



Journal of Applied Language Studies and Communication

วารสารการศึกษารัฐศาสตร์เชิงประยุกต์และการสื่อสาร

Volume 1, Issue 1, January – June 2015

ISSN 2408-2260

Advisory Board

Associate Professor Dr. Nantawan Chuarayapratib	Thammasat University
Dr. Passapong Sripicharn	Thammasat University

Editor

Assistant Professor Dr. Nuchada Dumrongsiri	Thammasat University
---	----------------------

Editorial Board

Assistant Professor Dr. Melada Sudajit-apa	Thammasat University
Dr. Piranya Bunnag	Thammasat University
Assistant Professor Dr. Vikanda Pornsakulvanich	Thammasat University

Editorial Staff

Nasatorn Witayarat	Thammasat University
Yanika Phetchroj	Thammasat University



Printed at: Thammasat Printing House, 2015.
Tel. 0-2564-3105-11 Fax. 0-2564-3119
<http://www.tu.ac.th/org/tuprint>

About the Journal

Journal of Applied Language Studies and Communication is a peer-reviewed journal by Department of English, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Thammasat University. The journal accepts manuscripts for publication in all aspects of language and communication. We welcome original manuscripts written in Thai or English in Global Englishes, English Teaching and Learning, Linguistics, Semantics, Pragmatics, Discourse Analysis, Literary Studies, Translation, Cultural Studies, Intercultural Communication, Business English, Organizational/ Business Communication, and other related topics.

Publication Frequency

Two issues per year: June and December

Submission Guidelines

1. A manuscript file is submitted to Editor editorjalsc@gmail.com
2. All manuscripts are original and not published elsewhere, neither in printing nor electronic forms.
3. Manuscripts should not exceed 15 pages of A4-size paper, not including tables and reference pages.
4. Citation in text and references follows APA style.
5. Abstract is submitted in both Thai and English at maximum of 250 words.
6. Brief information about author and co-author(s) is provided in Thai and English.
7. Format of the manuscript should be prepared as the followings:
 - a. Set page margins of all sides at 1 inch
 - b. Use single space and font Browallia New size 14 point
 - c. Follow APA editorial styles such as heading levels and table/figure title
 - d. Use a full firstname and lastname for all Thai sources in references

Contact Information

Journal of Applied Language Studies and Communication

Department of English, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Thammasat University (Rangsit Center)

Klong Neung, Klong Luang, Pathumthani 12121

Telephone: 02-696-5688

Fax: 02-696-5289, 02-696-5660

Email: editorjalsc@gmail.com

Table of Contents

	Pages
Editor's Note	(4)
The Role of Teachers' Questions on English as a Foreign Language Classroom Interaction <i>Wilawan Champakaew</i>	1
The Effects of a Project-based Learning Approach on the Improvement of English Language Skills <i>Nillawan Newprasit</i> <i>Sirinthorn Seepho</i>	16
Active Participator's Engagement in Graduate Classroom Discussions <i>Pattamawadee Lueasom</i>	52
Reticence among Asian Students: Cultural Traits or Contextual Basis? <i>Nasatorn Witayarat</i>	86
ผลกระทบของความสัมพันธ์นั้นคนรักต่อการสื่อสารเพื่อเสริมประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กร <i>ชานนท์ ศิริธร</i>	108

Editor's Note

We are pleased to present our new academic *Journal of Applied Language Studies and Communication* to serve as a forum for scholars and those who are interested in language and communication to share their research expertise, experiences, and thoughts to better construct knowledge to the fields.

In the very first issue of our first volume, we received four papers in language teaching and learning and one paper in communication. The first two papers offer technical concepts for effective learning in English language class. Wilawan Champakaew focused on the role of teacher to use a certain type of questions in classroom to stimulate students' critical thinking. Nillawan Newprasit and Sirinthorn Seepho found that project-based learning approach promoted students' overall language abilities and positive effects on the students' learning process.

Another two papers shift to the role of learners as a factor for effective language learning. Pattamawadee Lueasom reported typical characteristics of active learners for their participation in class discussion. Nasatorn Witayarat argued that reticence among Asian students was due to contextual basis rather than cultural traits.

This issue concludes with a paper from communication perspective. Chanon Sirithorn underlined the influence of romantic relationships on communication at workplace.

Lastly, we would like to thank all authors and reviewers for their contribution and devotion to the fields. Without them, this publication of the first issue would not be possible. Furthermore, we are grateful to the Faculty of Liberal Arts and Department of English at Thammasat University for their full support on this journal. At the end, we hope that our readers find this publication fruitful and worthwhile.

Nuchada Dumrongsiri
Editor

The Role of Teacher's Questions on English as a Foreign Language Classroom Interaction

ความสำคัญของการตั้งคำถามของผู้สอนต่อการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศ

Wilawan Champakaew, Ph.D.

English Department

Mae FahLuang University, Chiang Rai

Email: wilawan.cha@mfu.ac.th

บทคัดย่อ

การตั้งคำถามในชั้นเรียนของครูมีความสำคัญอย่างยิ่งต่อการเรียนรู้ของผู้เรียน ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศในทุกกระดับเนื่องจากคำถามเป็นส่วนที่กระตุ้นให้ผู้เรียนได้ใช้ทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์และส่งเสริมการมีปฏิสัมพันธ์ระหว่างผู้สอนกับผู้เรียนเพื่อการเรียนรู้ภาษามากยิ่งขึ้น แต่เนื่องจากคำถามที่ผู้สอนใช้ในการเรียนการสอนมีอยู่หลากหลายประเภท ดังนั้น ผู้สอนจึงควรตระหนักถึงการเลือกตั้งคำถามเพื่อสร้างปฏิสัมพันธ์ที่เหมาะสมกับผู้เรียนในชั้นเรียน อย่างไรก็ตามคำถามที่พบว่าใช้บ่อยในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศ ได้แก่ คำถามประเภท display question และคำถามตอบรับหรือตอบปฏิเสธ (Yes-No question) ซึ่งเป็นคำถามที่ต้องการคำตอบที่ปรากฏชัดเจนอยู่แล้ว โดยผู้เรียนไม่ต้องอาศัยทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์เพื่อตอบคำถาม ส่วนคำถามประเภทอ้างอิง (Referential questions) ซึ่งเป็นคำถามที่เกิดขึ้นจริงในการสื่อสารและเป็นคำถามที่มีอิทธิพลต่อการเรียนรู้ของผู้เรียนที่สุด เพราะผู้เรียนต้องใช้ทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์ความรู้ที่เรียนมาเพื่อการสรุปและตอบคำถามกลับพบไม่มากนักในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ ดังนั้นเพื่อให้ผู้เรียนได้รับการพัฒนาทักษะด้านการคิดวิเคราะห์ อันเป็นทักษะที่จำเป็นสำหรับผู้เรียนในศตวรรษที่ 21 ผู้สอนจึงควรเป็นคำถามเชิงอ้างอิง (Referential question) นี้มากกว่าคำถามประเภทอื่น ๆ

คำสำคัญ: คำถามของผู้สอน, ผู้เรียนภาษา, ทักษะการคิดวิเคราะห์, การเรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศ

Abstract

Teacher questions are significant for language acquisition in a foreign language classroom at all levels. Teacher questions help to provoke students' thinking skill and enhance the interaction between teacher and students in order for the students to acquire a foreign language. Consequently, teachers should be aware of questioning and types of questions because there are many categories of questions. However, the most frequently found questions in English as a foreign language classroom are display questions and yes-no questions which do not require any thinking skills to answer. In contrast, referential questions are rarely seen in a language classroom. Answering referential questions require an application of critical thinking and inference skills and more accurately reflect real world communication. Therefore, referential question is an important skill required for learners in the 21 century and should be promoted. As a consequence, teachers should emphasize asking referential questions rather than other types of questions.

Key words: Teacher questions, language learners, critical thinking skill, English as a foreign language

Introduction

One important condition for engaging students in second language classroom interaction is teacher's question (Hedge, 2000). Questions can facilitate teaching to see how much the students understand the lessons, and they are asked by the teacher before, during, and after instruction in order to elicit responses from the students (Jansem, 2008).

Research indicates that questioning is one of the most familiar techniques used by teachers in their classrooms (Dillon, 1990 as cited in Nhlapo, 1998). There are two reasons why teachers ask questions in their classrooms (Ellis, 1992 as cited in Nhlapo, 1998). First, questions require responses, and therefore, they serve as a means of obliging learners to contribute to the interaction. Learners' responses also provide the teacher with feedback which can be used to adjust content and expression in subsequent teacher-talk. Second, questions serve as a device for controlling the progress of the interaction through which a lesson is presented. It has been found that questions can also be used to motivate students, revise, control, test/assess, explore, explain, and encourage students to focus on a particular topic, elicit information check understanding and to control behavior (Young, 1992; Richards & Lockhart, 1994 as cited in Nhlapo, 1998).

Clearly, teacher questions serve different functions in a language classroom such as focusing attention, getting feedback, engaging students' participation, and facilitating student participation (Farahian & Rezaee, 2012; Brock, 1986; Gall, 1970; Wu, 1993). A question to elicit information may be directed (for purposes of control) to a student whose attention is wandering, and only an extended context would show whether a question was designed to elicit information or check understanding. The type of question asked might determine the nature of information the teacher would like to elicit from students. Therefore, the selection of question type used in the classroom should be considered.

The purpose of this paper is to review theoretical concepts regarding the influence of teacher's questions on classroom interaction and present some critiques as well as recommendations on how the teachers should exploit them effectively.

Types of questions

Teacher questions asked in a foreign language classroom can be observed and classified into categories.

According to Bloom's taxonomy, question type consists of lower order questions and higher order questions. Bloom et al.(1956) describes lower order questions as those that comprise of knowledge, comprehension and application questions, while higher order questions include analysis, synthesis and evaluation questions (Bloom et al., 1956; Woolfolk, 1984).

Lower order questions:

1. *Knowledge questions* are questions which require students to recall the information as it was learnt. In that way, students have to access knowledge of specific terminology, facts (dates, events, people, places, etc.), knowledge of ways and means of dealing with specifics, conventions, trends and sequences, classifications and categories, methodology and criteria and so on.
2. *Comprehension questions* are questions which require students to demonstrate understanding of the material. Such questions require mental reorganization or interpretation, not from their memory.
3. *Application questions* are questions which require students to use information to solve problems.

Higher order questions:

4. *Analysis questions* are those questions which require students to think critically, identify reasons, motives and make an inference based upon several pieces of information.
5. *Synthesis questions* are those questions which require students to put together elements and parts so as to form a whole.
6. *Evaluative questions* involve making judgments and offering an opinion to evaluate a product or idea.

Barnes (1969 as cited in Nhlapo, 1998) classified questions into open and closed questions. Closed questions are framed with only one possible answer in mind, while open-ended questions permit a number of possible answers.

In contrast to Barne's classification of questions, Kearsley's classifications (1976 as cited in Nphlapo, 1998) take into account the syntactic structure and interactional function structure of questions. These questions include echoic and epistemic questions.

1. *Echoic questions* are questions which ask for the repetition of the utterance, for example, 'pardon me?' Questions which serve interactional function are further broken down into the following types of questions as follow:
 - 1.1 *Comprehension checks*, test the questioner's ability to be understood, for example, 'Is it clear to everyone?'
 - 1.2 *Clarification requests* help the addressee follow what the speaker says, as in, 'Excuse me, what do you mean by that?'
 - 1.3 *Confirmation checks* serve to assure the interlocutor that their inference or interpretation of the communicated ideas is correct, for example, 'Did you say 'he'? (Makhobotloane, 1992 as cited in Nhlapo, 1998).

2. *Epistemic questions* are divided into expressive, rhetorical, display, and referential questions.
 - 2.1 *Expressive questions* often convey attitudinal information to the addressee, for example, 'Are you coming or aren't you?'
 - 2.2 In *rhetorical questions*, the questioner sometimes does not require or expect an answer from listeners, but may answer his or her own questions, as in, 'Why did I not do that?' Because I ...(Long & Sato, 1983 as cited in Nhlapo, 1998).
 - 2.3 *Display questions* 'test' the learner by eliciting already-known information.
 - 2.4 *Referential questions* are information seeking. However, it has been observed that referential questions "are likely to be open while display questions are likely to be closed, but it is possible to conceive of closed referential questions and open display questions" (Ellis, 1993, p.5. as cited in Nhlapo, 1998).

Gabrielatos (1997, p.1) classified teacher questions as followings:

1. **GENUINE** questions (i.e. questions which actually seek information) as opposed to question-forms performing other functions (e.g. expressing surprise)
2. **AUTHENTIC** questions, that is genuine questions teachers ask in order to obtain information they really need (as they would in their every-day life),
3. **PEDAGOGICAL** questions, that is questions they ask as part of the teaching/learning process (e.g. When do we use X?). According to Gabrielatos (1997), the terminology used to classify this type of questions is from
 - 3.1 the response required:
 - 3.1.1 *Yes / No questions* are those questions which can be answered only by a "yes" or, "no" (e.g. Do you like sports?)

3.1.2 *Open-ended questions* are those questions which will elicit more language (e.g. What kinds of sports do you like? Why?)

3.1.3 *Convergent questions* are those questions which have one correct answer (e.g. How old is X?)

3.1.4 *Divergent questions* are those questions inviting learners to express views, opinions or alternatives. They do not require correct responses (e.g. What do you think about the views expressed in the text?)

3.2 the aim of the teacher:

3.2.1 Checking understanding questions, such as

- Does this sentence talk about the past or the present?
- Did Helen see Peter?
- Did she tell him?
- Can she do anything about it now?
- Who do you think is she saying this to?
- Why?

3.2.2 Elicitation

- What's this?
- What does X mean?
- What are they doing (in the picture)?
- What do you need to take on the beach?
- What do you mean (by ...)?
- What are your views on ...?

3.2.3 Guidance and awareness raising questions

- How does she express her promises?
- What language does he use to express his predictions?

Some questions can be problematic such as questions which are not to elicit a true or helpful response. These can be, “Do you understand?” “Is it clear now?” They should be avoided.

Another classification of teachers’ questions is by Thompson (1997). He categorizes questions into three dimensions: form, content and purpose. He stated that some questions take into account the grammatical form of the question, that is whether it is of Yes-No type or wh- type. The second dimension relates to the content of the question: whether it is about outside facts, personal facts or opinions. Another dimension relates to the purpose of the question: whether it is for display or communication. It is argued that language teachers in recent years have realized that “they are primarily teaching a means of communication rather than a specific topic of communication” (Thompson, 1997, p.101) and as a result they have realized that their subject allows them to ask about a great many other things.

According to Dalton-Puffer (2007), teacher questions can be categorized into 3 types: 1) open and closed questions, 2) display and referential questions, and 3) Yes-No questions. Referential questions are frequently seen as more natural, and are expected to generate student answers more involved, and more complex answers.

In conclusion, teacher questions can be mainly classified into three groups: 1) display questions asking what students’ already know and rechecking; 2) Yes-No questions requesting students to express Yes or No answer; and 3) referential questions encouraging students to think and eliciting reasoning.

Roles of teachers’ questions in EFL classroom

A lot of research on teachers’ questions reveals that display questions are by far the most common type of questions used by teachers in all kinds of classrooms (Nunan & Lamb, 1996; Long & Sato, 1983; Johnson, 1990 as cited in Ellis, 1992 as cited in Nhlapo, 1998; Farahian & Rezaee, 2012) in both content-oriented and communicative-oriented instruction.

Display questions are intended either to prompt the learners to display comprehension and/or command of accurate English (Thornbury, 1996) and they seem to be favored by most teachers. One of the teachers' dominant roles is as a prompter (Karavas-Dukas, 1995 as cited in Hedge, 2000), display questions are often used to stimulate the individual student to respond, for example:

Teacher What's Peter's job, Mariane?

Student He's a[pause]

Teacher Yes, he's a car.....

Student mechanic..he's a car mechanic

Teacher Yes, good.

(Hedge, 2000, p.29)

Nevertheless, Cullen (1998) argues that these types of questions, if excessively used, do not have any communicative value. What students do is repeat the information that they already know (p.162). They are less likely to contribute to an acquisition-rich environment than are referential questions (Ellis, 1992). Display questions can be appropriate if they are used proportionately and effectively.

Like display questions, Yes-No questions are frequently asked in a foreign language classroom at every level. Yes-No questions require the students to respond to the teacher's instruction, as in, "Do you follow me?", or to check student's comprehension, as in, "Do you understand?"

According to Thompson (1997), it is believed that Yes-No questions can be helpful when they are directed to weaker students or to check basic understanding before moving to Wh- questions to elicit more detailed information. Moreover, teachers need to invite their learners to talk about themselves rather than only talk about the information provided by the textbook (Thompson, 1997). This allows learners to have some degree of control over the input, which may lead to increased motivation and more investment by the learners in the

process of learning. However, personalized questions may not necessarily bring about real communication.

In real-world communication, referential questions are more frequent than other types of questions, but they are rarely asked by the teachers in the classroom. Responses to referential questions tend to allow learners to take more responsibility in their learning (Brock, 1986 as cited in Nunan & Lamb, 1996). Moreover, with their focus on meaning, referential questions would facilitate language acquisition as they are more likely to result in extended learner responses (Ellis, 1992). Teachers need to be trained to increase the number of referential questions they ask; this increase could prompt students to provide significantly longer and syntactically more complex sentences.

Discussion

Change of EFL teacher's questioning behavior pattern in Thai context

In Thailand, English has been taught as a foreign language. The teacher is often seen as an authoritarian in a language classroom. With low motivation, its learners seem quiet in teacher-student interaction. Teacher's questioning behavior relies heavily on display and Yes-No questions. Students' responses are generally short answers or a recitation from something they already know from what they are learning. When they converse outside the classroom, they are unable to communicate or they avoid communicating with English speakers altogether. To enhance students' communicative language abilities in real settings, teachers should be encouraged to ask more referential questions. Moreover, one of the most important learners attributes for the 21st century is analytical skill. Teacher's questioning behavior should be changed by placing an importance on referential questions, they trigger students' thinking and analytical skills.

However, teachers can motivate their students to respond to their interaction by asking Yes-No questions. Weak students can be encouraged to

engage in classroom interaction since it requires only short answer. When the students are familiar with this type of interaction, teachers can utilize display questions. Students can expand their responses and feedback. And referential questions can be employed when the students are prompted.

Referential questions can be effectively implemented as suggested below.

1. Referential questions should be extensively asked in a communicative-oriented class, in order to facilitate students' communication skill since other questions such as display or Yes-No questions are not related to the real world. Students need to collaborate and take turns giving responses as in a natural discourse.

2. Allow appropriate time for students to respond. Unlike Yes-No questions or display questions, referential questions require more time for students to respond, so teachers should allow them to generate their ideas.

3. Using scaffolding or modification strategies to promote language learning.

These types of questions can be problematic for the students to understand and produce responses to the questions at the beginning. Therefore, helping the learners' articulate their speech by providing them with scaffolding or modifications can facilitate the students' response production (Jansem, 2008). The concept of scaffolding denotes a process in which a more competent speaker helps a less competent learner by providing assistance (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). In the Kayi-Aida (2013) study, the findings demonstrated that student and teacher questions scaffolded language learning and use, and positively affected students' participation during teacher-led whole class interactions (p.324). The extract from teacher-student interaction in Kayi-Aida (2013, p.328) below shows that scaffolding; teachers' modification of the

language, can facilitate students' learning and enable them to engage in the interaction effectively.

(T = Teacher; C = Class)

1 T: Twelfth, anybody? How about Chang?

2 Chang: She was almost died. I think it's she's almost dead.

3 T: Correct, and in that case we have to change this word to dead.

4 JJ: What about she almost died?

5 T: That's correct! Without was.

6 Hassan: Excuse me, I think grammatically the sentence is not correct because it

7 contained two verbs and something to deal with dependent and

8 independent clause.

9 T: Okay, let's look at that. Let's look at the original sentence. ((Writes it on the board.)) All right, in (0.3) in the first one, do we have a verb?

11 C: Yes.

12 T: What is the verb?

13 C: Was.

14 T: Was. Here's our verb. What's the subject?

15 C: She.

16 T: All right, so we've got 'she was almost'. What could go in that slot?

17 C: Adjective.

18 T: An adjective or something that's being used as an adjective. So, what's the

19 adjective form for [

20 Adriana: [Dead

21 T: It's going to be 'dead'. She was almost dead. Let's see she was almost.

22 Let's think of some other words. She was almost finished. ((Writes it on 23 the board.))

- 24 Patricia: Why it should be in the past?
25 T: Pardon?
26 Malik: Why should be that verb the past?
27 T: Well, this was actually using a past participle form and using it as an
28 adjective form.

As a prompter, teacher can prepare their students to experience real-world language use, not only a classroom language use. In addition, these types of questions are related to “how-to question” or “why question.” In this way, students will need to seek information to support their answers, and think about and develop answers, not just recite memorized information. Analytical skill is a higher order thinking skill according to Bloom et al. (1956). Moreover, there’s strong support that referential questions can facilitate students’ second language development (Yang, 2010 as cited in Farahian & Rezaee, 2012) and the use of referential questions can especially result in purposeful communication (Ellis, 1990 as cited in Farahian & Rezaee, 2012). In naturalistic discourse or in real-world communication, different types of questions are used. EFL learners should be better prepared and have better communicative skill, not simply be able to recite information memorized from the textbook.

Conclusion

In summary, teacher questions play a dominant role in English as a foreign language interaction and they function differently. The author agrees with Ellis (1992) that referential questions contribute to real-world communication as they encourage students to think and elicit reasoning. The questions also represent communicative value. However, most Thai learners are not familiar with responding to reasoning questions; therefore, teachers should prepare and encourage them to express their opinions. If the classroom is aligned with the actual setting, the learners will be able to communicate with others and they will be successful in their language learning.

References

- Bloom, B., Englehart, M. Furst, E., Hill, W., & Krathwohl, D. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives: The classification of educational goals. Handbook I: Cognitive domain*. New York, Toronto: Longmans, Green.
- Dalton-Puffer, C. (2007). *Discourse in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Classrooms*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Ellis, R. (1992). *Second language acquisition and language pedagogy*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Farahian, M., & Rezaee, M. (2012). A case study of an EFL teacher's type of questions: an investigation into classroom interaction. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 47, 161-167.
- Gabrielatos, C. (1997). *A question of function: Teacher questions in the EFL classroom*. Paper presented at 18th Annual TESOL Greece Convention, National Bank of Greece Training Centre, Glyfada, Greece, 12-13 April 1997.
- Gass, S. (1997). *Input, interaction, and the second language learner*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Earlbaum Associates.
- Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and Learning in a Language Classroom*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Jansem, A. (2008). *ESL teacher questions and question modifications*. (Dissertation) Illinois State University. Available from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/304606947>.
- Kayi-Aydar, H. (2013). Scaffolding language learning in an academic ESL classroom. *ELT Journal*, 67(3), 324-335.
- McKay, S. L. (2002). *Teaching English as an International Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2006). *How Languages are Learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nhlapo, M. (1998). *A Case Study of a teacher questions in an English Second Language (ESL) Classroom*. Thesis, Master of Education (English Second Language) of Rhodes University.
- Nunan, D., & Lamb, C. (1996). *The self-directed teacher*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Pica, T. (1994). Research on Negotiation: What does it reveal about second language learning conditions, processes, and outcomes? *Language Learning*, 44(3), 493-527.
- Thornbury, S. (1996). Paying-lip service to ELT. *EA Journal*, 14, 1, 51-63. Retrieved October 22, 2014 from <http://www.scottthornbury.com/articles.html>.
- Woods, D. (1996). Teacher Cognition in Language Teaching: Beliefs, decision-making and classroom practice. In M. H. Long & J. C. Richards (Eds.), *The Cambridge Applied Linguistics Series*. Cambridge University Press.

About Author

Wilawan Champakaew received her Ph.D. Degree in Curriculum and Instruction from Faculty of Education, Chiang Mai University, Thailand. She is currently a full-time lecturer at English Department, School of Liberal Arts, Mae Fah Luang University. Her research interests include curriculum and material development, second language acquisition, and negotiation for meaning.

**The Effects of a Project-based Learning Approach on
the Improvement of English Language Skills
ผลของการใช้วิธีการสอนแบบโครงการที่มีต่อพัฒนาการ
ด้านทักษะภาษาอังกฤษ**

Nillawan Newprasit

School of Foreign Languages, Institute of Social Technology
Suranaree University of Technology, Nakhon Ratchasima
Email: nillawan.acom@gmail.com

Sirinthorn Seepho, Ph.D.

School of Foreign Languages, Institute of Social Technology
Suranaree University of Technology, Nakhon Ratchasima
Email: sirin@sut.ac.th

บทคัดย่อ

การสอนแบบโครงการ (Project-based learning approach หรือ PBL) ได้รับการยอมรับว่าเป็นวิธีการสอนที่มีประสิทธิภาพในการส่งเสริมการเรียนรู้ภาษาที่มากกว่าสองทศวรรษ โครงการนี้มักจะถูกใช้เป็นเครื่องมือในการเพิ่มพูนประสบการณ์การเรียนรู้เพิ่มเติมนอกห้องเรียนในรายวิชาที่เน้นเนื้อหา เช่น วิชาประวัติศาสตร์ วิชาวิทยาศาสตร์ วิชาศิลปะ เป็นต้น อย่างไรก็ตาม งานวิจัยที่เกี่ยวกับการสอนแบบโครงการส่วนใหญ่จะเน้นที่ผลของการสอนต่อการเรียนรู้มากกว่าที่จะเป็นกระบวนการของการสอนที่ช่วยพัฒนากระบวนการการเรียนรู้ ยิ่งไปกว่านั้นถึงแม้ว่างานวิจัยบางส่วนได้นำเสนอขั้นตอนของการสอนแบบโครงการ แต่มีเพียงส่วนน้อยเท่านั้นที่อธิบายโครงสร้างที่ชัดเจนในการนำการสอนแบบโครงการไปใช้ควบคู่กับการสอนในห้องเรียนแบบปกติ ดังนั้นงานวิจัยนี้จึงได้ศึกษาวิธีการในการนำบทเรียนการสอนแบบโครงการไปใช้อย่างเป็นระบบในสถานการณ์การสอนภาษาต่างประเทศแบบปกติที่มีข้อจำกัดทางด้านเนื้อหาหลักสูตรและการจัดสรรเวลา รวมถึงศึกษาว่าบทเรียนเหล่านี้ช่วยพัฒนาทักษะภาษาอังกฤษโดยรวมของ

นักศึกษาหรือไม่ ผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยนี้คือนักศึกษาระดับชั้นปีที่ 1 จำนวน 47 คน ซึ่งได้ลงทะเบียนเรียนรายวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ 1 ซึ่งมีระยะเวลาการเรียนทั้งสิ้น 12 สัปดาห์ ในมหาวิทยาลัยแห่งหนึ่งในประเทศไทย งานวิจัยนี้ได้เสนอบทเรียนการสอนแบบโครงงานแบบกึ่งมีโครงสร้าง แบบทดสอบข้อเขียนและการพูด บันทึกของนักศึกษา แฟ้มสะสมผลงาน และการสัมภาษณ์แบบกึ่งมีโครงสร้างถูกนำมาใช้ในการเก็บข้อมูล ผลการศึกษาพบว่าทักษะทางด้านภาษาโดยรวมของผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยมีการพัฒนาอย่างมีนัยสำคัญหลังจากที่ได้ผ่านบทเรียนที่ได้เสนอไป นอกจากนี้งานวิจัยนี้ยังได้เสนอแนวทางในการต่อยอดงานวิจัยในอนาคตไว้อีกด้วย

คำสำคัญ: การสอนแบบโครงงาน, การสอนแบบ PBL, พัฒนาการด้านทักษะภาษาอังกฤษ

Abstract

The project-based learning approach (PBL) has been accepted as an effective teaching method for promoting language learning for more than two decades. Projects are generally used as a tool to enhance students' additional learning experience outside classroom in subject content courses such as history, science, art, and so on. However, most research studies concerning PBL focused on the effects of PBL on learning, rather than the process of how it helped improve the learning process. Moreover, although some of them offered steps of PBL teaching, but few of them discussed a clear structure of how to integrate PBL into regular classroom instruction. Therefore, this study attempted to find a systematic way to integrate project-based lessons into regular foreign language teaching situations where course content and time allocation were fixed and to investigate whether they could help improve students' overall language skills. The participants were 47 first-year students who took an English I course which lasted 12 weeks at a university in Thailand. Semi-structured PBL lessons were proposed. Written and speaking tests, student diaries, portfolio assessment and semi-structured interviews were used for data collection. The results revealed that the overall English language skills of the participants improved significantly after having been through the proposed lessons. Recommendations for further research are also discussed.

Key words: Project-based learning, Project-based approach, English language skills improvement

Introduction

In today's globalized world, the importance of English is widely recognized since it is a means of international communication and, therefore, it is used throughout the world. According to the report of the Office of the Permanent Secretary, Ministry of Education (2006) of Thailand, however, one obvious and continuous weakness of most Thai students is limited English language skills. Most of them are still unable to communicate in English effectively, even after their graduation from a university (Marukatat, 2012). The results of Khamkhien (2010), Punthumasen (2007), and Simpson (2011) revealed that one of the main causes is the inefficient English language teaching methods currently used in Thailand. Although the trends and issues of contemporary teaching methodology for foreign languages are widely discussed, most English teachers still focus on teaching grammar rules, rather than actual language communication. Memorization of vocabulary lists and exercises are common practice in English language classrooms. In other words, language usage receives more emphasis than language use. As a result, the majority of students cannot use the English language functionally (Darasawang, 2007). In addition, students also find learning English boring and uninteresting, resulting in their low motivation in learning (Puthumases, 2007).

In order to alleviate these problems, a project-based learning (PBL) approach was chosen because of its positive outcomes on students' language skills as evidenced by a number of studies worldwide (e.g. Fujioka, 2012; Hutchinson, 2001; Lui, 2011; Shokri, 2010; Simpson, 2011; Sirtarath, 2007; Tomei, Glick & Holst, 1999). Though PBL was widely used in several studies, the main results focused on the effects of the PBL rather than the process of how to implement PBL lessons with regular teaching with particular limitations. Therefore, this study aimed to examine the effects of PBL lessons on the improvement of the overall language skills and learning process of first-year students at a Thai university after being integrated into regular classroom instruction. In order to reach the purpose, the research question was formulated:

How do the PBL lessons help improve the overall language skills of first-year students in terms of language ability and learning process?

The results of this study are beneficial for teachers, particularly language teachers who are trying to improve their instructional methods to be more effective. In addition, this study also presents a clear picture to language teachers about how PBL lessons were integrated into a real language course within time allocated.

The Project-based Learning (PBL)

The project-based learning (PBL) approach has been widely recognized in several fields of education as well as gained attention from educators and scholars for many years. Although several definitions of the term “project-based learning” have been proposed, most scholars (e.g. Beckett, 2002; Fried-Booth, 2002; Kobayashi, 2006) seem to agree that PBL is an instructional approach engaging learners in inquiry activities in which they work actively, independently, and collaboratively under the guidance of their teacher on authentic tasks and problems over a period of time, resulting in tangible and realistic products.

The PBL approach had been developed under the theoretical framework of constructivist theory which became the dominant learning theory in the 1980s (Mayer, 1996). Constructivism assumes that knowledge is constructed by learners as they attempt to make sense of their experiences based on their existing knowledge (Cholewinski, 2009; Hein, 1991). In other words, learners do not passively wait for the teacher to impart knowledge. Instead, they learn through an active process where knowledge is constructed by themselves (Baker, McGaw, & Peterson, 2007; Gray, 1997). Vygotsky, one of the significant contributors of the constructivist principles which underlie the PBL approach, believed that learning is a situated, social, and collaborative activity in which learners are responsible for constructing their own knowledge (Cholewinski, 2009). Vygotsky proposed the concept of *Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)*, which is the distance between

individual achievement and guided achievement where cognitive development can occur. When learners encounter a task that is more complex than they can handle on their own, appropriate assistance provided by a more knowledgeable person will facilitate them in achieving their task.

Based on these constructivist principles, a number of research studies have integrated PBL into foreign language classrooms. These studies report a variety of advantages of PBL as follows: firstly, it enhances the authenticity of their experiences and language. Students have opportunities to engage in real world situations and practices; for example, communicating with people outside the classroom, practicing their problem-solving skills in real-world situations, and utilizing other useful resources such as the Internet, the local community, advertising materials, and verbal communication in the real world (Simpson, 2011).

Secondly, it helps improve language skills. Since projects provide students with opportunities to use their language skills naturally, we can see that students are engaged in activities that require the use of integrated skills, that is, they read to write, write to speak and listen to write (Stoller, 2006). Kagnarith, Theara, and Klein (2007) revealed that a questionnaire project encouraged the use of the four language skills among students. Students were required to create survey questions, interact with respondents, analyze the data, and record the results for their final presentations to complete their project.

Thirdly, it develops social, cooperative and collaborative skills. PBL benefits students in promoting collaborative skills (CELL, 2009). For instance, the work of Musa, Mufti, Latiff and Amin (2011) reported that PBL was successful in that it yielded students' multiple opportunities to use and practice workplace related skills including teamwork, managing conflicts, decision making, and communication skills, which consequently enhanced their social skills.

Fourthly, when PBL is used in other subject courses, it helps increase content knowledge. The PBL approach allows students to work collaboratively through gathering, processing and reporting real information related to the

project's topic or theme. Consequently, students are exposed to content from various sources (Stoller, 2002). Additionally, students are encouraged to use the language as a means of learning new topics of interest. The majority of the students acknowledged the value of the PBL approach to language learning since they could simultaneously acquire language, subject matter, and skills within this framework.

Fifthly, it increases autonomy. Projects are learner-driven because they encourage learners to identify their learning needs, locate resources, conduct an independent study, and assess their own work, which helps promote their autonomy in learning (Thomas, 2000). Fang and Warschauer (2004) conducted a five-year study of a technology-enhanced educational reform initiative at a university in Eastern China. They found that Chinese EFL students interacted more frequently in PBL, played a more active role, and had more autonomy in their learning than they would have had in other EFL courses.

Lastly, it improves the students' abilities to make decisions, solve problems and think critically. According to CELL (2009), practitioners reported that students involved in PBL improved their critical thinking and problem-solving skills. The process of analysis, synthesis and evaluation of information requires learners to have high-level critical thinking skills (Grant, 2002). With such positive outcomes, PBL seems to be a highly potential approach that can help improve the English language skills of students.

Although a number of research studies of PBL revealed many of its benefits, some pointed out its constraints. Firstly, to prepare for PBL lessons was time-consuming (CELL, 2009; Hutchinson, 2001). For teachers, it took more time to plan, prepare, make, and present a project than it did to prepare a lesson for the traditional classroom. In addition, they needed to prepare themselves in terms of interpersonal, communication, and management skills as well as teaching styles which were necessary for successful operating PBL (Buck Institute for Education, 2013). Secondly, PBL seemed to be a great challenge for students

who were used to teacher-centered classrooms, like students from China (Gu, 2002). Such students needed to adapt themselves to learner-centered classroom. In addition, in EFL contexts, it was not easy to promote the use of target language students during the completion of their projects. In conclusion, it can be found that constraints can happen with involved parties (i.e. teacher and students). In order to overcome these challenges, the teachers need to plan carefully for the detailed steps of the PBL implementation, teaching materials, timeline and so on.

Methodology

Research Context and Participants

This study was conducted with an English I course, which is one of the five English language requirements offered by the School of Foreign Languages, Suranaree University of Technology (SUT). This course aims at developing students' English language proficiency for effective communication in social and academic settings (The School of Foreign Languages, 2013). The duration of the course is thirty-six hours over twelve weeks. Students attend the class three hours a week. The book used in this course is *Four Corners 3* published by Cambridge University Press. It is designed to develop students' overall skills, including listening, reading, speaking, writing, grammar, vocabulary, and functional language. The content covers high-interest topics such as personal stories, interesting lives, our world, personalities, and the environment (Richards & Bohlke, 2012). The participants were 47 students (N = 47) who were taking the English I course in the second semester of the academic year 2013 at SUT.

Research Design

A pre-experimental research or a single-group pretest-posttest design was employed to investigate the effects of the PBL lessons on the students' overall language ability. According to Jackson (2008, p.124), a single-group pretest-posttest is referred to as "a design in which a single group of participants takes a pretest, then receives some treatment, and then takes a posttest measure."

Consequently, measures are taken twice: before and after the treatment and then the two measures are compared. The changes in the outcome are presumed to be the result of the treatment. This design was chosen because it was hard to compare with other English I classes where teachers were allowed to conduct their instruction freely.

Research Instruments

To achieve the aims of the study, five research instruments were employed: (1) project-based learning lessons; (2) tests; (3) student diaries; (4) portfolio assessment; and (5) semi-structured interviews.

(1) Project-based learning (PBL) lessons

The PBL lessons were developed by the researcher based on the principles of the PBL approach, the 10-step PBL procedure proposed by Stoller (2002), the themes presented in the English I course book, and course objectives. The lessons focused on the development of students' overall language skills and learning process. In order to integrate PBL into fixed content effectively, the researcher had to: a) conduct an English I course analysis (objectives, content to be covered – themes, vocabulary, grammar points, etc., time allocation, teacher-directed teaching and lab hours, duration of the course, and test specifications); b) conduct an instructional context analysis (number of students, classroom, and facilities); c) consider student factors (their majors, language proficiency, interests, learning background, and possible constraints); and d) consider PBL theories and previous research findings (suggested steps of PBL implementation and possible learning outcomes). The results of this analysis were used to set the project outcomes which were directly related to the coursework. Several forms, which would facilitate their team working, were designed to ensure the outcomes of each step. This information allowed the researcher to have a clear picture of the whole process for completing the project.

After that, the PBL lessons were evaluated by an expert in the field of language learning and teaching who has specific experience in teaching English

I course to ensure their content validity. Then the lessons were revised based on the expert's comments and piloted with 2 classes of English I students (95 students) in the first semester of the academic year 2013 before the actual study. Due to the fact that English I course contains fixed content to be taught in class, most of the PBL lessons were conducted outside the classroom. In addition, this English I course was conducted by two teachers, one was the teacher (T1) who taught in the regular classroom and the other was the researcher as a teacher (T2) who reinforced the PBL lessons. The final PBL lessons consisted of ten main steps:

Step 1: The teacher introduces the PBL approach and some projects to the students.

Information about the PBL approach was introduced to the students in the classroom. After the students had gained some background knowledge about the PBL approach, the teacher introduced the project that they would be engaged in during the course as well as its criteria. Specifically, the students were informed that they would be working in a group of six to seven members of mixed ability based on their pretest scores to work together as a team on one project. Each group was required to produce a 10-15 minute short video related to the themes of the content of the English I course (i.e. Unit 1: Education, Unit 2: Personal stories, Unit 4: Interesting lives, and Unit 5: Our world). Some examples of projects were shown and *the final product evaluation criteria* (Appendix A) were explained to the students in order to provide them with guidance in completing the project.

Step 2: The students determine the topic and the final outcome of the project.

Each group brainstormed and agreed on the theme and the final outcome of the project in the classroom. *The "our group" form* (Appendix B) was distributed to every group for recording the contact information of the group members (i.e. names, telephone numbers, and email addresses), the topic, and the final outcome of the group. These details would be helpful for team gathering outside class.

Step 3: The students and the teacher plan the project.

Each group met with the teacher outside the classroom to plan the project and assign a role for each member. Meanwhile, the teacher acted as a facilitator who helped and provided suggestions for them. It is important to mention that from step 3 to step 8, each group needed to write a short summary about the meeting and supervision as well as their plan for the next step in *the project supervision form* (Appendix C) provided at the end of the group meeting. This form could help facilitate not only the teacher, but also the student themselves in monitoring the progress of the project. Apart from *a project supervision form*, the students were required to evaluate the outcome of their own group in each step and the teacher the outcome of every group of students based on *the portfolio evaluation rubric* (Appendix D).

Step 4: The students gather information.

The students followed their plan and worked according to their assigned role. In this step, the students began to search for and gather information relevant to the project. The information obtained was shown to the teacher for suggestions.

Step 5: The students present the first draft to the teacher.

Each group collaboratively prepared the first draft of their video script and the storyline of their project and presented them to the teacher for more ideas. The students revised the first draft according to the comments they received from the teacher.

Step 6: The students present the second draft to the teacher.

The students presented the second draft to the teacher. The teacher reviewed and discussed some strong and weak points of the project with the students and provided comments if necessary. Then each group prepared the final draft based on the comments and decisions of the group members.

Step 7: The students present the final draft to the teacher.

At this stage, some modifications were still encouraged in order to improve the quality of the project. The teacher's suggestions and comments were taken into consideration before the students produced the final product in the next step.

Step 8: The students prepare themselves and rehearse before producing the final product.

The students prepared for the production step. The preparation included conducting a rehearsal among group members and making an appointment with the parties involved before the production.

Step 9: The students produce the final product.

Each group arranged to meet and to help one another produce the final tangible product. In this step, it should be noted that the students in each group worked on their own after receiving guidance from the teacher in the previous steps.

Step 10: Students present the final product.

In this step, the students were ready to present the final product of their project. The final product was evaluated by the teacher, peers, and the students themselves according to *the final product evaluation score rubric* (Appendix A) as mentioned earlier. This evaluation rubric was adapted from the video project rubric created by Vandervelde (2011) and the video documentary developed by Rcampus (2014). It consisted of five bands ranging from 1 to 5 and covered four areas of evaluation: (1) Language use: level of difficulty and accuracy; (2) Quality of work: clarity of the production and interesting content; (3) Creativity: innovation and usefulness; and (4) Technology: appropriate integration of technology use.

The timeline of the implementation of PBL lessons in English I course for the present study is displayed in Appendix E (*PBL implementation*).

(2) Tests

Tests were employed to measure the change in students' overall language ability before and after the implementation of the PBL lessons. Both pretests and posttests included: 1) a 60-item multiple-choice test and 2) a speaking test as described below:

a. 60-item multiple-choice tests

A 60-item multiple-choice test was used to measure students' language skills. The pretest was developed by the researcher while the posttest was developed by the School of Foreign Languages. Both pretest and posttest had the same specifications as those written by the School of Foreign Languages. Specifically, the test consisted of sixty questions, which were divided into five sections: listening section (15 items), dialogue completion section (10 items), vocabulary section (10 items), grammar section (10 items), and reading section (15 items). The content of the tests were directly related to those in the English I course book.

As for the pretest, two experts in the field of language learning and teaching and assessment were asked to evaluate whether the questions could measure what they claimed to measure to ensure the content validity of the test. In addition, the test was piloted with 51 first-year students who had never taken an English I course before. Then the internal consistency (reliability) was measured by conducting an item analysis through the use of the Item Analysis System (Version 2006) program developed by Khaimook (2006). The reliability was 0.91.

b. Speaking test

A speaking test in the form of a free group discussion was used to measure students' speaking ability. The whole class was divided into groups of four to five. Each group was given five minutes to discuss the topic related to the ones in the course book (e.g. life at the university, interesting experiences, and a dream vacation). The speaking bands were issued by the School of Foreign Languages (Appendix F). To ensure the reliability of the speaking test scores, two instructors rated the participants' oral ability. These two raters were English teachers who have experience of scoring the English I speaking test. To find the inter-rater reliability, Cronbach's Alpha was employed. The results showed that the reliability coefficient value of the pretest was 0.85 and that of the posttest was 0.91.

To analyze the data obtained from the tests, the scores of the pretests and the posttests were compared by using a paired sample t-test to determine whether the mean scores of the pretests and the posttests were significantly different.

(3) *Student diaries*

A student diary was employed as a tool to explore how the PBL lessons helped the participants improve their overall language skills. Every participant was required to write a diary during the project. In the diary form, there were guided questions such as “How did I feel when working on these steps?”, “Was it difficult or easy?”, and “What did I learn in terms of language skills?” These questions made writing a diary easier for the students to think of what to record and to help them align their responses with the research objectives. However, some free space was provided for them to write any extra information they might have wanted to express. The data obtained from the diaries were analyzed through a content analysis.

(4) *Portfolio Assessment*

The study employed a portfolio as another assessment tool to monitor students’ concrete progress of the project over time. The teacher employed it to see how students learn in each step in order to complete their work. The progress of each group in each step (e.g. drafts produced during steps 5 to 7) was collected in a portfolio. To monitor, the teacher employed the criteria mentioned in *the portfolio evaluation rubric* (Appendix D) adapted from Byrd’s guidance (2010).

(5) *Semi-structured interviews*

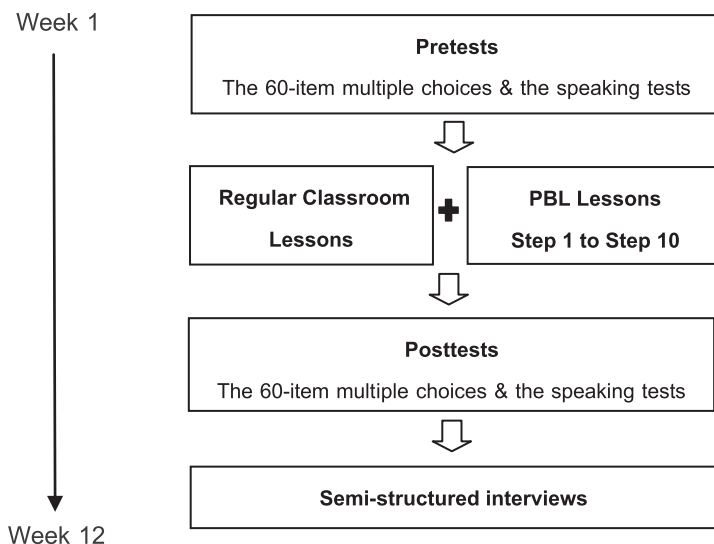
A semi-structured interview was used to gather additional data from the participants. A list of open-ended questions was predetermined by the researcher in order to guide the interview. 50% of the participants (i.e. twenty-five students) were randomly selected to join in the interviews. The participants were interviewed in Thai to avoid communication problems after the posttest. Each lasted approxi-

mately fifteen minutes. A content analysis was used to analyze the transcribed interview data.

Research Procedure

Figure 1 shows how the research study was carried out. Before the implementation of the PBL lessons, all students took a written and an oral pretest in order to measure their base line ability in the English language. After that, all students went through 10-step PBL lessons at the same time with the regular classroom lessons. Then all participants took the posttests and were interviewed individually.

Figure 1 Research Procedure



Results

In order to determine how the PBL lessons helped improve the overall language skills of first-year students at SUT in terms of language ability and learning process, data from four research instruments were collected and analyzed. The data collected from semi-structured interview, student's diaries and portfolio assessment were qualitatively analyzed through the process of content analysis. The quantitative data were obtained from two types of tests (i.e. written and speaking tests). A paired-samples t-test was conducted to determine if the difference in the means of the students' pretest and posttest scores were statistically significant.

Improvements in Overall English Language Ability

As shown in Table 1 on the next page, the result indicated that the mean difference of the written tests was 10.39, while that of the speaking tests was 3.51. Significant differences were found between the means scores of both written and speaking tests ($p < .05$). In sum, these results suggested that the PBL lessons helped improve the overall language skills of first-year SUT students, in terms of language ability, which included listening, speaking, reading, grammar and vocabulary.

Table 1 A paired-samples t-test

	Paired-samples t-test				Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean (\bar{x})	Std. Deviation (SD)	Mean Difference	df	
■ Written tests					
Pretest Score	25.36	9.03			
			10.39	46	.000
Posttest Score	35.75	8.18			
■ Speaking tests					
Pretest Score	6.49	1.63			
			3.51	46	.000
Posttest Score	10.00	2.64			

Furthermore, the qualitative data gathered from the interviews, student diaries and portfolio demonstrated how their English skills were improved as presented below:

Subject 10: *"I learned the biography of famous people from the documentary videos on YouTube...I learned about past tense, past perfect tense and if clause from the articles provided on the Internet...I got some new words such as "contribution" and "develop" from the online dictionary"*

Subject 24: *"I tried to write the script by using present perfect tense. Then I showed it to the teacher. When the teacher found the wrong sentences, she would give me suggestions. I learned from the teacher and I started recognizing."*

Subject 25: *"Yes, could develop my English skills. At least, I learned grammar when I wrote the video script. I used an online dictionary to find out how to pronounce some particular words, so I could pronounce them correctly."*

Subject 26: *“The skill that I could develop the most was listening. This was because I got a chance to speak English with the teacher. And when I went back home, I searched for information from the Internet and listened to it.”*

Subject 29: *“I studied the content that I needed to integrate into the project as well as vocabulary from the course book. I read unit 2 (personal story) from the Four Corners book...I wrote sentences according to the rules that I learned from the Four Corners book.”*

Subject 41: *“My English has improved, especially my speaking skill. I had a chance to speak English because I was Master of Ceremonies (MC) in the video.”*

It can be seen from the above extracts that the participants stated how their English language skills such as writing, speaking, grammar and vocabulary were improved while/after completing the project.

Figure 2 *Personal Stories Group 4*

Personal Stories Group 4

Stepping on dog poop

One day I made an appointment with my friend at SUT cafeteria. But unfortunately, I forgot the appointment time, so I left my room a little bit late. While I was walking to the cafeteria, I felt like I stepped on something. However, I didn't pay much attention on it because I was in a hurry to meet my friend. During talking to my friend, suddenly, I smelled something bad. My friend and I tried to find where that smell came from. Finally, my friend found out that the smell was from my shoes. Oh! The thing that I stepped on was dogsled or dog poop. I was really embarrassed.

Shooting the ball

One day, I played basketball with my friends at the basketball court. We had people, so we were divided into two teams. While I was playing, I had a chance to shoot the ball. So, everyone in my team looked at me and hoped that I could make a score. At that time, I was a little bit nervous, so I closed my eyes and quickly threw the ball to the basket. Suddenly, I heard a strange noise from somewhere. When I opened my eyes and I saw a man was lying on the floor. Sadly, one of my friends told me that he was hit by my ball. I felt really guilty and upset.

In terms of vocabulary and grammatical improvement, due to the project criteria requiring the students to integrate the content of the English I course into the project, the students needed to study the course book in depth in particular points (vocabulary, speaking strategies, grammar, and reading passages) so that they could use them properly in their project. For example, the speaking scripts in Figure 2 extracted from portfolio assessment showed that the students attempted to integrate the content of Unit 2 (e.g. sentence adverbs, verbs to describe reactions, and past continuous and past simple tense) into their project work. The adverbs such as *unfortunately*, *suddenly*, and *sadly*, as well as verbs to describe reactions like *embarrassed* were used in the stories.

Additionally, the correct and appropriate tense forms (target grammar of Unit 4) were emphasized in the interview scripts of some groups. For example, one group of students decided to interview their teammates. The students applied the forms of the present perfect tense that they had learned in class to create the interview questions as shown below.

A part of group 6's script

A: What kind of sport do you play?

B: I play Tae Kwon Do.

A: How long have you played and do you still playing it?

B: I have played it since I was in the middle school.

A: Have you ever won an award?

B: I have never won. I play because I want to protect myself from danger.

A: Do you have an idol?

B: I have an idol. He is Jackie Chan.

A: Why do you like him?

B: Because he looks cool in movies.

A: Have you ever met him?

B: No, I have never met him.

A: What benefit have you got from sport?

B: I use it to protect myself from being attacked.

Improvement on Other Learning Processes

It was discovered that the PBL lessons not only helped foster English language skills, but also provided other positive effects on the students' learning processes. All of the participants agreed that during the PBL implementation, their learning ability improved. In other words, they had greater confidence in taking responsibility for their own learning. In addition, some essential and useful skills for their learning were enhanced such as teamwork, decision-making, and problem-solving skills as appeared in the following extracts:

Subject 3: *"I tried to adjust myself to work with other people. I accepted the ideas of other people. It made me be an open-minded person. I tried not to stick only to my own idea and tried to listen to other people's opinions which might be better than mine."*

Subject 13: *"I learned how to deal with the problems. For example, when I had a problem with my camera, I needed to use my mobile phone instead. Another example was that at first our group planned to interview foreigners at the Mall department store; unfortunately, we could not do it without the permission from the department store. So we needed to change the place to do."*

Subject 25: *"I had learned about the methods to make a short video as well as the functions provided in the Microsoft Power Point program. Previously, I didn't know that I could record my voice and insert it into my presentation through the Microsoft PowerPoint program, but I attempted to find it. Finally, I found the way to do it."*

Discussion

The improvement of the overall language skills of the students can be explained by four main reasons. Firstly, it is the result of extra language exposure. In this study, it was found that the students attempted to gain more knowledge and experiences from the group members, teacher and the Internet on the aspects which were necessary to complete the project such as interviewing skills, vocabulary, and grammar points and so on. This could result from the carefully designed structure of the project content and outcomes. The students had clear ideas what to include in their projects.

Secondly, it is also the result of the assistance provided by the teacher which played a key role in students' language skills improvement. Even though the design of the PBL lessons encouraged students to carry out all the steps by themselves, it was found that the students still needed some help from the teacher in various cases. For instance, in the beginning stages the students needed detailed directions on how to develop the project because they had never done this kind of activity before. Meanwhile, in the writing stages, they needed comments and suggestions concerning the accuracy of their scripts because it was still beyond their current ability. Similar findings were reported in the study of Simpson (2011) which indicated that teacher feedback on different language skills such as grammar or pronunciation not only enhanced student achievement in English language skills, but also maintained their enthusiasm for learning. In short, the teacher is still highly important to enhance the success of PBL approach.

Thirdly, it might be the result of authentic use of language. The PBL approach functions as a bridge between learning English in the classroom and using it in real-life situations outside the classroom (Fried-Booth, 2002). It helps place the students in situations that require the authentic use of language (Moss & Van Duzer, 1998). As found from this study, each group of students had an opportunity to apply the content learned in the English I course for use in a real-world environment.

Lastly, one plausible explanation for the students' improvements in their learning processes is that the nature of multiple steps in project work which provide several opportunities to recycle and practice key skills such as teamwork, decision-making and problem-solving skills throughout the process. Furthermore, the collaborative working environment of the mixed ability group members and the semi-structured PBL lessons helped enhance the students' learning processes.

According to the *Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD)* concept in social constructivism, Vygotsky (1978) describes when learners encounter a task that is more complex than they can handle on their own, appropriate assistance given by a more knowledgeable person will help them achieve the task. The findings of this study support the concept of ZPD that (1) the ability of the less competent students could be developed with the help of more skillful peers and (2) collaborative activities in PBL enabled the students to support and encourage each other in the team members to accomplish their shared goals.

Limitations and Future Directions

The findings of this study showed that the students were able to improve their English language skills in listening, speaking, reading, grammar and vocabulary as a result of the integration of PBL into the English I course. PBL helps place the students in situations that require authentic use of language as well as provide opportunities for them to take control of their own learning to improve their English. In addition, with adequate guidance from the teacher as well as support and encouragement from their peers, the students were able to deal with the problems and accomplish their goals.

Although the present study yielded many insights and perspectives about PBL implementation, some limitations should be addressed. Firstly, by using a pre-experimental design, the researcher cannot control threats to its internal validity, so any changes observed cannot be fully claimed to be the results of the treatment because possible alternative explanations have not been removed from

consideration (Jackson, 2008; Krysik & Finn, 2013). However, a pre-experimental design was employed in this study because it was unlikely to control the teaching methods of the other English I groups. The English I teachers are allowed to use any teaching methods in their teaching as long as they can help students achieve the goals of the lessons specified in the English I course book. Secondly, based on the multiple roles of the researcher (PBL course developer, teacher, and researcher), it is possible that the researcher could have influence the participants' responses in relation to the success of the PBL implementation (Simpson, 2011). However, in order to help reduce the bias, an inter-rater method, triangulation of data sources, and data collection methods were employed.

Further research studies on the PBL approach are needed to provide more data in order to confirm or disprove the findings and implications of the current study. Firstly, further studies may incorporate the PBL approach with other approaches. For instance, it may be integrated into the content-based approach in which the language activities are specific to the subject matter being taught such as business English courses or ESP courses for Engineering. Secondly, longitudinal studies should be conducted to examine whether the improvements students achieved in a single term will continue to improve over an extended period of time. Thus, research studies should try to investigate the effects of the PBL lessons over several terms. Lastly, further studies may engage students from different places, universities, or countries to work together in a joint project through the use of technology and the Internet, e-mail, chat programs, or web-based conferencing systems. For example, future research can be conducted with the collaboration of students from different ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) member countries on a particular international project. This kind of project would be especially useful for the students who have limited opportunities of exposure to authentic use of the target language.

References

- Baker, E., McGaw, B., & Peterson, P. (2007). *Constructivism and learning international encyclopedia of education* (3rd ed.). Retrieved on November 14th, 2012, from <http://folk.uio.no/sveinsj>
- Beckett, G. H. (2002). Teacher and student evaluations of project-based instruction. *TESL Canada Journal*, 19(2), 52-66.
- Buck Institute for Education. (2013). *Introduction to project based learning*. Project-based learning handbook. Retrieved on August 15th, 2013, from <http://bie.org>
- Byrd, R. C. (2010). *Rubrics and portfolios*. Retrieved on September 15th, 2013, from <http://www.hsc.wvu.edu>
- Center of Excellence in Leadership of Learning. (CELL). (2009). *Summary of research on project-based learning*. Retrieved on November 30th, 2012, from <http://cell.uindy.edu>
- Cholewinski, M. (2009). *An introduction to constructivism and authentic activity*. Retrieved on November 20th, 2012, from <http://library.nakanishi.ac.jp>
- Darasawang, P. (2007). English language teaching and education in Thailand: A decade of change. In D. Prescott (Ed.), *English in Southeast Asia: Varieties, literacies and literatures*. (pp. 187-204). Newcastle, UK: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Fang, X., & Warschauer, M. (2004). Technology and curriculum reform in China: A case study. *TESOL Quarterly*, 38(2), 301-323.
- Fried-Booth, D. L. (2002). *Project work*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Fujioka, K. (2012). Integrating project work in the EFL classroom. In Stewart, A. & Sonda, N. (Eds.), *JALT 2011 Conference proceedings*. Tokyo: JALT.
- Grant, M. (2002). Getting a grip on project-based learning: theory, cases and recommendations. *Meridian: A Middle School Computer Technologies Journal*, 5(1). Retrieved on December 15th, 2012, from <http://www.ncsu.edu/meridian/win2002/514/project-based.pdf>

- Gray, A. (1997). *Constructivist teaching and learning*. Retrieved on January 15th, 2013, from <http://www.saskschoolboards.ca/old/ResearchAndDevelopment/ResearchReports/Instruction/97-07.htm>
- Gu, P. (2002). Web-based project learning and EFL learners: A Chinese example. *Teaching English with Technology*, 2(4), 4-41.
- Hein, G. E. (1991). *Constructivist learning theory*. Paper presented at the International Committee of Museum Educators Conference, Jerusalem, Israel. Retrieved on December 12th, 2012, from <http://www.exploratorium.edu/ifi/resources/constructivistlearning.html>
- Hutchinson, T. (2001). *Introduction to Project Work*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Jackson, S. L. (2008). *Research methods: A modular approach*. Belmont, CA: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Kagnarith, C., Theara, C., & Klein, A. (2007). A questionnaire project: Integrating the four macro skills with critical thinking. *English Teacher Forum*, 1, 1-9.
- Khaimook, K. (2006). *Item analysis system*. LomaSoft Co., Ltd.
- Khamkhien, A. (2010). Teaching English speaking and English speaking tests in the Thai context: A reflection from Thai perspective. *English Language Teaching*, 3(1), 184-190.
- Kobayashi, M. (2006). Second language socialization through an oral project presentation: Japanese university students' experience. In G. H. Beckett & P. C. Miller (Eds.), *Project-based second and foreign language education: Past, present, and future* (pp. 71-93). Connecticut, USA: Information Age Publishing Inc. Retrieved on January 8th, 2013, from <http://hub.hku.hk/handle>
- Krysik, J. L., & Finn, J. (2013). *Research for effective social work practice* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge.

- Lui, F. (2011). *An ESP course using kinesthetic learning activities through a project-based learning approach for sports science students* (Master's thesis, Burapha University, Chonburi, Thailand). Retrieved on January 8th, 2013, from <http://dcms.thailis.or.th>
- Marukatat, S. (2012, January 8). Poor English skills could leave Thais out in the cold. *Bangkok Post*. Retrieved on April 8th, 2013, from <http://www.bangkokpost.com/news/local/274156/>
- Mayer, R. E. (1996). History of instructional psychology. In E. D. Corte & F. E. Weinert (Eds.), *International encyclopedia of developmental and instructional psychology* (pp. 29-33). Oxford, UK: Pergamon Press.
- Ministry of Education. (2006). *Strategic plan for reforming the English learning process to accelerate national competitive ability (2006-2010)*. Bangkok: Author.
- Moss, D., & Van, D. C. (1998). *Project-based learning for adult English language learners*. Retrieved on December 24th, 2012, from <http://www.cal.org/>
- Musa, F., Mufti, N., Latiff, R. A., & Amin, M. M. (2011). Project-based learning: Promoting meaningful language learning for workplace skills. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 18, 187-195.
- Punthumasen, P. (2007). International Program for Teacher Education: An Approach to Tackling Problems of English Education in Thailand, *In the 11th UNESCO-APEID international conference, reinventing higher education: Toward participatory and sustainable development 12-14 December 2007, Bangkok, Thailand*. Retrieved on May 5th, 2013, from <http://www.worldedreform.com/>
- Rcampus. (2014). *Video documentary*. Retrieved on January 5th, 2014 from <http://www.rcampus.com>
- Richards, J. C., & Bohlke, D. (2012). *Four Corners: Teacher's Edition 3*. New York, USA: Cambridge University Press.

- Shokri, N. M. (2010). Team project facilitates language learning. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 7(C), 555-564.
- Simpson, J. (2011). *Integrating project-based learning in an English language tourism classroom in a Thai University* (Doctoral thesis, Australian Catholic University, North Sydney, Australia). Retrieved on November 30th, 2012, from <http://dlibrary.acu.edu.au/digitaltheses/public/adt-acuvp309.29062011/02whole.pdf>
- Siritarath, N. (2007). *A development of the English oral communication course using a project-based learning approach to enhance the English oral communication ability of Kasetsart University students* (Doctoral thesis, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand). Retrieved on February 14th, 2013, from <http://tdc.thailis.or.th/tdc/>
- Stoller, F. (2002). Project work: A means to promote language content. In J. Richards & W. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice* (pp. 107-119). Cambridge University Press.
- Stoller, F. (2006). Establishing a theoretical foundation for project-based learning in second and foreign language contexts. In G. H. Beckett & P. C. Miller (Eds.), *Project-based second and foreign language education: Past, present, and future* (pp. 19-40). Connecticut, USA: Information Age Publishing Inc.
- The School of Foreign Languages. (2013). *The School of Foreign Languages*. Retrieved on April 13rd, 2013, from http://soctech.sut.ac.th/fl/st_u_eng.html
- Thomas, W. J. (2000). *A review of research on project-based learning*. Retrieved on December 1st, 2012, from <http://www.bie.org>
- Tomei, J., Glick, C., & Holst, M. (1999). Project work in a Japanese university classroom. *The Language Teacher*, 23(3), 5-8.
- Vandervelde, J. (2011). *Video project rubric*. Retrieved on July 1st, 2013, from <https://www2.uwstout.edu>
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

About Authors

Nillawan Newprasit received her Bachelor's degree in Business Administration from Assumption University, Bangkok, Thailand in 1996. In 1998, she obtained her Master's degree in Science in Marketing from Golden Gate University, California, USA. She has been working in the field of business since 1998. Apart from her interest in doing business, she is also interested in English language studies. She has been teaching English as a tutor since 2009. In 2011, she decided to pursue her Master's Degree in English Language Studies at the School of Foreign languages, Institute of Social Technology, Suranaree University of Technology. Her interests include teaching methodology, especially the use of a project-based approach.

Sirinthorn Seepho obtained her PhD in Foreign Language Education from the University of Pittsburgh, USA. She is currently a lecturer at Suranaree University of Technology, Nakhon Ratchasima. Her research interests include English language teaching, Content-based Instruction, qualitative inquiry and teacher training.

Appendix A

Final Product Evaluation Score Rubric

Criteria	1	3	5
Language use - Level of difficulty - Accuracy	- The language used in the project is not challenging or too easy. - The work includes many errors in grammar, spelling or pronunciation.	- The language used in the project is somewhat appropriate and challenging. - The work includes some errors in grammar, spelling or pronunciation.	- The language used in the project is highly appropriate and challenging. - The work includes no errors in grammar, spelling or pronunciation.
Quality of work - Clarity of the production and interesting content	- The content presented is neither clear nor interesting.	- The content presented is somewhat clear and interesting.	- The content presented is very clear and interesting.
Creativity - Innovation - Usefulness	- The work shows no evidence of new ideas. - The content includes no useful information.	- The work shows some evidence of new ideas. - The content includes some useful information.	- The work shows substantial evidence of new ideas. - The content includes a lot of useful information.
Technology - Appropriate integration of technology use	- The project shows no well-integration use of technology resources.	- The project shows somewhat well-integrated use of technology resources.	- The project shows well-integrated use of technology resources.

Note: The scores range from 1 to 5 (i.e. 1,2,3,4, and 5)

Appendix B OUR GROUP

Group's name: _____

I. Form a group of six to seven. Each member writes your name, phone number and e-mail address in the blanks below.

1.				E-mail _____ (Group leader)
2.				E-mail _____ (Vice GL)
3.				Email _____ (Secretary)
4.				E-mail _____
5.				E-mail _____
6.				E-mail _____
7.				E-mail _____

II. Are you interested in education, personal stories, interesting lives or our world?

Our topic will be related to _____

III. Indicate the final product

The final product is _____

Example: Talk show / Newsletter / Campus radio program / Presentation / Website / Blog, and so on.

IV. Meeting time of the group: _____

Appendix D

Portfolio Evaluation Rubric

Criteria	1	3	5
Language Skills	Make no progress Make no corrections on language mistakes and do not pay attention on those mistakes.	Make some progress Make some corrections on language mistakes and partly understand why they are wrong.	Make some progress Make all corrections on language mistakes and fully understand why they are wrong.
Teamwork Skills	No one works, responsibilities are not equally shared.	Some of the members work together to complete the project.	All of the members work together to complete the project.
Higher-order of thinking skills and Technology use	No effort in integrating higher-order thinking skills or technology in the project.	Have put some effort in integrating higher-order thinking skills or technology in the project.	Have put a lot of effort in integrating higher-order thinking skills or technology in the project.
Progress of the project	No progress from the previous step.	Make some progress.	Make a lot of progress.

Note: The scores range from 1 to 5 (i.e. 1,2,3,4, and 5)

Appendix E

PBL Implementation

Session	Inside class activities	Outside class activities
Week 1 (1 hr.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - T1 Class orientation (T1) <u>Step 1: T2 introduces the PBL approach and the project to Ss.</u> - T2 introduces PBL approach as well as content of English I to Ss. - T2 describes the project components and criteria. - T2 shows some examples of projects. - Ss form a group. 	
Week 1 (2 hrs.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ss take a 60-item M/C pretest. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ss take a speaking pretest.
Week 2 (1 hr.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - T1 introduces unit1 (Education) to Ss. - T1 implements lesson A (Unit 1). 	<u>Step 2: Ss determine the topic and the final outcome of the project.</u>
Week 2 (2 hrs.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - T1 implements lesson B (Unit 1). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ss determine the topic and the final outcome of the project by using “Our group” form (Appendix B).
Week 3 (1 hr.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - T1 implements lesson C (Unit 1). 	<u>Step 3: Ss and T2 plan the project.</u>
Week 3 (2 hr.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - T1 implements lesson D (Unit 1). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ss plan the methods to accomplish the project. - Ss assign a role for each member. - T2 provides suggestion.
Week 4 (2 hrs.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - T1 introduces unit 2 (personal stories) to Ss. - T1 implements lesson A (Unit 2). 	<u>Step 4: Ss gather information.</u>
Week 4 (2 hrs.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - T1 implements lesson B (Unit 2). 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ss follow their plan and work according to their assigned role. - Ss begin to search and gather information relevant to the project. - The information obtained is shown to the teacher for suggestions. - Ss are asked to submit the first diary.

Session	Inside class activities	Outside class activities
Week 5 (1 hr.)	- T1 implements lesson C (Unit 2).	<i>Step 5: Ss submit the first draft of the project.</i>
Week 5 (2 hrs.)		- Each group prepares the first draft of the project and submits it to T. for comments. - Ss revise and prepare the second draft according to T2's comments.
Week 6 (1 hr.)	- T1 implements lesson D (Unit 2).	<i>Step 6: Ss submit the second draft of the project.</i>
Week 6 (2 hrs.)		- The second draft is submitted for suggestions. - T2 reviews the second draft. - Ss revise it and prepare the final draft.
Week 7	Mid-term Exam Week	
Week 8 (1 hr.)	- T1 introduces unit 4 (Interesting lives) to Ss.	<i>Step 7: Ss submit the final draft of the project.</i>
Week 8 (2 hrs.)	- T1 implements lesson A (Unit 4).	- Ss submit the final draft to T2 for approval. - Ss are asked to submit the second diary.
Week 9 (1 hr.)	- T1 implements lesson B (Unit 4).	<i>Step 8: Ss prepare themselves and rehearse before producing the final product.</i>
Week 9 (2 hrs.)	- T1 implements lesson C (Unit 4).	- Ss prepare themselves for the production step.
Week 10 (1 hr.)	- T1 implements lesson D (Unit 4).	- Ss conduct a rehearsal among group members.
Week 10 (2 hrs.)	- T1 introduces unit5 (Our world) to Ss. - T1 implements lesson A (Unit 5).	- Ss. make an appointment with the parties involved before the production.

Session	Inside class activities	Outside class activities
Week 11 (1 hr.)	- T1 implements lesson B (Unit 5).	<p><i>Step 9: Ss produce the final product.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Each group arranges to meet and to help one another to produce the final tangible product. <p>Ss work on their own after receiving guidance from the teacher in the previous steps.</p>
Week 11 (2 hrs.)	- T1 implements lesson C (Unit 5).	
Week 12 (1 hr.)	- T1 implements lesson D (Unit 5).	
Week 12 (2 hrs.)	<p><i>Step 10: Ss present the final product.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ss present their final products. - The final products are assessed and evaluated by the teacher, peers, the students themselves according to the <i>final product evaluation rubric</i> (Appendix A). - Ss are asked to submit the third diary. 	
Week 13	<p>Final Exam Week</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Ss take a 60-item M/C posttest & a speaking posttest. - The randomly selected students will be participated in the semi-structured interviews. 	

T1: The teacher who teach the regular classroom

T2: The teacher who reinforce the PBL lessons

Ss: The students

Appendix F

Rubric for Speaking Test

Band	Description
0	Student makes no attempt to communicate with friends.
1	Student has spoken with minimal fluency and intelligibility (slowly and hesitantly), with poor pronunciation and grammar and little use of communication strategies. Student is almost entirely dependent on a prepared script.
2	Student has spoken with occasional fluency and intelligibility but little use of communication strategies. Student is largely dependent on a prepared script.
3	Student has spoken with some fluency and intelligibility and with some limited use of communication strategies. Student has some ability to depart from prepared script.
4	Student has spoken with some fluency and intelligibility and good use of communication strategies. Student can perform (at this basic level) without a prepared script.
5	Student has spoken fluently and intelligibly with good use of communication strategies, and performs well without a prepared script.

Note: Half-band grading was allowed in each band, i.e. 0.5, 1.5, 2.5, 3.5, and 4.5

Active Participators' Engagement in Graduate Classroom Discussions การเข้าร่วมอภิปรายในชั้นเรียนระดับปริญญาโทของนักศึกษา ที่มีความกระตือรือร้น

Pattamawadee Lueasom

Thammasat University

Email: hong_movingfuture@hotmail.com

บทคัดย่อ

ความกระตือรือร้นในการเรียนของนักศึกษามีอิทธิพลอย่างมากต่อความสำเร็จในการศึกษาและการพัฒนาตนเองของนักศึกษาในอนาคต ถึงแม้ความกระตือรือร้นในการเรียนจะเป็นเรื่องที่สำคัญ แต่โดยทั่วไปแล้วมีนักเรียนเพียงส่วนน้อยเท่านั้นที่มีความกระตือรือร้นในห้องเรียน อีกทั้งงานวิจัยที่เกี่ยวข้องกับนักศึกษาที่มีความกระตือรือร้นก็ยังคงมีอยู่จำกัด เพื่อที่จะเติมเต็มงานวิจัยในด้านนี้ งานวิจัยชิ้นนี้จึงศึกษาลักษณะการเข้าร่วมของนักศึกษาที่มีความกระตือรือร้นในการอภิปรายในห้องเรียนของมหาวิทยาลัยรัฐแห่งหนึ่งในประเทศไทย ทั้งนี้ได้มีการเก็บข้อมูลโดยวิธีการสังเกตการณ์ในห้องเรียน การบันทึกวิดีโอและการสัมภาษณ์ สำหรับการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลนั้น จะใช้ทฤษฎีทางด้านภาษาศาสตร์คือ โครงสร้างการสนทนา Initiation-Response-Feedback (I-R-F) ในการวิเคราะห์ลักษณะการเข้าร่วมอภิปรายของนักศึกษาที่มีความกระตือรือร้น โดยผลการวิจัยพบลักษณะการเข้าร่วมในการอภิปรายที่สำคัญ 5 ประการของนักศึกษาที่มีความกระตือรือร้นได้แก่ 1) ร่วมแสดงความคิดเห็นในห้องเรียนโดยที่อาจารย์ผู้สอนไม่ต้องกระตุ้นเชื้อเชิญ 2) อาสาเป็นคนแรกในการตอบคำถามและทำให้บรรยากาศความเงียบ (Awkward Silence) กลับสู่การอภิปรายอีกครั้ง 3) โครงสร้างการสนทนาได้ตอบระหว่างนักศึกษาที่กระตือรือร้นและอาจารย์ผู้สอนเป็นแบบ teacher Initiation - student Response – teacher Feedback – student Response (I-R-F-R) 4) ใช้วิธีการสลับภาษา (Code Switching) ในการอภิปรายเพื่อถ่ายทอดความหมายของคำให้ชัดเจนและทำให้การสนทนาดำเนินไปอย่างต่อเนื่อง 5) ถามคำถามต่ออาจารย์ผู้สอน ลักษณะการเข้าร่วมที่กระตือรือร้นและมีคุณภาพของนักศึกษาที่มีความกระตือรือร้นสามารถช่วยให้

นักศึกษาที่มักจะเจียบในห้องเรียนเรียนรู้ว่าจะสามารถเข้าร่วมอภิปรายอย่างกระตือรือร้นในห้องเรียนได้อย่างไร ดังนั้นนักศึกษา อาจารย์ผู้สอนและสถาบันการศึกษาสามารถได้รับความรู้ที่เป็นประโยชน์ในการพัฒนานักศึกษาให้สามารถเข้าร่วมการอภิปรายอย่างกระตือรือร้นได้จากงานวิจัยชิ้นนี้

คำสำคัญ: การมีส่วนร่วมของนักเรียนในการเรียน, การอภิปรายในชั้นเรียน, การมีส่วนร่วมในชั้นเรียน

Abstract

Active participation of students significantly influenced their educational success and students' personal development in the future. Even though the value of active participation in classroom discussion has been identified, there were a small number of active participators in each class. Moreover, scant attention has been paid to active participators. To fill this research gap, this study examined active participators' engagement in gradate class discussions at a public university in Thailand. Data were derived from three sources including class observation, video-taped classroom interactions, and interviews. For data analysis, Initiation-Response-Feedback (I-R-F) exchange structure framework was utilized to analyze active participators' classroom discourse. The findings revealed five typical characteristics during class discussions: a) sharing their opinions or experiences without teacher's initiation; b) being the first to respond to teacher's initiation and being the first to break awkward silence (lapse) in the class; c) active participators' exchange structure presented an I-R-F-R pattern; d) employing code switching strategy (English to Thai) to convey exact meanings of particular words and hold the floor; e) active participators initiated questions to teachers. The productive characteristics of active participators and their positive perceptions may assist passive students to learn how to actively participate in class. Students, teachers and educational institutes can gain beneficial knowledge in terms of active participation development in discussions from this study's findings.

Key words: Student participation, classroom discussion, classroom participation

Introduction

At a graduate level, active participation in classroom discussions is highly valued and encouraged by professors because of the positive impacts of active participation. It has been found that students who are actively involved in discussions will learn more efficiently than those who are not (Bransford, 1979; Garside, 1996). Furthermore, classroom discussions and academic activities help graduate students gradually develop their oral academic discourse through ongoing negotiations with teachers and peers. Not only linguistic knowledge development, but classroom discussions also promote cognitive development. This is because students will learn how to think critically and increase their intellectual development if they are active participants in the classroom (Abdullah, Baka & Mahbob, 2012; Mustapha, Rahman & Yunus, 2010).

Although the value of active participation in classroom discussions has been emphasized, studies have shown that there are relatively small numbers of active participators (Fischer & Grant, 1983; Loftin, Davis & Hartin, 2010; Smith, 1983). Generally, in a classroom of forty students, there are only ten students who participate in class activities and five students who dominate class discussion (Weaver & Qi, 2005). Furthermore, a great number of research articles in classroom participation have emphasized less-active participators and investigated the reasons for student reticence in classroom discussions, while there has only been a limited amount of research that focused on active participators. In order to fill this research gap, this present research was proposed to explore how active participators engaged in classroom discussions. The Initiation-Response-Feedback classroom discourse pattern (I-R-F) was used to analyze active participators' engagement and investigate whether they followed or deviated from I-R-F exchange structure. Accordingly, this study examined one research question:

1. How did active participators engage in classroom discussions with their instructors and peers?

Types of Classroom Participation

Various research articles have revealed that there are many types of classroom participation patterns. Liu (2001) categorized the participation patterns according to the motivation and willingness of students to participate and identified four patterns of classroom participation which consisted of total integration, conditional participation, marginal interaction and silent observation.

Liu revealed that total integration pattern/active participators were students who exhibited the total integration pattern, and were spontaneous in class discussions.

Liu used motivation as a key element to classify patterns of classroom participation. Nevertheless, Loftin et al. (2010) focused especially on speaking ability and the relevance of student speech and discussion topics. Their types of classroom participation behaviors included spontaneous or volunteer participators, passive participators, negative participators and non-participators. Spontaneous participators/active participators were students who spoke up spontaneously during discussions, and made comments which were related to the discussion topics.

Furthermore, elaborated patterns of classroom participation were discussed in Mustapha and Rahman' (2011) studies. The researchers investigated classroom participation pattern in Malaysia University. Similar to Liu (2001) discussed earlier, Mustapha and Rahman found that there were four participation patterns: active participation, selective participation, minimal participation and passive participation. The researchers also took emotion of students into consideration. This factor had not been considered in other research articles. The characteristics of active participators in their study were joyful and happy to interact with the teacher and their classmates, and mainly posed questions, answered questions, gave comments/feedback and shared their ideas with the class. Their contributions were quite spontaneous and natural.

Researchers categorized classroom participation patterns differently. Nevertheless, active participators were generally identified as having similar traits.

The descriptions of active participator attributes could be applied to the present study. Hence, active participators who were selected as participants in this study were students who actively interacted in class discussions by initiating questions, answering questions, and sharing their opinions or experiences spontaneously.

Sinclair and Coulthard's Model of Classroom Discourse (The I-R-F Exchange Structure)

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) developed a model of classroom discourse including a series of ranks arranged in hierarchical order: *lesson*, *transaction*, *exchange*, *move*, and *act* (see Appendix B). They proposed the Initiation – Response – Feedback (I-R-F) exchange as a primary structure for interactive discourse in classroom context. This exchange structure comprises three moves: teacher's initiation (I), student's response (R), and teacher's feedback (F). Normally, the I-R-F sequence begins when teachers ask students a question as initiation (I) that prompts the students' response (R) and then the teachers offer feedback to what the student has said. Their work investigated classroom interaction in order to understand more about the nature of classroom discourse. However, they had no intention to improve the nature of educational practices.

The I-R-F exchange structure is one of the most common patterns of interaction found in a classroom (Cazden, 1998; Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). However, a major drawback of the I-R-F strategy is that only one student can participate at a given opportunity. Also, the teacher's role is more emphasized than student's role through I-R-F exchange structure (O'Connor, 2013).

After Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) introduced I-R-F pattern, many research studies have investigated the effects of the I-R-F pattern on classroom discourse, focusing on the roles of each part of I-R-F structure in shaping students' responses and providing interactive opportunities. Interestingly, the findings of Waring (2008) revealed a negative outcome of nurturing students with positive feedback. Waring indicated that explicit positive utterances limited students' participation

and their learning opportunities. Therefore, providing feedback that expanded the conversation with students would be better than nurturing students through positive evaluation.

While Waring's research emphasized the effect of the feedback move, Hardman (2007) investigated the first and third part of I-R-F structure. The study explored classroom discourse in Kenyan and Nigerian primary school English classrooms. The research found similar results of classroom discourse in both countries. The findings showed that the class interaction lacked feedback move and this way of teaching constrained student answers.

The negative effect of I-R-F exchange structure was also discussed in Cazden (1988). In particular, using the I-R-F pattern in English classroom contexts more often facilitated teachers to control the interaction rather than allowing students to actively participate, and it did not enable a complex way of communication between the teachers and students. Hence, Cazden raised an awareness of alternatives and suggested ways of thinking about the I-R-F structure.

Moreover, Vaish (2008) analyzes pedagogic practice in Singaporean English classrooms. The findings showed that the dominant interactional pattern in the classroom was I-R-F exchange structure. The study also revealed that this exchange structure did not lead to extended oral discussion or critical thinking. Therefore, the traditional I-R-F should be manipulated to create a more dialogic classroom.

This present research study investigated active participators' engagement in classroom discussions. To examine active participators' discourse, the Sinclair and Coulthard's model of classroom discourse (I-R-F) was employed as an analytical framework. The present research chose the I-R-F framework because this was a most common exchange structure in classroom and the exchange tended to emphasize the teacher's role rather than student's role. Hence, it was really interesting to investigate whether active participators broke away from the

I-R-F exchange structure and in what way the participants actively engaged in class discussions. This paper also discussed class participation and shared participation techniques that promoted active students' engagement during class meetings.

Methodology

The study utilized the qualitative research methods to investigate active participants' engagement in class discussions. The data was collected in a graduate course, EG 610 Applied Linguistics in English Language Studies during eight weeks. This is an international program in which the English language is used in classroom communication. In this course, there were nine non-native students, two non-native instructors and guest speakers. At the end of the course, only three students who exhibited active participation in the class discussions were participants of the study.

Participants

The participants in this study included three female active participants who possessed high English proficiency. Two of them were 25 and another active participant was 23 years old. Three active participants often used English language in their part-time job. They were selected as active participants because of their frequency of participation, consistence of their active participation, and the relevance of students' contributions and discussion topics.

Data Collection

Three data collection methods were utilized in this qualitative research, which included participation observation, video recordings, and interviews.

Participant Observation

The classroom interactions were observed throughout eight weeks and field notes were taken in every class meetings (see Appendix C). When students asked questions, answered teacher's questions, shared their ideas or experiences, and discussed topics, these engagements were noted in the field note. Moreover, the observation data were also rechecked with the video data again in order to ensure the validity and reliability of data.

Video Recordings

The classroom interactions were recorded by a video camera for 24 hours (8 sessions). The video camera was placed in front of the class in order to capture all students and their activities. After the researcher selected active participators according to participant observations, the data from the video recordings were transcribed and analyzed for the nature of their engagement in classroom discussions.

Interviews

The semi-structured interview method was used in this study. The interviews were conducted in Thai in order to allow active participators to describe their genuine thoughts without language barriers. The questions focused on their engagement during class discussions. At the end of semester, three active participators were invited to participate in the semi-interviews.

Data Analysis

Participant Observation

At the end of the course, the field notes were used to identify active participators. The participants were selected according to Mustapha and Rahman's (2011) work that described active participators as students who participated three or more times in a one-hour class. Hence, if a student in the present study participated at least nine times in a three-hour class session, he/she would be identified as an active participator in that class. In addition to the frequency of students' participation, two other criteria based on Astin (1999) and Loftin et al. (2010) were used to select active participators: the consistence of their active participation throughout the class observation period (80% of all class sessions) and the relevance of students' contributions and discussion topics. Therefore, to ensure that real active participators were selected, these three main criteria were employed for participant selection in this study.

Video Recordings

The data from video recordings (8 sessions/24 hours) were transcribed verbatim based on the transcription notation of Silverman (2011) (see Appendix A). The classroom discourse from video recordings was classified according to the feature themes of active participators' engagement. After completing the transcription process, the researcher employed a classroom analysis pattern (I-R-F) to analyze the transcripts to explore how active participators interacted in classroom discussions with their teachers and peers. They would follow or deviate from the I-R-F structure. The classroom discourses of active participators were labeled according to I-R-F exchange pattern as seen below.

Teacher: Where does he live?	Initiation (elicit)
Student: Rome	Response (reply)
Teacher: Rome, yes.	Feedback (evaluation)
	(Sinclair & Coulthard, 1992, p. 33)

Interviews

For the interviews, the present research utilized open coding to analyze the data. The data about active participators' engagement were grouped to identify the differences or similarities among three active participator's responses. Moreover, the interview data were also used to confirm the video recordings data.

Findings and Discussions

After employing the I-R-F framework to analyze the video data, the study found five characteristic themes of active participators which consists of a) active participators shared their opinions or experiences without teacher's initiation; b) active participators volunteered to respond to questions and broke awkward silence (lapse) in the class; c) active participators' exchange structure followed an I-R-F-R pattern; d) active participators employed code switching (English to

Thai) to convey the exact meanings of particular ideas and to hold the speech flow; and e) active participators initiated questions to teachers.

A) Active participators shared their opinions or experiences without teacher's initiation

Excerpt 1 shows how an active participator (AP) contributed her thoughts to the class without teacher's initiation.

Excerpt 1

Table 1 *Literature in the Language Classroom (Discussion Topic)*

Lines	Classroom Discourse
59	T3: ((Laughing)) You enjoy listening (.) but the problem is that you won't (xxx). So, you don't just pick only an academic text but you have to balance out (.) your course with (.) many with comic books (.) many with: films (.) many with: (xxx) novels (.) you know (.) it cannot be the classic all the time.
60	AP2: ((Raising her hand for a turn))
61	T3: You want to say something?
62	AP2: I (.) I want to propose (.) another way to study literature is that you listen to audio books.
63	T3: Exactly, so, like you know like (.) for those people you know like (.) I have got a few friends who write and trains on (.) you know like (.) the audio.
64	AP2: Yeah, I (.) I (.) seriously, I study and sometimes I would work (.) and then (.) when I finish my work (.) and I can't bear [to look (.)
65	T3: [Right, right, right].
66	AP2: I want to enjoy and want to read to relax (.) and then (.) maybe (.) the alternative way is that I sit and relax with these books I like (.) [that is worth.
67	T3: [Right, right, right (.) yeah (.) this what I do with my students, in terms of assessment. I asked them (xxx) instead of asking them to read.

Excerpt 1 shows the pattern of active participator's talks without teacher's initiation. After T3 offered many kinds of books to use in a literature course, AP2 raised her hand for a turn and proposed audio books as another material for teaching literature (lines 60 and 62). In line 64, AP2 also shared her real experience using an audio book and the usefulness of the book to the class. More importantly, the new topic about an audio book that she raised resulted in a dynamic conversation that prompted T3 to exchange his own opinions and experiences about this alternative material with the class. Other classmates would also gain new beneficial information from her contribution.

According to Initiation-Response-Feedback (I-R-F) exchange structure, students generally would respond or contribute their thoughts after teachers invited them to talk. However, the present research found interesting interactive behaviors of active participators that deviated from the I-R-F structure. For active participators, the findings revealed that when they had some ideas or experiences to share with the class, they were not hesitant to offer their contributions though there was no teacher's initiation (I). This situation usually occurred when active participators interacted with teachers during class discussions.

The interview results showed that active participators often participated in class discussions because they perceived classroom discussion as a valuable activity that benefited them in three main ways; developing thinking abilities, improving better understanding about the content and boosting student's confidence in speaking English. Obviously, active participators perceived the academically rewarding aspects of class discussions and they also had adequate abilities to make contributions. Therefore, they were willing and active to participate in class discussions though the teacher did not initiate students to talk.

Active participators in previous research usually asked questions, answered questions, and shared their opinions or experiences when they had appropriate opportunities (Liu, 2001; Loftin et al., 2010; Mustapha & Rahman, 2011). Similarly, active participators in this study often contributed their ideas, opinions,

or experiences to the class. Nevertheless, the results of this research showed that active participation slightly differed from those previous research studies in terms of initiating questions. Active participators (AP) in this study shared their own perspectives or experiences more often than they posed a question to teachers (T). Moreover, they were confident to voice their thoughts without teacher's initiation as presented in Excerpt 1.

B) Active participators volunteered to respond to questions and broke awkward silence (lapse) in the class

In the present study, it was found that active participators volunteered to answer questions when they had opportunities. The purpose of their responses was occasionally to break awkward silence. Since there were slight differences between breaking awkward silence and volunteering to respond to questions, this section was divided into two parts. The first part presented examples in which active participators volunteered to answer questions. Then, the second showed instances in which active participators broke awkward silence (lapse) in the class.

Rowe's (1974) study revealed that an appropriate wait time (silences between teacher's initiation and student's response) should be 3 to 5 seconds. The current research defined awkward silence based on Rowe's work. Volunteering to respond to questions was associated with the situation in which a student volunteered as the first responder after teacher's initiation within an appropriate wait time (within 5 seconds). However, breaking awkward silence in the present research referred to a situation in which a student responded to teachers' questions or said something after a long silence (more than 5 seconds).

(I) Active participators volunteered to respond to questions

Excerpt 2 illustrates how the active participators in this study volunteered to respond to questions initiated by the instructors.

Excerpt 2**Table 2** *Corpora in Applied Linguistics (Discussion Topic)*

Lines	Classroom Discourse
72	T1: We need to use a lot of::
73	AP2: Skills=
74	T1: =Skills and um: knowledge na kha (.) aha, linguistic knowledge (.) alright, so that one thing that concordance presents information but they cannot (.) interpret it for us. Anything else could be issues in the accessing (.) concordance lines (.) inter (.) interpreting concordance line.
75	{Whole class}: (.3)
76	AP1: Maybe the results (.) that come after you search (.) it might too excessive[
77	T1: [Aha=
78	AP1: And =we cannot find what we are [looking for
79	T1: [Aha=
80	AP1: So, we have to limit it sometimes.
81	T1: Okay, aha, yeah (.) sometime (.) it gives us three (.) thirty thousand lines
82	{Whole class}: ((laughing))

In line 74, T1 discussed one problematic aspect of the concordance; it could provide a lot of information but could not interpret the data for researchers. Within the same line, T1 invited students to share more interesting points about the accessing concordance lines and interpreting concordance line. Then, it was followed by a 3 – second wait time in line 75. Next, AP1 raised an interesting point that might occur in using a corpus program; her new point was the excessive outcomes from search results in lines 76, 78 and she also offered a solution for this problem in line 80.

Volunteering to respond to questions occurred most often among all active participators' engagement. According to the results, active participators were willing and eager to answer teacher's questions and share their own ideas or experiences in class discussions. This active involvement was what teachers seemed to expect from all students. In this research, the characteristics of active participators were similar to active students' participation in the research studies of Liu (2001), Loftin et al. (2010), and Mustapha and Rahman (2011). They seemed comfortable to volunteer to answer questions or to make contributions to class discussions.

(II) Active participators broke awkward silence (lapse) in the class

Excerpt 3 presents how an active participator broke awkward silence in the classroom discussion. In Excerpt 3, a 30-second lapse was the longest silence found in data. AP2 broke this awkward silence by answering the teacher's question about what she found from observing details of the data in concordances in line 43. Next, in lines 45 and 47, she also elaborated her responses. T1 used an open-ended question to encourage students to share what they observed from the assigned article. Although every student had the article, AP2 was the first one to present what she observed and shared to the class. Prolonged silences during discussion led to awkwardness and AP2's answer could keep the discussion going.

As shown in Excerpt 3 above, an active participator attempted to break awkward silence with her ideas and the information or observation found from given articles. Her answers were not complicated, but they could fill a prolonged lapse in class discussions. Breaking awkward silence (silence that lasted more than 5 seconds) in classroom discussions was a unique feature of active participators' interaction pattern. This pattern has not been reported in previous studies as a distinctive characteristic of active participators (Liu, 2001; Loftin et al., 2010; Mustapha & Rahman, 2011). However, the findings of current study revealed that when a teacher posed a question to the class and the wait time for a student

Excerpt 3**Table 3** *Corpora in Applied Linguistics (Discussion Topic)*

Lines	Classroom Discourse
41	T1: Aha, we can change the word in the middle, and the first one and the last one always stick and we change the one in the middle (.) that call "frame". A1: right, very good (.) now, move on to "observing detail" (.) can someone explain about "observing detail"?
42	{Whole class}: (.30)
43	AP2: It is specific finding that we saw pattern of something: (.) and this: that: we: see the ad Er: "advice" (.) it (.) follow Er: follow by "ask to" and the (.) across meaning with the w word (.) you can see it's more specific than pattern=
44	T1: = aha
45	AP2: Or lexical bundles =
46	T1: = aha
47	AP2: And you can see more (.) Er: if you wanna (.) <u>illustrate</u> more specific meaning
48	Teacher: So, [kind of

response was excessively long, active participators would say something to break the silence. This behavior resolved an awkward situation.

In general, teachers were expected to manage conversation and solve problems during class discussions. Various types of teachers' strategies could break silence and kept the discussion going. Since teachers possess high control in all class activities, there is no doubt that teachers have an important role in dealing with the awkward silence (Donald, 2010; Javad, 2014; Maroni, Gnisci & Clotilde, 2008). However, in this present study, active participators broke awkward silence during class discussions.

The interview data revealed reasons behind their decision to voice their thoughts during awkward silence was that they desired to maintain conversational flow and to fulfill teachers' expectation. Active participators considered class discussion as the whole class's performance. They felt that awkwardness in the class discussion might lead to the teacher's disappointment with their class. Therefore, active participators were often the first to respond to teacher's initiation when a lapse occurred.

An excessively long silence led to awkward class atmosphere and wasted the class time. Hence, it was necessary that awkward silence should be terminated. Apart from teachers, active participators in this study played a key role in breaking awkward silence in the class discussions.

C) Active participators' exchange structure presented an I-R-F-R pattern

Excerpt 4 illustrates active participators' exchange structure that presents an I-R-F-R pattern. The excerpt also shows an "act" which was the lowest unit of classroom discourse (see Appendix B). Acts display the function of speakers' utterances (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). Since many acts form moves and acts of each move show the pattern of discourse more clearly, the study also presented acts in the excerpts that were related to I-R-F pattern (Excerpts 4 and 6).

Lines 57- 58 in Excerpt 4 (see Table 4) provide the background information about the discussion. Analysis of the discourse pattern begins at line 59 and proceeds onward.

As displayed in Excerpt 4, AP2 raised her hand for a turn to talk in line 58. T3 invited AP2 to share her ideas as initiation (I) in line 59. In line 60, she mentioned an audio book and this was considered as a response (R) turn. Next in line 61, T3's utterance "exactly" was positive feedback and he also shared his experience concerning learning literature through an audio book. Even without feedback as initiation (feedback that encourages students to speak more such as could you explain more?, anything else?), AP2 elaborated her answer by

sharing her own experience that was a response turn (R) in line 62. Additionally, she expressed more opinions that were considered as a response (R) in line 64. Therefore, this excerpt presented an I-R-F-R pattern.

In the present research, the Initiation-Response-Feedback (I-R-F) classroom discourse structure was used as an essential framework to determine whether active participators followed or deviated from the I-R-F exchange structure. Initiation-Response-Feedback (I-R-F) commonly takes place in most classroom contexts, though many research studies revealed the negative effect of this traditional pattern (see Barnes, 1992; Cazden, 1988; Hardman, 2007; Waring, 2008).

However, the positive outcome of I-R-F pattern was presented in the research of Tian et al. (2010). Their research result revealed one pattern of interaction, I-R-F/I (n)–R (n). As a matter of fact, I-R-F/I(n)–R(n) was more complex than a simple I-R-F pattern. The third turn, F/I(n), referred to a “Follow-up as Initiation”, and the additional fourth turn “R” was a response to the third turn. “(n)” referred to the inserted sequence that can re-occur any number of times in an exchange.

Similarly, in the current research, it was found that the typical three-turn participation structure was sometimes extended to include the fourth turn. In particular, active participators usually had additional responses after the teacher’s feedback rather than terminating their talk. However, there was a slight difference in the third turn (Feedback) between the findings in this study and those from Tian et al. (2010), as presented earlier. Tian’s research focused on student-student group discussions; the third turn was taken by students, whereas teachers would manage a third turn in the present research. In Tian et al. (2010), the third turn served to initiate more utterances from students, while in this current study, the third turn served as the teacher’s evaluation (such as “good”, “right”, “okay”), comments or opinions on the students’ responses. Although the feedback (F) or the third turn did not encourage students to speak more, active participators in

this study continually contributed their opinions rather than ending their contributions at a second turn. They were able to expand their responses or add further information to their answers without teacher's initiation.

Excerpt 4**Table 4** *Literature in the Language Classroom (Discussion Topic)*

Move	Act	Classroom Discourse
		57 T3: ((Laughing)) You enjoy listening (.) but the problem is that you wont (xxx). So, you don't just pick only an academic text but you have to balance out (.) your course with (.) many with comic books (.) many with: films (.) many with: (xxx) novels (.) you know (.) it cannot be the classic all the time. 58 AP2: ((Raising her hand for a turn))
Initiation	Nomination (n)	59 T3: You want to say something?
Response	Reply (rep)	60 AP2: I (.) I want to propose (.) another way to study literature is that you listen to audio books.
Feedback	Evaluate (e), Comment (com)	61 T3: Exactly, So, like you know like (.) for those people you know like (.) I have got a few friends who write and trains on (.) you know like (.) the audio.
Response (additional)	Comment (com)	62 AP2: Yeah, I (.) I (.) seriously, I study and sometimes I would work (.) and then (.) when I finish my work (.) and I can't bear [to look (.)
Feedback	Evaluate (e),	63 T3: [Right, right, right.
Response (additional)	Comment (com)	64 AP2: I want to enjoy and want to read to relax (.) and then (.) maybe (.) the alternative way is that I sit and relax with these books I like (.) [that is worth.
Feedback	Evaluate (e), Comment (com)	65 T3: [Right, right, right (.) yeah (.) This is what I do with my students, in terms of assessment. I asked them (xxx) instead of asking them to read.

Moreover, the I-R-F-R pattern presented the typical participation of active participators. This pattern showed that active participators in a graduate classroom still followed the I-R-F exchange structure. However, their engagement exhibited a more complex pattern. They did not end their utterance at a second turn as often found in primary school or high school classroom discussions. Active participators often extended and elaborated their responses after teacher gave the feedback though teachers did not initiate more questions. In the case of active participators, the I-R-F pattern did not limit student's talk as revealed in many research studies (Barnes, 1992; Cazden, 1988; Hardman, 2007; Waring, 2008).

The interview data showed that active participators felt that their English proficiency increased their confidence and facilitated them to communicate with the class members and to convey insightful thoughts to the class. Since, all active participators had relatively high level of proficiency in English, they were able to convey their genuine thoughts fluently. Hence, their language competence enabled them to expand and elaborate their answers.

In addition to their English proficiency, the teachers' feedback might also influence their engagement. A teacher's feedback as presented in Excerpt 4 tended to be positive feedback. This kind of feedback could encourage students to speak more. Therefore, active participator's ability and teacher's ways of interaction supported active participators to exhibit positive and distinctive engagement.

D) Active participators employed code switching (English to Thai) for conveying exact meanings of particular words and holding the floor

The present study found that active participators also employed code switching during their class discussions as presented in Excerpt 5.

Excerpt 5**Table 5** *Literature in the Language Classroom (Discussion Topic)*

Lines	Classroom Discourse
34	T3: Discourse is the idea that is created, right? (.) It is just: (.) an idea but it <u>deeply</u> repeated over and over again from many different sources (.) until they are convinced that it is true (.) idea that idea is true (.) right? So, like you know like, reading is superior (.) to watching TV. It is just a discourse and it is just: (.) creation by upper class. And who watch TV?
35	AP3: Children (.) [and they
36	T3: [Think about it (.) don't be so quick but think about the context first. Who watch TV?
37	{Whole class}: (.2)
38	T3: It is literate people and ↑
39	AP3: [Oh ↑
40	AP2: [Chaobann ((Switch to Thai))
41	AP3: Aha ((Nodding))
42	T3: The commoners, the laborer (.) right? Why they watch TV.
43	AP2: They can't read
44	T3: Because they can't read, right?, or those people (.) you know who could read and write but they have to work full time. Let's think about the Thai context, you are rich enough and you don't have to work. So, you can take all of day to read: (.) a book, right? But think about those people (.) who work from eight to five. Do you want to come back and: (.) pick a book to read?
45	{Whole class}: {no} ((laughing))

As presented in Excerpt 5, AP2 adopted the Thai word “chaobann” (line 40). The use of code switching in this case was associated with the equivalent function of code switching. T3 said “It is literate people and” that was a clue for students so that they could figure out that the answer might be “illiterate people” which was an antonym of “literate people”. AP2 then used the term “chaobaan” that represented people who lived in rural areas and were illiterate. The word “chaobaan” was selected by AP2 because she could not come up with the English word right away and the Thai term could convey her thought more clearly. Therefore, AP2 employed code switching to convey her meaning and this approach enabled her to hold the flow of conversation as well.

The present study found that active participators employed code switching during their class discussions. However, it was not the objective of this research to determine whether code switching was a negative or positive approach for classroom interaction. The discussion herein was only to explore the linguistic features found in active participators’ engagement. The code switching in this study also served equivalent and conflict control functions.

Active participators accepted that when they could not come up with some English words at that moment, they employed code switching to convey exact meaning of words and hold the flow of their speech. In this classroom context, since every classroom member was Thai people, active participators might have assumed that everyone could understand the meaning of the Thai words. Therefore, active participators sometimes employed code switching to overcome a language barrier during class conversation.

E) Active participators initiated questions to teachers

Line 87 in Excerpt 6 (see Table 6) provides the background information about the discussion. Analysis of the discourse pattern begins at line 88 and proceeds onward.

As shown in Excerpt 6, AP1 took a first turn of I-R-F instead of T1. AP1 deviated from the I-R-F structure by initiating a question in line 88. T1 answered the question by saying that typographical mistakes could be found in corpus outcome in line 87. In line 89, AP1 nodded her head as an acknowledgment to T1 without feedback. After that AP1 began an I-R-F pattern again by posing a question in line 93. T1's response served as a second turn of I-R-F in line 94. Finally, the third turn or feedback was not given but the whole class showed non-verbal acknowledgment in line 95 instead.

As discussed earlier, the negative impact of I-R-F pattern was revealed by various researchers (e.g. Barnes, 1992; Cazden, 1988; Hardman, 2007; Waring, 2008). This pattern allowed students to talk only at a second turn of an exchange sequence and teachers were responsible for a first and third turn. Departuring from I-R-F pattern was suggested in Waring (2009). Students in Waring's study deviated from I-R-F pattern by initiating questions to teachers instead of waiting for their turn to respond to questions.

Similar to Waring's study (2009), moving out from I-R-F sequence by initiating questions was also found in active participators' engagement in this present research. Active participators in this study initiated a question to the teacher and the teacher gave them a response; however, they did not give feedback (F) to teachers' responses. They generally showed acknowledgment instead of feedback. This pattern of interaction can be described as student Initiation - teacher Response - student Acknowledgment (I-R-A) instead of student Initiation - teacher Response - student Feedback (I-R-F).

Excerpt 6

Table 6 *Corpora in Applied Linguistics (Discussion Topic)*

Move	Act	Classroom Discourse
		87 T1: =Yeah, if it (.) if it have too many lines, aha (.) and also sometimes if we don't select good keywords or particular corpora (.) don't have Er: don't have(.) Er: data corpus, it can give us zero (.) zero samples or zero lines or you cannot do anything with it=
Initiation	Bid (b) Elicitation (el)	88 AP1: ((Raising her pencil)) =Is it possible to Er: that concordance lines show (.) Er: the phrase (.) that is not correctly used by English speakers?= =
Response	Acknowledgment (ack), Reply (rep)	89 T1: =Yeah, aha (.) Even though we use Um: we use (.) corpus Um: that is collected information from native speakers (.) but sometimes it can be typo mistakes or they can say something wrong na kha, so it could be.
	Acknowledgment Non-verbal gesture	90 AP1: ((Nodding))
Response (additional)	Comment (com)	91 T1: And in another Er: in another (.) corpora, it have a lot of mistakes (.) that why the purposes (.) several purposes is to analyze the mistakes taken by Um: the learners Um: by second language learners (.) English learners, aha.
	Acknowledgment (ack), Non-verbal gesture	92 {Whole class}: ((Nodding)) (.2)
Initiation	Elicitation (el)	93 AP1: Is (.) is this corpus available for other fields?
Response	Reply (rep)	94 T1: Er: I think more and more people start to comply Er: Er: specialize corpus. As I have seen Er: Law, Medical, Er: a lot (.) political sciences n kha. Actually, you can create your own corpus or use it for your thesis na kha.
	Acknowledgment (ack), Non-verbal gesture	95 {Whole class}: ((Nodding and laughing))

A situation in which students' feedback did not occur was also mentioned in Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and Stubb (1983). They revealed that students' feedback could be possible, but students generally did not evaluate teachers overtly. Active participators, in this study, rarely asked teachers' question. When they initiated a question, they did not give feedback to the teacher's response. Hence, the structure of student-to-teacher exchange, in this study, was Initiation-Response-Acknowledgment (I-R-A) as presented in Excerpt 6.

It is interesting to note that this kind of active participator engagement (initiating questions) appeared in only one example. According to the interviews, active participators revealed that if they had confusing points, they preferred to find out the answer by their own or from their peers first. They would ask teachers a question if the question was significant to their overall understanding. They felt that if their questions were not important enough, it would waste the class time. This was reasons why active participators rarely initiated questions. Moreover, students mostly perceived teachers as an authoritative figure who had more academic knowledge than they did, providing their evaluation after teacher's response might not be appropriate. This was a possible reason why active participators provided no feedback to the teachers' responses.

Conclusions

Five characteristics of active participators reflected the way in which they frequently participated in class discussions. Active participators mostly followed the I-R-F exchange structure; however, the I-R-F structure did not limit their talk. They often elaborated their responses after teachers' feedback. They knew how to extend their engagement during classroom discussions. Moreover, active participators did not always follow I-R-F pattern all the time. They, sometimes, broke away from I-R-F classroom pattern. Occasionally, teacher's initiation (I) had not occurred, but active participator exhibited their distinctive engagement from other students by freely sharing their insightful thoughts with the class without

the fear of teacher's criticism. Consequently, active participators could maximize their classroom discourse and their engagement was not restricted by the I-R-F default classroom exchange. This was because many factors such as a good command of English, self-confidence, flexibility in making contributions and other appropriate factors in classroom environment.

Implications

Passive students who desire to become more active in class discussions can learn from active participators' engagements and their techniques. According to the findings, volunteering to answer teacher's questions was the most frequent characteristic of active participators during the discussions. If students perceive class discussions as an informal and academically rewarding activity, their anxiety will be reduced and their motivation can be enhanced. Students will be more likely to engage in class discussions. Another positive behavior of active participators was sharing their opinions without teacher's initiation. Students should share what they think when have appropriate opportunities; waiting for teachers' elicitation only is not enough. Moreover, active participators had relatively high level of English proficiency. When Active participators answered teachers' questions, they could elaborate and extend their answers after teachers' feedback. Therefore, students should always develop their English proficiency because this competence could increase students' confidence and their ability in discussing topics in the class. In addition, active participators occasionally initiated questions to teachers. Hence, students should initiate questions if they have some confusing points that impact their own understanding. In a classroom context, teachers also have an important role to encourage students to participate more actively. Teachers should initiate open-ended questions instead of display questions (a question that teachers already know an answer) to the class in order to encourage students to freely share their own ideas with the class. Also, teacher's feedback as imitation should be adopted in the class to extend a conversation between the teacher and

students. Active participation in class discussion is beneficial for both students and teachers. However, changing students' passive behavior in classroom is not an easy task. The process requires the mutual improvement from both students and teachers and this task is time-consuming. Consequently, the development process should be planned systemically to apply to all levels of schooling especially at an early age.

References

- Abdullah, M. Y., Bakar, N. R. A., & Mahbob, M. H. (2012). Student's participation in classroom: What motivates them to speak up?. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 51, 516-522.
- Astin, A. W. (1999). Student involvement: A developmental theory for higher education. *Journal of College Student Development*, 40, 518-529.
- Barnes, D. (1992). *From communicating to curriculum*. Portsmouth, New Hampshire: Boynton/Cook.
- Bransford, J. D. (1979). *Human cognition: Learning, understanding and remembering*. Belmont, California: Wadsworth.
- Cazden, C. (1988). *Classroom discourse: The language of teaching and learning*. Portsmouth, New Hampshire: Heinemann.
- Donald, Sh. (2010). Learning how to speak: Reticence in the ESL classroom. *ARECLS*, 7, 41-58.
- Fischer, C. G., & Grant, G. E. (1983). Intellectual levels in college classrooms. In C. L. Ellner & C. P. Barnes (Eds.), *Studies of College Teaching* (pp. 47-60). Lexington, MA: D.C. Heath.
- Garside, C. (1996). Look who's talking: A comparison of lecture and group discussion teaching strategies in developing critical thinking skills. *Communication Education*, 45, 212-227.
- Hardman, J. A. K. F. (2007). The discourse of whole class teaching: A comparative study of Kenyan and Nigerian primary English lessons. *Language and Education*, 21 (1), 1-16.

- Javad, M. J. (2014). Cause of reticence: Engendering willingness to speak in language classrooms. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, 3(1), 115-122.
- Liu, J. (2001). *Asian students' classroom communication patterns in U.S. universities: An Emic Perspective*. London: Ablex.
- Loftin, C., Davis, L., & Hartin, V. (2010). Classroom participation: a student perspective. *Teaching and Learning in Nursing*, 5, 119-124.
- Maroni, B., Gnisci, A., & Clotilde, P. (2008). Turn-taking in classroom interactions: Overlapping, interruptions and pauses in primary school. *European Journal of Psychology of Educational*, XXIII (1), 59-76.
- Mustapha, S. M., & Rahman, N. S. A. (2011). Classroom participation patterns: A case study of Malaysian undergraduate students. *EDUCARE*, 3(2), 145-158.
- Mustaphaa, S. M., Rahman, N. S. N. A., & Yunus, M. M. (2010). Perceptions towards classroom participation: A case study of Malaysian undergraduate students. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 7(C), 113-121.
- O'Connor, K. J. (2013). Class participation: Promoting in-class student engagement. *Education*, 133(3), 340-344.
- Rowe, M. B. (1974). Pausing phenomena: influence on the quality of instruction. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, 3(3), 203-224.
- Silverman, D. (2011). *Interpreting qualitative data: A guide to the principles of qualitative research*. London: SAGE Publications Inc.
- Sinclair, J., & Coulthard, M. (1975). *Towards an analysis of discourse: The English used by teachers and pupils*. London: Oxford University Press.
- Sinclair, J., & Coulthard, M. (1992). Toward an analysis of discourse. In M. Coulthard, (Ed.), *Advances in Spoken Discourse Analysis* (pp.1-34). London: Routledge.

- Smith, D. G. (1983). Instruction and outcomes in an undergraduate setting. In C. L. Ellner & C. P. Barnes (Eds.). *Studies of college teaching*, 83-116.
- Stubbs, M. (1983). *Language, schools and classrooms*. London: Routledge.
- Tian, W., Teo A., & Chatupote, M. (2010). Pattern and features of seminar-like classroom discussion: A case study in Thailand. *Liberal Arts Journal*, 2, 25-47.
- Vaish, V. (2008). Interactional patterns in Singapore's English classrooms. *Linguistics and Education*, 19, 366-377.
- Walsh, S. (2011). *Exploring classroom discourse: Language in action*. London: Routledge.
- Waring, H. Z. (2008). Using explicit positive assessment in the language classroom: IRF, feedback, and learning opportunities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 92, 577-594.
- Waring, H. Z. (2009). Moving out of IRF (Initiation-Response-Feedback): A single case analysis. *Language Learning*, 796-824.
- Weaver, R., & Qi, J. (2005). Classroom organization and participation: College students' perceptions. *Journal of Higher Education*, 76(5), 570-601.

About Author

Pattamawadee Lueasom received her Bachelor Degree from Faculty of Liberal Arts, Thammasat University. She is currently a full-time graduate student at Faculty of Liberal Arts, Thammasat University. Her research interests include classroom participation, student engagement, classroom discussion, and discourse analysis.

Appendix A

Transcription Symbols

T1, T2,	Identified	Teachers
AP1, AP2, AP3	Identified	active participators
GS1, GS2, etc.	Identified	other graduate students
[]	Indicated	overlapped talk
=	Indicated	no gap between two lines
(.)	Indicated	a tiny gap, probably no more than one-tenth of a second
{ }	Indicated	several graduate students at once or the whole class
↑	Indicated	high pitch on word
?	Indicated	questions rising intonation
,	Indicated	phrase-final intonation (more to come)
.	Indicated	sentence-final intonation
(.4)	Indicated	a time gap in tenths of second
<u>Underline</u>	Indicated	Stress
:	Indicated	lengthened vowel sound (extra colons indicate greater lengthening)
CAPS	Indicated	very emphatic stress
(xxx)	Indicated	inaudible utterance
(())	Indicated	researcher's description of nonverbal acts
° soft °	Indicated	spoken softly/decreased volume
><	Indicated	increase speed
(xxx)	Indicated	inaudible utterance

Appendix B

Sinclair and Coulthard's Model of Classroom Discourse

Classroom discourse consisted of five rank units from the lowest to highest units of classroom discourse: act, move, exchange structure, transaction and lesson. "Acts were defined as the unit at the lowest rank of discourse" (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975).

It served to describe the functions of speaker' utterances. Analyzing acts helped the researcher to know what the speaker was using the item for or to reveal the real intention of the speaker's discourse. The contents about acts, symbols and functions in Table 3 were extracted from Sinclair and Coulthard (1975).

Table 3 *Types of act, symbol and function*

Act	Symbol	Function
Marker	M	To mark boundaries in the discourse.
Starter	S	To provide information about or direct attention toward an area in order to make a correct response to the initiation more likely.
Elicitation	EI	To request a linguistic response. (realized by question).
Check	Ch	To enable the teacher to ascertain whether there are any problems preventing the successful progress of the lesson.
Directive	D	To request a non-linguistic response.
Informative	I	To provide information. The only response is an acknowledgement of attention and understanding.
Prompt	P	To prompt a response to a previous directive or elicitation.
Clue	CI	To provide additional information to help students respond to a previous directive or elicitation.

Act	Symbol	Function
Bid	B	To signal desire to contribute to the discourse.
Nomination	N	To call on or to give permission to a pupil to contribute to the discourse.
Acknowledgement	Ack	To show that an initiation has been understood and if the initiation is a directive, that the pupil intends to react. (realized by “yes” “okay” “cor” “mm” ‘wow’ and certain non-verbal gestures)
Reply	Rep	To provide a linguistic response which is appropriate to the elicitation (realized by statement, question, moodless and non-verbal surrogates such as nods).
React	Rea	To provide a non-linguistic response appropriate to a previous directive.
Comment	Com	To exemplify, expand, justify, provide additional information relating to previous informative (realized by statement and tag question).
Accept	Acc	To indicate that the teacher has heard or seen and that the informative, reply or react was appropriate. (realized by a closed class of items “yes,” “no,” “good,” “fine” and repetition of pupil’s reply, all with neutral low fall intonation).
Evaluate	E	To positively or negatively evaluate a previous reply. (realized by statements and tag questions including words and phrases such as “good” “interesting,” “team point,” also by “yes,” “no,” “good,” “fine” with a high fall intonation).
Silent stress	^	To highlight a marker.
Meta-statement	Ms	To help pupils to see the structure of the lesson.
Conclusion	Con	To help pupils to understand the past content of the lesson.
Loop	L	To elicit the repetition of a student reply.
Aside	Z	Include instances of the teacher talking to himself, “it’s freezing in here,” “where did I put my chalk?”

Reticence among Asian Students:

Cultural Traits or Contextual Basis?

การนิ่งเงียบของผู้เรียนชาวเอเชียเกิดจากคุณลักษณะ
ทางวัฒนธรรม หรือ ภาวะแวดล้อม?

Nasatorn Witayarat

Department of English, Faculty of Liberal Arts

Thammasat University

Email: nasatorn_w@yahoo.com

บทคัดย่อ

ประเด็นที่ผู้เรียนไม่พูดโต้ตอบหรือมีปฏิสัมพันธ์กับอาจารย์ผู้สอนนั้นเป็นประเด็นที่นักวิชาการให้ความสนใจมาเป็นระยะเวลาหนึ่งแล้ว งานวิจัยจำนวนมากได้พยายามหาสาเหตุที่แท้จริงของประเด็นดังกล่าว ส่วนใหญ่มองว่าสาเหตุของการนิ่งเฉยของผู้เรียนมาจากปัจจัยด้านวัฒนธรรม บทความนี้ได้แย้งว่ามุมมองดังกล่าว เป็นการกล่าวที่ง่ายเกินไป และสาเหตุที่ผู้เรียนไม่มีปฏิสัมพันธ์กับอาจารย์ผู้สอนนั้นเกิดจากปัจจัยแวดล้อมได้แก่ (1) การไม่คุ้นชินกับวิธีการสอน (2) ระดับภาษาอังกฤษต่ำ (3) อุปสรรคทางด้านความคิดวิเคราะห์ ซึ่งปัจจัยดังกล่าวนี้สรุปได้ว่า ข้อสมมุติฐานที่ว่าสาเหตุของการนิ่งเฉยที่เกิดจากลักษณะเฉพาะทางวัฒนธรรมนั้น ควรต้องนำมาพิจารณาใหม่ และไม่ควรที่จะนำเอาลักษณะเฉพาะทางวัฒนธรรมมาอธิบายในการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

คำสำคัญ: การนิ่งเฉย, วัฒนธรรม, ผู้เรียนชาวเอเชีย, พฤติกรรมของผู้เรียน

Abstract

The issue of reticence has been a subject of interest to scholars for some time. A considerable number of studies have attempted to establish its causes, generally citing cultural factors as the main reasons behind both reticence and passivity. This paper argues that, when it comes to Asian students, this is an oversimplified approach, and that such reticence lies in the contextual base of Asian learners, i.e. (1) a lack of familiarity with teaching methodologies; (2) low proficiency in English; (3) cognitive impediment. This leads to the conclusion that the assumption that cultural traits are responsible for reticence among Asian language learners should be revised and should not be applied to all issues arising in ESL/EFL practices.

Key words: reticence, culture, Asian students, learner behaviour

Introduction

Asian students have been perceived as both reticent and passive learners in a number of contexts, both within their home countries and other academic institutions. They are viewed as demonstrating: (1) a lack of confidence when speaking (Harumi, 2011); (2) a lack of participation; (3) a lack of questioning (Gieve & Clark, 2005); passivity and an over-dependency on teachers (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Tsui, 1996 as cited in Cheng, 2000). Similarly, East Asian students in American universities have been reported to appear anxious during group discussions, or when asking questions in class (Song, 1995 as cited in Liu & Littlewood, 1997). This perception of being passive learners is also echoed in Turner and Hiraga (1996 as cited in Liu & Littlewood, 1997) who found that Japanese students in Britain appear passive and reluctant to participate in dialectic and analytic discourse in tutorials. As a result, many teachers, particularly native English teachers, report feeling frustrated, uneasy and impatient when encountering prolonged reticence (Harumi, 2011; Liu & Jackson, 2009). Flowerdew and Miller (1995) state that expatriate lecturers conclude that such passive behaviour results from students' local cultures. Some studies have revealed that students' reticence has been caused by a cultural heritage related to respect for teachers' authority, fear of making mistakes and a passive way of learning to conform to social norms and maintain social harmony (Wen & Clément, 2003 as cited in Peng, 2012). Peng (2012) supports sociocultural interpretations suggesting that the influence of Chinese cultural heritage has an impact on students' willingness to communicate.

This paper will argue that an assumption that reticence among Asian language learners derives from cultural trait is oversimplified. It will put forward a view that reticence results not from cultural characteristics, but rather from a contextual base, due to unfamiliarity with teaching methodologies, low proficiency of English and cognitive hindrances.

It should be noted that this paper works from the assumption that participation (i.e. active learners) is crucial in language learning in order that teachers are able to receive feedback from students. This notion is echoed by numerous studies such as the studies of King (2013), Liu and Jackson (2009) and Liu and Littlewood (1997).

Dimensions of Cultural Traits

In order to understand the reasons cultural heritage has been viewed as a cause of reticence in Asian students, it is necessary to understand cultural variation between the communicative patterns of Asia and the West. This can be divided into two categories: high and low context (Andersen, 2003). Hall (1976, 1984 as cited in Andersen, 2003) has illustrated that High Context (HC) communication relies on physical context or nonverbal communication, with minimal use of explicit or verbal codes. By contrast, Low-Context (LC) communication is a more explicit code of verbal communication (Hall, 1976 as cited in Andersen, 2003). The highest HC cultures include Asia, particularly China, Japan, and Korea (Elliott et al., 1982; Hall, 1976, 1984; Lustig & Koester, 1999 as cited in Andersen, 2003). The lowest-context cultures comprise Swiss, German, North American and Scandinavian (Gudykunst & Kim, 1992; Hall, 1976, 1984 as cited in Andersen, 2003). Those from HC cultures are more easily discerned by facial expressions, unspoken feelings, implicit gestures and environmental clues than those of LC cultures (Hall, 1976 as cited in Andersen, 2003). HC cultures have a link with religion, in that Zen Buddhism values silence and the nonverbal aspects of communication (McDaniel & Andersen, 1998 as cited in Andersen, 2003). Further dimensions of cultural variation can also be explained in terms of individualism and collectivism. A culture's degree of individualism and collectivism regulates the manner in which its citizens live together, along with their values and the way they communicate (Hofstede, 1980 as cited in Andersen, 2003). Eastern cultures are regarded as having a collectivist orientation, prioritising the maintaining of social

harmony (Andersen, 2003). Individuals in a collectivist culture attempt to carefully control their emotion for fear that it will obstruct group harmony and status hierarchies (Bond, 1993 as cited in Andersen, 2003). Hence, those belonging to a collectivist culture are prone to employ face-saving techniques (Lustig & Koester, 1999 as cited in Andersen, 2003). By contrast, individualistic cultures (such as Western culture), depend on more personal judgments than group judgments (Andersen, 2003).

LC and HC cultures, and collectivism and individualism, can be employed as an approach to interpret reticence among Asian students, in that they can be classified as failing to demonstrate verbal communication when they are asked to speak English in the classroom. Hence students are viewed as unwilling to express any opinions that differ from other group members, in order to maintain group harmony. These concepts will be discussed below.

The following section will discuss cultural beliefs in China, Japan and Thailand, which are employed in labelling Asian learners as reticent and passive.

Misinterpretation of Cultural Trait as Causes of Reticence

Jackson (2002) conducted an ethnographic study investigating the reticence of Chinese students in an English-medium undergraduate business course in a Hong Kong university. The findings revealed that Chinese students preferred to remain reticent during the full-class discussions and would quietly discuss their points with teachers outside of class. This passive behaviour was interpreted as resulting from the influence of Confucianism on the Chinese educational system (Bond, 1991, 1996; Scollon, 1999 as cited in Jackson, 2002). Confucianism places an emphasis on great respect for teachers, which leads to Chinese students rarely asking questions with fear of making their teachers lose face if they are unable to respond (Stevens, 2012). Scollon and Scollon (1994 as cited in Flowerdew & Miller, 1995) state that Chinese students rarely ask teachers questions, due to the fact that questioning teachers implies a lack of effective

teaching, due to the existence of unresolved questions. Hence they choose to play a receptive role and depend on teachers transmitting knowledge to them, in order to successfully pass the course (Scollon & Scollon, 1994 as cited in Flowerdew & Miller, 1995). Thus, Chinese students maintain a submissive means of learning, placing a high value on the authority of the teacher (Peng, 2012). Miller and Aldred (2000) also interpret students' unwillingness to participate to be strongly influenced by Chinese cultural norms.

A further cultural trait illustrated by Harumi (2011), in a study exploring Japanese EFL students in a Japanese EFL classroom, demonstrates students' reticence being due to a Japanese cultural norm called 'Wa' or 'groupism'. Based on groupism, Japanese students are required to provide answers conforming to the ideas of their peers. For this reason, Japanese students are viewed as preferring to avoid arguments and debate, in order to retain group harmony (Jones, 1999). McDaniel (as cited in Samovar & Porter, 2003) states that Japanese social harmony exerts nonverbal behaviours among the Japanese, thus hindering verbal exchanges.

In addition to Chinese and Japanese cultural traits, a Thai cultural factor has also been misinterpreted and used to explain Thai students' reticence in language classrooms. In order to investigate this issue, it is important to first consider religious factors followed by the Thai national character. One source of misinterpreting silence among Thai students is Theravada Buddhism, whose values emphasise the concept of 'karma', i.e. a belief that destiny is predetermined by previous lives (Knutson, 1994). Karma is concerned with disengagement and respect for the status quo in order to maintain conflict (Adamson, 2003) or social harmony (Baker, 2008). One means of maintaining harmony among social groups is respect for authority. According to Theravada Buddhism, Thais regard those in authority as obtaining status and responsibilities merited from a previous life (Baker, 2008), and hence should be respected (Baker, 2008). In Thai society, teachers are regarded as an authority, and considered as givers

of knowledge, while students are viewed as inexperienced and not in a position to share or express ideas (Baker, 2009). In addition, Thais believe that teachers sacrifice themselves for the good of their pupils, which creates a feeling of moral gratitude among students (Deveney, 2005). For this reason, Thai teachers are highly respected and questioning teachers is regarded as ingratitude and highly unsuitable (Foley, 2005; Adamson, 2003). Baker (2009) adds that respecting teachers as being in authority can be explained by using the Thai term 'Krengjai', which can be translated as reticence or shyness towards seniors. Fieg (1989 as cited in Knutson, 1994) also defines this term as a desire to be self-effacing, respectful, and avoid causing any embarrassment to others. Therefore, it is evident that Thais are taught to respect teachers and view them as being in a position of authority. Furthermore, if an individual who is viewed as being in an inferior position criticises or argues with one viewed as their superior, this could make the superior lose face or violate their dignity. Consequently, students cannot challenge teachers by even asking them a question, for fear that the teacher would lose face if unable to answer.

It is evident that Chinese, Japanese and Thai cultures share a common goal, i.e. that maintaining social harmony is necessary for social interaction. This renders Asian students unable to challenge teachers, since this is viewed as making teachers lose face or as being an example of ingratitude. Hence, cultural traits are employed to explain the origins of reticence among Asian students.

The following section will discuss alternative arguments, starting with the combination of collectivism and individualism, followed by further interpretations of Confucian doctrine and Theravada Buddhism, and an alternate view of Asian students as autonomous and active learners.

Evidence to Nullify the Allegations

Mixed Patterns of Collectivism and Individualism

In research on cultural values, there are a number of differing views that oppose the supposed influence of collectivism and harmony, due to the fact that students from Hong Kong and China experience different versions of collectivism. These are outlined in Hazen and Shi's (2012) meta-analysis of studies on collectivism and individualism, along with other studies of collectivism in China. For example, initial studies measured collectivism as duty to the group, seeking advice from others and self-improvement. In China, collectivism ranged from valuing the group's interest first (Chen, Brockner & Chen, 2002 as cited in Hazen & Shi, 2012) to desire for harmony with others (Zhang, Lin, Nonaka & Beom, 2005 as cited in Hazen & Shi, 2012) due to respecting hierarchy (Triandis, Chen, & Chan, 1998 as cited in Hazen & Shi, 2012). In addition, the view of Western societies being individualistic in nature is not always true. Oyserman, Coon and Kimmelmeier (2002 as cited in Hazen & Shi, 2012) state that the United States has been viewed as more collectivistic than Hong Kong, in terms of individuals wishing to belong to the 'in-group' and seeking advice from others. The line separating collectivism and individualism is therefore ambiguous, and a country formally considered to be individualistic can be characterised as collectivist, i.e. the United States. Stephens (1997 as cited in Gieve & Clark, 2005) supports this by pointing out that the imposition of ideologies of collectivism among Chinese people has been overstated, since individuals differ, even if they live in the same country.

Questionable Interpretations of Confucian Doctrine and Theravada Buddhism

Confucianism has been alleged to be a cause of Asian students' reticence. One interpretation claims that Asian students are afraid to ask questions and are required to keep silent and passive in order to demonstrate their respect for knowledgeable teachers (Cheng, 2000). Cortazzi and Jin (1996, p.179 as cited

in Cheng, 2000) support this by stating that the “consciousness and recognition of the teacher’s authority has been a significant aspect of Chinese traditional values since Confucius and a strong element in Chinese approaches to learning.”

However, the cultural trait is contradicted by the fact that Confucian doctrine does, in reality, encourage students to ask questions of their teachers (Cheng, 2000). In the Chinese tradition, there is a motto “Qin xue hao wen”, which means “(a good student should) study hard and always be ready to ask questions” (Cheng, 2000, p.440). In addition, students do not need to show their respect for knowledge (and knowledgeable teachers) by being submissive and passive (Cheng, 2000). This can be seen in Confucius’ saying that: “the teacher does not always have to be more knowledgeable than the pupil; and the pupil is not necessarily always less learned than the teacher” (Cheng, 2000, p.440). Thus, Confucianism does not encourage students to be afraid of asking teachers questions, or keep them in reticence and passivity to demonstrate their respect. Liu and Littlewood (1997) add that the term ‘knowledge’ is comprised of learning and asking, which means that obtaining knowledge can be achieved by inquiry. Moreover, Buddhist teaching places a similar emphasis on students asking questions, stating that: “it is thought that one has not learned until one starts to ask questions (Liu & Littlewood, 1997, p.375).

An additional explanation of the cause of reticence influenced by the Confucian tradition lies in the view that students should not speak English with their peers, or should not answer teachers’ questions in English. One possible reason is the belief that the Confucian tradition teaches the individual not to shine in front of other students (Liu & Littlewood, 1997), due to the importance placed on ‘maxims of modesty’ (Wong, 1984 as cited in Liu & Littlewood, 1997). This implies that speaking in English is a sign of ‘showing off’ (Liu & Littlewood, 1997). However, the results of Liu and Littlewood’s (1997) survey reveal that 77% of the students liked the sound of the English language and talking with foreigners in English. The students also placed group discussions in English as top of the 12

English activities in the classroom, and enjoyed talking in English during pair and group work in class (Liu & Littlewood, 1997). Although the results of the survey did not cover students' attitudes towards speaking English with their teachers, it demonstrates that students have a positive attitude towards speaking English and enjoy speaking English. This therefore contradicts the maxims of modesty.

When it comes to the misinterpretation of respecting teachers as authority, Thais are taught to obey and respect teachers, since teachers devote themselves to benefit students. As a result, Thais are encouraged to show their gratitude by not questioning teachers. It is evident that teachers have undertaken work for the good of their students, but this does not necessarily mean that students cannot question them, or are required to play a passive role by accepting everything teachers say. Such a belief would contradict the ten basic conditions of the Buddha's teachings, the Kalama Sutta, which states that teachers should not be seen as the only source of knowledge, but what they say should be given careful attention and full scrutiny. What teachers say should only be accepted after being considered in depth and put to the test of practice. If students can prove that what teachers taught them is wrong, they can deny or reject it. Thus, students are not spoon-fed, but can examine all that they are taught and decide on what to believe.

Littlewood (2000) points out that Asian students do not see teachers as authority figures. In this study, a questionnaire was distributed to students in eleven countries (eight Asian and three European, including Finland, Germany and Spain), to examine whether Asian students saw their teachers as authority figures. The results reveal that Asian students did not see their teacher as an authority figure they could not question, i.e. they were not passive learners. On the contrary, they enjoyed exploring and gaining knowledge themselves, rather than being spoon-fed, and they wished to evaluate their learning (Littlewood, 2000). The result of the study also disclosed the fact that the individual responses of students in the same country contained greater differences than those between

students in Asia and Europe (Littlewood, 2000). Therefore, the idea of individual differences should not be negated, since individuals in the same country do not necessarily share similar characteristics.

The similarities of the responses from different countries raise doubts (or the need to re-assess) the preconceptions that have labelled Asian students as 'obedient listeners' (Littlewood, 2000, p.33). Additionally, the results suggest that passive classroom attitudes among Asian students are more likely to be a result of recent or current educational contexts, rather than of any innate character of the students themselves (Littlewood, 2000).

Autonomous and Active Learners among Asian Students

Gieve and Clark (2005) conducted a study on approaches towards learning among Chinese undergraduates studying English as part of their UK University degree, with European Erasmus students being included for the purposes of comparison. The results of the study demonstrate that the Chinese students had acquired or adopted new habits of self-study. For example, they had discovered different study strategies to prepare for their assignments and operate in learning groups, and had adopted study practices to enable them to work effectively on their own. Additionally, there were no great differences in the self-study methods between Chinese and European students. Chinese students expressed their appreciation of the advantages of autonomous study, as did the European students. Gieve and Clark's (2005) findings contradict the Confucian cultural traits of playing a receptive role or so-called 'spoon-feeding'. Chinese students embraced the self-study approaches in order to conform to the Western academic context, and thus accorded with Accommodation Theory, which illustrates that social context (rather than cultural traits) impacts on individual behaviours (Gieve & Clark, 2005).

Accommodation Theory is also reflected in Volet and Renshaw's (1996 as cited in Wong, 2004) observation that Chinese students in an Australian university

were able to adapt to the requirements of this new educational context. Wong (2004) investigated whether the preferred learning styles of Asian international undergraduate students were determined by learning styles in high schools and colleges in their home countries. The findings reveal that the majority of Asian international students expressed a preference for a more student-centred style of learning (Wong, 2004). Furthermore, these findings reveal that the longer the students studied in Australia, the greater their ability to adapt to the Australian style of learning (Wong, 2004). It is clear that the above findings contradict claims that Asian students' approaches to learning are determined by culture, and remain constant in all educational contexts.

Thein (1994) recounts a successful shift in language instruction at the Asian Institute of Technology in Thailand from teacher-dominated language teaching, to a learner-centred approach. The participants were from nine Asian countries and learnt English in a workshop known as 'Talkbase'. The participants were required to express themselves both verbally and in writing in a natural and impromptu manner, with the role of teachers being to monitor participants and also stepping aside and observing them. Prescribed textbooks, reading passages, lectures and grammar classes were absent. At the end of the programme, the participants' language skills had significantly progressed, and they also had a greater dependence on themselves as well as being more confident when speaking English. The participants were able to develop their experiential learning by critically examining their own work, as well as that of others. They were also able to give and receive comments and suggestions, and consequently learn means of improving their work. Thein's teaching experience demonstrates that reticence among Asian learners did not stem from a cultural base, since the students did not conform to a cultural stereotype, but became active and autonomous learners. Similar findings are also strengthened by those of Ho and Crookall (1995), who (through the use of large-scale simulation) established that Asian students could become critical thinkers who learnt to argue intelligently and became independent from their teachers.

Thai students can become active learners as well. For instance, in a speaking class, students who are afraid of making grammatical mistakes or have limited vocabularies stick the speaking sentence patterns in the textbooks by reading them when speaking with their partners during role-play activities. The researcher has to ask them not to be worried too much if their speaking are varied from the language patterns in their textbooks since there are alternative ways to speak. Then they try to speak in English naturally and be able to express themselves in English. Besides, when confronting unknown words, they try to explain the unknown words to their partners by using the techniques such as body language, giving examples and synonyms. The researcher sees that they enjoy speaking with their partners and at the end of the course they look more confident when speaking in English.

It is therefore evident that cultural traits fail to explain the causes of reticence among Asian students, since they do not necessarily view teachers as authoritative figures who cannot be questioned. Furthermore, they have been observed becoming active learners in Western educational contexts.

This raises questions concerning the possible causes of Asian reticence within classrooms. The previous studies, e.g. Cheng (2000), Harumi (2011), Peng (2012) and King (2013), show that there will be a focus on three possible factors of reticence: (1) unsuitable teaching speaking methodologies; (2) low levels of English proficiency; (3) cognitive factors.

Possible Causes of Reticence among Asian Language Learners

Rather than relying on cultural interpretations, this paper argues that reticence among Asian language learners is situation-specific, i.e. when situations change, different results are observed. Firstly, it will be demonstrated that Asian students are viewed as reticent in audioligual and grammar-translation methodologies, which afford them few opportunities to speak. However, when they are taught English in communicative methodologies, they become active learners. Secondly,

despite linguistic factors hindering students from speaking English, they become more active in the classrooms. The last cause is comprised of cognitive factors (e.g. critical thinking) that prevent them from participating in class. However, if they work to develop their critical thinking, their ability to participate should improve.

Unsuitable Teaching Speaking Methodologies

The researcher's dissertation included an investigation into the ways in which Thai students learn to speak English. The findings revealed that they memorised dialogues from textbooks, along with speaking patterns provided by teachers and from tape recorders (Witayarat, 2012). They also copied their teachers' pronunciation (or the pronunciation on the cassette) and had learnt to speak English by responding to teachers' conversation automatically (such as in greetings). The participants were therefore accustomed to dialogue memorisation and scripted dialogues in teacher-dominated classrooms, with limited exposure to creating their own conversations. The participants were of the opinion that such practices posed issues when it came to expressing themselves in English. They also said that they were unable to apply memorised sentences to real situations.

LoCastro (1996 as cited in Cheng, 2000) observed the practice of teaching English in Japan, noting that students sat in rows with individual desks and chairs all facing the front, where the Japanese teacher stood or sat on the podium. The teacher dominated the classroom by talking, addressing questions to students but answering them and making an assessment or commenting on the answer themselves (LoCastro, 1996 as cited in Cheng, 2000). Clearly, this classroom atmosphere did not encourage Japanese students to practice speaking English.

In Liu and Littlewood's (1997) studies, secondary school students listed their most frequent activities in English classes, with the surveys revealing that listening to teachers was a priority, followed by writing essays and reading comprehension exercises. This educational background inevitably socialised the students into accepting passive roles in the classroom. King (2013) observed Japanese university L2 classrooms and found that a teacher-centred instructional

method (a grammar-translation approach) is deeply entrenched in Japanese language teaching, and limited students' opportunities to participate.

It is clear that teaching methodologies influenced students' speaking, meaning that students would keep silent in teacher-dominated classrooms. However, teacher-centered classrooms in Asia does not mean that it can be regarded as cultural dominance of teaching practice since not every Asian language teachers employ teacher-centered in their classrooms. This notion is supported by class observations by Cheng (2000) in China when Cheng supervises Chinese pre-service EFL teachers who conduct their language classrooms with learner-centred methodology. Another evident can be seen in the language classrooms by Thein (1994) where Thein adopted a learner-centred approach named "Talkbase" as previously stated. Furthermore, from researcher's past experiences of learning English with Thai teachers, the teachers do not follow teacher-centered methodology. On the contrary, they design the lessons which primarily enable students to think or solve questions without teachers' telling the answers first; the students play active roles in searching for the answers by themselves first. One of the researcher English courses even asks students to work in groups to write and perform plays in English at the end of the course. For these reasons, it is evident that teacher-centered methodology does not culturally influence the language pedagogy in Asia since there are still teachers who employ learner-centred methodology.

The researcher supports the point that when students were taught using different teaching methodologies, they became active learners and played questioning roles in classrooms where teachers were less dominating and activities were designed for greater opportunities to speak English. The researcher wishes to support this point by giving the following examples of personal teaching experiences in speaking and reading classes. In speaking classes, the students sat in semi-circle and were required to work in pairs and groups during the discussion. The activities included role-play, games, topics of discussion and class

presentations. While talking with friends, the students tried to make themselves understood by using simple words, giving explanations, paraphrasing and using body language. Although some had linguistic limitations (for example, lacking in vocabulary) they were not afraid to ask the researcher or their friends for help. In their group presentations, they demonstrated their creative ideas by using their own experiences or interests to make conversation (e.g. during a role-play activity of accepting and rejecting invitations, a group invited their friends to go and see a football match in which their favourite football team were playing). The pupils also included domestic issues as part of their conversations, in order to support their position when expressing their opinions. In the researcher's reading class, students were not reluctant to ask the researcher questions and request the researcher to check whether their answers were correct. The students were neither shy, nor afraid of expressing their opinions, even when their opinions did not accord with those of their friends. Furthermore, they were not afraid of making mistakes. For example, when the researcher informed them that they were going to check the paraphrasing sentences together, and asked for a volunteer to show their writing, the majority raised their hands and a student collected their friends' work to be checked.

It is clear that teaching methodologies have a significant impact on students' participation. If students are in a classroom where teachers dominate the lesson, it will give them limited opportunities to speak. Moreover, activities determine students' participation. In the case of the Thai students, their previous experience of learning speaking English included memorisation, which prevented them from having opportunities to speak in real life situations. However, they became active learners in less teacher-dominated classrooms, where activities were designed to enable them speak English freely in collaboration with friends. However, the researcher cannot conclude that each Asian student would follow the pattern of the Thai students, since this was one class and simply the researcher's personal teaching experience.

There now follows a discussion of the factors influencing Asian students' reticence due to low levels of proficiency in English.

Low Level of English Language Proficiency

A further factor resulting in the reticence of Asian students results from their low levels of proficiency in English. Liu (2005) studied Chinese university freshmen enrolling in an English 'Listening and Speaking' course, and established that one of factors contributing to reticence was their lack of English proficiency. Similar studies have also been supported by Tsui (1996 as cited in Liu & Jackson, 2009), who undertook a classroom action research project with thirty-eight Hong Kong English-language teachers, and found that the majority ascribed students' reticence to low English proficiency. One explained that: "I think the students' failure to respond to teachers' question was a result, less from lack of knowledge, but more of insufficient English proficiency" (Tsui, 1996, p.148 as cited in Liu & Jackson, 2009). Peng (2012) shared similar findings, in that one of the factors influencing willingness to communicate (WTC) included linguistic hindrances (such as difficulties in comprehension and lack of vocabulary). However, such difficulties were not a permanent factor, as the students became more active in the classrooms as the term progressed and they gained increased exposure to spoken English during interactive classroom activities (Liu & Jackson, 2009). Stephens (1997 as cited in Cheng, 2000) also supports this observation that Chinese students participate freely and independently in discussions when they have fewer language difficulties.

Cognitive Factors

The final factors determining students' participations and communication in English are cognitive. Peng (2012) explains that cognitive factors involve students' background knowledge or skills in reasoning. Peng found that critical thinking ability influenced the students' willingness to communicate (WTC). In Peng's study, Chinese university students reported that they were unable to think of appropriate arguments during communicative activities (such as discussions or

debates) and this hampered their intention to speak. Peng terms this a state of 'cognitive block' (p.207). i.e. a lack of knowing what to talk about when given the opportunities to talk. It was undeniable that Asian students did not learn English by applying critical skills: rather, they were taught to use memorisation (similar to the Thai students mentioned in the previous section). However, when they were taught to think critically, they became active learners.

From the researcher's own teaching experience, it was quite challenging at the start for the Thai students to express their opinions. However, this problem was resolved by requesting them to search for information on the Internet about comprehensive thinking under the guidance of the researcher. This practice assisted them in gaining more ideas and knowledge to enable them to hold discussions with their friends in English. As a result, they could select logical information and employ this to express their opinions. They also included their personal experience, or news they had seen on television, to support their opinions during the discussion. Therefore, if students gained practice in developing their critical skills, they were able to overcome cognitive factors preventing them from expressing themselves in English. It can thus be concluded that the causes of reticence among the Asian language students were situational specific factors. Once they had learnt English in a more interactive classroom, with teachers and friends, they became active learners. Similarly, if their English improved, they also became more active in the classroom. Lastly, if they were taught to develop their critical thinking, they were able to overcome cognitive difficulties and think critically. In order to assist students in taking active roles in class, Liu (2005) suggests that teachers should give students more opportunities to speak, alongside stating the course objectives and explaining the Communicative Language Teaching method (CLT) clearly during the initial lessons. By doing this, students could adjust their own expectations and objectives and understand what they needed to do to be successful (Johnson, 1995 as cited in Liu, 2005). An explanation of CLT during the initial lessons gives students the opportunity to understand the new teaching

and learning style, including its mode and purpose, and the roles of teachers and student in CLT classrooms (Liu, 2005). This knowledge may assist them in understanding their new roles, and those of their teachers, which are dissimilar to those in traditional classrooms (Liu, 2005). In addition, teachers can enhance students' interest in speaking and using the language by providing interesting and varied subjects and organising a variety of activities. These not only have the potential to interest them in English, but also to increase their motivation to learn the language (Liu, 2005). To facilitate students' understanding and discussion, teachers can provide students with subjects beforehand, with a list of recommended books, films and websites, or by giving students a list of vocabulary and sentence structures for use in the discussion (Liu, 2005).

Conclusion

The opinion that reticence among Asian students results from cultural traits is an over simplification, since there are other aspects of Confucian doctrine and Theravada Buddhism that need to be considered carefully and thoroughly. In addition, it is difficult to classify which society or which is only collectivistic or merely individualistic, since most societies combine collectivism and individualism. Furthermore, labelling Asian language students as passive learners assumes learning is a static activity, and neglects other issues relating to learning and teaching practices in English (such as teaching methodologies, language difficulties and cognitive factors). Provided that teaching methodologies in Thailand are revised, students should not be required to memorize dialogue patterns in order to practice speaking English with friends, but should focus on practicing speaking English in real life situations that involve communicative activities. It will also be necessary to establish how best to assist students to overcome language difficulties, to support them in practicing and developing their critical thinking.

References

- Adamson, J. (2003). Challenging Beliefs in Teacher Development: Potential Influences of Theravada Buddhism upon Thais Learning English. *E-Journal of Asian EFL*, 3, 1-21.
- Andersen, P. A. (2003). Different Dimensions: Nonverbal Communication and Culture. In L. A. Samovar & R. E. Porter (Eds.), *Intercultural Communication A Reader* (pp.239-252). CA: Wadsworth.
- Baker, W. (2008). A Critical Examination of ELT in Thailand: the Role of Cultural Awareness. *RELC Journal*, 39(1), 131-146.
- Baker, W. (2009). *Intercultural Awareness and Intercultural Communication through English: an Investigation of Thai English Language Users in Higher Education* (Doctoral dissertation).
- Cheng, X. (2000). Asian Students' Reticence Revisited. *System*, 28, 435-446.
- Deveney, B. (2005). An Investigation into Aspects of Thai Culture and Its Impact on Thai Students in an International School in Thailand. *Journal of Research in International Education*, 4(2), 153-171.
- Flowerdew, J., & Miller, L. (1995). On the Notion of Culture in L2 Lectures. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(2), 345-373.
- Foley, J. (2005). English in Thailand. *RELC Journal*, 36(2), 223-234.
- Gieve, S., & Clark, R. (2005). The Chinese Approach to Learning': Cultural Trait or Situated Response? The Case of a Self-directed Learning Programme. *System*, 33, 261-276.
- Harumi, S. (2011). Classroom Silence: Voices from Japanese EFL Learners. *ELT Journal*, 65(3), 260-269.
- Hazen, M. D., & Shi, R. (2012). Harmony, Conflict and the Process of Argument in Chinese Societies. In L. A. Samovar, R. E. Porter, & E. R. Mcdaniel (Eds.), *Intercultural Communication A Reader* (pp. 445-456). CA: Wadsworth.

- Ho, J., & Crookall, D. (1995). Breaking with Chinese Cultural Traditions: Learner Autonomy in English Language Teaching. *System*, 23(2), 235-243.
- Jackson, J. (2002). Reticence in Second Language Case Discussions: Anxiety and Aspirations. *System*, 30, 65-84.
- Jones, J. F. (1999). Silence to Talk: Cross-cultural Ideas on Students' Participation in Academic Group Discussion. *English for Specific Purposes*, 18(3), 243-259.
- King, J. (2013). Silence in the Second Language Classrooms of Japanese Universities. *Applied Linguistics*, 34(3), 325-343.
- Knutson, T. J. (1994). Comparison of Thai and US American Cultural Values: "Mai Pen Rai" versus "Just Do It." *ABAC Journal*, 14(3), 1-38.
- Littlewood, W. (2000). Do Asian Students Really Want to Listen and Obey?. *ELT Journal Volume*, 54(1), 31-36.
- Liu, M. (2005). Causes of Reticence in EFL Classrooms: A Study of Chinese University Students. *Indonesian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 1(2), 220-236.
- Liu, M., & Jackson, J. (2009). Reticence in Chinese EFL Students at Varied Proficiency Levels. *TESL Canada Journal*, 26(2), 65-81.
- Liu, N. F., & Littlewood, W. (1997). Why Do Many Students Appear Reluctant to Participate in Classroom Learning Discourse?. *System*, 25(3), 371-384.
- McDaniel, E. R. (2003). Japanese Nonverbal Communication: A Reflection of Cultural Themes. In L. A. Samovar & R. E. Porter (Eds.), *Intercultural Communication A Reader* (pp. 253-261). CA: Wadsworth.
- Miller, L., & Aldred, D. (2000). Student Teachers' Perceptions about Communicative Language Teaching Methods. *RELC Journal*, 31(1), 1-22.
- Peng, J. E. (2012). Towards an Ecological Understanding of Willingness to Communicate in EFL Classrooms in China. *System*, 40, 203-213.
- Stevens, S. G. (2012). Chinese Students in Undergraduate Programs: Understanding and Overcoming the Challenges. *Wrap Up*, 9(1), 1-9.

- Thein, M. M. (1994). A Non-native English Speaking Teacher's Response to a Learner-centred Program. *System*, 22(4), 463-471.
- Witayarat, N. (2012). *Thai Students' Experiences of Learning Spoken English with Native and Thai-speaking Teachers* (Unpublished master's thesis). The University of Edinburgh, UK.
- Wong, J. K. K. (2004). Are the Learning Styles of Asian International Students Culturally or Contextually Based?. *International Education Journal*, 4(4), 154-166.

About Author

Nasatorn Witayarat received her Master of Science in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) from the University of Edinburgh, the United Kingdom. She is currently a full-time lecturer at Department of English, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Thammasat University. Her research interest includes cross-cultural communication, intercultural communication and world Englishes.

The Impact of Romantic Relationship on Communication for Promoting Work Efficiency in Organization

ผลกระทบของความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักต่อการสื่อสาร เพื่อเสริมประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กร

ชานนท์ ศิริธรร

อาจารย์ประจำสาขาวิชาการประชาสัมพันธ์
คณะนิเทศศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยอัสสัมชัญ

Email: chanon.chula@gmail.com

บทคัดย่อ

ทรัพยากรบุคคลถือได้ว่าเป็นหัวใจสำคัญประการหนึ่งของการทำงานภายในองค์กร การวางแผนการจัดการและพัฒนาบุคลากร ตลอดจนการวางแผนการสื่อสารอย่างเหมาะสมจะมีส่วนช่วยส่งเสริมให้การทำงานในองค์กรมีประสิทธิภาพมากยิ่งขึ้น โดยความสัมพันธ์ของบุคลากรรูปแบบหนึ่งที่มีอยู่โดยทั่วไปในหลากหลายองค์กรของประเทศไทย ได้แก่ ความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักที่ทำงานอยู่ภายในองค์กรเดียวกัน ซึ่งมีความเป็นไปได้ว่าลักษณะการติดต่อสื่อสารระหว่างกันของบุคคลในความสัมพันธ์รูปแบบนี้จะส่งผลกระทบในด้านต่างๆ ต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กรด้วยการศึกษาค้นคว้าครั้งนี้จึงมีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อนำเสนอข้อสันนิษฐาน (Proposition) ต่างๆ ที่เกี่ยวข้องกับผลกระทบของความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักแต่ละประเภทที่มีต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กร

โดยการศึกษาในครั้งนี้ใช้แนวคิดการจัดแบ่งประเภทของคูรัก (Couple Types) เป็นแนวทางหลักในการศึกษา ซึ่งเป็นการจัดแบ่งคูรักออกเป็นประเภทต่างๆ ด้วยเครื่องมือที่เรียกว่า Relational Dimension Instrument (RDI) สามารถจัดแบ่งคูรักออกได้เป็น 4 ประเภท ได้แก่ คูรักตามขนบธรรมเนียม (Traditional Couple), คูรักแบบมีอิสระ (Independent Couple), คูรักแบบแบ่งแยก (Separate Couple) และคูรักแบบผสม (Mixed Couple) โดยผู้เขียนคาดหวังว่า ผลจากการศึกษาค้นคว้าครั้งนี้ จะสามารถนำไปใช้ประโยชน์ในการวางแผนการจัดการและการพัฒนาทรัพยากรบุคคลในองค์กรต่อไป

จากการศึกษาโดยอาศัยกรอบแนวคิดที่ระบุข้างต้น ผู้เขียนมีข้อสันนิษฐานว่า ประเภทของคูรััก (Couple Type) ในแต่ละลักษณะ ส่งผลกระทบต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กรแตกต่างกันไป กล่าวคือ คูรัักแต่ละประเภท มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพัน (Perceived Attachment Style) และรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้ง (Conflict Management Style) ที่แตกต่างกัน ซึ่งส่งผลกระทบต่อความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) และประสิทธิภาพการทำงาน (Work Efficiency) ที่แตกต่างกันออกไปในที่สุด

คำสำคัญ: ความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรััก, ประเภทของคูรััก, ประสิทธิภาพการทำงาน, การสื่อสารระหว่างบุคคล, การสื่อสารองค์กร

Abstract

Human resources have been a key element for organizational operation in the workplace. Well-planned human resource management and organizational communication will help promoting and enhancing work efficiency and internal relationships in the organizations in any levels, including romantic relationships. Workplace romances in Thai companies become more common and acceptable recently. However, researcher found that it is possible that this kind of internal relationship may have a serious impact on various aspects of company performance. This study will focus on how different characteristics in romantic workplace relationships result in different interaction patterns, communication behaviors, quality of the relationship, and impact on individual performance in the workplace.

Researcher uses the concept of *Couple Types* by Fitzpatrick (1988) as a main approach, along with the Relational Dimension Instrument (RDI) as a tool to differentiate between couple types in romantic workplace relationships. Four couple types consist of traditional couple, independent couple, separate couple, and mixed couple.

The main proposition in this paper is each couple type in romantic workplace relationship has different impact on work efficiency in the organizations. Each couple type has different perceived attachment styles and conflict management styles, which affect marital satisfaction and work efficiency differently.

Key words: Romantic relationship, Couple type, Work efficiency, Interpersonal communication, Organizational communication

บทนำ

ทรัพยากรบุคคลถือได้ว่าเป็นหัวใจสำคัญประการหนึ่งของการทำงานภายในองค์กร การวางแผนการจัดการและพัฒนาบุคลากร ตลอดจนการวางแผนการสื่อสารอย่างเหมาะสมจะมีส่วนช่วยส่งเสริมให้การทำงานในองค์กรมีประสิทธิภาพมากยิ่งขึ้น โดยความสัมพันธ์ของบุคลากรรูปแบบหนึ่งที่มีอยู่โดยทั่วไปในหลากหลายองค์กร นั่นคือ ความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักที่ทำงานอยู่ภายในองค์กรเดียวกัน โดยคู่รักรูปแบบนี้ หมายความว่า คู่รักที่สมรสกัน และทำงานอยู่ภายในองค์กรหรือบริษัทเดียวกัน มีการใช้เวลาอยู่ร่วมกันทั้งที่บ้านและที่ทำงาน (Halbesleben, 2010; Halbesleben, Wheeler & Rossi, 2011) ความสัมพันธ์ในรูปแบบนี้เกิดขึ้นอย่างแพร่หลายในปัจจุบัน ซึ่งผู้คนในสังคมมีค่านิยมยอมรับการทำงานนอกบ้านของเพศหญิงหรือฝ่ายภรรยามากขึ้นนั่นเอง (Sears & Galambos, 1992; Gilbert, Hallett & Eldridge, 1994; Bond, Galinsky & Swanberg, 1998; Hammer, Colton, Caubet & Brockwood, 2002; Bond, Thompson, Galinsky & Prottas, 2003)

Pierce และ Aguinis (2001) ศึกษาพบว่า มากกว่าร้อยละ 80 ของพนักงานในองค์กรรายงานว่ามีความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักที่ทำงานอยู่ภายในองค์กรเดียวกันปรากฏอยู่ในองค์กรของตนจริง นอกจากนี้ ร้อยละ 62 ของพนักงานในองค์กรยังรายงานว่า ตนเองมีหรือเคยมีประสบการณ์แบบความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักที่ทำงานอยู่ภายในองค์กรเดียวกัน ด้วยหรือแม้แต่การศึกษาล่าสุดของ Cowan และ Horan เมื่อต้นปี 2014 ก็ยังพบว่า ความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักที่ทำงานอยู่ภายในองค์กรเดียวกัน (Workplace Romance) เป็นรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์ที่ปรากฏอยู่ทั่วไปในหลายองค์กร เป็นเรื่องปกติขององค์กรในยุคปัจจุบัน

โดยมีความเป็นไปได้ว่าลักษณะการติดต่อสื่อสารระหว่างกันของบุคคลในความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักที่ทำงานอยู่ภายในองค์กรเดียวกันนี้ จะส่งผลกระทบต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กรด้วย อาทิ Fitzpatrick (1988) ศึกษาพบว่า การที่คู่รักทำงานภายในองค์กรเดียวกัน อาจก่อให้เกิดผลเสียหรืออันตรายต่าง ๆ ต่อการทำงานขึ้นได้ รวมถึงเพื่อนร่วมงานเอง ก็อาจเกิดความไม่พึงพอใจในรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์ลักษณะนี้ ด้วยเหตุนี้ จึงมีการกำหนดกฎเกณฑ์หรือข้อห้ามขึ้นมาในหลายองค์กร แม้แต่ในกองทัพเองก็มีข้อห้ามไม่ให้คู่รักทำงานภายในหน่วยงานเดียวกัน หลายการศึกษาในยุคต่อมาพบว่า ความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักที่ทำงานอยู่ภายในองค์กรเดียวกันส่งผลทั้งด้านบวกและด้านลบต่อทั้งความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างคู่รักและต่อการทำงานด้วย (Cowan & Horan, 2014) ในอีกแง่มุม

หนึ่ง Gamble และ Gamble (2014) ศึกษาพบเฉพาะข้อดีของการที่คูรักรักทำงานภายในองค์กรเดียวกัน นั่นคือ การส่งเสริมให้เกิดการใช้เวลาอยู่ร่วมกัน (Time together) มากยิ่งขึ้น ซึ่งการใช้เวลาอยู่ร่วมกันในปริมาณที่มากเพียงพอจะนำไปสู่การเกิดความพึงพอใจในการทำงาน (Work satisfaction) ได้ ทั้งนี้เพราะต่างฝ่ายต่างได้มีโอกาสรับรู้ความรู้สึกดี ๆ จากการทำงานมากยิ่งขึ้น หากคูรักรักนั้นมีคุณภาพของความสัมพันธ์ที่ดีต่อกัน จะยิ่งส่งผลให้เกิดพฤติกรรมกรรมการสื่อสารที่ให้กำลังใจกันในการทำงาน ให้ความช่วยเหลือกันในการทำงาน มีการสื่อสารที่ส่งผลดีต่อกัน และเป็นมิตรต่อกันในองค์กรด้วย

ส่วนในบริบทของการทำงานภายในองค์กรของไทยนั้น ก็มีการศึกษาเกี่ยวกับความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักที่ทำงานอยู่ภายในองค์กรเดียวกันอยู่บ้าง ซึ่งพบว่า คูรักรักในองค์กรมักมีรูปแบบการสื่อสารแบบไม่เป็นทางการ ใช้วิธีการพูดคุยกันโดยตรง มีการหยอกล้อกันด้วยความสนิทสนม ซึ่งส่งผลให้เกิดผลกระทบในด้านต่างๆ ได้แก่ ช่วยกระชับความสัมพันธ์ของคูรักรักให้ดีขึ้น เกิดความสะดวกในการรับและส่งข้อมูล เกิดความรวดเร็วในการแลกเปลี่ยนข่าวสารระหว่างคนรักที่อยู่ต่างแผนก มีความกล้าที่จะแสดงความคิดเห็นที่ขัดแย้งกัน และก่อให้เกิดการสร้างเครือข่ายอย่างไม่เป็นทางการในองค์กร (กฤษฎา กาญจนเพ็ญ, 2550)

จะเห็นได้ว่าที่ผ่านมา มีการศึกษาผลกระทบของความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักต่อการทำงานเป็นจำนวนมาก แต่ในการศึกษาเหล่านี้ ล้วนแล้วแต่เป็นการศึกษาผลกระทบของรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์ลักษณะนี้ต่อการทำงานในภาพกว้าง หรือเป็นลักษณะเหมารวมทั้งที่ในความเป็นจริงนั้นความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักนั้นมีอยู่หลากหลายลักษณะ แต่ละลักษณะก็มีรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์ พฤติกรรมการสื่อสาร ตลอดจนคุณภาพของความสัมพันธ์แตกต่างกันไป ซึ่งความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักแต่ละประเภท มีแนวโน้มที่จะส่งผลกระทบต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กรแตกต่างกันไปด้วย ดังนั้น การศึกษาในครั้งนีจึงมีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อนำเสนอแนวคิดที่เชื่อมโยงระหว่างประเภทของคูรักรักที่ส่งผลต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงาน โดยมีประเด็นนำเสนอต่างๆ ที่เป็นข้อพึงสังเกต ซึ่งสามารถใช้เป็นแนวทางในการศึกษาต่อในอนาคต เพื่อเป็นพื้นฐานในการนำไปประยุกต์ใช้กับการวางแผนการสื่อสารระหว่างบุคลากรภายในองค์กรต่อไป

แนวคิดที่ใช้ในการศึกษา

ความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักมีอยู่หลากหลายลักษณะ ซึ่งแต่ละลักษณะก็มีรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์ที่ต่างกันไป การศึกษาในครั้งนี้เลือกใช้แนวคิดเกี่ยวกับการจัดแบ่งประเภทของคู่รัก (Couple Types) เป็นแนวทางหลักในการศึกษา นอกจากนี้ ยังศึกษาถึงปัจจัยอื่นๆ ที่ส่งผลกระทบต่อการสื่อสารระหว่างบุคคลในความสัมพันธ์รูปแบบดังกล่าว อันประกอบด้วยแนวคิดเกี่ยวกับการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพัน (Perceived Attachment Style) รูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้ง (Conflict Management Style) ความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) และประสิทธิภาพการทำงาน (Work Efficiency) ในองค์กร โดยมีรายละเอียดดังต่อไปนี้

1. แนวคิดเกี่ยวกับประเภทของคู่รัก

เมื่อปี 1988 นั้น Fitzpatrick ได้ทำการศึกษาเกี่ยวกับลักษณะของความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรัก โดยเก็บข้อมูลจากคู่รัก 1,000 คู่ สอบถามข้อมูลในด้านต่างๆ ของความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรัก ทั้งด้านการแลกเปลี่ยนอารมณ์ความรู้สึกระหว่างกัน (Sharing), ความต้องการระยะห่าง (Space needs), ความขัดแย้ง (Conflicts) และการใช้เวลาอยู่ร่วมกัน (Time together) จากนั้นทำการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูล แล้วจัดจำแนกประเภทของคู่รักออกเป็นกลุ่มโดยพิจารณาจากลักษณะพื้นฐานความสัมพันธ์ที่มีร่วมกันหรือมีคล้ายคลึงกัน วิธีการนี้เรียกว่าการใช้ Relational Dimension Instrument (RDI) ในการแบ่งแยกประเภทของคู่รัก

Halbesleben (2010) กล่าวว่า วิธีการดังกล่าว ไม่ได้พิจารณาปัจจัยภายนอกที่ส่งผลกระทบต่อความสัมพันธ์ของคู่รัก หากแต่มุ่งเน้นปัจจัยภายในของคู่รัก ในลักษณะการแลกเปลี่ยนภายในของการจัดการความสัมพันธ์ (Internal Exchanges of Relationship Management) เป็นสิ่งที่คนภายนอกยากจะสังเกตเห็น แม้การใช้วิธีการดังกล่าวจะไม่ได้แสดงให้เห็นถึงความเปลี่ยนแปลงอันเกิดขึ้นอยู่ตลอดเวลาระหว่างคู่รัก แต่ก็ถือเป็นการสะท้อนให้เห็นถึงการให้คุณค่าความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างคู่รักแต่ละคู่ จัดเป็นการศึกษาคุณภาพของความสัมพันธ์ของคู่รักแต่ละประเภทในภาพรวมนั่นเอง

โดยการใช้ Relational Dimension Instrument (RDI) นี้ สามารถจัดแบ่งคู่รักออกได้เป็น 4 ประเภท อันประกอบด้วย คู่รักตามขนบธรรมเนียม (Traditional Couple), คู่รักแบบมีอิสระต่อกัน (Independent Couple), คู่รักแบบแบ่งแยกจากกัน (Separate Couple) และคู่รักแบบผสม (Mixed Couple)

1.1 คู่รักตามชนบทธรรมเนียม

Fitzpatrick (1988) อธิบายว่าลักษณะร่วมกันของคู่รักตามชนบทธรรมเนียม (Traditional Couple) คือเป็นคู่รักที่แลกเปลี่ยนข้อมูลข่าวสารระหว่างกัน คู่รักประเภทนี้มักมองว่าแต่ละฝ่ายเป็นส่วนเติมเต็มซึ่งกันและกัน มากกว่าที่จะมองว่าเป็นเพียงปัจเจกบุคคลมาอยู่ร่วมกัน คู่รักประเภทนี้เชื่อว่าต่างฝ่ายต่างต้องมีการเสียสละเพื่อก่อให้เกิดคุณภาพของความสัมพันธ์ที่ดี ยึดถือเรื่องการอยู่ร่วมกัน แลกเปลี่ยนซึ่งกันและกัน มากกว่าการอยู่แบบแบ่งแยกจากกัน คู่รักประเภทนี้ยึดถือในบทบาททางเพศตามชนบทธรรมเนียม (Traditional Gender Roles) ฝ่ายชายมีบทบาททางเพศแบบเพศชายตามชนบทธรรมเนียม (Traditionally Masculine) ฝ่ายหญิงมีบทบาททางเพศแบบเพศหญิงตามชนบทธรรมเนียม (Traditionally Feminine) จึงมักไม่เกิดความขัดแย้งกันในบทบาทของแต่ละฝ่าย ส่วนในด้านการสื่อสารนั้น คู่รักประเภทนี้จะมีการโต้ตอบสื่อสารกันอย่างมาก (Highly Responsive) เน้นการสื่อสารผ่านการพูดคุยอย่างมาก และมีการแลกเปลี่ยนอวัจนภาษาอย่างครบถ้วน เช่น การยิ้ม การใช้สายตา เป็นต้น

นอกจากนี้ Solomon และ Theiss (2013) ยังได้นำ Relational Dimension Instrument (RDI) มาศึกษาเพิ่มเติมเกี่ยวกับรูปแบบปฏิสัมพันธ์ระหว่างคู่รักแต่ละประเภท และได้อธิบายลักษณะปฏิสัมพันธ์ของคู่รักหรือคู่สมรสตามชนบทธรรมเนียม (Traditional Couple/Marriage) ได้ว่า เป็นคู่รักที่มีลักษณะการแบ่งบทบาทหน้าที่ภายในครอบครัวว่าฝ่ายใดเป็นฝ่ายหาเลี้ยงครอบครัว ฝ่ายใดเป็นฝ่ายดูแลความเรียบร้อยภายในบ้าน แต่การแบ่งบทบาทหน้าที่นี้เป็นเพียงการกำหนดผู้รับผิดชอบหลัก ในทางปฏิบัติ คู่รักประเภทนี้จะช่วยกันทำหน้าที่ต่าง ๆ ด้วยกัน ทั้งนี้ตามแต่สถานการณ์และความเหมาะสม เปรียบเสมือนฟันเฟืองในเครื่องจักร ซึ่งต่างก็มีหน้าที่เฉพาะของตน แต่จำเป็นอย่างยิ่งที่จะต้องประสานงานร่วมกัน

1.2 คู่รักแบบมีอิสระต่อกัน

ผลการศึกษาของ Fitzpatrick (1988) พบว่า คู่รักแบบมีอิสระต่อกัน (Independent Couple) มีลักษณะร่วมกันคือ เป็นคู่รักที่เน้นให้ความสำคัญกับความเป็นส่วนบุคคล (Individuality) มองความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างกันเป็นเรื่องสำคัญ แต่น้อยกว่าความเป็นส่วนบุคคลของตนเอง คู่รักประเภทนี้ยังคงใช้เวลาส่วนใหญ่อยู่ร่วมกัน แต่ไม่ได้ยึดถือในบทบาททางเพศตามชนบทธรรมเนียม (Traditional Gender Roles) โดยจะยึดมั่นกับบทบาททางเพศแบบผสม (Androgynous) คือมีทั้งบทบาททางเพศแบบเพศชายตาม

ชนบทรอบแบบ (Traditionally Masculine) และแบบเพศหญิงตามชนบทรอบแบบ (Traditionally Feminine) ส่วนในด้าน การสื่อสารนั้น คู่รักประเภทนี้จะมีการโต้ตอบสื่อสารกันอย่างมาก (Highly Responsive) เช่นเดียวกับกับคู่รักตามชนบทรอบแบบ (Traditional Couple) คู่รักประเภทนี้มักกล้าเผชิญหน้ากับปัญหา (Engage in Conflict) โดยปราศจากความหวาดกลัว มีการเปิดเผยตัวเอง (Self-disclosure) อย่างมาก

โดย Solomon และ Theiss (2013) ได้อธิบายเพิ่มเติมว่า คู่รักหรือคู่สมรสแบบมีอิสระต่อกัน (Independent Couple/Marriage) มีการใช้เวลาร่วมกันคล้ายคลึงกับคู่รักหรือคู่สมรสตามชนบทรอบแบบ แต่มีการนำเอาความคิด ทัศนคติ และความปรารถนาส่วนบุคคลมาใช้ในครอบครัวมากกว่า คู่รักประเภทนี้ให้ความสำคัญกับเรื่องส่วนตัวของตนเองมากกว่า ขณะที่คู่รักตามชนบทรอบแบบให้ความสำคัญกับเรื่องครอบครัวโดยภาพรวมมากกว่า คู่รักประเภทนี้ไม่ได้มีการแบ่งบทบาทหน้าที่ระหว่างกันอย่างชัดเจน เพราะการแบ่งบทบาทหน้าที่ขึ้นอยู่กับ การเจรจาต่อรองกันในแต่ละสถานการณ์

1.3 คู่รักแบบแบ่งแยกจากกัน

ลักษณะร่วมกันของคู่รักแบบแบ่งแยกจากกัน (Separate Couple) คือเป็นคู่รักที่ถึงแม้จะมีการใช้เวลาอยู่ด้วยกันบ้าง แต่ก็ไม่ได้รับรู้ถึงความรักและความใกล้ชิดกัน มีความปรารถนาที่จะอยู่ร่วมกันน้อย อาจอยู่ร่วมกันเฉพาะเมื่อมีเหตุการณ์สำคัญจริงๆ ต่างฝ่ายต่างมีพื้นที่ส่วนตัวทั้งทางด้านร่างกาย อารมณ์ความรู้สึก และจิตใจ มีการแลกเปลี่ยนข้อมูลระหว่างกันน้อย สื่อสารกันตามความจำเป็น และไม่มีความรู้สึกถึงการเป็นส่วนเติมเต็มของกันและกันเหมือนอย่างคู่รักหรือคู่สมรสตามชนบทรอบแบบ (Fitzpatrick, 1988) ถึงแม้คู่รักประเภทนี้จะมีการแบ่งบทบาทหน้าที่ระหว่างกันอย่างชัดเจนคล้ายกับคู่รักตามชนบทรอบแบบ แต่ก็ไม่มี การให้ความสำคัญกับการใช้เวลาอยู่ร่วมกัน ต่างฝ่ายต่างพึงพอใจกับการทำกิจกรรมส่วนบุคคลที่ไม่เกี่ยวข้องหรือกระทบกับอีกฝ่าย จึงส่งผลทำให้คู่รักประเภทนี้มีความห่างเหินกันทั้งทางความรู้สึกนึกคิดและทางอารมณ์ (Psychological and Emotional Distance) ซึ่งนับเป็นจุดเปราะบางของความสัมพันธ์ลักษณะนี้ (Solomon & Theiss, 2013)

1.4 คู่รักแบบผสม

คู่รักแบบผสม (Mixed Couple) มีลักษณะสำคัญคือเป็นคู่รักที่ต่างฝ่ายต่างมีลักษณะตามประเภทของคู่รักที่แตกต่างกัน ได้แก่ การที่ฝ่ายหนึ่งมีลักษณะเป็นคู่รักตามชนบทรอบแบบ แต่อีกฝ่ายมีลักษณะเป็นคู่รักแบบมีอิสระต่อกัน, การที่ฝ่ายหนึ่งมีลักษณะ

เป็นคู่รักตามขนบธรรมเนียม แต่อีกฝ่ายมีลักษณะเป็นคู่รักแบบแบ่งแยกจากกัน และการที่ฝ่ายหนึ่งมีลักษณะเป็นคู่รักแบบมีอิสระต่อกัน แต่อีกฝ่ายมีลักษณะเป็นคู่รักแบบแบ่งแยกจากกัน (Fitzpatrick, 1988)

จากการศึกษาเพิ่มเติมของ Solomon และ Theiss (2013) ได้สรุปไว้ว่า คู่รักหรือคู่สมรสแบบผสม (Mixed Couple/Marriage) เกิดจากการที่แต่ละฝ่ายมีความคิด ความเชื่อ ความคาดหวัง หรือมุมมองที่แตกต่างกันในความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรัก คู่รักประเภทนี้จึงมักเกิดความไม่เห็นด้วยกับอีกฝ่าย เกิดความไม่ลงรอยระหว่างกันทั้งในเรื่องบทบาทหน้าที่ การใช้เวลาร่วมกัน วิธีหรือช่องทางในการติดต่อสื่อสารระหว่างกัน จนเกิดความไม่แน่ใจ (Uncertainty) และความขัดแย้งบ่อยครั้งในความสัมพันธ์ ซึ่งเป็นผลมาจากพื้นฐานความคิดที่แตกต่างกันนั่นเอง

Solomon และ Theiss (2013) ได้สรุปการศึกษาเกี่ยวกับการจัดแบ่งประเภทของคู่รัก (Couple Types) โดยใช้ Relational Dimension Instrument (RDI) ไว้ว่า รูปแบบความสัมพันธ์หรือประเภทของคู่รักจะเป็นไปในลักษณะใดนั้น ขึ้นอยู่กับประสบการณ์จากครอบครัวของแต่ละฝ่าย และการรับรู้ภาพลักษณ์ของครอบครัวต่างๆ ที่คู่รักคู่หนึ่งมองในสังคม สองปัจจัยนี้จะเป็นพื้นฐานความคิดของคู่รักในการปฏิสัมพันธ์กัน แลกเปลี่ยนความรู้สึกซึ่งกันและกัน ตลอดจนเป็นพื้นฐานของการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพัน (Perceived Attachment Style) ของคู่รัก และมีอิทธิพลต่อรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้ง (Conflict Management Style) ระหว่างคู่รักอีกด้วย

2. ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างประเภทของคู่รักกับการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพัน

รูปแบบความผูกพัน (Attachment Styles) เป็นอุปนิสัย (Trait) ลักษณะหนึ่งซึ่งปรากฏขึ้นในความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรัก เกิดขึ้นจากความสัมพันธ์ที่ใกล้ชิดระหว่างบุคคล ซึ่งสะท้อนถึงการรับรู้ความรู้สึกต่อความสัมพันธ์นั้น แบ่งได้เป็น 2 รูปแบบ คือการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบมั่นคง (Perceived Secure Attachment) ซึ่งคู่รักจะมีความรู้สึกปลอดภัย มั่นใจ และเชื่อมั่นในความสัมพันธ์นั้น คู่รักที่รับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบมั่นคงจะมีความสามารถในการทำให้อีกฝ่ายเชื่อถือได้ง่าย การรับรู้แบบนี้เกิดจากการที่บุคคลรับรู้ตนเองในเชิงบวกและผู้อื่นก็รับรู้เกี่ยวกับตนในเชิงบวกด้วย ส่วนอีกรูปแบบคือ การรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบไม่มั่นคง (Perceived Insecure Attachment) ซึ่งคู่รักจะไม่มี ความมั่นใจในความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างกัน การรับรู้แบบนี้เกิดจากการที่บุคคล

รับรู้ว่ามีผู้อื่นรับรู้เกี่ยวกับตนในเชิงลบ จนส่งผลให้เกิดการรับรู้ตนเองในเชิงลบไปด้วย (Solomon & Theiss, 2013)

รูปแบบความผูกพันเป็นสิ่งสำคัญในความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างบุคคล เพราะส่งผลต่อทั้งคุณภาพของความสัมพันธ์ และต่อคุณภาพของชีวิตความเป็นอยู่ด้วย การมีคุณภาพของรูปแบบความผูกพันที่ดี จะส่งผลให้คุณภาพของความสัมพันธ์และคุณภาพของชีวิตความเป็นอยู่ดีตามไปด้วย นอกจากนี้ รูปแบบความผูกพันที่มีคุณภาพยังส่งผลต่อพฤติกรรมองค์กร (Organizational Behavior) ที่ดี และนำไปสู่การทำงานอย่างมีคุณภาพอีกด้วย (Harms, 2011)

2.1 คู่รักตามขนบธรรมเนียมเกี่ยวกับการรับรู้ความผูกพัน

คู่รักตามขนบธรรมเนียม (Traditional Couple) มักมีลักษณะเป็นคู่รักที่มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบมั่นคง (Perceived Secure Attachment) เนื่องจากมีความใกล้ชิดกันในระดับสูง มีความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) อย่างสูง จึงมีแนวโน้มที่จะอยู่ด้วยกันอย่างยาวนาน (Collin & Read, 1990) ตลอดจนมีการให้คำมั่นสัญญาและความน่าเชื่อถือมากกว่าคู่รักที่มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบไม่มั่นคง (Perceived Insecure Attachment) (Feeney & Noller, 1991)

ทั้งนี้เพราะการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบมั่นคง (Perceived Secure Attachment) นั้น จะทำให้บุคคลเกิดการรับรู้และความคิดในเชิงบวกทั้งต่อตนเอง คู่รัก และบุคคลอื่นๆ อันจะเป็นพื้นฐานให้เกิดความใกล้ชิดในปฏิสัมพันธ์ และเกิดความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ตนเอง (Bartholomew, 1997)

2.2 คู่รักแบบมีอิสระต่อกันกับการรับรู้ความผูกพัน

ถึงแม้คู่รักแบบอิสระ (Independent Couple) จะเป็นคู่รักที่ไม่ได้ยึดถือในบทบาททางเพศตามขนบธรรมเนียม (Traditional Gender Roles) แต่คู่รักประเภทนี้ ก็ยังคงใช้เวลาส่วนใหญ่อยู่ร่วมกัน ทั้งยังมีการโต้ตอบสื่อสารกันอย่างมาก (Highly Responsive) และมีการเปิดเผยตัวเอง (Self-disclosure) อย่างมาก จึงทำให้มีลักษณะเป็นคู่รักที่มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบมั่นคง (Perceived Secure Attachment) เช่นเดียวกับคู่รักประเภทแรก (Collin & Read, 1990; Feeney & Noller, 1991; Bartholomew, 1997)

2.3 คู่รักแบบแบ่งแยกจากกันกับการรับรู้ความผูกพัน

คู่รักแบบแบ่งแยกจากกัน (Separate Couple) มีระยะเวลาการมีปฏิสัมพันธ์กันน้อยกว่าคู่รักสองประเภทแรก ไม่ได้รับรู้ถึงความรักและความใกล้ชิดระหว่างกัน ต่างฝ่าย

ต่างมีพื้นที่ส่วนตัวติดต่อสื่อสารกันตามความจำเป็น จนเกิดเป็นความห่างเหินกันทั้งทางความรู้สึกนึกคิดและทางอารมณ์ (Psychological and Emotional Distance) ซึ่งจุดนี้เองที่ทำให้คู่รักแบบแบ่งแยกจากกันเกิดการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบไม่มั่นคง (Perceived Insecure Attachment) ซึ่งไม่มีการให้พันธะสัญญาระหว่างกัน และเป็นความสัมพันธ์ที่ปราศจากความน่าเชื่อถือ (Collin & Read, 1990; Feeney & Noller, 1991)

การรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบไม่มั่นคง (Perceived Insecure Attachment) นี้ อาจนำไปสู่ความผิดปกติต่าง ๆ ทั้งต่อความสัมพันธ์และต่อตนเอง จากการศึกษาของ Bifulco, Moran, Ball และ Bernazzani (2002) พบว่า การที่คู่รักมีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบไม่มั่นคง อาจส่งผลทำให้เกิดภาวะซึมเศร้า (Depression) ขึ้นกับฝ่ายใดฝ่ายหนึ่งหรือทั้งสองฝ่ายได้

2.4 คู่รักแบบผสมกับการรับรู้ความผูกพัน

จากการศึกษารูปแบบความผูกพันและคุณภาพความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างคู่รักของ Collin และ Read (1990) พบว่า คู่รักแบบผสม (Mixed Couple) ซึ่งเกิดจากการที่แต่ละฝ่ายมีความคิดหรือมุมมองที่แตกต่างกันในความสัมพันธ์นั้น มักเกิดความไม่แน่ใจ (Uncertainty) ระหว่างกัน และเกิดความขัดแย้งขึ้นบ่อยครั้งในความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรัก เหตุผลเหล่านี้เองส่งผลทำให้คู่รักแบบผสมมักเกิดการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบไม่มั่นคง (Perceived Insecure Attachment) เช่นเดียวกับคู่รักแบบแบ่งแยก (Bifulco, Moran, Ball & Bernazzani, 2002)

3. ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างประเภทของคู่รักกับรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้ง

Gamble และ Gamble (2014) กล่าวว่า รูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งระหว่างคู่รักมีผลต่อการกำหนดลักษณะการสื่อสารระหว่างกัน โดยการสื่อสารระหว่างคู่รักภายในครอบครัวนั้นเมื่ออยู่ 2 รูปแบบ อันเป็นผลมาจากลักษณะการจัดการกับความขัดแย้งต่างๆ ที่เกิดขึ้นในความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรัก ลักษณะแรกคือ รูปแบบการสื่อสารที่ให้ผลดี (Productive Communication Pattern) อันเป็นผลมาจากรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบเผชิญหน้า (Engage in Conflict) ซึ่งลักษณะปฏิสัมพันธ์เช่นนี้ เกิดขึ้นกับคู่รักที่มีอิสระในการแสดงความรู้สึกหรือความต้องการที่แท้จริงต่อกัน คู่รักประเภทนี้จะมีการสื่อสารที่สนับสนุนซึ่งกันและกันทั้งทางร่างกายและจิตใจ เกิดความเชื่อมั่นในความสัมพันธ์ภายในครอบครัว พร้อมเปิดรับการเปลี่ยนแปลงและพร้อมเจรจาเพื่อแก้ไขความขัดแย้งต่างๆ ที่อาจเกิดขึ้นได้ภายในครอบครัว ส่วนอีกลักษณะหนึ่งของการสื่อสารระหว่างคู่รักภายใน

ครอบครัวยังคือ รูปแบบการสื่อสารที่มีปัญหา (Problematic Communication Pattern) อันเป็นผลมาจากรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบหลีกเลี่ยง (Avoid Conflict) ซึ่งลักษณะปฏิสัมพันธ์เช่นนี้ เกิดขึ้นกับคู่รักที่ไม่ได้มีโอกาสแสดงความรู้สึกหรือความต้องการที่แท้จริงต่อกัน ส่งผลให้เกิดความสับสนในข้อมูลที่มีการสื่อสารระหว่างกัน และอาจนำมาซึ่งการสื่อสารด้วยสารหรือข้อความที่ก่อให้เกิดอันตราย (Harmful messages) ทั้งต่อร่างกายและจิตใจ ส่งผลกระทบเชิงลบต่อคุณภาพชีวิตของคู่รักในที่สุด

3.1 คู่รักตามขนบธรรมเนียมกับรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้ง

ด้วยความผูกพันกันอย่างใกล้ชิด คู่รักตามขนบธรรมเนียม (Traditional Couple) จึงมักมีพฤติกรรมสื่อสารในรูปแบบการสื่อสารที่ให้ผลดี (Productive Communication Pattern) อันเป็นผลมาจากรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบเผชิญหน้า (Engage in Conflict) คู่รักประเภทนี้จะไม่หลีกเลี่ยงปัญหาหรือความขัดแย้งใดๆ แต่จะร่วมมือกันแก้ไขสถานการณ์ โดยมีการสื่อสารที่สนับสนุนซึ่งกันและกันทั้งทางร่างกายและจิตใจ เพื่อให้ความสัมพันธ์ที่ดีภายในครอบครัวตามกรอบของขนบธรรมเนียมยังคงอยู่ต่อไปได้ (Gamble & Gamble, 2014)

นอกจากนี้ งานวิจัยของ Greeff และ Bruyne ในปี 2000 ยังพบว่า คู่รักที่มีรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบเผชิญหน้า (Engage in Conflict) หรือเรียกว่าการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบร่วมมือกัน (Collaborative Conflict Management) นั้นจะนำมาซึ่งความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ในระดับที่สูงที่สุดเมื่อเทียบกับคู่รักที่มีรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบอื่น

3.2 คู่รักแบบมีอิสระต่อกันกับรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้ง

Gamble และ Gamble (2014) ศึกษาพบว่า คู่รักแบบอิสระ (Independent Couple) มีแนวโน้มพฤติกรรมในรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบเผชิญหน้า (Engage in Conflict) มากกว่ารูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบหลีกเลี่ยง (Avoid Conflict) ทั้งนี้เพราะเป็นคู่รักที่เน้นให้ความสำคัญกับการติดต่อสื่อสารระหว่างกัน มีการโต้ตอบสื่อสารกันอย่างมาก (Highly Responsive) และมีการเปิดเผยตัวเอง (Self-disclosure) อย่างมากด้วย จึงมีแนวโน้มที่จะใช้การสื่อสารเพื่อแก้ไขหรือจัดการความขัดแย้งต่างๆ ที่เกิดขึ้นระหว่างความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรัก ลักษณะพฤติกรรมเหล่านี้จะพัฒนาจนเกิดเป็นรูปแบบการสื่อสารที่ให้ผลดี (Productive Communication Pattern) ต่อความสัมพันธ์ในที่สุด

3.3 คู่รักแบบแบ่งแยกจากกันกับรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้ง

การมีพื้นที่ส่วนตัวและความห่างเหินกันทั้งทางความรู้สึกนึกคิดและทางอารมณ์ (Psychological and Emotional Distance) ของคู่รักแบบแบ่งแยกจากกัน (Separate Couple) ส่งผลให้คู่รักประเภทนี้มีแนวโน้มที่จะใช้รูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบหลีกเลี่ยง (Avoid Conflict) มากกว่ารูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบเผชิญหน้า (Engage in Conflict) เพราะโดยพื้นฐานแล้วเป็นความสัมพันธ์ในลักษณะที่มีปฏิสัมพันธ์กันอย่างจำกัด มีกิจกรรมการติดต่อสื่อสารกันน้อย จึงมีความเป็นไปได้น้อยที่จะเผชิญหน้ากันเพื่อสื่อสารอย่างตรงไปตรงมาในการแก้ไขปัญหาต่างๆ (Gamble & Gamble, 2014)

3.4 คู่รักแบบผสมกับรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้ง

ดังที่กล่าวมาแล้วว่า คู่รักแบบผสม (Mixed Couple) เกิดจากการที่แต่ละฝ่ายของคู่รักมีความคิดหรือมุมมองที่แตกต่างกันในความสัมพันธ์ อันส่งผลให้เกิดความไม่แน่ใจ (Uncertainty) ในความสัมพันธ์ และเกิดความขัดแย้งขึ้นบ่อยครั้ง โดย Solomon และ Theiss (2013) อธิบายถึงวิธีการจัดการความขัดแย้งภายในคู่รักแบบผสมไว้ว่า คู่รักประเภทนี้ มักใช้เวลาอย่างมากและต่อเนื่องในการแก้ไขความขัดแย้ง มักเริ่มจากการพยายามใช้รูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบเผชิญหน้า (Engage in Conflict) แต่เมื่อไม่สามารถแก้ไขปัญหาได้ ก็จะเกิดความกังวลใจในความสัมพันธ์ (Relational Distress) คู่รักประเภทนี้ก็จะเปลี่ยนไปใช้รูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบหลีกเลี่ยง (Avoid Conflict) ในที่สุด

ผลที่ตามมาก็คือ จะเกิดการใช้รูปแบบการสื่อสารที่มีปัญหา (Problematic Communication Pattern) ขึ้นกับคู่รักแบบผสม อาจนำมาซึ่งการสื่อสารด้วยสารที่ก่อให้เกิดอันตราย (Harmful Messages) ทั้งต่อร่างกายและจิตใจของคู่รัก ส่งผลกระทบเชิงลบต่อคุณภาพชีวิตของคู่รักในที่สุดด้วย

4. การรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพัน รูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งและความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่

ในความสัมพันธ์ของคู่รักแต่ละประเภท การรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพัน (Perceived Attachment Style) ที่แตกต่างกัน ตลอดจนการใช้รูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้ง (Conflict Management Style) ที่แตกต่างกันนั้น จะส่งผลต่อความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) ในลักษณะที่แตกต่างกันออกไปด้วย (Solomon & Theiss, 2013)

4.1 ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันกับความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่

Bippus และ Rollin (2003) ได้ทำการศึกษาเปรียบเทียบคู่รักที่มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบมั่นคง (Perceived Secure Attachment) กับคู่รักที่มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบไม่มั่นคง (Perceived Insecure Attachment) พบว่าคู่รักที่มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบมั่นคงมีความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ในระดับสูง ส่วนคู่รักที่มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบไม่มั่นคงมีความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ในระดับต่ำ ทั้งนี้เป็นเพราะคู่รักที่มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบมั่นคงมีการแสดงความเป็นมิตรต่อกันมากกว่า รายงานความพึงพอใจในปฏิสัมพันธ์มากกว่า นอกจากนี้ ยังมีพฤติกรรมที่ช่วยรักษาความสัมพันธ์ (Prosocial Maintenance Behaviors) มากกว่าคู่รักที่มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบไม่มั่นคง

ดังนั้น จึงพิจารณาได้ว่า คู่รักตามชนบทธรรมเนียม (Traditional Couple) และคู่รักแบบมีอิสระต่อกัน (Independent Couple) ซึ่งมีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบมั่นคง (Perceived Secure Attachment) มีแนวโน้มที่จะมีความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) ในระดับสูง ขณะที่คู่รักแบบแบ่งแยกจากกัน (Separate Couple) และคู่รักแบบผสม (Mixed Couple) ซึ่งมีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบไม่มั่นคง (Perceived Insecure Attachment) มีแนวโน้มที่จะมีความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) ในระดับต่ำ

4.2 ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งกับความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่

Creasey (2002) ศึกษาหาความเชื่อมโยงภายในพฤติกรรมและการแก้ไขความขัดแย้งของคู่รัก พบว่า คู่รักที่มีความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ของตน มักเลือกใช้รูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบเผชิญหน้า (Engage in Conflict) เช่น การพูดคุยกันอย่างตรงประเด็น

การเปิดเผยความรู้สึกต่อกัน มากกว่าจะเลือกใช้รูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบหลีกเลี่ยง (Avoid Conflict) เช่น หลบเลี่ยงการพบกัน หลบเลี่ยงการพูดคุยกัน ระวังการใช้ อวัจนภาษา เป็นต้น ซึ่งรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบหลีกเลี่ยงนี้ มักเกิดขึ้นในคู่รัก ที่มีความคิดเห็นไม่ตรงกันหรือมีการแลกเปลี่ยนอารมณ์ที่รุนแรงระหว่างกัน ถือเป็นอันตรายอย่างยิ่งต่อชีวิตคู่ อันจะนำไปสู่ความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ในระดับต่ำ (Gottman & Krokoff, 1989)

Bippus และ Rollin (2003) ยังศึกษาพบอีกว่า คู่รักที่มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความ ผูกพันแบบมั่นคงนั้น มักมีพฤติกรรมการแก้ไขความขัดแย้งอย่างประนีประนอม (Compromising Conflict Behaviors) มากกว่าคู่รักที่มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบ ไม่มั่นคง ซึ่งพฤติกรรมการแก้ไขปัญหาลักษณะนี้ถือเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของรูปแบบการจัดการ ความขัดแย้งแบบเผชิญหน้า (Engage in Conflict) นั่นเอง โดยรูปแบบการจัดการความ ขัดแย้งแบบเผชิญหน้านี้อีก ก็เป็นปัจจัยสำคัญที่นำไปสู่การมีความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) ด้วย ทั้งนี้เพราะทำให้ความขัดแย้งหมดไป หรืออยู่ในความสัมพันธ์ ที่ดีขึ้น ปรารถนาจากความกังวลใจในความสัมพันธ์ (Relational Distress)

ดังนั้น จึงพิจารณาได้ว่า คู่รักตามขนบธรรมเนียม (Traditional Couple) และ คู่รักแบบมีอิสระต่อกัน (Independent Couple) ซึ่งมีรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้ง แบบเผชิญหน้า (Engage in Conflict) มีแนวโน้มที่จะมีความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) ในระดับสูง ขณะที่คู่รักแบบแบ่งแยกจากกัน (Separate Couple) และ คู่รักแบบผสม (Mixed Couple) ซึ่งมีรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบหลีกเลี่ยง (Avoid Conflict) มีแนวโน้มที่จะมีความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) ในระดับต่ำ

นอกจากนี้ ผลการศึกษาดังกล่าว ยังแสดงให้เห็นว่า การรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพัน กับรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งภายในคู่รัก มีความสัมพันธ์สอดคล้องซึ่งกันและกัน ด้วยซึ่งตรงกันกับการศึกษาของ Creasey (2002) กล่าวคือ การรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพัน แบบมั่นคง (Perceived Secure Attachment) มีความสัมพันธ์สอดคล้องกับรูปแบบการ จัดการความขัดแย้งแบบเผชิญหน้า (Engage in Conflict) และการรับรู้รูปแบบความ ผูกพันแบบไม่มั่นคง (Perceived Insecure Attachment) มีความสัมพันธ์สอดคล้องกับ รูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบหลีกเลี่ยง (Avoid Conflict)

5. ความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่กับประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กร

ความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) ในที่นี้ หมายถึง การประเมินคุณภาพความสัมพันธ์ของชีวิตคู่ระหว่างสามีและภรรยา ซึ่งเป็นการประเมินส่วนบุคคลของแต่ละฝ่าย คู่รักที่ไม่มีความตึงเครียดและไม่มีความทุกข์ใจ จะมีความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ในระดับสูงถือเป็นส่วนประกอบที่สำคัญของความสำเร็จในชีวิตครอบครัว ตลอดจนการเติบโตก้าวหน้าทางหน้าที่การงานด้วย (Abdul Azeez, 2013; Taylor, Peplau & Sears, 1997)

ในยุคเริ่มแรก มีการศึกษาพบว่า การพึ่งพาอาศัยกัน (Reciprocity) ของคู่รักที่มีความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ระดับสูง ถือเป็นปัจจัยสำคัญที่จะนำไปสู่ประสิทธิภาพการทำงาน (Work Efficiency) ในที่สุด (Patterson, 1974) โดยความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักที่ทำงานอยู่ภายในองค์กรเดียวกันนั้น จะช่วยกระชับความสัมพันธ์ของคู่รักให้ดียิ่งขึ้น และเมื่อคู่รักมีความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) แล้ว ก็จะส่งผลในการเสริมประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กร อาทิ ความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักก่อให้เกิดความสะดวกในการรับและส่งข้อมูลระหว่างกัน เกิดความรวดเร็วในการแลกเปลี่ยนข่าวสาร และมีความกล้าที่จะแสดงความคิดเห็นที่ขัดแย้งกันอย่างตรงไปตรงมา (กฤษฎณา กาญจนเพ็ญ, 2550)

Netemeyer และ Boles (1996) พยายามสร้างมาตรวัดผลกระทบระหว่างการทำงานกับครอบครัว โดยอธิบายไว้ว่า เรื่องราวของครอบครัวกับประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กรเป็นเรื่องที่เกี่ยวข้องเนื่องสัมพันธ์กัน ความขัดแย้งในที่ทำงาน ส่งผลกระทบต่อครอบครัว ขณะที่ความขัดแย้งจากครอบครัว ก็ส่งผลกระทบต่อการทำงานด้วย หรือในอีกแง่มุมหนึ่ง ความสุข ความพึงพอใจทั้งที่เกิดขึ้นระหว่างคู่รัก และเกิดขึ้นภายในที่ทำงาน ต่างก็ส่งผลกระทบเชิงบวกซึ่งกันและกันด้วย

ข้อดีอีกประการหนึ่งของความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักที่ทำงานอยู่ภายในองค์กรเดียวกันก็คือ ช่วยเอื้อให้คู่รักได้แลกเปลี่ยนความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการทำงานได้มากกว่า ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างเพื่อนร่วมงานแบบปกติทั่วไปกล่าวคือ คู่รักที่มีความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่จะสามารถแลกเปลี่ยนความคิดเห็นหาทางแก้ปัญหา และเจรจาต่อรองเกี่ยวกับการทำงานระหว่างกันได้ทั้งที่ทำงานและที่บ้าน (Powers, 1999; Henderson, 2013)

ขณะที่ความคิดเห็นอีกด้านอธิบายว่า ความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักที่ทำงานอยู่ภายในองค์กรเดียวกันนั้น จะทำให้เกิดขอบเขตที่ไม่ชัดเจนระหว่างเรื่องครอบครัวกับเรื่องการทำงาน คู่รักในความสัมพันธ์รูปแบบนี้จะมีการใช้พื้นที่ร่วมกันทั้งทางกายภาพและ

ทางจิตใจ (Physical and Mental Space) ดังนั้น ปัญหาในเรื่องใดเรื่องหนึ่งอาจส่งผลกระทบต่ออีกเรื่องได้ ถือได้ว่าเป็นความท้าทายอย่างหนึ่งของคูรัักในความสัมพันธ์รูปแบบนี้ (Halbesleben, Zellars, Carlson, Perrew & Rotondo, 2010; Janning, 2006; Mainiero, 1989) ทั้งนี้ หากเกิดความขัดแย้งใดๆ ขึ้นในความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรัก แต่คูรัักไม่อาจแก้ไขความขัดแย้งเหล่านั้นได้ ก็จะทำให้เกิดความตึงเครียด (Stress) ทั้งต่อความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรัก ซึ่งหมายถึงการบั่นทอนความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ และต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงาน (Work Efficiency) อีกด้วย (Magnus & Viswelvaran, 2004)

ผลกระทบของความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักรูปแบบต่าง ๆ ต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงาน

หลังจากตรวจสอบรายงานวิจัยและทำการสังเคราะห์ข้อมูลต่างๆ แล้ว พบว่า ความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักนั้นมีอยู่หลากหลายลักษณะ โดยการศึกษาในครั้งนี้ใช้แนวคิดการจัดแบ่งประเภทของคูรััก (Couple Types) เป็นแนวทางหลักในการศึกษา ซึ่งเป็นการจัดแบ่งคูรัักออกเป็นประเภทต่างๆ ได้แก่ คูรัักตามขนบธรรมเนียม คูรัักแบบมีอิสระ คูรัักแบบแบ่งแยก และคูรัักแบบผสม ซึ่งแต่ละประเภทต่างก็มีรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์ ตลอดจนพฤติกรรมสื่อสารที่แตกต่างกันออกไป ส่งผลต่อการรับรู้ความผูกพัน รูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้ง รวมถึงความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ที่แตกต่างกันออกไป

ดังเช่นที่ Markey (2005) อธิบายไว้ว่า ความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักที่ทำงานอยู่ภายในองค์กรเดียวกันมักจะส่งผลกระทบต่อบทบาทของทั้งฝ่ายสามีและภรรยา ทั้งในด้านครอบครัวและด้านการทำงาน จึงจำเป็นอย่างยิ่งที่คูรัักที่มีความสัมพันธ์รูปแบบนี้ต้องช่วยกันรักษาความสมดุลระหว่างความพึงพอใจด้านครอบครัวและความพึงพอใจด้านการทำงานให้ได้ โดยคูรัักที่มีความสัมพันธ์ที่ดี อาทิ มีความผูกพันใกล้ชิด สื่อสารอย่างตรงไปตรงมา แก้ปัญหาต่างๆ ร่วมกัน จะส่งผลกระทบเชิงบวกต่อการทำงานในองค์กร นั่นคือการเสริมให้เกิดประสิทธิภาพในการทำงาน ขณะที่คูรัักที่มีความสัมพันธ์ที่ไม่ดี อาทิ มีความเห็นห่างระหว่างกัน ไม่รับรู้ความผูกพันใกล้ชิด ไม่สื่อสารกันอย่างตรงไปตรงมา หรือหลีกเลี่ยงสถานการณ์ที่ต้องเผชิญหน้ากัน จะส่งผลกระทบเชิงลบต่อการทำงานในองค์กร นั่นคือ อาจลดประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กรได้

นอกจากนี้ ยังสอดคล้องกับที่ Pierce (1998) ได้อธิบายไว้ว่า พฤติกรรมของคูรัักที่มีความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักในองค์กร จะส่งผลต่อทั้งแรงกระตุ้นในการทำงาน (Work Motivation) ความพึงพอใจในงาน (Job Satisfaction) และผลผลิตในงาน (Job Pro-

ductivity) หรือประสิทธิภาพการทำงาน (Work Efficiency) นั้นเอง โดยพิจารณาได้ว่า คู่รักประเภทที่มีสัมพันธภาพระหว่างกันที่ดี นั่นคือ ผูกพันกันอย่างใกล้ชิดซึ่งถือว่ามี การรับรู้ รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบมั่นคง พุดคุยและแสดงออกทุกเรื่องราวอย่างตรงไปตรงมาซึ่ง ถือว่ามีรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบเผชิญหน้า อันส่งผลให้คู่รักมีความพึงพอใจ ในชีวิตคู่ นั้น ลักษณะเช่นนี้จะนำไปสู่การเสริมประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กรได้ โดย จะพบลักษณะพฤติกรรมเช่นนี้ในคู่รักตามชนบทรอบเมือง และคู่รักแบบมีอิสระต่อกัน ในทางตรงกันข้าม คู่รักประเภทที่มีความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างกันไม่ดี นั่นคือ ไม่มีจิตใจที่ผูกพัน ต่อกัน ซึ่งเป็นลักษณะของการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบไม่มั่นคง รวมถึงการหลีกเลี่ยง การพุดคุยแก้ไขปัญหาระหว่างกัน ซึ่งถือว่าเป็นรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบ หลีกหนี อันส่งผลให้คู่รักไม่มีความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ นั้น ลักษณะพฤติกรรมเหล่านี้ อาจ นำไปสู่การบั่นทอนประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กรได้เช่นกัน โดยจะพบลักษณะการ สื่อสารเช่นนี้ได้ในคู่รักแบบแบ่งแยกจากกัน และคู่รักแบบผสม (Dillard & Witteman, 1985; Pierce, Byrne & Aguinis, 1996)

กล่าวโดยสรุปได้ว่า การที่คู่รักแต่ละประเภทมีลักษณะที่แตกต่างกันออกไป กล่าวคือ มีการรับรู้ความผูกพัน และรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้ง อันส่งผลต่อความ พึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ที่แตกต่างกันนั้น นำมาสู่การพิจารณาได้ว่าคู่รักประเภทที่มีความ พึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ระดับสูง มีแนวโน้มที่จะส่งผลกระทบต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงาน ในทางกลับกัน คู่รักประเภทที่มีความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ระดับต่ำมีแนวโน้มที่จะส่งผลกระทบต่อ ประสิทธิภาพการทำงาน ซึ่งประเด็นข้อสังเกตที่พบในการศึกษาครั้งนี้ นำไปสู่ การนำเสนอข้อสันนิษฐานต่างๆ ในลำดับต่อไป

ประเด็นนำเสนอในการศึกษา

จากการศึกษาโดยอาศัยกรอบแนวคิดที่ระบุข้างต้น ผู้เขียนมีข้อสันนิษฐานหลัก ว่า “ประเภทของคู่รัก (Couple Type) ในแต่ละลักษณะ ส่งผลกระทบต่อประสิทธิภาพ การทำงานในองค์กรแตกต่างกันไป กล่าวคือ คู่รักแต่ละประเภท มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความ ผูกพัน (Perceived Attachment Style) และรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้ง (Conflict Management Style) ที่แตกต่างกัน ซึ่งส่งผลกระทบต่อความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) และประสิทธิภาพการทำงาน (Work Efficiency) ที่แตกต่างกันออกไปใน ที่สุด” โดยสามารถจำแนกเป็นข้อสันนิษฐานย่อยแบ่งตามประเภทของคู่รักได้ดังต่อไปนี้

ข้อสันนิษฐานประการแรก

จากการศึกษาลักษณะของคูรั๊กประเภทแรก คือ คูรั๊กตามขนบธรรมเนียม นำมาสู่ข้อสันนิษฐานที่ว่า “คูรั๊กตามขนบธรรมเนียม (Traditional Couple) จะมีรูปแบบการสื่อสารที่ส่งผลกระทบเชิงบวกต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กร กล่าวคือ คูรั๊กประเภทนี้มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบมั่นคง (Perceived Secure Attachment) และมีรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบเผชิญหน้า (Engage in Conflict) ซึ่งส่งผลกระทบต่อความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) และต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงาน (Work Efficiency) ในที่สุด”

ข้อสันนิษฐานประการที่สอง

จากการศึกษาลักษณะของคูรั๊กประเภทที่สอง คือ คูรั๊กแบบมีอิสระต่อกัน นำมาสู่ข้อสันนิษฐานที่ว่า “คูรั๊กแบบมีอิสระต่อกัน (Independent Couple) จะมีรูปแบบการสื่อสารที่ส่งผลกระทบเชิงบวกต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กร กล่าวคือ คูรั๊กประเภทนี้มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบมั่นคง (Perceived Secure Attachment) และมีรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบเผชิญหน้า (Engage in Conflict) ซึ่งส่งผลกระทบต่อความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) และต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงาน (Work Efficiency) ในที่สุด”

ข้อสันนิษฐานประการที่สาม

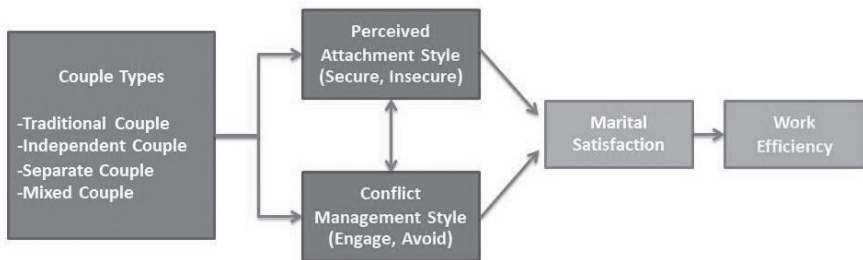
จากการศึกษาลักษณะของคูรั๊กประเภทที่สาม คือ คูรั๊กแบบแบ่งแยกจากกัน นำมาสู่ข้อสันนิษฐานที่ว่า “คูรั๊กแบบแบ่งแยกจากกัน (Separate Couple) จะมีรูปแบบการสื่อสารที่ส่งผลกระทบเชิงลบต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กร กล่าวคือ คูรั๊กประเภทนี้มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบไม่มั่นคง (Perceived Insecure Attachment) และมีรูปแบบการจัดการความขัดแย้งแบบหลีกเลี่ยง (Avoid Conflict) ซึ่งส่งผลกระทบต่อความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) และต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงาน (Work Efficiency) ในที่สุด”

ข้อสันนิษฐานประการที่สี่

จากการศึกษาลักษณะของคูรั๊กประเภทที่สี่ คือ คูรั๊กแบบผสม นำมาสู่ข้อสันนิษฐานที่ว่า “คูรั๊กแบบผสม (Mixed Couple) จะมีรูปแบบการสื่อสารที่ส่งผลกระทบเชิงลบต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กร กล่าวคือ คูรั๊กประเภทนี้มีการรับรู้รูปแบบความผูกพันแบบไม่มั่นคง (Perceived Insecure Attachment) และมีรูปแบบการจัดการความ

ขัดแย้งแบบหลีกเลี่ยง (Avoid Conflict) ซึ่งส่งผลกระทบต่อความพึงพอใจในชีวิตคู่ (Marital Satisfaction) และต่อประสิทธิภาพการทำงาน (Work Efficiency) ในที่สุด”

แบบจำลองในการศึกษา



ขอบเขตการศึกษา

การศึกษาเรื่อง “ผลกระทบของความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักต่อการสื่อสารเพื่อเสริมประสิทธิภาพการทำงานในองค์กร” ในครั้งนี้ เป็นการศึกษาแนวทางความเป็นไปได้ในภาพรวมของข้อสันนิษฐาน มิได้จำแนกการศึกษาตามบริบทขององค์กรแต่ละประเภท และมิได้จำแนกการศึกษาในกรณีที่มีกับภรรยาที่มีตำแหน่งหน้าที่ที่แตกต่างกันไป ซึ่งสามารถนำประเด็นเหล่านี้ไปใช้ศึกษาเพื่อขยายองค์ความรู้เพิ่มเติมในอนาคตได้

บทสังท้าย

ดังที่ได้กล่าวมาแล้วว่าที่ผ่านมา นั้น มีการศึกษาและวิจัยผลกระทบของความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักต่อการทำงานเป็นจำนวนมาก แต่มักเป็นการศึกษาผลกระทบของรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์ลักษณะนี้ในภาพกว้าง ซึ่งขัดแย้งกับความเป็นจริงที่ความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักมีอยู่หลายประเภท การศึกษาในครั้งนี้ จึงถือเป็นการนำเสนอมุมมองใหม่ต่อผลกระทบของความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรัก โดยพิจารณาถึงรูปแบบความสัมพันธ์ พฤติกรรม

การสื่อสาร และคุณภาพของความสัมพันธ์ที่แตกต่างกันไปในคู่รักแต่ละประเภท ผลจากการศึกษาครั้งนี้สามารถนำไปประยุกต์ใช้ให้เกิดประโยชน์ในองค์กรต่างๆ ทั้งในด้านการวางแผนการจัดการทรัพยากรบุคคล (Human Resource Management) เช่น คู่รักประเภทใดควรทำงานในฝ่ายเดียวกันเพื่อเพิ่มประสิทธิภาพในการทำงาน เป็นต้น และในด้านการพัฒนาทรัพยากรบุคคล (Human Resource Development) เช่น คู่รักแต่ละประเภทมีจุดดีที่ควรส่งเสริม และจุดอ่อนที่ควรพัฒนาแก้ไขอย่างไร เพื่อให้เกิดประโยชน์สูงสุดต่อการทำงาน เป็นต้น ผลจากการศึกษาครั้งนี้ ยังสามารถใช้เป็นพื้นฐานของการวางแผนการสื่อสารอย่างเหมาะสมภายในองค์กรที่มีลักษณะความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักปรากฏอยู่ ซึ่งจะมีส่วนช่วยส่งเสริมให้การทำงานในองค์กรมีประสิทธิภาพมากยิ่งขึ้น

เอกสารอ้างอิง

- กฤษณา กาญจนเพ็ญ. (2550). ผลกระทบของความสัมพันธ์ฉันคนรักต่อการสื่อสารในองค์กร. วิทยานิพนธ์ปริญญาโทเศรษฐศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต. สาขาวิชาพาณิชยศาสตร์ ภาควิชาพาณิชยศาสตร์และสื่อสารการตลาด คณะนิเทศศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย.
- Abdul Azeez, E. P. (2013). Employed women and marital satisfaction: A study among female nurses. *International Journal of Management and Social Sciences Research (IJMSSR)*, 2(11), 17-22.
- Bartholomew, K. (1997). Adult attachment processes: Individual and couple perspectives. *British Journal of Medical Psychology*, 70, 249-263.
- Bifulco, A., Moran, P. M., Ball, C., & Bernazzani, O. (2002). Adult attachment style: Its relationship to clinical depression. *Soc Psychiatry Psychiatr Epidemiol*, 37, 50-59.
- Bippus, A. M., & Rollin, E., (2003). Attachment style differences in relational maintenance and conflict behaviors. *Communication Reports*, 16, 113-123.
- Bond, J. T., Galinsky, E., & Swanberg, J. E. (1998). *The 1997 national study of the changing workplace*. New York: Families and Work Institute.
- Bond, J. T., Thompson, C. A., Galinsky, E., & Prottas, D. (2003). *Highlights of the 2002 National Study of the Changing Workforce*. NY: Families and Work Institute.

- Collin, N. L., & Read, S. J. (1990). Adult attachment, working models, and relationship quality in dating couples. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 58*, 644-663.
- Cowan, R. L., & Horan, S. M. (2014). Love at the Office Understanding Workplace Romance Disclosures and Reactions from the Coworker Perspective. *Western Journal of Communication, 78*(2), 238-253.
- Creasey, G. (2002). Associations between working models of attachment and conflict management behavior in romantic couples. APA. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 49*(3), 365-375.
- Dillard, J. P., & Witteman, H. (1985). Romantic relationships at work: Organizational and personal influences. *Human Communication Research, 12*, 99-116.
- Feeney, J. A., & Noller, P. (1991). Attachment style and verbal descriptions of romantic partners. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 8*, 187-215.
- Fitzpatrick, M. A. (1988). *Between husbands and wives: Communication in marriage*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Gamble, T. K., & Gamble, M. W. (2014). *Interpersonal communication: building connections together*. Thousand Oaks (Calif.): Sage.
- Gilbert, L. A., Hallett, M., & Eldridge, N. S., (1994). Gender and dual-career families: Implications and applications for the career counseling of women. In W. B. Walsh & S. H. Osipow (Eds.). *Career counseling for women*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 135-164.
- Gottman, J. M., & Krokoff, L. J. (1989). Marital interaction and satisfaction: A longitudinal view. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 57*(1), 47-52.
- Greeff, A. P., & Bruyne, T. (2000). Conflict management style and marital satisfaction. *Journal of Sex & Marital Therapy, 26*, 321-334.
- Halbesleben, J. R. B. (2010). Spousal support and coping among married coworkers: Merging the transaction stress and conservation of resources models. *International Journal of Stress Management, 17*, 384-406.

- Halbesleben, J. R. B., Wheeler, A. R., & Rossi, A. M. (2011). The costs and benefits of working with one's spouse: A two-sample examination of spousal support, work-family conflict, and emotional exhaustion in work-linked relationships. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 33*, 597-615.
- Halbesleben, J. R. B., Zellars, K. L., Carlson, D. S., Perrewe, P. L., & Rotondo, D. (2010). The moderating effect of work-linked couple relationships and work-family integration on the spouse instrumental support-emotional exhaustion relationship. *Journal of occupational health psychology, 15*(4), 371-387.
- Hammer, L. B., Colton, C. L., Caubet, S. L., & Brockwood, K. J. (2002). The unbalanced life: Work and family conflict. In J. C. Thomas & M. Hersen (Eds.) *Handbook of mental health in the workplace*, (pp.83-101). London: Sage.
- Harms, P. D. (2011). Adult attachment styles in the workplace. *Human Resource Management Review, 21*, 285-296.
- Henderson, B. A. (2013). *An analysis of the communication within work-linked and dual career marriages*. A thesis in communication studies. The degree of Master of Arts, Graduate faculty of Texas Tech University.
- Janning, M. (2006). Put yourself in my work shoes: Variations in work-related spousal support for professional married coworkers. *Journal of Family Issues, 27*, 85-109.
- Magnus, J. R., & Viswelvaran, C. (2005). Convergence between measures of work-to-family and family-to-work conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 67*, 215-232.
- Mainiero, L. A. (1989). *Office romance: Love, power, and sex in the workplace*. New York: Rawson.
- Markey, B. (2005). The lifecycle stages of a marriage. *Promoting and Sustaining Marriage as a Community of Life and Love: A Colloquium of Social Scientists and Theologians*, 1-18.

- Netemeyer, R. G., & Boles, J. S. (1996). Development and validation of work–family conflict and family–work conflict scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*(4), 400-410.
- Patterson, G. R., (1974). A behavioral analysis of the determinants of marital satisfaction. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 6*, 802-811.
- Pierce, C. A. (1998). Factors associated with participating in a romantic relationship in a work environment. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 28*, 1712-1730.
- Pierce, C. A., & Aguinis, H. (2001). A framework for investigating the link between workplace romance and sexual harassment. *Journal of Group and Organization Management, 26*, 206-229.
- Pierce, C. A., Byrne, D., & Aguinis, H. (1996). Attraction in organizations: A model of workplace romance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 17*, 5-32.
- Powers, D. (1999). *The office romance: Playing with fire without getting burned*. New York, NY: Amacom.
- Sears, H. A., & Galambos, N. L. (1992). Women's work conditions and marital adjustment in two-earner couples: A structural model. *Journal of Marriage and Family, 54*, 789-797.
- Solomon, D., & Theiss, J. (2013). *Interpersonal communication: Putting theory into practice*. Taylor & Francis. Routledge.
- Taylor, S. E., Peplau, L. A. & Sears, D. O. (1997). *Social Psychology*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

เกี่ยวกับผู้เขียน

ชานนท์ ศิริธร (นิเทศศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย) อาจารย์ประจำสาขาวิชาการประชาสัมพันธ์ คณะนิเทศศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยอัสสัมชัญ ปัจจุบันศึกษาต่อระดับดุษฎีบัณฑิต คณะนิเทศศาสตร์ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย (ภายใต้การปรึกษาของผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร. รุ่ง ศรีอำภวพร) มีความสนใจการทำวิจัยทางด้านการสื่อสารเชิงจิตวิทยา

