areas at the highest mean scores of $M = 4.56$, $SD = 0.59$, and $M = 4.53$, $SD = 0.61$, respectively, followed by Basic Hardware & Software Knowledge, and Teaching Media Production areas at the high mean scores of $M = 4.26$, $SD = 0.73$, and $M = 4.22$, $SD = 0.80$ respectively. The school educators rank Internet Usage at the first position, ICT for Communication at the second, Basic Hardware & Software Knowledge at the third, followed by Teaching Media Production at the fourth. Cronbach’s alpha was calculated as the instrument reliability at 0.80.

According to the second group or focus group, the results of basic ICT competency areas requirement report that the focus group of school administrators requires Internet Usage area at the highest mean scores ($M = 4.60$, $SD = 0.58$), followed by the high mean scores of Teaching Media Production ($M = 4.38$, $SD = 0.62$), ICT for Communication ($M = 4.35$, $SD = 0.50$), and Basic Hardware & Software Knowledge areas ($M = 4.33$, $SD = 0.69$) respectively. The focus group rank Internet Usage at the first position, Teaching Media Production at the second, ICT for Communication at the third and Basic Hardware & Software Knowledge at the fourth. Cronbach’s alpha was calculated as the instrument reliability at 0.93.

The summary of the first group in comparison with the second group on basic ICT competency areas requirements for teachers shown in Table 1 is as follows.

6.1 Both participant groups require the same basic ICT competency in four areas which are (i) Internet Usage, (ii) ICT for Communication, (iii) Basic Hardware & Software Knowledge, and (iv) Teaching Media Production. The level of requirements of those four areas indicates the high and highest levels.

6.2 The first ranking position of the basic ICT competency area for teachers required most by two different participant groups has similar mean scores ($M = 4.56$ and $M = 4.60$) on Internet Usage area while both have similar standard deviations (0.59 and 0.58, respectively).

6.3 Ranking order of the basic ICT competency areas for teachers required by two different participant groups, and the ranking positions in different orders from the second to the fourth rank are reported below:

- The second ranking position of basic ICT competency required by the first group is ICT for Communication; the second group is Teaching Media Production.
- The third ranking position of basic ICT competency required by the first group is Basic Hardware & Software Knowledge; the second group is ICT for Communication.
- The fourth ranking position of basic ICT competency required by the first group is Teaching Media Production ICT for Communication; the second group is Basic Hardware & Software Knowledge.

The results from the focus group’s interviews show the basic ICT competency for teachers required in schools’ preparation for ASEAN commencement in 2015. Especially of the open ended questions for Issue #1, all ten comments from ten school administrators are completely positive; the issues (questions) #1 to #5 and the comments (answers) are presented in descriptions including simple frequency distribution (f) values as follows:
Issue #1: Comments on teacher's ICT competency and school's preparation for ASEAN by 2015

Comment #1: ICT is very important and necessary (f = 10/10) such as, it gives opportunity to communicate, to search for information, and access to social networks, especially for provincial schools. Teachers are required to have competencies in ICT (f = 9/10), such as, to develop ICT skills continuously, and to keep up with ASEAN community educational information. Some teachers do care and pay attention while others are gradually sensitized to importance and necessity of ICT, and they need to be able to practice guidelines and observe the use of network etiquette rules.

Issue #2: What strategies, plans or policies does the school have to prepare for ASEAN?

Comment #2: Staff development policy and strategies are set to support in ICT knowledge and English language training programs provided to teachers and staff (f = 9/10), such as, basic ICT literacy, social networks communication, and Internet usage. In addition, teaching evaluation to meet targets is another strategy they prepared for (f = 1/10).

Issue #3: What governmental or private agencies does the school need in order to support ICT competency development of teachers, in which areas, and how to prepare before entering the ASEAN community?

Comment #3: All responsible agencies, both governmental and private, for example, the Office of the Basic Education Commission, Educational Service Area Offices, and nearby universities are needed to support schools in ICT training courses, such as, hardware and software programs, e-Learning, (f = 9/10) and English for ICT (f = 1/10).

Issue #4: Does your school have potential in ICT or not compared with similar schools in ASEAN member countries? If not, which parts need to be improved?

Comment #4: Five believe that their schools have enough ICT potential (f = 5/10) because of existing policies, turning policies into practices, having enough budget, and having 90% capable personnel in ICT and sufficient equipment, having ICT staff to handle ICT issues and will enhance every classroom to be an ICT classroom. Three do not have enough ICT potential (f = 3/10) because of lack of ICT equipment, the school itself is not competent, rapid growth of technology, and no funds to upgrade equipment promptly. The final two gave no answer (f = 2/10).

Issue #5: Do your teachers have basic ICT competency or not compared with similar schools in ASEAN member countries? If not, which parts need to be improved?

Comment #5: Three believe that their teachers have enough ICT potential (f = 3/10) because most of the teachers are young with adequate ICT, schools support teachers to get trained continuously, and schools have maintenance budgets. Five believe that their teachers do not have enough ICT potential (f = 5/10) because of lack of ICT knowledge, lack of English proficiency, weak educational system, and unskillful personnel. The final two gave no answer (f = 2/10).
7. Discussion

From the data on order ranking of requirements of basic ICT competency for teachers in four areas, the results from both participant groups show the *Internet Usage ranks first*. This finding explains that both groups agree that the Internet usage can bring to teachers and schools great benefits, such as the Internet provides teachers with minimum cost materials, motivates students to have confidence to express themselves, brings schools and communities closer, allows expanded opportunities for mentoring, keeping in contact with societies with no limits of time and place (Luan, Fung, Nawawi & Hong, 2005; Serim & Koch, 1996; Stone & Perumean-Chaney, 2011).

Besides, both groups suggested to all school stakeholders that specific ICT areas should be included in the training programs; this is relevant to the conceptual framework given by UNESCO (2011), as seen in its *ICT Teacher Competency Framework for Teachers* created in 2008 and developed in 2011. The framework addressed three different successive stages of a teacher’s development. The first is *Technology Literacy*, enabling students to use ICT in order to learn more efficiently. The second is *Knowledge Deepening*, enabling students to acquire in-depth knowledge of their school subjects and apply it to complex problems. The third is *Knowledge Creation*, enabling students to generate their new knowledge.

Furthermore, the challenge is how to enable teachers not only to overcome the technology barriers but also to empower them to integrate the appropriate technology into teaching and learning processes, known as appropriate technologies for sustainable development (Kim, 2013; Pearce, 2007). Building the capacity of teachers in the uses of ICT for education (Bokova, 2012; KFIT, 2013; VVOB, 2012; Waitayangkoon, 2008) also requires long-term continuous development, sharing of knowledge among teachers, and collaboration among educators, governmental education offices, public and private institutions, relevant organizations, and support from school administrators.

Though ICT competency is essential and necessary, the researcher is looking at it from a different side, as presented in the major findings obtained in this study. Some significant viewpoints from Bumiller (2010), Needle (2010), and Yu (2014) who reviewed and noted that one of the basic software programs used for presentation tasks (or so-called PowerPoint) (Microsoft, 2014) was not favored by some presenters in particular parties, such as research organizations, the military, universities, and training units. They expressed their serious concerns over the program stifling discussion, critical thinking and thoughtful decision-making; this was considered as a big glass barrier between the speaker and the audience. Altman (2014) however argued that if such a program was ditched and presenters did charts and slides in text program (or so-called Word) (Microsoft, 2014), the audience would be bored in reading articles. Teachers therefore should be aware of these serious concerns in that they should treat ICT as a tool to integrate teaching and learning in the classroom context by selecting what is most relevant and appropriate to the target learning management and environment.

8. Implications

This study suggests to school administrators who wish to embark on human resources and professional development strategic planning, particularly on teacher professional development programs in basic ICT competencies. Additionally, the implications of this study should guide, for instance, school administrators or policy makers in designing teacher education programs on basic ICT competencies for the school’s personnel.
For future studies, researchers in educational technology or relevant fields may be interested in exploring a broader scope and a deeper dimension of standards of ICT competency of teachers in certain school provincial service areas or specific school contexts.

9. Conclusion

Based on the findings, this study has answered the research questions on what basic ICT competency areas are needed by the schools for their teachers in professional development planning, and how the school administrators can plan their readiness for ICT competency development for their teachers as part of the ASEAN Community in 2015.

The results shown earlier in Table 1 point to the focus group sharing their similar requirements in four ICT areas of (1) Internet Usage, (2) ICT for Communication, (3) Basic Hardware and Software Knowledge, and (4) Teaching Media Production. This was the same response given by 143 school educators at the high to highest level via the questionnaire. Though ranking positions among ICT four areas were perceived differently, Internet Usage ranked first in both groups.

It should be noted that the school administrators were positive to ICT and all agreed that it was essential and necessary for teachers in their preparation for the ASEAN Community in 2015. From their responses, they had plans, strategies, and policies in ICT literacy to support their teachers and schools. More importantly, the school administrators had confidence in their competent ICT staff, and were ready for challenges of the ASEAN community. They were also aware of some limitations shown in quite a few staff members. On this ground, the administrators themselves need to assist those who are slow in catching up with the ICT trend by providing teacher professional development programs. The trend as such requires that the whole organization or school move as one to attain its goal on the ICT-based learning management.

10. Acknowledgements

My grateful thanks are for the participants who attended the Public Seminar on Educational Innovations in ASEAN Dimension organized by the Faculty of Education, Rangsit University for their feedback to the survey questionnaire. The researcher appreciates comments provided in the interviews by a focus group of ten school administrators in Ayutthaya, Krabi, Nakhon Si Thammarat, Pathum Thani, and Petchaboon provinces.

11. The Author

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12. References


Doing Repair in Native-Non-Native Talk:  
A Conversation Analytic Study of Thai-English Interaction

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Abstract
The study used conversation analysis (CA) to examine the occurrences of conversational repair activity on grammatical trouble-sources and comprehension checks in interactions between three native speakers of English (NS) and three Thai non-native speakers (NNS) of English in a casual language setting outside the language classroom they were attending at York St John University. The Thai non-native speakers of English were selected among the beginning English learners at the university level and the three native speakers are also chosen based on their non-linguistic teaching background. The three pairs of NS/NNS interactions were audio-taped to explore (1) the main types of ungrammatical utterances produced by each Thai non-native speaker, (2) the dealing procedures of each native speaker with ungrammatical trouble-sources, and (3) the occurrence of repair patterns used by the native speakers for comprehension checks in NS/NNS interactions.

The analysis revealed that the repair activity was only initiated in the case of grammatical errors that did not affect comprehension in native – non-native talk. The finding indicates that the English native users generally accept the grammatical mistakes made by the English learners only if the meaning appeared understandable in natural talk. This study raises the language awareness of how natural conversation in an English-speaking society is practically used to assist non-native English teachers in focusing on how communicative language approach should be used in the language classroom.

Keywords: repair activity, NS/NNS interactions, comprehension, misunderstanding

1. Introduction
This study explored how corrective events occur in the interaction between native speakers (NSs) and non-native speakers of English (NNSs) in a real-life setting outside the formal language teaching and learning in the classroom. As conversation analysis (CA) has been utilized in various fields of studies, such as, sociology, psychology, anthropology, and linguistics, the study of conversational repair sequences is one of the attractive fields among CA analysts initiative investigated by Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sack (1977) to explore in what ways repair sequences are made and how people deal with them. Such repair takes place when a verbal mistake is made in conversation and the other speaker attempts to solve the trouble-sources of the previous words.

Conversational repairs focus on linguistic errors and comprehension checks. Both features are aimed to pinpoint the conversational trouble-source once misunderstanding, misspeaking, or mishearing takes place by initiating self-repair and other-repair which compose of several patterns to check the information or to request clarification and repetition (McRoy & Hirst 1995). In this paper, the researcher has focused on both features of conversational repair to explore how NSs who have non-linguistic background of the study respond to ungrammatical errors that to a certain extent affect comprehensibility.
2. Background of the Study: Language Repair

This section gives an overview of language repair in conversational interactions as a background of the study in five areas: (1) Analysis of Sidestepping Grammar, (2) Subject-Verb Agreement, (3) Tenses, (4) Articles, and (5) The occurrence of repair activity for comprehension checks.

2.1 Conversational Repair

The investigation in this study involves the repair activities which occur in NS/NNS interaction. ‘Repair’ is the organization of how people deal with problems in speaking, hearing, and understanding in conversation which was initially examined by Schegloff (1977). There are two reasons why repair activities happen – to correct linguistic errors and to check comprehension. Both repair activities are aimed to request clarification or repetition of the problem.

Conversationally, repair activities are categorized into two types based on which party initiates the repairs: self- and other-repairs (Schegloff et al, 1992). A trouble-source which is fixed by the speaker who produces the trouble-source is called ‘self-repair’, whilst ‘other-initiated repair’ is one initiated by the other speakers. Self-repair initiation is revealed when the speaker knows he/she gives unclear statements on either linguistic or information, so he/she allows him/herself to give a small pause to search for clarification to generate the conversation in either the same turn or next turn, while other-repair is the phenomenon that occurs when the next speaker has the ability to find more information by him/herself for their conversation. Nevertheless, it is clarified by Schegloff et al (1992) that self-repair is more likely to happen in mundane conversation than other-repair since the turn-taking system seems to allow a speaker to self-repair more often which causes the occurrence of other repair to stayed limited. The main reasons why the opportunities of self-repair occur is the space for self-initiation comes before the opportunity for other-initiation. It is more likely that the speaker of the trouble source self-initiates his or her repair within the same turn as the trouble-source turn before the other speakers can initiate the repair in the next turn.

The following are four different types of repairs: self-initiated self-repaired, self-initiated other-repaired, other-initiated self-repaired, and other-initiated other-repaired, which are presented through concise instances based on Ian Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008) to briefly illustrate how repairs sequences occurs;

(1) Self-initiated, self-repaired
[ BA data 5 T1:SA:F:F]
1 A: er heathrow or gatwi:ck
2 C: oh sorry er: from ga(t)
3 er heathrow.

The self-initiated self-repaired prevalence is carried out when the speaker realizes he/she produces a comprehending problem occurs in the interaction. The above instance indicates A has caused the trouble-source. Instead of waiting for the other speaker to make a correction, A gives a small pause to correct himself by producing ‘er heathrow’ at line 3.
(2)  self-initiated other-repaired  
[BC:Green:88]
1B:  He had dis uh Mistuh W-m whatever K- I can’t think of his first name, Watts
2  the one that wrote that piece
3A:  Dan Watts

The above instance is indicated when the speaker (B) seems to fail in looking for the right words for mentioning the name. Then, A who actually knows the accurate word, repairs by correcting with ‘Dan Watts’ shown at line 3 to fulfill the missing information. However, this kind of repair normally seems to be common in mundane conversation since people involved in the interaction often collaborate with each other to achieve an orderly meaningful conversation.

(3)  other-initiated self-repaired  
[GTS:5:3]
1. KEN: Is Al here today?
2. DAN: Yeah.
3. (0.20)
4. →  Roger: he is? hh eh heh
5. Dan: Well he was

The mentioned instance takes place when the recipient does not understand full or partial utterances of the prior turn of the speakers. The patterns of this type are used to request repetition that offers the trouble-source producer to clarify his/her previous utterance as indicated in line 4, so that self-repair is made to fix the trouble source. It is said that the occurrence of this repair type shows the avoidance of embarrassment to the trouble-source producer since the opportunity of self-repair is offered to the speaker by the recipient.

(4)  other-initiated other-repaired  
[GJ:FN]
1  Milly: and then they said something about Kruschev has leukemia so I thought
2  it’s all a big put on.
3  →  Jean: Breshnev.
4  Milly: Breshnev has leukemia. So I don’t know what to think.

The last instance seen above shows the domination of other repair type produced by the recipient. The phenomenon of other-initiated other-repaired occurred when the recipient discovered the speaker provided an inaccurate statement. The recipient pointed out the mistake directly for the speaker before he/she could self-correct. It seems that the parties who have equal power try to avoid this type of repair because it can cause embarrassment for their party.

2.2 Repair in NS/NNS Interaction

Since the repair study was initially examined by Scheglof in 1992, there have been increasing numbers of research papers in repair studies in NS/NSS interactions. In the specification of applied linguistics, the research which has been conducted is linked to the organization of repair patterns between a language instructor as an expert and a language learner as novice occurring in second language classroom talk to identify how the linguistic-based and content-based problems are dealt within the classrooms. As all
words have their own meaning and grammar is the mode of interaction (Have, 2007), the frequency of linguistic-based problems is much more focused than the content-based discussions in the classrooms. In other words, the repair activities are mainly aimed at the development in the learners’ ability to understand the language structure in which correctness of their language use is obviously highlighted in general ESL/EFL classrooms.

There are some previous studies that explore repairs in classroom setting. For example, Kasper (1985) supports the repair activities in foreign language teaching. She focuses on what type of repair patterns are produced to examine whether a trouble-source is produced by the teacher or the learners. She discovers that, in most ESL/EFL classroom interactions, the instructor tends to use correction on ungrammatical utterances of the learners. In this study, she found that there are two focuses by which repair activities are initiated in the classroom interaction: language centered and content centered. In the language-center phase, it is found that the trouble sources occur in learners’ utterances identified and confirmed by their teacher. On the other hand, repair in the content centered phases is found different from the language-based one. It is found that self-initiated and self-completed repair is preferred by both learners and teacher where linguistic trouble-sources are also repaired through specific types. However, she also argues that repair activities should focus on comprehensibility rather than the corrections of linguistic utterances of the learners.

In addition, even though there are a number of studies in which CA is used in English language learning, only a few of such studies are related to repair studies in NS/NSS talk, which are done in informal conversations (Wong, 2000; Yuri, 2000). The study on other-repair in Japanese conversation between non-native and native speakers by Yuri (2000) studied compared repairs in NS/NNS and NS/NS interactions. The researcher found that the nature of repair occurred during 3 conversations; 2 NS/NNS conversations and one NS/NS in Japanese. The study observed face-to-face interaction and found that repairs could be made by the native speakers as non-native speakers are less proficient in the language. Among native speakers, self-initiated repairs were found. The native speakers made corrections when misunderstanding/ mishearing/misspeaking occurred as teachers do with students in educational settings.

It is important to study the work of Wong (2000) who is the well-known researcher among CA analysts who conducted their research on NS/NNS interaction. She examined a form of other-initiated repair which is naturally delayed with the next turn position produced by Chinese NNSs. She discovered that the efforts of NTRIs (Next Turn Repair Initiations) are done later when the trouble-source was produced in NS/NNS interaction. She provided some examples to show that the delayed repairs cause the conversational problems between NS/NNS interaction.

Therefore, it can be summarized that in naturally occurring conversation, for the incompetent learners, it may be the issue of overt grammatical correction which is occasionally sidestepped in the service of communication and meaning: one way of doing so is for experts or native speakers to do repair and not correction in response to NNS’s trouble-source utterance. Correction would highlight NNS’s grammatical or phonological errors while repair or embedded correction does not necessarily do so (Wong, 2007). In this case, NS seemingly takes responsibility for NNS’s trouble source. But in the language classroom, it may be precisely the highlighting of NNS’s errors as an issue for the teacher to make a correction. In so doing, the teacher expects that NNSs are able to
detect and take responsibility for his/her linguistic or grammatical errors and learn from correcting them.

3. Research Objectives

Unlike the previous studies on repair in NS/NNS interactions, the present study deals with the repair activity initiated by native speakers on *both ungrammatical trouble-sources and comprehension errors* of non-native speakers outside the classroom. The trouble-sources produced by non-native speakers include both linguistic and comprehension errors, while NS/NS and NNS/NNS interactions normally initiate repair sequences when the meaning is missing. Hence, the primary objectives are:

1. to investigate the frequency of the ungrammatical types which are mostly produced by Thai non-native speakers during NS/NNS interaction,

2. to explore whether or not ungrammatical utterances of language learners become the trouble-sources for native speakers to understand,

3. to explore the repair patterns produced by NSs for comprehension checks during NS/NNS interaction.

This present study is also linked to the recent condition of teaching practice in Thailand as well as some other EFL countries which is ineffective since language is mainly taught for communication not for tests and evaluation. The naturally occurring conversations in this study may indicate that the language pedagogy in the EFL classrooms may not clearly respond to the real-use communication outside the classroom as ordinary conversation is conducted to exchange messages to each other on a real-time basis.

4. Research Methodology

This section briefly describes the participants and the instrument used in collecting repair data between NSs and NNSs in the study.

4.1 Participants

The participants were three native speakers of English (NS) and three Thai non-native speakers (NNS) of English who attended their study program at York St John University. The Thai non-native speakers of English were selected among the beginning English learners at the university level and the three native speakers are also chosen based on their non-linguistic teaching background.

4.2 Instrument

The study used conversation analysis (CA) as a research instrument to examine the occurrences of conversational repair activity on grammatical trouble-sources and comprehension checks in interactions between three native speakers of English (NS) and three Thai non-native speakers (NNS) of English in a casual language setting outside the language classroom. The three pairs of NS/NNS interactions were audio-taped to explore (1) the main types of ungrammatical utterances produced by each Thai non-native speaker, (2) the dealing procedures of each native speaker with ungrammatical trouble-sources, and (3) the occurrence of repair patterns used by the native speakers for comprehension checks in NS/NNS interactions. The obtained data were analyzed for the three types of data by means of Conversational Analysis (CA).
5. Findings

The usage of certain rules in English has been recognized among applied linguists and language practitioners as a complex task to master. The linguistic difficulties in NNSs stimulate researchers to conduct research on the grammatical error analyses. It explained that the error analysis has been conducted to identify strategies, which the learners use in the language learning, to track the causes of learners’ errors, and to obtain information on common difficulties in language learning (Ramirez, 1973).

For the three Thai-NNSs who had studied the general English course at York St John University and attended in this studied together with the three NSs who have never had any teaching background before, English grammar was mainly found problematic for those NNSs when they were interacting with the three NSs. The present study is similar to what the previous research has found. The subject and verb agreement, tenses and articles, for example, were reported in the large number of previous studies (e.g., Ghadessy, 1980; Politzer, & Ramirez, 1973). The data is shown in Tables 1 and 2 below.

Table 1: Categories of ungrammatical types found in the three NNSs’ language production

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Types of Grammatical Errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Subject and Verb Agreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Verb omission</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: Frequency and Percentage of ungrammatical types found in each Thai NNS in NS/NNS interactions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ungrammatical Type</th>
<th>NNS1 Frequency</th>
<th>NNS1 Percentage</th>
<th>NNS2 Frequency</th>
<th>NNS2 Percentage</th>
<th>NNS3 Frequency</th>
<th>NNS3 Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Both tables shown above reveal that the subject and verb agreement is the most frequent type of grammatical errors in three Thai NNSs of this study. At the total of 29.55%, 33.97%, and 33.33%, NNSs produced the ungrammatical utterances on the subject and verb agreement which NNS2 produced the highest percentage of this grammatical type. Secondly, English tenses are considered the second ungrammatical prevalence at the total of 25%, 30.19, and 22.22%. NNS2 had had the highest mistake rank on tenses. For some linguists and grammarians, English tenses become the most confusing learning point of English language since English varies forms to different times: past, present, and future. The main problems in the use of tenses are related to the transformation of verbs. Thirdly, the use of articles is ranked in the third position with the total of 15.91%, 9.43%, and 15.56%. NNS3 produced the highest number of this error type. It should be noted that grammatical errors are to hamper comprehensibility of the intended meaning. Actual interactions can help NNSs to negotiate for their meaning both verbally and nonverbally and NSs tend to provide repair to make communication possible.

As seen in the obtained data, the frequency of ungrammatical types found in NS/NSS interactions of this study is parallel to those in the previous studies. Therefore, the difference between the native and foreign language structures is the main cause for NNS grammatical errors. Some excerpts from the data are presented as examples and analyzed in the analysis and discussion part.

5.1 Analysis of Sidestepping Grammar
Another track which is found interesting is the phenomenon of NSs avoiding correctness on linguistic disorders of the Thai-NNSs. This study has supported some previous observations on the ungrammatical avoidance in NS/NNS talks (Kurhila, 2001; Wong, 2000). The NSs also seem not to offer an opportunity for NNSs to self-correct and are likely to consider the ungrammatical errors of NNSs unproblematic. The words ‘Yeah’, ‘Um’ are frequently found to express the acceptance of the linguistic inaccuracies. Moreover, as native language speakers can judge how competent non-native speakers are, the three NSs continued the conversation with the previous utterances of three NNSs coherently despite their grammatical errors. This shows that only native speakers are proficient in making language repair.

The researcher noted that most native speakers actually know what the NNSs said is incorrect, but they have decided not to correct the overt ungrammatical words as long as comprehensibility remained. In other words, NSs normally focus on meaning, not a language problem. Thus, several ungrammatical utterances are instanced in the analysis and discussion part as examples. Three top frequently grammatical types emerged from the analysis in this study. The italicized words represent the ungrammaticality of each extract. Besides, it is noted the numbers of the lines presented below may be different from the raw data due to the more detailed transcription.

5.2 Subject-Verb Agreement
The primary ungrammatical issue is the use of subject-and-verb agreement of English which is also sidestepped by the NSs. Basically, the subject-and-verb agreement is an English rule which indicates that a noun agrees with a verb in a sentence or clause. In other words, a singular noun takes a singular verb, while a plural noun takes a plural verb. This concept of rules is straightforward on the subject of a sentence or a clause. A common error frequently occurs in interactions can be found speech products of NNSs. Verbs are used in inaccurate forms for their subject and vice versa.
The extracts below are presented to indicate the inappropriate use of this error type by NNSs, and avoidance of linguistic mistakes as a strategy used by NSs.

**Extract 1 [Conversation 1]**

175 NNS1: Maybe be::: dog (0.7) dog (0.2) hate (0.2) hate a ca:t as yo:u (.)
176 NS1: AAAh hah ah! Ah! Ah! Ah! Ah!
177 NNS1: YEA:::::H
178 NS1: Yea:h yeah yeah yeah yeah
179 NNS1: Ahhh hah-uh hah hah-huh huh

In this extract, NNS1 produces an incorrect form for its subject (line 175) by omitting the ‘s’ for the verb ‘hate’ to refer that the subject is singular. In Thai language, the use of subject and verb agreement is understandable from numbers and demonstrative determiners which clarify how many things/people are. It is discussed that Thai people say, ‘this cat hate that cat or these cat hat those cat’ are correct (Forman, 2005). Nevertheless, the acquisition of subject and verb agreement in English is more challenging for this NNS1. It could be that this NNS1 does not understand this rule. After NNS1 produces, ‘Maybe the dog hate the cat…’, there is a delay before the NS produces ‘Yeah’ (line 178) to accept the message. This rule in this interaction may not affect the meaning of the utterance to a great extent, for NS1 knows grammatical problems of NNS1 and he does not provide language repair.

Here is another example which NS2 focuses on the content of the message, not the misused rule of English.

**Extract 2 [Conversation 2]**

59 NNS2: Ah ha ha ha You know the (. ) the (0.7) the team that we are (cheer up:©)
60 NS2: Yea:h
61 NNS2: May be em:: Ba:ngkok United (. ) or something li:ke thâ:t (. ) or (Ar:my) United hhhh.
62 NNS2: It de:pend.
63 NS2: Oka:y (0.3) I have never heard any of them so:: AAHa hah-uh hah-uh huh
64 NNS2: Ah ha-ha-ha (Unintelligible).

In this example, NS2 accepts or does not hear the ungrammatical source at line 62. NNS2 produces, ‘it depend’ which the singular subject does not go along with its verb. NNS2 should have said that, ‘…Army United it depends’. However, NS2 seems to focus on the Thai football associations, not the language structure.

The next extracts are similar to the above, indicating the use of ungrammatical forms.

**Extract 3 [Conversation 3]**

199 NNS3: Ye:a:h you know em: one stude:nt in my cla:ss (.) he’s from Chine:se (.)
200 NNS3: He cannot spea:k (0.5) but he lea:rn goo::d in (0.5) writi:ng.
201 NS3: Yea:h
202 NNS3: Ye:a:h Aha-huh
203 NS3: It's very differe:nt (. ) you can write but very ha:rd to spea:k it sometimes.

This extract also shows that NNS3 omits an ‘s’ ending for the verb ‘learn’ for the pronoun ‘he’ at line 200. Obviously, NS3 agrees to accept the form NNS3 has used ungrammatically in the next turn by saying ‘Yeah’ and also adds some more related
utterances at line 203 to indicate that NS3 has understood the previous utterance and grammatical correction is therefore sidestepped.

### 5.3 Tenses

The indication of ungrammatical problems in the second category is the use of English tenses. English tenses specify a situation time when the situation takes place. It is possible that the Thai-NNSs are confused with the use of English tenses because, in the Thai language, verbs are not transformed themselves to express time of a situation. The sentences ‘I eat rice today, I eat rice yesterday, and I have eat rice already’ are considered grammatical in Thai. Here are some interesting examples of tense errors.

**Extract 4 [conversation 1]**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line</th>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>Utterance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>NNS1:</td>
<td>May be (0.9) yo:::u em: you have a cha::nce (0.5) may be you go to Phuket.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>NS1:</td>
<td>Uhm::</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>NNS1:</td>
<td>Yeah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>NS1:</td>
<td>We;ll I am go::ing l’m go::ing (0.6) not 26te26row:w (0.5) the next da::y (I think) Tuesda::y () Yea:h .hhhh to BA:CK f’ a mo:nth becuз my da::d lives there .hhhh So we’re going f’ holiday (I hope so) (strange sound)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>NNS1:</td>
<td>Yeg:h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>NNS1:</td>
<td>May be (0.6) ni:ce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>NNS1:</td>
<td>May be NI::CE yeah so .hh long flight though, not looking for it to the (it’s like)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67</td>
<td>NS1:</td>
<td>Yeah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68</td>
<td>NNS1:</td>
<td>Yeg:h I come from Bangkok to (1.5) em::: here Manchester it’s (1.2) em::::::: 16 hour</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69</td>
<td>NS1:</td>
<td>Uhm:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>NS1:</td>
<td>16 HO:URS Ah ha-ha-ha-ha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71</td>
<td>NNS1:</td>
<td>Yea::::::: it’s a lo::ng ti::me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>NS1:</td>
<td>OH my GOODness. I was to;ld that it was 12 ho::urs, so it’s 16.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen, NNS1 produces the ungrammatical utterance to express the past-time story before she firstly arrived in England. Line 68 shows NNS1 having difficulty with the correct structure of the past verb tense. The verb ‘come’ is used instead of ‘came’ to express the time she flew from Bangkok to Manchester. This is quite common among Thai NNSs to produce ungrammatical mistakes between the present and the past actions since there is no exception found in Thai language.

It is apparent that Thai speakers express time or tenses with the use of the same word forms or words that signify time. For example, they say ‘I come here yesterday’ or ‘I come here today’ without verb transformation. The correct sentence should be “I came from Bangkok to [here] Manchester. It was 16 hours.” In this instance, NS1 seems to ignore ungrammatical mistakes made by NNS1; NS1 expresses a partial repetition to indicate that she has understood what NNS1 said in the previous turn by responding ‘16 hours’ at line 70.

The next instance below indicates the same confusion over the use of the past verb form by another NNS in the NS/NSS interaction.

**Extract 5 [conversation 2]**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line</th>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>Utterance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>68</td>
<td>NS2:</td>
<td>What do you study at (0.8) the universi::ty?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
69 NNS2: Em::::::: I am study (0.9) about (1..1) Marketing but em::: I didn’t sta:rt yet.
70 NS2: Alright (. ) Okay
71 NNS2: I just come here for em::: (0.6) 2 week ago:: .hhhh
72 NS2: Yea:h
73 NNS2: Something li:::ke that Huh-ha huh-ha
74 NS2: Okay see: you’re go:onna sta:rt in Septe:mer?
75 NNS2: Yea:h (. ) of co:urse (1.8) I (am) come here to prepare my Engli:sh.

The incorrect grammar of past tense with the use of ‘ago’ appears at line 71. NS2 accepted the wrong grammar by producing ‘okay’ in the next turn. “Ago” is an adverb which expresses something back in the past or back in time from the present. In this instance, NNS2 uses ‘come’ to express the past tense ‘two weeks ago’. The correct sentence should be “I just came here 2 weeks ago.” It should be noted that NNS2 might know the adverb ‘ago’ for the past action but perhaps does not know its relation with the verb form transformation. In response to the NNS2’s expression, NS2 simply accepts and then avoids correcting because the meaning is understood.

The other extract below is another example produced by the same NS mentioned above.

**Extract 6 [conversation 3]**

The NS and NSS are talking about which dungeon they have been to. Both of them are exchanging the idea about the place and the use of the present perfect tense in the story.

158 NNS3: No I don’t (1.5) I don’t ha:ve bee:n York Dungeo:on. I (1.2) go to the London Dungeon.
159 NS3: Uhm Oh (0.8) Oh (0.5) oh yea:h yeah yeah I ha:ve been there. It is sca:ry (unintelligible) Ah-ha ah ha!
161 NNS3: Yea:h Huh-ha

NNS3 produces the mistaken grammar of the present perfect tense in the negative sentence. The present perfect tense is a compound tense to express a past action which continues to the present consequences. The structure of the present perfect includes subject + helping verb + past participle to describe ‘what has happened before’, for example. However, it is evident that this NNS is confused with the use of present tense and present perfect tense. The utterance ‘I don’t have been York Dungeon’ at line 158 is an inaccurate structure.

It should be noted that the present perfect tense does not exist in Thai. Its meaning is expressed with use of words or group of words. Thai speakers use adverb-words for English adverbs like ‘yet, before, and already’. Thai speakers say ‘I eat rice already or I don’t arrive yet’ to signify the meaning of the present perfect tense. The correct sentence should be “I have never been to the York Dungeon before, but I have been to the London Dungeon.”

Line 159 shows that the NS’s utterance ‘Oh yeah I have been there. It is scary’ indicates NS3’s comprehension of the NS previous utterance. This extract also gives a considerable point of avoiding correction by NSs. NS3 does not follow the limitations of the present perfect expressed by NNS. Instead, NS3 responds: ‘I have been there’ in
response to the previous turn ‘I go to the London Dungeon. NS3 may not attempt to correct any grammatical utterance of NNS3, but instead she offers the correct form of the present perfect tense to the NNS.

5.4 Articles
The last error type is the use of articles. NNSs are confused over this word function due to the fact that Thai does not have articles to precede nouns. The Article ‘A’ with consonants and ‘An’ with vowels are indefinite to describe any unspecific object. The article ‘the’ is definite with an exact thing the speaker is talking about in communicating with another speaker. Thai speakers find it unfamiliar and thus difficult to understand or use. They tend to omit or overuse “a,” “an,” or “the.” Extracts 7-9 are examples of this error type.

Extract 7 [Conversation 1]
43 NS1: It is very good (2.1) very exciting (0.6) Do you like English or:
44 NNS1: Yeah (0.8) I like (0.8) yeah (1.2) It is nice city here
45 NS1: It is nice (1.2) sunny today: y Ah-ha ha-ha-ha
46 NNS1: Yeah

Extract 8 [Conversation 2]
182 NNS2: Yeah we em: don’t understand what they say (0.9) em: but when em: we see em: talk face to face we understand
184 NS2: Yeah
185 NNS2: So (.) em: we try to (1.2) use: the (text) message Ah-ha-ha-ha-ha-ha-ha
186 NS2: Yeah Yeah
187 NNS2: It’s (weird) Right?

Extract 9 [Conversation 3]
197 NNS3: Yeah It depends em: what you like (.) like if you go to (0.8) the cheapest Place: (0.5) in Thailand (.) (depart) em: department store (1.1) for (1.2) only clothes (1.5) it’s very very cheap but you have to buy for dozen.
200 NS3: (Uhm)
201 NNS3: 12(.)12 piece of (them) Aha-ha-ha
202 NS3: Aha-ha

Extracts 7-9 show that NNSs either omitted or overused articles in their utterances (lines 44, 185, 197). NNS1 fails to put the article ‘the’ for a specific noun phrase ‘nice city’ while NNS2 and NNS3 place ‘the’ for unspecific noun phrases ‘text message’ and cheapest place’. It is obvious that the three participants are not able to use articles correctly even though they are aware of their existence. However, their linguistic faults are not corrected by NSs. NS1 and NS2’s responses are ‘yeah’ at lines 46 and 186; NS3 simply replies ‘uhm’ in the next turn. These instances point to the NSs paying attention to comprehensibility of the conveyed meaning, though without a proper use of the required articles.

5.5 The occurrence of repair activity for comprehension checks
The occurrence of repair activity for comprehension checks by the NSs deserves a close investigation. Even though ungrammatical utterances are more obviously produced, the three NSs began repair activity when NNSs provided unclear information from their previous utterances. All the interactions ran smoothly with a few understanding check. This study is similar to other studies which focus on the problems in understanding, speaking, and hearing with some types of repairs are used (Wong, 2000; Schegloff,
The most frequent type of repair is ‘other initiated, self-repaired’. The NSs perform to offer the opportunity for NNSs to do self-repair by initiating questions and repeating partial information of the previous turn, for example. Extracts 11-13 display repair activities in NS/NSS interactions.

**Extract 10 [Conversation 3]**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line</th>
<th>NS3:</th>
<th>NNS3:</th>
<th>NS3:</th>
<th>NNS3:</th>
<th>NS3:</th>
<th>NNS3:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Where where in Singapore?</td>
<td>Em:: Just only (0.8) for language school</td>
<td>Okay</td>
<td>TS EF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
<td>What’s it called sorry?</td>
<td></td>
<td>TS EF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td></td>
<td>(EA)</td>
<td>Yeah EF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first type of NTRIs (Next Turn Repair Initiations) is the use of ‘Wh – word’, such as who, what, where, when, why, how. In the obtained data, these words are used by the NS speakers to ask for clarification in the previous turn with either rising or falling intonation. In this extract, the NS3 produces, ‘what’s it called sorry?’ at line 45 with the rising intonation, indicating that he has a mishearing problem about the word ‘EF’ as a trouble source at line 44. It is assumed that the word ‘EF’ is a place which NS3 might not have heard before. Secondly, the response to the repair initiation is a token by NNS3. However, the second attempt of repair is made (line 47), showing a full repeat of the previous turn for checking the received information. The second reply by NNS3 (line 48) is a self-repair to confirm the place called ‘EF’.

**Extract 11 [Conversation 3]**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line</th>
<th>NS3:</th>
<th>NNS3:</th>
<th>NS3:</th>
<th>NNS3:</th>
<th>NS3:</th>
<th>NNS3:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>242</td>
<td>So: (0.9) What are you doing in England now?</td>
<td>Em::::::: Actually (0.7) At this time em::: I (0.8) 29te::nd (0.5) to (0.5) pre::essional.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>245</td>
<td>To what sorry::</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>246</td>
<td>Pre::essional (0.7) em: course::</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>247</td>
<td>Pre::essional (1.5) (what)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>248</td>
<td>Pre::essional: before I enter to (0.8) the Master Degree:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>250</td>
<td>Oh::: Okay</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Another occurrence of repair activity in this study is a partial repetition of the previous turn. These forms are varied depending on what possible utterance is received by the hearer and then produced in return by the other speaker. In Extract 11, NS3 initiates a partial repeat, to what sorry?, with a rising intonation at line 245 to ask for clarification. NNS3 makes a self-repair at line 246. Later on, NNS3 generates the detailed explanation about the trouble-source ‘pre-sessional’ at line 248.

**Extract 12 [Conversation 3]**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Line</th>
<th>NNS3:</th>
<th>NS3:</th>
<th>NNS3:</th>
<th>NS3:</th>
<th>NNS3:</th>
<th>NS3:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>159</td>
<td>I (can) I can’t re:member the em:: (1.1): night clu:b in Singapore like em::</td>
<td>Metro::</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>160</td>
<td>Metro::</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>161</td>
<td></td>
<td>Metro::</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>162</td>
<td>Like em::: music (3.2) the the Techno::</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>163</td>
<td>Oh Techno: Okay</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

29
NNS3: Yeah I (can’t) remember the na:me (. ) Yeah:::
NS3: Ahh-ha ah-ha ah-ha
NNS3: For like tha:t so (unintelligible sound) Yeah:::
NS3: Uhm:::
NNS3: Li:ke a Techno::
NS3: (Wha) what do you mean (. ) the name of the clu:b or:::
NNS3: Yeah:::
NS3: There are a lo:t of techno clubs in Singapo:re:
NNS3: I think that has a lo:t.

Another type of NTRIs is the use of a discourse marker “you mean” plus to clarify the meaning. This repair type normally requires a sufficient understanding to clarify or rephrase. In Extract 12, NS3 is confused with the word ‘Techno’ in the previous turns. Line 163 shows NNS3 saying: ‘I can’t remember the name’ which conveys the meaning that she has been to one techno club in Singapore but cannot remember the name. At line 169, NS3 initiates the repair with the discourse marker ‘you mean’ and a possible understanding of the club’s name. Finally, NN3 responds with an affirmative response at line 170.

6. Conclusion

The present study demonstrates how the CA method was used to study repair activities the NSs used in tackling error types of linguistics and comprehension in nature. The analysis has presented some significant points between the NS/NSS interactions outside the classroom. The interesting points include the most frequent ungrammatical types produced by the Thai-NNSs: (1) subject and verb agreement, (2) English tenses, and (3) articles. The NSs are likely to accept or put up with the ungrammatical phenomenon. The NSs tend to repair when checking their understanding of the NNS utterances. The use of ‘Wh – word’, and a full repeat of the previous turn are used by NSs when in need of clarification.

In conclusion, the researcher would like to note that this study is a small-scaled research with six participants in three NS-NNS pairs. The obtained findings are not expected to generalize the results to other NS-NNS interaction contexts. From the analyzed data as shown in various Extracts, the researcher simply would like to call attention from language practitioners or trainers who are NNS that NS speakers in fact tend focus on meaning of the speaker’s utterance rather than grammatical language forms. They use repair techniques to clarify target meaning in interacting with their NNS conversational partners. Pedagogic implications on this point are for NNS language teachers to assist learners to communicate their meaning in the first place. Once communication is possible for learners in taking turns as conversational partners—the speaker and the hearer, language teachers can then assist learners to understand their major errors and monitor their own errors themselves in interactions.

7. The Author

Luqman Mayi is a Professor at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Princess of Naradhiwas University, Thailand. Her research interest is in the areas of NS and NNS conversational analysis, Thai-English interactions, and development of speaking skills.

8. References


Implementation of the Process-Genre Approach in an English-as-a-Foreign-Language Classroom in Thailand: A Case Study

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Abstract:
This study explored the implementation of the Process-Genre Approach in a classroom at Rajamangala University of Technology Isan, Surin Campus. The participants were 15 first-year students who were given the task of writing a story of the Recount genre. The teaching unit was designed to cover 13 teaching hours and contained five stages: (1) Building up Field Knowledge, (2) Modeling the Text, (3) Drafting, (4) Rewriting, and (5) Publishing. Data were obtained from students’ written texts prior to and after being taught by the Process-Genre Approach. The results of the study reveal that the Process-Genre Approach had positive effects on the majority of students’ writing ability. After they were taught by this approach, they were able to write a relatively more successful story. Analyses of their final drafts showed that they had a better control of the generic structure. The results conformed to the typical generic structure of the Recount, containing (1) the Orientation, (2) Series of Events and (3) Evaluation. In addition, their drafts exhibited better control of language features including use of specific participants, simple past tense, doing verbs, and temporal conjunctions (Derewianka, 1990). Hence, the Process-Genre Approach appears to be a viable alternative approach for teaching writing to Thai students.

Keywords: Genre-based approach, Recount, generic structure, and language features

1. Introduction

Despite Thai students learning English for a number of years, their English proficiency is less than satisfactory, particularly their writing skills. One of the explanations of this is that they have insufficient knowledge of vocabulary and connectors (Padgate, 2008). For example, they do not know which word choices or connectors they should use in given contexts. Furthermore, they have inadequate knowledge of grammatical structure and organization of ideas. This inhibits them from producing comprehensible texts and expressing their ideas to their readers clearly and effectively. Besides, they lack opportunities to practice writing beyond the sentence level, many being able to write sentences correctly but at a loss when asked to write a paragraph or an essay (Gao, 2007; Padgate, 2008).

Zamel (1985, cited in Padgate, 2008) believed that most teachers tend to view themselves as “language” teachers rather than “writing” teachers, generally teaching students to write to fulfill the requirements of activities, most of which emphasize vocabulary and sentence structures. For example, students may be asked to put words, such as vocabulary or connectors, into blank spaces to complete or change sentences from active to passive voice by imitation of given examples (Tarnopolsky, 2000). While these may provide opportunities to practice their grammatical knowledge, they are given little chance to learn how to write to express their ideas and, importantly, to develop their writing process at a discourse level (Gao, 2007; Padgate, 2008).

As writing is normally required for higher education and job employment, it is necessary for teachers to pay attention to their students’ writing ability. Like many other
Thai students, the writing ability of students at Rajamangala University of Technology Isan, Surin Campus needs to be greatly improved. Most students in the researcher’s class are not proficient in their writing because of their inadequate knowledge of vocabulary, grammatical structure, and organization of ideas. Some can successfully write at a sentence level but many struggle to write at a paragraph level. This research project took a case study approach and explored the use of the hybrid approach called the Process-Genre Approach in one classroom at the university. The goal of the research was to explore the effects this approach had on students’ writing. Since it is a case study, its findings cannot be generalized to all Thai classrooms or even to all Thai university classrooms, but it can provide insights into the effects of the approach on students’ writing ability.

2. Approaches to Teaching Writing

Prior to an explanation of the Process-Genre Approach is, it is important to discuss some approaches which have been influential in English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts.

2.1 Product Approach

The Product Approach has long been used in teaching writing in ESL and EFL contexts (Gao, 2007), being referred to as “a traditional approach in which students are encouraged to mimic a model text, usually presented and analyzed at an early stage” (Gabrielatos, cited in Hasan and Akhand, 2010: 78). It emphasizes the final product more than the process of writing. According to Pincas (1982: 22), there are four stages of the Product Approach:

(a) Familiarization: Students study language and structure in the sample model text.
(b) Controlled writing: Students are required to practice writing using the expressions and vocabulary that they have learnt during the Familiarization stage.
(c) Guided writing: This stage is the most important because students have to organize their ideas to produce their texts by using the form of the early stages
(d) Free writing: Students individually use the expressions and vocabulary they have learnt from previous stages to produce their own text.

The Product Approach was influential in teaching writing until the mid-1970s (Nunan, 1999). One of its advantages is that it is quite convenient for teachers to teach students because they can simply provide a model text and let their students practice writing following the given model text (Badger & White, 2000). Teachers can spend less time on correction of students’ texts as the Product Approach puts greater emphasis on form rather than on students’ generation of ideas (Gordon, 2009).

However, this approach draws criticisms from a number of educators and practitioners. As it puts great emphasis on students’ competence in the use of expressions and vocabulary for the writing task, it provides them with little or no opportunity to generate their own ideas while writing (Badger & White, 2000). Students have little freedom to write or explore their thoughts because they have to write a text which resembles the model text (Flower & Hayes, 1981). Consequently, their motivation and confidence in writing may diminish and some may feel bored and even have negative attitudes toward writing. Because of these drawbacks, the Process Approaches were developed.
2.2 Process Approaches

As mentioned above, the Product Approach focuses on the final product and encourages students to mimic a model text. However, Zamel (1983) argued that students need to be provided with opportunities to practice writing. Through writing processes, she believed that students can explore and discover their thoughts. They can engage themselves in writing freely without worrying about grammar and vocabulary. According to Tribble (1996), the stages of the Process Approaches are as follows:

1. Brainstorming: Students generate ideas by brainstorming and discussing about the topics they are interested in. A teacher encourages students to decide on topics about which they want to write.

2. Drafting: Students select one topic from the brainstorming session. Then, they start writing their paragraphs without worrying about grammatical errors as they can come back to revise them later.

3. Rewriting: This is the process of going back over the previous draft to improve it by making changes and corrections. Students may revise their writing individually or in groups.

4. Editing: Students proof-read the text by going over the draft again. They look at the language and organization of ideas and begin checking the details of grammar, vocabulary, and format.

5. Publishing: The last stage is to share a final product with an appropriate audience. Students can evaluate the effectiveness of their own writing after receiving feedback from their audience.

All writing processes are cyclical because students can revisit or move back and forth to any stage during their writing processes. For example, students can move to the pre-writing stage during rewriting to develop new ideas.

Like the Product Approach, the Process Approaches have advantages and disadvantages. One of the advantages is that they stimulate students to enjoy writing because they can write freely without any interruption from their teacher. Further, students do not have to worry about grammar and appropriate word choices while writing their first drafts as they can go back to correct them later. Thus, they feel positive to write and are less likely to experience mental block (Badger & White, 2000). Moreover, Tribble (1996) claimed that Process Approaches are flexible, allowing students to revisit any stage during their writing processes if they are unsatisfied with their works. For example, they can move back to the drafting stage during the editing stage to develop new ideas. Hence, they can revise and improve their drafts. Regarding the disadvantages, some scholars pointed out that students are not trained to write texts to achieve different social purposes. Badger and White (2000: 154) stressed that “Process Approaches have a somewhat monolithic view of writing.” That is, the approaches emphasize the same stages of writing, such as brainstorming, drafting, editing, revising, and publishing, but fail to raise students’ awareness that different text types are actually written to achieve different social purposes.

These drawbacks led to the development of newer alternative approaches. One of these is the Australian Genre-based Approach.

2.3 Australian Genre-based Approach

The Australian Genre-based Approach was initially developed by Martin and Rothery (1980, 1981) and their colleagues, Christie (1984), Hammond (1987), Derewianka (1990), and Hammond, Burns, Joyce, Brosnan, and Gerot (1992). It draws on
the Systematic Functional Linguistic theory developed by Halliday and Hasan (1985). According to the genre theorists, the meaning of any text can only be understood in relation to the context in which it is produced. This includes Context of Situation and Context of Culture.

Context of Situation refers to the social environment of the text which consists of three variables (Hammond et al., 1992):

(a) Field refers to the topic or the subject-matter being talked about, such as cooking, a tourist attraction, and economics.
(b) Tenor refers to the relationship between participants or the audience, such as writer and reader; speaker and listener.
(c) Mode concerns the channel of communication, such as spoken and written.

Context of Culture refers to values and beliefs. As each culture has different values and beliefs, each has different ways to get things done (Hammond et al., 1982). This results in different kinds of texts or genres which have different social purposes to achieve. Consequently, each genre displays a different generic structure (or textual organization) and language features (typical language used to convey meanings, such as nouns, pronouns, verbs and conjunctions).

Generally, there are two major types of genre, factual and story genre. Factual genre aims to describe, explain, and present a particular thing, place, or person (Martin, 1984). Some examples are Description and Report. On the other hand, story genre intends to entertain, inform, and retell events (Martin, 1984). Two examples of story genre are Recount and Narrative. The table below displays different types of genres and their generic structures and language features.

Table 1: Types of genres and their generic structure and language features (Hammond, Burns, Joyce, Brosnan and Gerot, 1992)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genre</th>
<th>Types of Genre</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Generic structure</th>
<th>Language Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Factual | Description | To describe a particular person, place, and thing. | -Identification   
  -Description | - particular noun  
  - simple past tense  
  - verbs of being and having  
  - adjectives |
| Report | To provide information about natural and non-natural phenomena. | -Title  
  -General statement  
  -Description | - general noun  
  - present simple tense  
  - some technical terms  
  - verbs of being and having |
| Story | Recount | To retell events. | -Orientation  
  -Series of event  
  -Evaluation | - specific noun  
  - past tense  
  - verb of doing |
### Genre Types of Genre Purpose Generic structure Language Features

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genre</th>
<th>Types of Genre</th>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>Generic structure</th>
<th>Language Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(optional)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>temporal conjunctions, prepositional phrase of time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>To entertain or inform</td>
<td>Orientation, Complication, Moral</td>
<td>specific participant, conjunctions, simple past tense, first or third person pronoun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 2.4 Teaching Learning Cycle Model

To systematically and effectively implement the Genre-based Approach in the classroom, genre theorists developed the Teaching Learning Cycle that includes four cyclical stages. While writing, students can go back to any stage they want until they are ready to write up their final draft (Hammond et al, 1992).

![Teaching Learning Cycle Model](image)

**Figure 1:** Teaching Learning Cycle Model (Hammond et al., 1992, p.17)

Stage 1 – Building up the field knowledge: Students brainstorm and gather information about the topic through different kinds of activities, such as discussion, watching a video clip, note-taking, and oral presentation.

Stage 2 – Modeling of text: Students learn about the social purpose of a model text, and its generic structure and language features. They are also encouraged to analyze the generic structure and language features of the model text given by the teacher.
Stage 3 – Joint negotiation: The teacher and students jointly construct a text which resembles the model text. The teacher encourages the students to express their ideas while acting as a scribe and facilitator, jotting down students’ ideas and helping transforming students’ spoken language to a written one.

Stage 4 – Independent construction: Students practice writing the text independently, applying what they have learnt from previous stages to their own text.

As mentioned above, the Process Approach helps students to practice writing by allowing them to write several drafts until they get the best one. The Genre-based Approach enables students to be aware of the different types of texts and generic structures and language features peculiar to each before writing. For these reasons, both approaches are considered complementary to one another.

In the researcher’s view, it would be interesting to integrate both approaches for teaching writing in the EFL classroom.

2.5 Process-Genre Approach

At Rajamangala University of Technology Isan, Surin Campus, the location of this research project, the proposed Process-Genre Approach includes five stages: (1) Building up Field Knowledge, (2) Modeling of the Text, (3) Drafting, (4) Rewriting, and (5) Publishing.

Building up Field Knowledge aims to provide students with opportunities to learn about the context of the text and relevant vocabulary so that they have schema about what they are expected to write about. During the Modeling of the Text stage, students are expected to analyze the social purpose, generic structures, and language features of the model texts. It should be noted, however, that Joint Negotiation is deliberately excluded from this teaching unit. One of the reasons is that, according to Kongpetch (2006), the purpose of this stage is to provide the students with opportunity to express their ideas and, more importantly, to practice writing. The teacher needs to encourage their students to jointly write up their own texts which are similar to the model text. This stage can be rather time-consuming as each student may have different ideas. The teacher needs to pay attention to most of them so that they are not ignored. At the same time, the teacher needs to consider whose ideas or sentences should be best put in the jointly-constructed text. In the Thai EFL context where teachers are expected to cover a number of teaching units within a certain period, this stage appears to be rather impractical as it may last up to between three and six hours. Kongpetch (2006) added that, during the Joint Negotiation stage, the teacher’s role is to help students to transform their spoken language to written language. To help their students to write up and complete their texts, the teacher may unintentionally impose his/her ideas in the students’ texts. In some cases, the teacher may even write his/her own sentences in the students’ texts because he/she wants to get the text done as well as possible. Unfortunately, the final text becomes the teacher’s own text, rather than the students’.

Independent Construction is also excluded because it is similar to the Drafting stage proposed by the Process Approaches. In fact, the Drafting, Rewriting, and Publishing stages are chosen to replace the Joint-Negotiation and Independent Constructions stages. During Drafting and Rewriting stages, students are allowed to practice writing their own texts independently, and they can write and rewrite as many drafts as they want. For the Publishing stage, students are encouraged to show their
finished texts to their friends and their selected audience. By doing so, they can share their ideas and writing experience, and give feedback to one another.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Research Context

Because this research project was an exploratory study, the Process-Genre Approach was implemented in an existing classroom, an English and Communication class taught in the second semester of the academic year 2012. The course emphasized the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Relevant to this study, one of the units in the course focused on past simple tense. Its objective was to teach students how to re-tell past events. There were 40 first year students who enrolled in the course. All of them passed the course English for Study Skills Development taught in the first semester. This course aimed to enable students to experience and develop basic English skills appropriate for study in a university. The final grades from the English for Study Skills Development course were four with A, seven B+, 15 B, seven C+, five C, and two D. All of the students were invited to participate in the research project. However, data was only collected only from the 15 students who agreed to participate in the project. They were referred to by pseudonyms and their data were accessed only by the researcher and her supervisor to protect their identities. During the data collection period, all students were taught using the same materials and were evaluated by the same criteria to make sure that all students were treated fairly. None of the students received extra marks for their involvement in the research project.

The researcher fulfilled the role of participant observer as she was both researcher and teacher. This occurred because she was the only person at the Department of Western Languages, Rajamangala University of Technology Isan, Surin Campus who knew enough about the Australian Genre-based Approach to apply it in the classroom through the Process-Genre teaching practice. To overcome the problems of being both teacher and researcher in the classroom, she collected different kinds of data, including photocopies of students’ written texts and audio-recordings of an informal discussion between students and herself at the end of the teaching unit.

3.2 Research Design

A teaching unit was designed to investigate the effects of the Process-Genre Approach on students’ Recount writing ability. As mentioned earlier, the Process-Genre Approach includes five teaching stages, Building up Field Knowledge, Modeling of Text, Drafting, Rewriting, and Publishing. While the first two stages were from the Teaching-Learning Cycle affiliated with the Genre-based Approach, the last three were from the Process Approaches. The activities associated with each teaching stage are provided in Appendix I.

4. Data Collection

The data collection was carried out throughout the period of 13 hours of teaching from January 10, 2013 to January 20, 2013. It should be noted that, prior to the implementation of the Process-Genre Approach in the classroom, a Pre-Writing activity was carried out for an hour. All 15 students were asked to write a short paragraph on the topic “My Weekend” and their drafts were collected and photocopied for later comparison with their Recount final drafts after being taught by the Process-Genre Approach.
While being taught by the Process-Genre Approach, students were asked to practice writing three drafts of the Recount. Zamel (1983) stated that students should be provided with opportunities to write drafts as it is unrealistic to expect students to write successfully and effectively at their first attempt. Yet, due to time constraints, only three drafts were allowed. For their first and second drafts, students received feedback from the teacher/researcher concerning their control of generic structure and language features for improvement of their writing. However, only their final drafts were collected and used for detailed analysis. As mentioned above, their final drafts of the Recount type were compared with their pre-writing drafts on the topic “My Weekend” to shed light on the effects of the Process-Approach on their writing ability.

After the implementation of the teaching unit, informal discussions were carried out in groups, each consisting of five students. Each discussion lasted approximately 15 minutes and was carried out in Thai so that students could express their ideas freely. Students’ were asked to respond to the guided questions (Appendix II). Later, the transcripts of the informal discussions were transcribed, and the major issues were summarized and discussed. The obtained data were used as the supplementary data to the analyses of students’ written texts to shed light on the effects of the Process-Genre Approach on students’ writing ability.

5. Data Analysis

Analysis of the students’ Pre-Writing drafts, written prior to being taught by the Process-Genre Approach, and their third drafts, written after being taught by the Process-Genre Approach, drew on the works of Martin and Rothery (1980, 1981) and their colleagues, Christie (1984), Hammond (1987), Derewianka (1990), and Hammond et al (1992). They explained that a successful writer should demonstrate a good control of generic structure and language features typical of the Recount. The following table illustrates these.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Purpose</th>
<th>To retell series of events</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Generic Structure</td>
<td>Orientation ^ Series of Events ^ [Evaluation]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Orientation provides background information to the topic.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Series of events give details of the events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evaluation (optional) is where the writer makes comment or expresses how he/she feels about the events.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Features</td>
<td>Specific participant (or proper noun) e.g. <em>Ubon Ratchathanee</em> and <em>Tom Yum Goong</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Past tense e.g. <em>visited</em> the museum near the public library.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Verb of doing e.g. <em>cooked</em>, <em>walked</em>, and <em>took</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Temporal conjunctions e.g. <em>then</em>, <em>after that</em>, and <em>later</em>.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Prepositional phrases of time e.g. <em>at 9 a.m.</em>, <em>at noon</em>, and <em>around 4 p.m.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Apart from the students’ control of generic structure and language features of the Recount, they also evaluated whether they had good control of grammatical structure at a sentence level. In fact, the control of grammatical structure at a sentence level is neither a feature of the Process Approaches nor the Genre-based Approach, both of which were originally developed in the ESL contexts. Yet, the researcher decided to include this aspect in the analysis of the students’ written texts. One of the reasons was that grammatical accuracy is highly valued in most written texts because grammar assists students to convey their ideas to the audience clearly (Knapp & Watkins, 1994). Text is a
permanent record in communication. Therefore, students should produce written texts which employ accurate grammatical structures to advance their English (Baleghizadeh & Gordani, 2012). Unlike ESL students, EFL students are exposed to English language, particularly writing, mainly in the language classroom. It is beneficial for a teacher to explain to their students their grammatical strengths and weaknesses so that they are able to achieve more effective writing.

Each draft was marked out of 10 to indicate the level of success of the students’ work. The mark distribution was as follows: generic structure (3 marks), language features (4 marks), and control of grammatical structure at a sentence level (3 marks). Students who wrote very successful texts received marks of nine or ten. Their drafts showed a complete control of generic structure and language features typical of the Recount. In addition, their texts contained only a small number of grammatical mistakes which did not affect the comprehension of the texts.

Students who wrote moderately successful texts received seven or eight marks. Their texts showed good control of generic structure, moderate control of language features, and their grammatical mistakes at a sentence level were found in a greater number.

On the other hand, students who wrote less than satisfactory texts received five or six marks. Their texts showed little control of generic structure and language features. Further, they made a wide range of grammatical mistakes, some of which considerably affected the comprehension of the texts.

6. Results and Discussion

Analysis of all students’ pre-writing drafts showed that the students had low writing ability. Most of them wrote short sentences that were simply put next to one another. Hence, their texts did not exhibit the generic structure of the Recount. More specifically, their texts did not contain Orientation, Series of Events, and Evaluation. This was probably because they were not yet aware of the genre structure of Recount. As for language features, none could use the past tense, temporal conjunctions, and prepositional phrases of time to describe and link their past activities chronologically. Regarding their control of grammatical structure at a sentence level, many of them wrote incomplete sentences. Further, they made a number of grammatical mistakes. This implied their poor knowledge of grammatical accuracy required for writing. An example of students’ pre-writing text is given in Appendix III.

On the other hand, the analysis of the 15 students’ third drafts of the Recount revealed that the majority of them were able to write a relatively more successful Recount. These drafts were categorized into three groups, A, B, and C. Group A contained those students who wrote a very successful Recount. Two students qualified for this group. These students’ texts exhibited a complete control of generic structure and language features. Further, their texts had only a small number of grammatical mistakes which did not affect the comprehension of their texts. Their texts received nine or ten marks. Group B contained nine students who produced moderately successful texts and received seven or eight marks. While their texts showed good control of generic structure, their control of language features was at a moderate level. Further, they made greater amounts of grammatical mistakes at a sentence level but their texts were still comprehensible. Group C included four students. Compared to the previous groups, their texts were poorly written as they had little control of generic structure and language.
features. Further, they made a wide range of ungrammatical structures at a sentence level, some of which affected the comprehension of their texts. They received five or six marks.

To illustrate the students’ control of the genre of Recount, Group A students’ written texts are explained and discussed below in terms of their control of generic structure, language features, and grammatical structure at a sentence level.

6.1 Students’ Control of Generic Structure
Analysis of Group A students’ texts revealed that both Pook and Nuch, the authors, had a good control of generic structure. Their texts clearly displayed Orientation, Series of Events, and Evaluation.

My Weekend

(I) Orientation

1. On my last weekend, I visited my uncle in Roi Et with my family.

(II) Series of events

2. We went to Roi Et 8 a.m. by car. 3. Then, we went shopping. 4. My father and mother bought some food for lunch. 5. I bought some apples and bananas. 6. My brother bought some candy. 7. At noon, we had lunch at my uncle’s house.

8. Around 6 p.m., I watched television in the room. 9. My uncle cooked Tom Yum Kung and Yum Woonsen for dinner. 10. At 7 p.m., we had dinner together. 11. After dinner, we ate apples and bananas. 12. Around 10 p.m., I went to bed.

(III) Evaluation

13. I was happy very much.

Source: Pook’s text (January 17, 2013)
My Weekend

(I) Orientation

1. On my weekend, I visited my brother in 1. Ubon Ratchathani.

(II) Series of events

2. I arrived at Ubon Ratchathani at 5 a.m. by taxi. 3. At 8 a.m., my brother and I had breakfast in the restaurant. 4. Later, we went to watch the movie. 5. At noon, we had Somtam, grilled chicken and sticky rice at the restaurant. 6. After that, we shopped at Big C. 7. I bought a beautiful pink bag and black shoes. 8. My brother bought five cartoons.

9. We went back home about 8 p.m. 10. Around 11 p.m., I went to bed.

(III) Evaluation

11. I was happy.

Source: Nuch’s text (January 17, 2013)

At the beginning of their texts, both Pook and Nuch clearly identified the place and the persons whom they visited.

> 1 “On my weekend, I visited my uncle in Roi Et.” (Pook’s text)

> 1 “On my weekend, I visited my brother in Ubon Ratchathani.” (Nuch’s text)

Then they retold the events they did in chronological order.

> 2 “We went to Roi Et 8 a.m. by car”. 3 “Then, we went shopping” (Pook’s text)

> 2 “I arrived at Ubon Ratchathani at 5 a.m. by taxi”. 3 “At 8 a.m., my brother and I had a breakfast in the restaurant”. (Nuch’s text)

Later, they ended their texts with an evaluative comment.

> “I was happy very much.” (Pook’s text)

> “I was happy.” (Nuch’s text)

6.2 Students’ Use of Language Features

Analysis of the students’ texts revealed that both Pook and Nuch had good control of language features. As mentioned above, the analyzed language features included specific participants, past simple tense, verbs of doing, temporal conjunctions, and prepositional phrases of time.

6.2.1 Specific participant: In Recount, specific participants or proper nouns are normally used to indicate the places the writer visited or things they did (Hammond et al, 1992). In both students’ texts, this type of language was evident. Some examples of these are:
As the above examples indicate, both students used specific nouns “Roi Et” and “Ubon ratchathani” to give details about the places they visited. Further, they used “Tom Yum Kung” and “Yum Woonsen” to give details about the menus they ate.

6.2.2 Tense: In Recount, past simple tense is normally used for retelling the past events (Hammond et al., 1992). In both students’ texts, the use of past tense was clearly evident. Some examples are:

(2.1) 2 “We went to Roi Et 8 a.m. by car.” (Pook’s text).
(2.2) 2 “I arrived at Ubon Ratchathani at 5 a.m. by taxi.” (Nuch’s text).

6.2.3 Verb of doing: In Recount, verb of doing (or action verb) are normally used to tell what the writer did (Hammond et al., 1992). In both students’ texts, verbs of doing were found. Some examples are as follows:

(3.1) 4 “my father and mother bought some food for lunch.” (Pook’s text).
(3.2) 6 “After that, we shopped at Big C.” (Nuch’s text).

6.2.4 Temporal conjunctions and prepositional phrases of time: In Recount, temporal conjunctions and prepositional phrases of time are used to organize details of stories in chronological order (Hammond et al., 1992). In both students’ texts, both of these were effectively used. Some examples are:

(4.1) 10 “At 7 p.m., we had dinner together.” And 11 “After dinner, we ate apples and bananas.” (Pook’s text)
(4.2) 3 “At 8 a.m., my brother and I had a breakfast in the restaurant.”
And 4 “Later, we went to watch the movie.” (Nuch’s text)

6.3 Students’ Control of Grammatical Structure at a Sentence Level

Analysis of both students’ texts showed that Pook and Nuch had a good control of grammatical structure at a sentence level. The analysis of their texts drew on the following grammatical aspects: (1) singular-plural noun, (2) vocabulary, (3) punctuation, and (4) spelling. Most of their sentences were grammatically correct as shown below:

6.3.1 Singular-plural noun: singular-plural were correctly used in both students’ texts to tell an amount of objects. Some examples are:

(1.1) 11 “After dinner, we ate apples and bananas.” (Pook’s text)
(1.2) 7 “I bought a beautiful pink bag and black shoes.” (Nuch’s text)

6.3.2 Vocabulary: Everyday life vocabulary was appropriately employed in both students’ texts. To illustrate this:

(2.1) 10 “At 7 p.m., we had dinner together.” (Pook’s text)
(2.2) 3 “At 8 a.m., my brother and I had breakfast in the restaurant.”
(Nuch’s text)

The examples showed that the writers accurately used word “had” with the words like “dinner” and “breakfast” to indicate their actions of “eating.”
6.3.3 Punctuation: Punctuation was correctly used in many places throughout their texts. Some examples are:

(3.1) "Around 10 p.m., I went to bed." (Pook’s text)
(3.2) "After that, we shopped at Big C." (Nuch’s text)

As the above examples indicated, both students used comma (,) and full stop (.) in the correct places.

6.3.4 Spelling: words in both students’ texts were spelt correctly. The following sentences exemplified this:

(4.1) "My uncle cooked Tom Yum Kung and Yum Woonsen for dinner."
(Pook’s text)
(4.2) "At noon, we had Somtam, grilled chicken and sticky rice at the restaurant."
(Nuch’s text)

In brief, the students in group A wrote successful Recounts. Drawing on the informal interview after the teaching unit being completed, they noted that the Process-Genre Approach helped them to write successful drafts because they had engaged themselves in activities which required them to analyze the model texts prior to embarking on writing their own Recount independently. Therefore, they were aware of the way in which the Recount is constructed and “how” to write theirs successfully.

7. Conclusion

It is evident that the Process-Genre Approach positively enhanced students’ ability in writing the Recount type. As mentioned earlier, this approach was the integration of the Process Approaches and the Australia Genre-based Approach, both of which were developed in the ESL context. The distinctive feature of this approach is that it raises students’ awareness of the generic structure and language features peculiar to the Recount. Through its Modeling of Text stage, students become aware of how the text is constructed and how the language resources are used to achieve its social purpose. Hence, students are provided with explicit guidance of how to write a text. This stage is considered a missing piece of the jigsaw of the more conventional approaches. The following quote from the informal discussion between the researcher and one of the students, illustrates this.

In the first period, I felt bored. But when I participated in the teaching unit until the last stage, I enjoyed it. I think this approach is good for the writing class. It gave us opportunities to work with other students. We could help each other to analyze the model texts and we can share our ideas when we check our friend’s drafts. Analysis of the model text is good because it makes us know how we were going to write. We know the generic structure and language features necessary for producing the text. It’s a suitable approach to teach in another writing class.

(Nuch, Group A)

As for the Process Approaches, their positive feature is that they value students’ need to practice writing and recognize the importance of writing drafts (Zamel, 1983). Because of these reasons, students do not feel pressure that they have to write a perfect draft the first time. One of the students said:

In my opinion, I think... Drafting stage is very good because I have an opportunity to write and write freely.

(Kaew, Group B)
On the point of these positive features of both approaches, the researcher would like to assert that the Process-Genre Approach should be a viable alternative approach for writing teachers to develop effective writing skills in their students.

8. The Authors
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9. References


Rayapsri, K. (2013). *Using a Process- Genre Approach to Teach Recount Writing to the First Year Students at Rajamangala University of Technology Isan, Surin Campus*. An Independent Study for the Requirement of the Master of Arts in English and Communication Program, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Ubon Ratchathani University.


10. Appendices

10.1 Appendix I: The Activities Associated with Each Stage of the Teaching-Learning Cycle

Appendix I

The Activities Associated with Each Stage of the Teaching-Learning Cycle

Stage 1: Building Up Field Knowledge

The purpose of this stage was to expose students to the context in which Recount was produced. The activities for this stage were as follows.

Activity I: Teacher’s retelling her story on the topic “My Weekend”

**Purposes:**

1. To raise students’ awareness of the purpose of Recount.

2. To expose students to language features typical of the genre, including use of specific nouns, past tense, verb of doing, temporal conjunctions, and prepositional phrases of time.
Tasks: The teacher distributed the story on “My weekend” to the students to read. Then, they were asked to answer the questions that follow.

My Weekend

On my weekend, I visited my friend in Bangkok.

I arrived at Bangkok at 5 a.m. by bus. Then, I took a taxi to my friend’s condominium. At 8 a.m., my friend and I had a breakfast in the room. My friend cooked soft boiled rice with shrimp for me. Later, we went to The Temple of Emerald Buddha. At noon we had Sukiyaki for lunch in MBK center. After that, we shopped at Siam Square until 5 p.m. I bought a beautiful pink purse and green bag.

We went back to the condominium about 8 p.m. I took a bath and watched the news but my friend did her homework. Around 11 p.m. I went to bed.

It was a wonderful day for me.

Questions:
(1) What did I do and when?
(2) Where did I go? (with whom?)
(3) What were the activities?
(4) How did I feel?
(5) Why did I tell you this story?

Activity 2: Rearrange the sentences to make a complete Recount

Purposes: (1) To familiarize students to a series of past events in a chronological order.
(2) To expose students to the language features typical of the Recount, including specific nouns, past tense, verb of doing, temporal conjunctions, and prepositional phrases of time.

Tasks: Students were asked to rearrange the given sentences. At the end of the activity, the teacher explained to them the purpose of the Recount so that they were aware that it was constructed to retell the past events which an individual was engaged in.

Instructions: The following sentences are not in correct order. Rearrange them so that they are in the correct order. The first sentence has already been done for you.

_____ First, the museum guide took us to the dinosaur exhibition. Dinosaurs look great.
_____ Around 4 p.m. we arrived at home.
_____ My mother cooked barbeque for dinner. I enjoyed the dinner very much.
___1___ On my holiday, I visited the museum with my mother.
_____ At noon, we ate Papaya Salad, grilled chicken and sticky rice at the canteen.
It was the wonderful day for me to do the activity with my mother. At 9 a.m. we arrived at the museum by car. After lunch, we bought some souvenir at the shop and went back home. Next, the guide took us to see another exhibition of animal’s life.

Stage 2: Modeling of Texts
The purpose of this stage was to expose students to the model text of Recount so that they were aware of the way in which the genre of Recount was constructed to achieve its purpose.

The activities below emphasized analysis of generic structure and language features—typical of the genre.

Activity 1: Modeling of Texts

Purpose: To provide students with opportunities to analyze the generic structure and language features of the Recount and raise students’ awareness of how it is constructed to achieve its social purpose.

During this stage, students were asked to analyze the social purpose, generic structure and language features of the genre of Recount (Model Text 1) and of Description (Model Text 2) so that they were aware that each genre differs. More importantly, students would realize that the social purpose, generic structure, and language features of the Recount, a story genre, is significantly different from those of the genre of Description, a factual genre.

Students were encouraged to respond to the following guided questions:

(1) What is the purpose of the text?
(2) Who is the text written for?
(3) In model text 1, which sentences tell the beginning of the story?
(4) In model text 1, which sentences show the details of the story? What happened?
(5) In model text 1, which sentence concludes the story?
(6) In model text 2, what does the first paragraph tell you?
(7) In model text 2, what does the second paragraph tell you?
(8) In model text 2, what does the third paragraph tell you?
(9) In model text 2, what does the fourth paragraph tell you?
(10) What kinds of noun are used in each text? Are they general or specific?
(11) What kinds of pronoun are used in each text?
(12) What kinds of tense are used in each text?
(13) What kinds of conjunction are used?
(14) What kinds of prepositional phrase are used?

It should be noted that the purposes for questions 1 and 2 were to encourage students to recognize the social purposes of the model texts. Questions 3-9 concerned the generic structure and questions 10-14 were about language features. According to Martin and Rothery (1980, 1981), Christie (1984), Hammond (1987), Derewianka (1990), it is important that, during the Modeling of Text stage, the teacher should act as a facilitator rather than a lecturer teaching students about the social purpose, generic structure, and language features of the model texts. In other words, the teacher should encourage students to find out the social purpose, generic structure, and language features of the
model texts by themselves so that they are aware that the structure of the genre is not simply a template to imitate, but a guideline for the way in which the text is constructed to achieve its purpose.

**Text 1: Recount**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My Holiday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(I) On my holiday, I stayed at home with my family.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(II) My father and mother watched television in the living room. I played games with my brother. At noon, we had lunch at Big-C. We ate Sukiyaki and ice cream. Then, we went shopping. I bought some books in the bookstore. My brother bought a movie DVD. My father and mother bought some food for dinner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(III) Around 5 p.m., we went back home. I helped my mother to prepare dinner. She made grilled chicken, Somtam and salad. At 7 p.m., we had dinner together. After dinner, we watched the movie and took a shower. Around 11 p.m., I went to bed. I was happy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Text 2: Description**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>My favorite actor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(I) My favorite actor is Mark, Prin Suparat. He is twenty two years old, and his home town is in Chiang Mai.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(II) He is 183 centimeters tall. He has straight short black hair and charming eyes. His face is oval and he is handsome.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(III) He studies at Faculty of Tourism and Hospitality Industry, Rangsit University.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(IV) He likes singing, reading and playing soccer. He plays soccer with his friends when he has free time. Nadech Kugimiya and Ken Phupoom Phongpanu always play soccer with him.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Recount is to retell record of events, the Description aims to describe a particular person place and thing.

The generic structure of Recount includes Orientation (in the first paragraph), Series of events (in the second paragraph) and Evaluation (in the last sentence). By contrast, the genre structure of Description includes Identification (in the first paragraph) and Description (in the second, third and fourth paragraph). In paragraph 2, the writer
described his/her favorite actor’s appearance. In paragraphs 3 and 4, the writer described the educational background and free time activities of his/her favorite actor.

For language features, simple past tense is often used in Recount, such as “I played game with my brother” to retell what the writer did in the past. However, as Description aims to provide factual information about a phenomena, present simple tense is commonly found like in “He plays soccer with his friends”. Verbs of doing are typical of Recount such as made, went and watched to tell what the writer did. But, for the Description, verbs of being are normally used to describe a person, place, or thing. Typical of Recount, temporal conjunctions and prepositional phrases of time are commonly found, for example then, later, after dinner, at noon, and around 5 p.m. to retell the events in chronological order.

**Activity 2: Analysis of the model texts**

**Purposes:** To provide students with opportunities to analyze the generic structure and language features of the Recount.

During this stage, students were asked to analyze the social purpose, generic structure and language features of the genre of Recount which they had rearranged in stage 1. The complete text is as follows.

On my holiday, I visited the museum with my mother.

At 9 a.m. we arrived at the museum by car. First, the museum guide took us to the dinosaur exhibition. Dinosaurs look great. Next, the guide took us to see another exhibition of animal’s life. At noon, we ate Papaya Salad, grilled chicken and sticky rice at the canteen. After lunch, we bought some souvenir at the shop and went back home.

Around 4 p.m. we arrived at home. My mother cooked barbeque for dinner. I enjoyed the dinner very much.

It was the wonderful day for me to do the activity with my mother.

While conducting this activity, I, as a teacher, asked them the following questions.

(1) What is the purpose of the text?
(2) Who is the text written for?
(3) In model text1, which sentences tell the beginning of the story?
(4) In model text1, what sentences show the details of the story? What happened?
(5) In model text1, which sentence concludes the story?
(6) What kinds of noun are used in each text? Are they general or specific?
(7) What kinds of tense are used in each text?
(8) What kinds of conjunction and are used?
(9) What kinds of prepositional phrase are used?

The purposes for questions 1 and 2 were to encourage students to recognize the social purposes of the model text. Questions 3-5 concerned the generic structure and questions 6-9 were about language features.

**Stage 3: Drafting**

**Purpose:** To provide students with a chance to practice their writing skills.

Students were asked to write their first draft on the topic “My weekend”. After they finished writing it, they were asked to take turns reading theirs and giving feedback to one another. To enable them to evaluate both their own and their friends’ drafts, an evaluation sheet was provided as a guideline (see Appendix C).

**Stage 4: Rewriting**

**Purpose:** To allow students to rewrite their second and third drafts based on the comments of their friends and a teacher.

After receiving feedback from their friends, students wrote their second draft and submitted it to the teacher. Then the teacher gave her feedback to each student using the evaluation sheet (see Appendix D). Later, students wrote their third draft and submitted it to the teacher for evaluation.

**Stage 5: Publishing**

**Purpose:** To provide students with a chance to share their third or final draft to the class.

Students were asked to show their third draft to their friends on the provided board. Then they took turn reading one another’s drafts. By doing so, students could share their ideas and writing experiences with their friends.

**10.2 Appendix II: Guided Questions for Informal Discussion**

### Appendix II

**Guided Questions for Informal Discussion**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Stages and activities</th>
<th>Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. Building up the Field Knowledge</td>
<td>1.1 Teacher’s weekend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.2 Rearranging sentences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. Modeling of the text</td>
<td>Model text analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Drafting</td>
<td>Writing the first draft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. Rewriting</td>
<td>Writing the second draft and third draft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. Publishing</td>
<td>Sharing the third draft to the audience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(1) Which of the following stage do you like most/ least? Why?
(2) Does the Process-Genre Approach help you write better? If so, how?
(3) In your opinion, how should the Process-Genre Approach be improved?
(4) What are the advantages and disadvantages of the Process-Genre Approach?

10.3 Appendix III: Students’ Pre-Writing Text

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Prewriting</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My Weekend</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I go to home.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I go to Buriram</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I play I–Paid your sister</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I take Photo update Facebook.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I go to hospital.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I go to market</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I go to Bic C.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I play Facebook.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I watch movie with boyfriend.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I go to drink milk with my friend and boyfriend.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I go to party speed with my friend</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Nuch’s Text (January 10, 2013)
Contextual Guessing Strategy Instruction and Students’ Mastery on Phrasal Verbs
(A Quasi-Experimental Study of a State Vocational School in Tasikmalaya)

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Abstract
Phrasal verbs (Pvs) as one of the linguistic competence indicators for speakers of English as foreign language (Jacobsen, 2012: 2) present considerable difficulty for learners. One as being amongst the causes of difficulties is remembering the meaning (Pye, 1996: 698). Inferring/guessing meaning from context might be effective to be implemented in improving students’ mastery on Pvs based on the assumptions that inferencing leads to a better retention in vocabulary learning (Krashen in Verspoor, 2003: 550; Lynn & Posnansky, Jenkins, Matlock & Slocum in Zaid, 2009: 57; Bialystok, Nation, Nation & Coady, Schouten in Hulstjin (1992: 113). This study aims to measure (1) the effect of contextual guessing strategy instruction (CGSI) (adapted from Nation & Coady, 1988) on the students’ mastery on Pvs, and to investigate (2) the students’ attitudes towards the implementation CGSI. The study employs quasi-experimental study method by involving 59 second grader students. The study showed there was a positive effect on the students’ mastery on Pvs after they have been exposed with CGSI. The effectiveness can be seen from the comparison of the mean rank scores of the two groups which were 34.18 (experimental group) and 25.67 (control group). The difference was 8.51 point The Mann Whitney U test supported the significant of the effectiveness in which the P value was less than the critical alpha which means the Ha was accepted and the Ho was rejected. Besides, it was found that students had positive attitudes (affective, cognitive, behavior) on the implementation of CGSI. The finding of the students’ attitudes was consistent with the finding of the experiment. Therefore, the contextual guessing strategy instruction is worth addressing in teaching phrasal verbs as a vocabulary type in particular.

Keywords: Phrasal verbs, Contextual Guessing Strategy Instruction.

1. Introduction
1.1 Background of Study
It is said that spoken form of English is full of phrasal verbs expressions (Sangoor, 2012: 93). Chen (2007: 348) argues that phrasal verbs play rather an indispensable role in communication particularly in oral form. Accordingly, it would be useful to introduce English phrasal verbs as many as possible, especially the most common ones, in order to help them to understand English conversations in real communicative settings and to be able to participate in the conversations efficiently. However, Pvs are noted as one which presents considerable difficulties for learners. One of the causes of the difficulties is that phrasal verbs are hard to memorize in terms of the meaning (Buyukkarci, 2010: 13; Pye, 1996: 698). The meaning of phrasal verbs are not always transparent, which means they are idiomatic. The idiomatic meaning of phrasal verbs like hold up (to cause a delay for example) cannot be realized or understood based on the meaning of the individual parts. It is quite different from the meaning of the verb they are formed from (Behzadi, 2014: 52). Although learning to acquire phrasal verbs can be problematic for the learners, therefore challenging for the teachers to teach them, it is important for teachers to help their students to acquire them.

It is true that there is no best method in education. However, an effective method in teaching is needed to be explored. Teaching phrasal verbs through guessing meaning from context seems likely to be effective to implement, based on the assumption that the
retention of inferred word meanings is better retrieved and recalled than the retention of given word meanings (Bialystok, Nation, Nation & Coady, Schouten in Hulstjin, 1992:113). The approach to teaching the strategy of guessing from context which includes a-five-strategy for guessing has been developed by Nation (Takac, 2008: 78). In context-based inferencing, it is the context that determines the meaning of a lexical unit (Takac, 2008: 17). Over the past two decades, this strategy has been greatly promoted since it seems to fit in more comfortably with communicative approach.

There are several similar studies conducted which support the value of the contextual guessing strategy instruction in vocabulary learning (Redouane: 2004; Alsaawi: 2013; Paribakht and Wesche: 1998; Shahrzad: 2011; Li: 2009). The studies mentioned above seemed to share something in common, that is the argument for the use of the contextual guessing strategy instruction in improving the students’ vocabulary in general. It seems likely that contextual guessing strategy instruction may also be implemented in improving students’ mastery on phrasal verbs. Some scholars such as Celce-Murcia and Rosenweig (cited in Moon, 1997:61), Phongphio & Schmitt (2006) suggest guessing meaning from context strategy for multi-word verbs. Vernon cited in Mart (2012: 116) argues, “Students need to learn phrasal verbs as any other type of vocabulary item.” Furthermore, Nation (cited in Takac, 2008: 97) argues, “Most of vocabulary learning strategies can be applied in learning various lexical units.” Due to lack of enough research on the effect of contextual guessing strategy instruction in phrasal verbs teaching in particular, the present study sought to firstly measure the effect of the contextual guessing strategy instruction on students’ mastery on phrasal verbs; secondly it aimed to investigate the students’ attitudes on the implementation of contextual guessing strategy instruction.

1.2 Research Questions
This study formulated two research questions as follows: (1) What is the effect of contextual guessing strategy instruction on students’ mastery on phrasal verbs?; and (2) What are the students’ attitudes towards the implementation of contextual guessing strategy instruction on their mastery on phrasal verbs?

1.3 Purpose of the Research
The purpose of the study seeks to (1) measure the effect of contextual guessing strategy instruction on students’ mastery on phrasal verbs, and (2) investigate the students’ attitudes towards the implementation of phrasal verbs on their mastery on phrasal verbs.

1.4 Definition of Terms
Providing the clarification of the terms in order to avoid any kind of misinterpretation is considered to be important for a good understanding of the article.

- Phrasal verb is defined as a combination of a verb and a particle or more particles, which functions semantically and syntactically as a single unit.
- Contextual guessing strategy instruction is defined as teaching the students to guess the meaning of target words (phrasal verbs) based on the context with or without reference to the world knowledge.

1.5 Significance of the Study
Theoretically, the findings of the study are expected to contribute to the enrichment of the theories about CGSI on students’ mastery on Pvs. Practically, the
findings of the study are to realize the teachers and the students on the importance of CGSI on students’ mastery on Pvs.

2. Review of Literature

2.1 The Importance of Teaching and Learning Phrasal Verbs

Combinations of a verb and a particle or more particles which function semantically and syntactically as a single unit are known as phrasal verbs/ Pvs (Puente, 2007:1671, Sangoor, 2012: 90); they are a vocabulary type that need to be learned by English-as-a-foreign language learners. Pvs are an important feature of informal spoken communication/ discourse (Biber cited in Phongphio and Schmitt, 2006:122; Mart, 2012: 117; Buyukkarci, 2010: 13). Learning to recognize, comprehend, and actively use phrasal verbs is an inevitable part of learning English as a foreign language, simply because learners will be exposed to these verbs when they communicate with native speakers or proficient L2 speakers of English (Phongphio & Schmitt, 2006: 122). Learners would encounter them in a diverse context of use and thus they need to find out the meanings if they intend to communicate efficiently (Dagut & Laufer, Rudzka-Ostyn as cited in Farsani, 2012: 499). Therefore, it would be useful for teachers to teach phrasal verbs and learners to learn them as many as possible, especially the most common ones.

As mentioned above, the Pvs are formed from a verb and a particle or more particles. According to McCarthy and O’dell (2004: 6), “The particles are already known as prepositions and adverbs.” In contrast, Olson (2013: 12) states, “Particle used in the phrasal verb is not a preposition, although it resembles one in appearance.” Some of particles look like prepositions but actually they act as adverbs, and usually change the meaning of the verb they are concerned (Sangoor, 2012: 91). The combination of a lexical verb and a preposition with which it is semantically or syntactically associated: the verb has a literal use, but at the same time, it has a fixed association with the preposition as a prepositional verb (Sanchez, 2013: 13) not a phrasal verb.

Syntactically, there are four basic types of phrasal verbs: (1) verb+adverb (no object), e.g., break down, (2) verb+ adverb+ object or verb + object+ adverbs, e.g., put off/ put something/it off, (3) verb+ preposition+ object, e.g., take after, (4) verb+ adverb+ prepositions+ object, e.g., put up with (Acklam, 1992: 13-14). While semantically, English Pvs can be classified as first, transparent or non- idiomatic phrasal verbs in which the meaning can be easily understood even without the context, and the second is non-transparent or idiomatic phrasal verbs in which it cannot be comprehended in the same way as non-idiomatic one, (Wurmbrand and Lindstromberd as cited in Kharitonova, 2013: 33). Phrasal verbs are idiomatic when their combination cannot be guessed from its individual constituents (Saleh, 2011: 17). When asked about difficulty in learning phrasal verbs, the students mentioned remembering the meaning as one being amongst the causes of their difficulties in learning them (Pye, 1996: 698). Guessing meaning from the context which is known as contextual guessing strategy seems likely to be effective to be implemented in improving students’ mastery on phrasal verbs. The next section describes the impact of contextual guessing strategy instruction on students’ mastery on phrasal verbs.

2.2 Contextual Guessing Strategy Instruction and Its Impact on Students’ Mastery on Phrasal Verbs

Letting foreign language learners infer the meaning of an unknown word occurring in a target text, and use the information contained in the context seems likely to be effective and efficient for target language acquisition (Hulstjin, 1992: 113). This point of
view is based on two assumptions (Craik and Tulving, Jacoby, Jacoby and Craik, Craik and Begg as cited in Hulstjin, 1992: 113):

a. When subjects have to infer the solution of a problem, they will invest more mental effort than when they are given the solution of the problem.

b. Information that has been attained with more mental effort can later be better retrieved and recalled than information that has been attained with less mental effort.

With respect to English phrasal verbs, English second language learners find them complicated, difficult, and hard to memorize (Buyukkarci, 2010: 13). From a semantic perspective, some of the meaning are completely idiomatic in which the phrasal verbs cannot be deduced by analyzing the separate elements (verb and particle/s), and when put together they yield a completely different meaning (Rudzka-Ostyn as cited in Nhu & Huyen 2009: 27). It seems likely that presenting phrasal verbs in the context and asking the students to guess the meaning from the context not only enables the students to deduce the meaning and realize the usage of them, but also, it could lead to a better retention of phrasal verbs as long as the students give more cognitive effort in the guessing process. This is supported by Nation, Lynn & Posnansky, Jenkins, Matlock and Slocum as cited in Zaid (2009: 57) who state that the advantages of inferencing and meaning guessing are quite ambivalent especially when it comes to long-term retention and recall. Similarly, Krashen (cited in Verspoor, 2003: 550) states, “Inferring leads to a better retention of vocabulary, because the increased mental effort should have a positive effect on retention.”

There are different types of clues in inferring the meaning of unknown/unfamiliar word. Haastrup as cited in Zaid (2009: 57) suggests that language learners possibly use three sources of inferencing: contextual, intralingual and interlingual cues. Laufer and Bensoussan (as cited in Alsaaawi, 2013: 4) suggested that guessing ought to be taught by asking students to focus on the contextual clues. Contextual inferencing/guessing itself entails inferring/guessing the meaning of a target word based on the interpretation of its immediate context with or without reference to the world knowledge (Haastrup as cited in Cetinavci, 2014: 2671). There are at least four kinds of context clues that are quite common (Sinclair Community College, 2011: 1-4), such as: (1) examples clues, (2) definition clues, (3) description clues, and (4) opposites/antonym clues. Teachers are demanded to make their students explicitly aware of the clues in finding the meaning of the words in order to find the chance of increasing the amount of vocabulary learning (Shahrazad, 2011: 74). On the other side, sometimes, it is necessary to rely on someone’s own experience and background knowledge to figure out the meaning of a word. Sometimes, the meaning of words can be guessed just by using knowledge of the world and how things work (Robinson, 2010: 4). World knowledge gives learners the context to select the appropriate meaning of a word or to infer the meaning of an unfamiliar word in a given context (Huang & Eslami, 2013: 2).

2.3. The Implementation of Contextual Guessing Strategy Instruction

There are four main approaches to L2 vocabulary instruction: (1) context alone, in which that there is no need or even justification for direct vocabulary instruction; (2) strategy instruction, in which it also believes that context is the major source of vocabulary learning and students can deal with context on their own; (3) development plus explicit instruction, in which it argues for explicit teaching of certain types of vocabulary using a large number of techniques and even direct memorization of certain
highly frequent items, and (4) classroom activities, in which they advocate to the teaching of words along very traditional lines (Coady, 1997:245).

The present study sees that context has a very important role in vocabulary teaching-learning, but the context alone is not enough. An instruction is needed to make guessing more effective. According to Alsaawi (2013:4) “Students should be taught how to guess the meaning from the context.” Walters as cited in Alsaawi (2013: 4) commented that this strategy might enhance effectiveness of guessing.

Clarke and Nation in 1980 (cited in Schmitt, 2000: 154) and Nation and Coady (1988: 104) presented an inductive procedure/ a five-step strategy for guessing from context: (1) Finding the part of speech of the unknown word, (2) Looking at the immediate context of the unknown word and simplifying this context if necessary, (3) Looking at the wider context of the unknown word. This means looking at the relationship between the clause containing the unknown word and a surrounding clause and sentences, (4) Guessing the meaning of the unknown word, and (5) Checking that guessing is correct. In the study, the students were not required to do the first step which was to find the part of speech of the word already known to them; the students were to guess the meaning of given ‘phrasal verbs’. Those steps 2-5 above were used as the guidlines for implementing contextual guessing strategy instruction in the classroom.

Meanwhile, for the instructional program, there are three classification of activities for deriving word meanings from context (Van Daalen- Kapteijns, et. Al. As cited in Shahrzad, 2011: 71) as follows: Text oriented, word oriented, and vocabulary knowledge oriented. In the present study, the activities of deriving word meanings from context are word oriented in which the students as the learners are mainly concerned with the contextual meaning of the unknown word and deals with it in order to find out the meaning of the target word.

A proper preparation is crucial as in all language teaching preparations. Nation in Takac (2008: 80) suggests that in teaching guessing meaning from context, one needs to focus on the text and word selection. Shokouhi (2010: 76) states that in order to guess successfully from context, the learners are required to know about 19 out of 20 words (90%). Laufer and Sim as cited in Alsaawi (2013: 6) insisted that the size of the vocabulary was a main variable which might negatively affect guessing from the context because learners with a small vocabulary size were unable to utilize it effectively. Therefore, the more proficient the students are more likely to guess the words accurately (Kaivanpanah & Alavi, 2008: 80). With regard to familiarity with the topic, if the topic or main idea is familiar to the students, they have a greater possibility of correctly guessing the meaning of the word (Huang and Eslami, 2013: 2). Learners need to have time for practice in order to guess quickly without deliberately having to go through all the steps involved in the strategy. Learners need to go through all the steps with the pace increasing gradually. Teachers need to know how to analyse critically and select activities to improve the use of this strategy.

Those preparation stages that have been mentioned above might negatively affect guessing from context if they are not taken into account. Therefore, teacher ought to be aware of those variables mentioned above and keep them in mind in the preparation of the implementation of the instruction.
2.4 Attitudes
The success factor of teaching a learning process does not rely on teachers only. Students’ attitudes towards the target learning situation also have an important effect on the teaching and learning process. If learners have negative attitudes towards the language, the culture, the classroom or the teacher, learning can be impaired or even rendered ineffective (Nunan and Lamb as cited in Aseefa, 2002: 5). According to Gilbert, Fiske and Lindzey as cited in Aseefa (2002: 6), “Attitudes express passions and hates, attractions and repulsions, likes and dislikes. People have attitudes when they love or hate things or people and when they approve or disapprove of them…” Similarly, Petty et al (2003: 2) argues, “Attitudes refer to general and relatively enduring evaluations people have of other people, objects or ideas.” While Fasold as cited in Parianou (2009: 106) states, “Attitudes are to be found simply in the responses people make to social situations, which implies overt behavior.” Schiff (1970: 6) affirms that attitude is an organized set of feelings and beliefs which will influence an individual’s behavior. Someone’s attitudes refer to behaviors or feelings to a given situation. The mentalist theory, on the other hand, views that attitudes have three components: affective, behavioral and cognitive (Melander, 2003: 2).

The affective component consists of an individual’s feeling of liking and disliking about the object. Affective questions may thus offer emotion-based statements to determine how emotionally involved people are with the context. Cognitive component, on the other hand, consists of an individual’s beliefs about the object of attitude. What an individual believes does not need to be true in reality. A behavioral component on the other hand consists of an individual’s reaction in a certain way towards the object of these affects and cognitions. Questions about behavior can be about the past and what people have done or about the future and their intent (Schiff, 1970: 6-8). In the sense of teaching from context, Yue as cited in Ali (2012: 24) argues, “Students’ attitudes of learning from context depend on their attitudes towards learning the English subject itself.” Students are expected to hold positive attitudes with respect to the English subject in order to respond positively to the teaching method or technique implemented by the teacher.

2.5 Relevant Studies
There are several studies that have been conducted in the similar field. Phongphio and Schmitt (2006) conducted a study on the acquisition of word meaning from context by children of high and low ability. The study suggested that guessing from context is a strategy worth addressing in the classroom. This study provided an evidence that guessing from context can also be used successfully with multi-word verbs by Thai learners. Then, Redouane (2004) examined the efficacy of the guessing-from-context strategy in learning French words and their meanings as well as retention of those words at the university level. The findings revealed the facilitation role of guessing from context strategy in learning more French words. Moreover, the guessing-from-context technique appeared to have an impact not only on one’s immediate recall but also on one’s long term retention.

Another study was conducted by Alsaawi (2013). The study suggested that students ought to be trained, through training sessions, on how to guess. Besides, Fraser (1999) examined effectiveness of training students on how to guess the meaning from the context, and found that it had an indirect positive impact on students’ guessing. Furthermore, Shahrzad (2011) conducted a study to test the effect of instruction in deriving word meaning from incidental vocabulary learning in an EFL context. The results provided evidence that the higher a learner’s awareness of instruction in deriving word meanings, the higher the ability to recognize unknown words in the context. Then,
the study conducted by Paribakht and Wesche (1998) showed the value of instruction on vocabulary learning. Samiyan and Khorasani (2014) compared the group that received an instruction to infer the meaning of new words with the other group that did not receive the instruction. The result of the study indicated that the instruction of CGS had some effect on their long term memory.

Moreover, Li (2009) conducted a study about the second language learners’ attitudes toward English vocabulary learning strategies. It was found that successful students were more likely to use context to learn vocabulary. The interviews of successful learners revealed that they learned a great many words using this strategy. The interviews of unsuccessful learners showed that most of them considered the context too difficult to understand. They barely knew what the context was, so it was rather unlikely for them to guess the word meaning.

Those previous related studies have given the researcher some basic ideas about contextual guessing strategy instruction and its impact on the students’ vocabulary acquisition and their attitudes toward the instruction of the contextual guessing strategy. However, the previous studies tend to focus on university students’ vocabulary acquisition in general. The present study specifically investigated the implementation of the contextual guessing strategy by measuring its effect on students’ mastery on phrasal verbs. The researcher used high school students at the second grade as the subjects in the study.

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Research Design

This study was an experimental study. According to Bailey (1978: 191), “The experiment is a highly controlled method of attempting to demonstrate the existence of a causal relationship between one or more dependent variables.” The type of the experimental used was quasi experimental design since it included the experimental and the control groups without random sampling in which the researcher used the intact groups (Cresswell, 2012: 310).

3.2 Research Method

3.2.1 Participants

The participants were 59 second-grade high school students in geology mining classes at a state vocational high school in Tasikmalaya.

3.2.2 Instruments

The instruments used in obtaining the target data were tests and a questionnaire. An interview was also conducted to collect data in support of the questionnaire. The tests used were tried out first to the non sample class, they were then analysed for validity, reliability and item discriminating power. The items in the questionnaire were 11 close-ended items that were adapted from Iwanski, Nah, White & Sussex, Chen & Chun, Kuen, and Ali as cited in Ali (2012:33). These items were to tackle students attitudes on the three aspects of attitudes (affective, cognitive, behavioral). The items in the questionnaire were validated by the research consultants and university lecturers. The items in the interview were also adopted from the same source.

3.2.3 Data Collection Procedure

In collecting the needed data, the researcher used several steps. Firstly, the pre-test was administered in the two groups assigned as an experimental group and a control group. The items of the pre-test as well as the post-test were tried out with the subjects
from the non-sample class in the same population to ensure content validity of the instruments and clarity of the instrument instructions. Secondly, the post-test was administered to the two groups after giving the treatment to the experimental group and the conventional teaching used in the control group. After the post-test, the experimental students were required to answer on a close-ended questionnaire. Each item on the questionnaire was intended to get the data on the three aspects of attitudes: cognitive, affective and behavioral. Then, nine respondents were selected on a voluntary basis as interviewees; they were expected to give more information on their opinions after being exposed to the contextual guessing strategy instruction.

3.2.4 Data Analysis

In this study, the obtained data were analyzed with the use of SPSS 16. The results of the pre-test and post-test were tested using Normality Test (Kolmogorov-Smirnov & Sapiro-Wilk), and Homogeneity Test (Levene’s Test). Since the data were not normally-distributed, even the samples have similar variances, the statistics formula used in testing the hypothesis was the non-parametric statistics. It was because one of the assumptions for the parametric test was violated. The non parametric statistics used in the present study was Mann Whitney U test. Mann Whitney U test is a non parametric test used for the two independent samples (Kinnear & Colin, 1996: 94, Larson- Hall, 2010: 376). The result of the questionnaire was analyzed by using descriptive statistics, and they were described based on the criteria earlier determined. Data obtained from the interview were described directly for elaboration of the data from the questionnaire.

4. Findings and Discussion

This sections provides the findings and discussions based on the two research questions given earlier.

4.1 The Effect of Contextual Guessing Strategy Instruction on Students’ Mastery on Phrasal Verbs

The first section presents a series of statistical tests to measure the effectiveness of CGSI on students’ mastery on Pvs. It is divided into two parts: the result of the analysis of pre-test of the groups and the result of the analysis of post-test of the groups.

4.2 The Result of Analysis of Pre-test of the Groups

The pretest was administered to check the difference between the experimental group and the control group regarding their initial ability in mastering phrasal verbs.

Normality Test
Normality test was used to find out whether the data has normal distribution or not. The result of the normality test of the pre-test is shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>group</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnov(^a) Statistic</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk Statistic</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.186</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>.941</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.192</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.945</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sig (p value) for both methods < 0.05, which means that data were not distributed normally. Therefore, the statistical formula used for the next step is the non-parametric test.
Homogeneity Test
Levene’s test was used to test the homogeneity of variants in the data which had no normal distribution. The table below shows the result of homogeneity test of the pre-test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene Statistic</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Based on Mean</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>.959</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on Median</td>
<td>.079</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>.780</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on Median and with adjusted df</td>
<td>.079</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>54.213</td>
<td>.780</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on trimmed mean</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>.972</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The value of Levene’s test is shown in the row of ‘Based on Mean’ value, in which the sig (p value) 0.959 > 0.05. It means, the variants of the two groups were the same and it was called homogeneous.

Mann Whitney U Test
As mentioned in the previous section that the data had no normal distribution, the researcher therefore had to test the hypothesis by the non-parametric test. The non-parametric test was Mann Whitney U Test. The table below shows the result of mean rank scores of the pre-test of the two groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Sum of Ranks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30.20</td>
<td>906.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29.79</td>
<td>864.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows that the mean rank of the experimental group pre-test score was 30.20, while the mean rank of the control group pre-test score was 29.79. There was a very slight difference of these two groups’ mean rank scores. It was assumed that the two groups had similar ability in mastering phrasal verbs. While to test the significance of the effect and to examine whether the hypothesis was accepted or rejected, the Mann Whitney U test was examined. The following table shows the result of Mann Whitney U test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>value</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mann-Whitney U</td>
<td>429.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilcoxon W</td>
<td>864.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>-.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.927</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The p value > critical alpha (0.05), it means Ha was rejected and Ho was accepted. The result supported the null hypothesis which states that there was no difference between the experimental group and the control group before giving the treatment. It seems likely that the two groups had similar initial ability before the treatment.
4. 3 The Result of the Analysis of Post-test of the Groups

Normality Test

The post-test was conducted in the two groups after the treatment. The test was conducted to measure the effect of contextual guessing strategy instruction on students’ mastery on phrasal verbs. The result of the normality test of the post test can be seen from the table given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>group</th>
<th>Kolmogorov-Smirnova</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Statistic</td>
<td>df</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.199</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>.210</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sig (p value) for both methods < 0.05 which means that the data were not distributed normally. Therefore, in comparing the two means of the two groups in order to find out if there was any difference, the researcher used the non-parametric test.

Homogeneity Test

To test homogeneity of the variants in the data which carried no normal distribution, the researcher used Levene’s test. The result of the homogeneity test is presented in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene Statistic</th>
<th>df1</th>
<th>df2</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Based on Mean</td>
<td>.070</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>.793</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on Median</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>.895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on Median and with adjusted df</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>56.969</td>
<td>.895</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based on trimmed mean</td>
<td>.037</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>.848</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sig (p value) is 0.793 > 0.05. It means, the variants of the two groups were the same and thus it was called homogeneous.

Mann Whitney U Test

The non-parametric test used was Mann Whitney U Test. The table below shows the result of mean rank scores of the pre-test of the two groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Sum of Ranks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>34.18</td>
<td>1025.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>25.67</td>
<td>744.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows the mean rank of each group. The mean rank score of the first group (experimental group) was 34.18 while the mean rank score of the second group (control group) was 25.67. From the table above, it is clear that the mean rank score of the experimental group was higher than that of the control group.
Mann Whitney U Test was used to test/examine the hypothesis. The table below shows the result of Mann Whitney U test that determined whether or not the hypothesis was accepted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mann-Whitney U</td>
<td>309.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilcoxon W</td>
<td>744.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>-1.972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.049</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The value of Sig or P value was 0.049 < 0.05. If p value < critical alpha (0.05), it means Ha was accepted and Ho was rejected. As seen, there was a difference (positive result) on the students’ mastery on phrasal verbs after the treatment (implementation of contextual guessing strategy instruction).

4.4 The Students’ Attitudes on the Implementation of Contextual Guessing Strategy Instruction

This section presents the data obtained from the questionnaire and the interview concerning the experimental students’ attitudes toward the implementation of phrasal verbs teaching.

4.5 Result of Data Analysis from Questionnaire

Each questionnaire was intended to secure data on the three aspects of attitudes. The first aspect was the cognitive, concerning on the respondents’ belief in the object of attitude, then the affective aspect which aimed at the students’ feeling of liking and disliking about the object. The third aspect was behavioral; it dealt with the individual’s reaction to the encountered object.

The first aspect of students’ attitude, the cognitive aspect of experimental group was investigated from their responses to five items (item 1-5). The mean score of Item no 1 ‘I could improve my vocabulary knowledge through CGSI’ was 4.4; Item no 2 ‘I could increase my guessing skills in learning vocabulary (Pvs) through CGSI’ was 4.7. Item no 3 ‘I could increase my knowledge about the words I learned through CGSI’ was 4.6; Item no 4 ‘I could recall the meaning of words I learned through CGSI’ was 4. Item no 5 ‘I found that CGSI was suitable for my kind of vocabulary learning’ was 4. The mean score of the five items on the cognitive aspects of the students’ attitudes towards the implementation of contextual guessing strategy instruction was 4.3, which was a high total score. The higher the total score, the more positive the students’ attitudes were toward the issue being addressed. It means that the students’ attitudes toward the implementation of the contextual guessing strategy instruction in the cognitive aspect were positive.

The result is consistent with the experiment. This findings accord with what have been proposed by Bialystok, Nation, Nation & Coady, Schouten-van Parreren as cited in Hulstijn (1992: 113) that the retention of an inferred word meaning will be higher than the retention of a given word meaning. This is supported by Nation, Lynn & Posnansky, Jenkins, Matlock and Slocum as cited in Zaid (2009: 57) who stated that the advantages of inferencing and meaning guessing are quite ambivalent especially when it comes to long-term retention and recall. Similarly, Krashen (cited in Verspoor, 2003: 550) states, “Inferencing leads to a better retention of vocabulary than learning words in isolation.
because increased mental effort should have a positive effect on retention.” Furthermore, Redouane (2004) showed in his study that the guessing-from-context technique had impact not only on immediate recall but also on a long term retention; the conditions of this technique were sparser clues and the guessing process requiring more cognitive effort (Nation as cited in Schmitt, 2000: 155). Moreover, Samiyan and Khorasani (2014) in their study compared the group that received an instruction to infer the meaning of new words with the non-context group (to memorize a list of isolated words). The result of the study indicated that textual guessing strategy had some effect on their long term memory.

The students also showed their positive attitude toward the textual guessing strategy instruction in that the instruction enabled them to increase the guessing skills in learning vocabulary (phrasal verbs). This finding is supported by a study conducted by Fraser (1999) who examined the effectiveness of training students on how to guess the meaning from its context, and found that it had an indirect positive impact on students’ guessing. Similarly, Alsaawi (2013:4) asserted: “Students should be taught how to guess the meaning from the context.” Walters as cited in Alsaawi (2013: 4) also commented that this strategy might enhance the effectiveness of guessing.

The second aspect of students’ attitude, the affective aspect, of experimental group was investigated from their responses to three items (item 6-8). The mean score of Item no 6 ‘I had a good opportunity to learn Pvs through CGSI’ was 4.5; Item no 7 ‘I enjoyed learning vocabulary through CGSI’ was 4.4. Item no 8 ‘I found that it was interesting to learn vocabulary (Pvs) through CGSI’ was 4.6. The mean score of the three items on the affective aspect of the students’ attitudes toward the use of contextual guessing strategy instruction was 4.5; it was a high total score. It means that the students’ attitudes toward the implementation of the contextual guessing strategy instruction in the affective aspect were positive as well.

The students enjoyed the class and they found it interesting to learn phrasal verbs through contextual guessing strategy activity therefore they were thankful to have an opportunity to learn phrasal verbs through contextual guessing strategy instruction. This fact supports the statement of Nation (2001: 175) in which from the perspective of the students, they find the activity of guessing word meaning in context lots of fun.

The last aspect of students’ attitudes, the behavioral aspect, of the experimental group was examined in their responses to the last three items (Items 9-11). The mean score of Item no 9 ‘I participated actively in guessing activity’ was 4.5; the item no 10 ‘I could keep up with the activity of guessing from context activity’ was 4.6, and Item no 11 ‘I paid attention during the class/activity’ was 4.2. The mean score of the three items on the behavioral aspect of the students’ attitudes toward the use of contextual guessing strategy instruction was 4.4, which was a high total score. It means that the students’ attitudes toward the implementation of contextual guessing strategy instruction were also positive. Most of the students not only paid attention to and keep up with the teaching process but they also participated actively in the activity. The higher a learner’s awareness of instruction in deriving word meaning, the higher the ability to recognize unknown word in the context (Shahrzad, 2011).

Overall data obtained from the questionnaire given to the experimental group reveal that in general, the students were positive to the use of contextual guessing strategy instruction. These data appear to be consistent with those obtained from the experiment.
The experiment also supported the questionnaire data in that contextual guessing strategy instruction had a positive effect on students’ mastery on some common phrasal verbs.

4.6 Result of Data Analysis from the Interview

The findings of the study on the students’ attitudes toward the implementation of contextual guessing strategy instruction were from the students’ responses in the interview regarding their feeling (liking or disliking) for contextual guessing strategy instruction, their difficulties as experiences, and perceptions on the usefulness of the instruction.

Firstly, when asked what aspects they like regarding the implementation of contextual guessing strategy instruction, all of the respondents showed positive responses that they liked the class because it was interesting. One of the supporting comments came from a student who answered: “I think the class was interesting. Moreover, we have never been taught such words. I mean, I know some phrasal verbs like wake up. But I don’t know that the name is phrasal verb (St6).”

When asked about the aspect they don’t like about the instruction, only one student showed a negative response. The response was noted as negative to his attitude toward the English subject rather than to the experimental instruction; the respondent said: “It doesn’t mean that I don’t like your method, but I don’t like English subject since the first … (St2).”

When asked about the difficulties they encountered in the given activity, there were similar responses from the respondents. They did not understand what the text was about, for example, “My problem was that I did not understand what the text was talking about (St2).” Another respondent answered, “Um. it was very difficult when I did not understand what the text was talking about. But it was easier for me when I understood what the text was talking about. So I think I have to understand the context first before guessing it (St5).” It is important that learners need to know the majority of the vocabulary used in the text to be able to guess certain vocabulary items successfully from context. This point was emphasized by Laufer and Sim (cited in Alsaawi, 2013: 6). They insisted that vocabulary size was a determinant for success in guessing word meaning from its context. The more proficient the students are, the more likely they are to guess the words accurately (Kaivanpanah & Alavi, 2008: 80).

When asked about other comments or suggestions about the use of contextual guessing strategy in teaching phrasal verbs, one respondent showed his negative response that the instruction was not useful. His comment was: “I am sorry Bu, but for me it was not really useful because I could not understand and I did not understand. For me it would be better if you just give me the translation. And I think I could remember it (St2).” This type of responses was noted in the work of Yue (cited in Ali, 2012: 24): “Students’ attitudes of learning from context depend on their attitudes towards the English subject itself.” If the learners have negative attitudes towards the language, the culture, the classroom or the teacher, learning can be impaired or even rendered ineffective (Nunan and Lamb as cited in Aseefa, 2002: 5). This was confirmed by the student himself that he did not like English subject.

Despite some negative responses, most of the students perceived the instruction as useful in gaining knowledge about phrasal verbs through the experimented instruction. This was supported by the respondents’ responses such as (St3), “I think it is useful. And I also still remember some of them. Not all of them, but I think mostly I remember.” The
other respondent answered, “InshaAllah, it is useful. I know some phrasal verbs now, and I think I could remember them (St6).” Two more students also confirmed: “I still remember them until now. It is very useful I think (St9)” and “Yes at first. It was because I didn’t understand the context. But when I knew it, it was easier (St6).”

5. Conclusion and Recommendations
The findings of the study are reported with a series of statistical tests, followed by data on positive effects of contextual guessing strategy instruction (CGSI) of phrasal verbs on the students’ mastery on phrasal verbs. The study showed how the CGSI was implemented in teaching phrasal verbs in particular. This was supported by the statement of Nation in Takac (2008:77) which states, “Most of vocabulary learning strategies can be applied in learning various lexical items.” Celce-Murcia and Rosenweig (cited in Moon, 1997:61) and Phongphio and Schmitt (2006) even recommended the use of contextual guessing strategy for multi-word verbs.

The study also showed that the students in the study had positive attitudes toward the implementation of CGSI. This was shown in the students’ responses to the questionnaire. The data covered the three aspects of attitudes: cognitive, affective and behavioral. Overall data from the questionnaire given to experimental group revealed that the students were positive to the trialed instruction. The subjects in the experimental group valued the learning process that it helped them to gain better understanding of phrasal verbs.

The overall results have supported practicality of contextual guessing strategy instruction in improving students’ mastery phrasal verbs, as experienced and responded by the subjects in the study. To the researcher, the use of contextual guessing strategy instruction can be applied in the areas of vocabulary acquisition enhancement as well as English reading comprehension, ranging from the upper elementary to lower intermediate levels of proficiency.

6. The Author
Wiena Novianti is a professor in Education at School of Postgraduate Studies, Indonesia University of Education. Her research interest is in the areas of instruction for vocabulary acquisition, reading comprehension strategies, and instructional approaches to language education.

7. References


Students’ Cognitive Reading Strategies and Their Reading Comprehension

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Abstract
Reading comprehension is a fundamental aspect that has to be acquired by students in learning a language. However, this comprehension is difficult to achieve. Therefore, it requires strategies to develop good reading comprehension. This study investigated cognitive reading strategies employed by the senior high school students, and their reasons for employing those strategies. The subjects were 39 second grade senior high school students in Bandung. The study used a mixed method: correlation studies and qualitative explanatory. Data were collected by using the adoption of Oxford’s Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) questionnaire, a reading comprehension test, and interview.

The results of the study show that the students employed cognitive strategies in reading comprehension. The data obtained from the questionnaire and validated by the interview reveal that the students employed cognitive strategies at a moderate frequency level. *Receiving messages* was the most frequently used strategy by the participants, while *creating structures for input and output category* was the least frequently used strategy. The interview results point to cognitive strategies as beneficial to the students’ reading comprehension. By employing cognitive strategies, the students believe they can understand the text better. The connection between students’ cognitive reading strategies and their reading comprehension was shown in a positive correlation (0.528 with p-value < 0.01). It indicates that those students who employed a variety of cognitive reading strategies tend to have good reading comprehension. Based on the findings, it is recommended that teachers introduce cognitive reading strategies to their students with appropriate tasks for the latter to explore their cognitive reading strategies.

*Keywords:* Cognitive reading strategies, reading comprehension

1. Introduction
Reading is an important skill for the second or foreign language learning (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). With sufficient knowledge on reading skills, as suggested by Anderson (1999: 21), the ESL/EFL students make great progress and attain great development in all academic tasks. Therefore, the students are expected to have good comprehension to deal with all reading aspects in an academic context.

Nevertheless, for foreign language students, reading comprehension is a difficult aspect to achieve (Cohen, 1998: 24). Cohen (1998: 24) also states that the difficulties of students in learning foreign language might be caused by three things. First, the students might not use any strategies in reading comprehension. Second, the kind of language learning strategies they use. Last, how they use those strategies. Thus, the strategies play a significant role in foreign language acquisition.

Hence, students require effective strategies to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more effective, and more transferrable (Oxford, 1990: 8). It is one of crucial components in leading the students to improve their reading comprehension especially for language learning (Brown, 2001: 208). In a nutshell, in order to make the students more competent and effective in reading a text, they are expected to employ effective strategies in learning.
A branch of language learning strategies that plays an important role to students’ reading comprehension is cognitive strategies. Cognitive strategies, among all reading strategies, are regarded as part of the effective strategies that might enhance the students’ reading comprehension (Santiana: 2009; Ismail: 2011). Moreover, Pei-Sui (2012: 230) states that high proficiency students use more cognitive strategies in their language learning process.

Cognitive strategies in this study refer to the steps or operations used in learning or problem-solving. These strategies more directly relate to individual learning tasks and entail direct manipulation and transformation of the learning material (Rubin, 1987: 23; Oxford, 1990: 43; O’Malley & Chamot, 1990; Brown, 2005: 134; and Oxford, 2003: 12).

2. Literature Review

Cognitive strategies play an important role in the process of learning new language, including a foreign language (Oxford, 1990: 43; Blakova, 2011: 22). These strategies enable the students to understand and produce new language (Oxford, 1990: 37; Oxford, 2003; Rokhsari, 2012: 2). This has been confirmed by the fact that these strategies, as cited by Williams & Burden (1997: 148) in Zare (2012), are defined as “mental processes directly concerned with the processing of information.”

Cognitive reading strategies in this study refer to cognitive strategies, employed in the reading context. Cognitive strategies as a branch of language learning strategies are not only applied in reading skills, but also these strategies can be applied in all language skills (Wenden and Rubin, 1987: 19; O’Malley and Chamot, 1990: 1; Wenden, 1991: 7; Oxford: 1993; Oxford, 2003: 8; Cohen, 2001: 682). Therefore, not all the cognitive strategies are applicable in reading skills. As cited in Oxford (1990: 69), there are only 13 cognitive strategies in four categories used in reading activities.

The first category is practicing involving repeating, recognizing and using formulas and pattern. The second category is receiving messages involving getting the idea quickly and using resources to send and receive messages. The third category is analyzing and reasoning involving reasoning deductively, analyzing expression, analyzing contrastively, translating, and transferring. The fourth category is creating structure for input and output involving taking notes, summarizing, and highlighting.

Quite a few studies have been conducted in order to investigate the use of language learning strategies in the reading context (Cohen, 1998; Ozek & Çivelek, 2006; Gernasih, 2006; Santiana, 2009; Ismail, 2011). These studies demonstrate that the students employed different reading strategies in comprehending the text. The high proficiency readers tend to employ more strategies rather than low proficiency readers. In other words, students who use various kinds of reading strategies have better reading comprehension (Santiana, 2009). Hence, it can be said that reading strategies have a great contribution to students’ reading comprehension development.

However, to the researcher’s knowledge, research on cognitive strategies as a branch of language learning strategies in Indonesian context is still limited especially in high schools (e.g. Ratna, 2011). In her study, Ratna (2011) investigated the cognitive strategies employed by the first-year university students in Garut. The data obtained from the questionnaire and Thinking-Aloud Protocols (TAPs) revealed several cognitive strategies frequently used by the students: (1) using the title to predict the content of the text, (2) guessing the meaning of a word from context, (3) using the dictionary, and (4) considering other sentences in a paragraph to figure out the meaning. Unfortunately, in her
study she did not deal with the students’ reasons for employing specific cognitive strategies and did not examine the relationship between the use of cognitive strategies and their reading comprehension.

3. Research Objectives
This study aimed to fill the gap by investigating cognitive reading strategies used by students in one senior high school in Bandung. This study was conducted to examine the use of their cognitive reading strategies and their reasons for employing those strategies. Moreover, it attempted to investigate the relationship between those cognitive reading strategies and their reading comprehension.

4. Research Methods
This study utilized a mixed method which uses both qualitative and quantitative methods in a single study (Cresswell, 2008: 552; Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012: 556). This study was a combination of qualitative explanatory and correlation studies. The qualitative explanatory attempts to maintain ‘deeper’ understanding of social phenomena (Silverman, 2005: 10) about cognitive reading strategies used by the students and their reasons for employing those learning strategies. Meanwhile, correlation is designed to investigate the nature and the strength of existing relationship (Brown, 1990: 126; Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012: 331, Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991: 425) between students’ cognitive reading strategies and their reading comprehension without any attempt to influence them.

The present study took place in one senior high school in Bandung. In order to choose the population, this research used convenient sampling in which drawing samples that are both easily accessible and willing to participate in a study (Tedie & Yu, 2007: 79; Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012: 99). Meanwhile, the participants of this study were chosen by cluster random sampling. In cluster sampling, groups, not individuals are randomly selected (Gay, 2009:129). Therefore, there was one class of 39 students get involved in this study.

In collecting the data required, the researcher utilized three data collection techniques. First, questionnaire was employed in this study in order to investigate the students’ cognitive reading strategies. The questionnaire adopted from Oxford’s (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) was intended to examine the cognitive strategies used and the questionnaire on the use of strategies. The questionnaire consisted of 20 items representing 13 cognitive strategies. Students were to respond to each item statement using a 5-point Likert-scale, ranging from 1 (Never or almost never true of me) to 5 (Always or almost always true of me) (Oxford: 1990).

The second research tool was a reading comprehension test intended to measure the students’ reading comprehension. The test was constructed in accordance with the Curriculum for second graders of Senior High School. The materials in this test consisted of Narrative, Hortatory Exposition, and Spoof text (BSNP: 2006). Besides, the constructed test contained three levels of comprehension—literal, inferential, and evaluative. There are 30 multiple choice items to measure the students’ reading comprehension. The scores were used to analyze the relationship between the use of students’ cognitive reading strategies and reading comprehension.

The third research tool was a semi-structured interview intended to validate data obtained from the questionnaire and to collect data on the students’ reasons for employing cognitive reading strategies in their reading activity. The semi-structured interview has a sequence of themes to be covered (Nunan, 1992: 149) wherein specific topic/ agenda were totally

72
predetermined (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001: 444). The interview consisted of 13 questions addressed to six students regarding their cognitive reading strategies. The students were allowed to use Bahasa Indonesia to elaborate their explanations in their native language.

5. Findings and Discussions
5.1 Cognitive Reading Strategies Used by the Students

A questionnaire and semi-structured interview were employed to examine students’ cognitive reading strategies. The questionnaire was used to collect data on the students’ cognitive reading strategies and the interview instrument was to validate the data obtained from the questionnaire. The detailed information, regarding the students’ cognitive reading strategies is shown in the following table. The criterion to assess the frequency was based on the Oxford’s (1990) SILL criteria.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Practicing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeating</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognizing and using formulas and pattern</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practicing naturally</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Receiving and sending messages</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting the idea quickly</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using resources for receiving and sending messages</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing and reasoning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasoning deductively</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing expression</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing contrastively</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translating</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transferring</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating structure for input and output</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taking notes</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highlighting</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarizing</td>
<td>2.29</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 reveals the total average score of students’ cognitive reading strategies at 3.08. This score is considered a moderate level (Oxford, 1990: 300) of cognitive
strategies in comprehending the English written text. The finding was in line with Syafizal (2000) and Santiana (2009) in that cognitive reading strategies are sometimes used by the students in the range of 2.50-3.49. The use of cognitive strategies signified that these strategies have an important function in the process of becoming competent in using the new language (Oxford, 1990: 8).

The moderate frequency level of cognitive strategies investigated in this study might be affected by two reasons. First, the students might encounter difficulties in accurately reporting their cognitive strategies since some of these strategies are unconscious or too complicated to remember (Cohen, 1998). Second, foreign language learners are in a small number using learning strategies, when compared with second language learners or native speakers (Green & Oxford, 1995 in Oxford, 2003: 11). As seen in the obtained results, cognitive reading strategies in this study are sometimes used by the students.

Table 1 also indicates that all of the categories were classified into moderate frequency in the range of 2.50-3.49. The most frequency used category employed by the students was receiving messages with average score being 3.7, whereas the least frequently used category of cognitive strategies was creating structure for input and output with average score being 2.52. It reveals that receiving messages was the most popular strategy of reading comprehension strategies employed by the students in the study.

To the researcher, there might be two reasons the students mostly employed receiving messages. First, receiving messages category consists of beneficial strategies which lead the students to focus on getting essential information in learning (Oxford, 1990: 46; Sung, 2009: 75). Second, using resources for receiving messages is supportive to both comprehension and production as it helps the students to take advantage of a range of resources (Oxford, 1990: 46).

Meanwhile, the least frequency category used in this study was creating input and output (2.52). This category includes three strategies, namely; taking notes, summarizing, and highlighting as ways to create structure (Oxford, 1990: 47). In the table above, it is obvious that there was a significant difference of average scores between creating input and output with the other three categories. This evidence perhaps points to students’ unfamiliarity with taking notes, summarizing, and highlighting in their reading activity.

The low frequency of creating input and output category might occur; this category, as cited by Oxford (1990: 45), does not only support comprehension, but also stands for production in the target language. Students might find difficulties in producing the target language, as reported in the study by Sung (2009) that creating input and output was at a low level of frequency. Sung (2009: 76) explained that the participants in his study were still in the process of acquiring sufficient vocabulary and characters in order to take notes or make summaries in the target language.

5.2 Students’ Reasons for Employing Cognitive Reading Strategies

The data from the interview show that the students tended to employ receiving messages rather than create structure for input and output in the reading activity. It was found that receiving messages as a strategy was most frequently used by the students in their reading activity. This finding might occur since the students seldom explored
English materials before class. They tended to read English materials only in the classroom.

Since the students were exposed to their English reading only in the classroom, the teacher would give some questions related to the text in order to measure the students’ reading comprehension. The students hence preferred to use strategies that help them to answer those questions automatically, for instance repeating, skimming, scanning, and using dictionaries—as parts of receiving messages strategies rather than using other strategies, namely, taking notes, highlighting, and summarizing.

5.3 Correlation between Cognitive Reading Strategies and their Reading Comprehension

This section describes the correlation between the students’ cognitive reading strategies and their reading comprehension at the second grade of a senior high school in Bandung, West Java. This analysis provides the answer to the third research question in this study whether there is a significant correlation between the students’ cognitive reading strategies and their reading comprehension.

There were two methods the researcher used to describe the relationship between the students’ cognitive reading strategies and reading comprehension by using IBM SPSS 22.0. The first method was utilizing the scatter plot which is the easiest way to see the relationship through graph (Hatch & Farhady, 1982; Williams, 2014). The following figure shows the scatter plot of the distribution of scores to show a clearer and positive correlation of the scores.

The scatterplot below reveals that the points clustered in a band running from lower left to upper right. The points cluster in the scatterplot indicates the relationship between two variables: students’ cognitive reading strategies and reading comprehension. When both variables tend to move in the same direction, one variable increases with the other also increasing. A positive correlation therefore appears in the scatterplot (Freedman, et al., 2010; Williams, 2014). As seen in the plot, there is a positive correlation between students’ cognitive reading strategies and reading comprehension.

![Figure 1: The scatter plot of the distribution of score](image-url)
The second method in describing the relationship between the students’ cognitive reading strategies and their reading comprehension was statistical analysis for correlation study. It was required that the statistical analysis for correlation studies to measure the degree of relationship between students’ cognitive reading strategies and reading comprehension be calculated from quantitative data (Hatch & Farhady, 1982; Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991: 434). From the computation by using the computer statistical analysis package program “IBM SPSS 22.0 for Windows”, a Pearson correlation was obtained. The correlation result is reported in Table 2.

**Table 2:** The correlation between the students’ cognitive reading strategies and reading Comprehension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Readg_Comp</th>
<th>Cogntv_strgs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.528**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.528**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Table 2 above shows that the Pearson correlation coefficient between the students’ cognitive reading strategies and their reading comprehension is 0.528. It reveals a positive correlation between these variables which indicates that when high scores on one variable tend to go with high scores on the other variable (Sugiyono, 2006: 257; Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012: 340). Hence, based on the data obtained, it can be assumed that the students who employed cognitive strategies in reading activities tend to have good comprehension in reading and vice versa.

Besides, the figure above shows the p (0.001) was lower than 0.01, it reveals that the null hypothesis of this study is rejected; as a result, the alternative hypothesis is accepted. In other words, it can be stated that the students’ cognitive reading strategies had a significant correlation with their reading comprehension. This is consistent with previous research conducted by Santiana (2009) who found that a positive correlation between students’ reading strategies, including cognitive strategies and their reading comprehension in the third grade Junior High School students in Ciamis.

These findings validate data obtained from questionnaire in that the students frequently used cognitive strategies with the average score at 3.08 in their reading activity. It is due to the fact that these cognitive strategies more directly relate to individual learning tasks and entail direct manipulation or transformation of the learning materials (O’Malley & Chamot, 1990). Moreover, it was explicitly stated in the students’ interview that cognitive strategies affect their reading comprehension.

Furthermore, the positive correlation between the students’ cognitive reading strategies and their reading comprehension is relevant to the previous studies (e.g
The more students employ learning strategies in reading activity, the higher reading comprehension being achieved. It should be noted that high proficiency readers employed more strategies rather than low proficiency readers (Cohen: 1998; Ozek and Civelek: 2006; Gernasih: 2006; Ismail 2011).

6. Conclusion and Recommendations

This study investigated the cognitive strategies used by the second grade of senior high school students on their reading activity, their use of cognitive reading strategies, their reasons for using those strategies, and the correlation of their cognitive reading strategies and reading comprehension.

It was found that cognitive strategies were sometimes used by the students in comprehending the written text. This finding was concluded from the questionnaire and the semi-structured interview. The first strategy Receiving messages (include skimming, scanning, and using resources) emerged as the most frequently employed categories of cognitive reading strategies. As for the second strategy creating structure for input and output, it consists of taking notes, highlighting, and summarizing. It emerged as the least frequently employed category. The researcher noted that the students used these strategies to perform better on their reading comprehension tasks.

There was a positive correlation between students’ cognitive reading strategies and their reading comprehension. The students whose score were high in cognitive reading strategies tended to achieve higher reading comprehension and vice versa. These findings affirmed the theories and suggestions made by some experts and researchers that cognitive strategies assist learners to comprehend the text effectively.

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher would like to make two recommendations. First, teachers are expected to teach learning strategies especially cognitive strategies which help their students in comprehending the text explicitly. Teachers can inform students of the benefits of employing cognitive reading strategies in comprehending the text (Anderson, 1999; Koda, 2007) so that the latter will understand and use learning strategies effectively.

Teachers can also provide a learning environment, tasks and exercises to encourage students to explore their cognitive reading strategies. The students hence are encouraged to use cognitive reading strategies in order to improve their reading comprehension.

7. The Author

Lelita Ratna Sari is a professor in Education at Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia. Her research interest is in the areas of cognitive reading strategies, reading comprehension strategies, and instructional approaches to language education.

8. References


Professional Reflections on “Should We Allow Students to Use Thai in the English Classroom?”

Suchada Nimmannit
Chulalongkorn University Language Institute (CULI)

Allowing or not allowing students to speak Thai in the English classroom has been one of the most controversial issues in the English language teaching for decades. Of course, we all recognize that the best way to learn is by doing. Thus, there is no better ways to develop fluency than to maximize the use of English to communicate both in and outside the classroom. Communicating in English in class is even more important in the situation in which students have limited opportunities to use English outside the classroom.

However, can we really stop students from speaking Thai in the English class? We all know that it is extremely challenging to get students in a monolingual class to communicate with one other in English. Although students know that they need to speak English to develop their fluency, they will not hesitate to speak Thai to their peers. The more time spent on speaking Thai would mean the fewer opportunities for them to use English for communication. One could question whether using Thai would have any merit in promoting English for communication. Perhaps we should look into what researchers say about the use of the first language in the second language class.

Several studies have explored the use of the first language in the second language classroom. Despite students’ misuse and overuse of their first language as reported by DiNitto (2000), Platt and Brooks (1994) and perhaps not reported by many others, a number of studies reveal that one's use of the first language does have some advantage. In fact, it could lead to gains in second language learning. In a study conducted by Storch and Wigglesworth (2003), the students in an English class as a foreign language in Australia used their first language to clarify and manage tasks as well as to explain vocabulary and grammar points. Students’ verbalization or switching to the first language in fact signals their lack of words; a language behavior as such helps them to focus their learning attention and in turn remember the vocabulary or the language structure (Scott and de la Fuente, 2008 and van Lier, 1995). Additionally, the students’ search for words or explicit questioning definitely enables students to provide assistance for one another, hence increasing their verbal interaction (Ant’on and DiCamilla, 1998). Most importantly, students who were allowed to use their first language were found to be less stressful and more engaged in more extended conversation than those who were not (Ant’on and DiCamilla, 1998; Scott and de la Fuente, 2008). When tension is removed and communication sustained, students will be able to develop fluency. It should be noted that the above mentioned studies were conducted in the English as a Second language context (Storch and Wigglesworth, 2003) or in the foreign language context (Ant’on and DiCamilla, 1998; Scott and de la Fuente, 2008).

Despite the fact known to language teachers in Thailand that Thai students tend to speak Thai in their English class, no empirical studies have been reported in academic journals regarding the use of Thai language in the English language class. If we are to seriously tackle this issue, we need research to identify its causes and plausible solutions for Thai students. Once we have gained a good understanding of this tendency, we will be able to address the issue properly and effectively.
The Author

Suchada Nimmannit teaches business communication and advanced business presentation at Chulalongkorn University Language Institute. Suchada was the project manager, webinar course material writers and teachers of the Lower Mekong Initiative (LMI) I and II in 2011-2014. Suchada served as president of Thailand TESOL in 2000-2003, Director in TESOL international Board, the Executive Board of Asia TEFL from 2004-2007, Chair of TESOL Nominating Committee, 2010-2011. She is also a member of the Editorial Committee of Asian Englishes and Language Teaching in Asia. Her research interest includes learner-assisted-language learning, the use of synchronous-computer-mediated communication and the 21st century learning.

Comments: We welcome your comments and also any information that are pertinent to this topic in your region. Also please let us have your suggestions for the next round of "Professional Reflections."

Address your email to Suchada Nimmannit at <suchada.n@chula.ac.th> or Ubon Sanpatchayapong <ubon.s@rsu.ac.th>.

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   Gutter: 0 inch

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**Example:**

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**Example:**

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