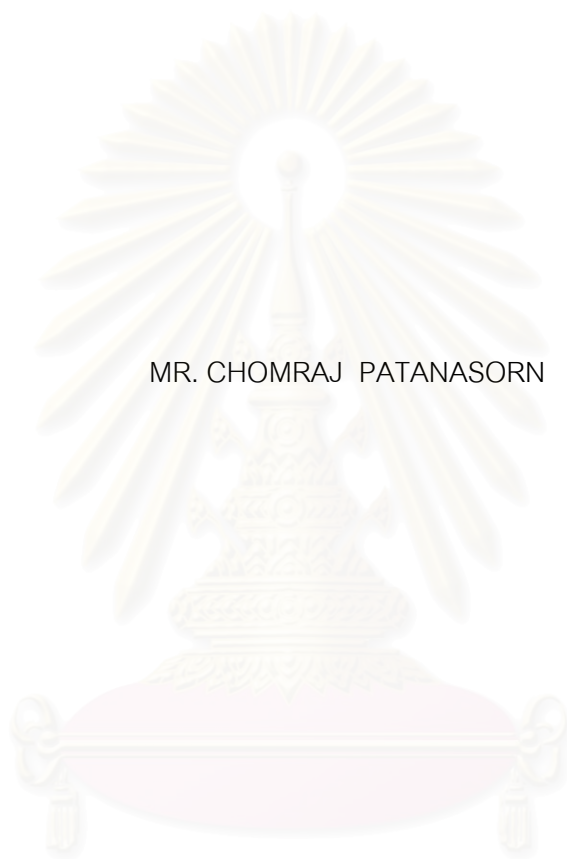


AN ANALYSIS OF FEATURES OF NEGOTIATION
FOR MEANING AND FORM IN SYNCHRONOUS COMPUTER-MEDIATED
COMMUNICATION OF KHON KAEN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS



MR. CHOMRAJ PATANASORN

สถาบันวิทยบริการ
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

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การวิเคราะห์ลักษณะในการต่อรองด้านความหมายและรูปแบบทางภาษาในการสื่อสาร
ด้วยคอมพิวเตอร์แบบประสานเวลาของนักศึกษามหาวิทยาลัยขอนแก่น



นายจอมรัฐ พัฒนสร

สถาบันวิทยบริการ

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สาขาวิชาภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ (สหสาขาวิชา)

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จอมรัฐ พัฒนสร : การวิเคราะห์ลักษณะในการต่อรองด้านความหมายและรูปแบบทางภาษาในการสื่อสารด้วยคอมพิวเตอร์แบบประสานเวลาของนักศึกษามหาวิทยาลัยขอนแก่น. (AN ANALYSIS OF FEATURES OF NEGOTIATION FOR MEANING AND FORM IN SYNCHRONOUS COMPUTER-MEDIATED COMMUNICATION OF KHON KAEN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS), อ. ที่ปรึกษา: [ผศ.ดร. จันทร์ทรงกลด คชเสนี], 128 หน้า. ISBN 974-17-6291-7.

การวิจัยครั้งนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์ เพื่อ 1) วิเคราะห์ลักษณะในการต่อรองด้านความหมายและรูปแบบทางภาษาในการสื่อสารด้วยคอมพิวเตอร์แบบประสานเวลาของนักศึกษามหาวิทยาลัยขอนแก่น และ 2) เพื่อศึกษาความคิดเห็นของนักศึกษาต่อการใช้คอมพิวเตอร์แบบประสานเวลาในการฝึกทักษะภาษาอังกฤษ กลุ่มตัวอย่างที่ใช้ในการวิจัยครั้งนี้เป็นนักศึกษามหาวิทยาลัยขอนแก่นที่ลงทะเบียนเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษทั่วไป จำนวน 32 คน ซึ่งนักศึกษาต้องทำกิจกรรมทางคอมพิวเตอร์ทั้งสิ้น 6 กิจกรรม โดยกิจกรรม 3 กิจกรรมแรกเป็นกิจกรรมแบบช่องว่างข้อมูลและอีกสามกิจกรรมที่เหลือเป็นกิจกรรมแบบร่วมมือ นักศึกษาทำกิจกรรมอาทิตย์ละหนึ่งครั้ง แต่แต่ละครั้งใช้เวลาทั้งสิ้น 80 นาที เมื่อนักศึกษาทำกิจกรรมสุดท้ายเสร็จแล้ว นักศึกษาจะต้องตอบแบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับการใช้กิจกรรมสื่อสารด้วยคอมพิวเตอร์แบบประสานเวลาในการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ

ผลการวิจัยพบว่า ลักษณะของการต่อรองที่พบมากที่สุดคือ สัญญาณ ปัญหา และคำตอบ ซึ่งเป็นการต่อรองความหมายของคำศัพท์มากที่สุด การที่กลุ่มตัวอย่างพูดภาษาแม่เดียวกัน ทำให้คำตอบที่พบมากที่สุดคือคำตอบที่เป็นภาษาไทย กิจกรรมแบบช่องว่างข้อมูลสามารถกระตุ้นการต่อรองด้านความหมายได้มาก ในขณะที่กิจกรรมแบบร่วมมือนั้นกระตุ้นการต่อรองด้านความหมายได้น้อย แต่กิจกรรมทั้งสองแบบไม่ประสบความสำเร็จในการกระตุ้นการต่อรองด้านรูปแบบทางภาษา นอกจากนี้ยังพบว่า นักศึกษามีทัศนคติที่ดีต่อการพัฒนาทักษะภาษาอังกฤษด้วยการสื่อสารด้วยคอมพิวเตอร์แบบประสานเวลาและต้องการให้กิจกรรมนี้ดำเนินต่อไป ข้อเสนอแนะที่ได้จากงานวิจัยนี้คือ ควรปรับปรุงด้านความเร็วของการส่งข้อความ ควรเพิ่มเวลาในการทำกิจกรรม และปรับปรุงหัวข้อที่ใช้ทำกิจกรรมให้น่าสนใจมากขึ้น

สาขาวิชา บัณฑิตวิทยาลัย

ลายมือชื่อนิสิต.....

สาขาวิชา วิชาภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ

ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา.....

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4589410020: MAJOR ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE
 KEY WORD: **SYNCHRONOUS COMPUTER-MEDIATED COMMUNICATION (SCMC)/ NEGOTIATION FOR MEANING AND FORM/ INFORMATION GAP TASK/ COLLABORATIVE TASK/ OPINIONS**

CHOMRAJ PATANASORN: AN ANALYSIS OF FEATURES OF NEGOTIATION FOR MEANING AND FORM IN SYNCHRONOUS COMPUTER-MEDIATED COMMUNICATION OF KHON KAEN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS. THESIS ADVISOR: [ASST.PROF.DR. CHANSONGKLOD GAJASENI], [128] pp. ISBN 974-17-6291-7.

The purposes of this study were to 1) analyze the negotiation features for meaning and form in synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) and 2) study the opinions of students after using SCMC in practicing English. A total of 32 students who were enrolled in the remedial English course at Khon Kaen University took part in the investigation. Participants were asked to perform six tasks, three information gap tasks and three collaborative tasks via SCMC. Each task was performed once a week with an 80-minute time allocation. After finishing the final task, they were asked to complete a questionnaire.

Results from the analysis of participants' transcripts revealed a high frequency of Signal, Trigger and Response as negotiation features for meaning with the majority focusing on lexical items. As all participants' shared the same first language (L1), a high frequency of Response was made in L1. Information gap tasks were able to draw a high frequency of features of negotiation for meaning in contrast to collaborative tasks, which drew a low frequency. Both tasks, however, were unsuccessful in drawing features of negotiation for form. Findings from the questionnaire revealed mainly positive opinions towards using SCMC in practicing English and that it should be continued; however, the areas that could be improved were the delay of messages, more time allocation, and more interesting topics.

Field of study English as an International Language Student's signature.....
 Academic year 2004 Advisor's signature.....

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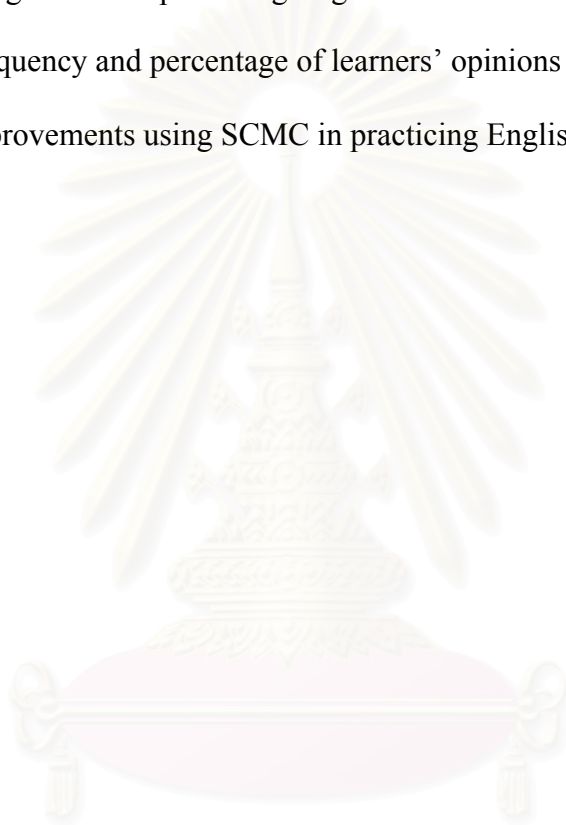
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to introduce the background of the present study. It contains the background information and statement of problem, research questions, objectives, scope of the study, definition of terms, and significance of study.

1. Background information and statement of problem

In recent years, communication has been the focus of teaching English as second and foreign languages (TESL/ TEFL). It has become central to both the methodology for and the objective of teaching. At the same time, technology, especially computers, have long been applied to TESL/ TEFL. This is evident in the variety of Computer-assisted Instruction software programs, CD ROMs, e-learning websites, and chat applications that exist today.

In Thailand, computers have yet proven to be a viable practice in language learning. However, their performance in the area is far from debate. Previous studies in Computer-assisted Language Learning (CALL) have already yielded positive results regarding motivation, learning styles, authenticity (Egbert, Chao, and Hanson Smith, 1999), exposure, production (Nagata, 1998) interaction, and higher participation (Peyton, 1999, Freiermuth, 2001). Studies concerning the value and effectiveness of CALL in language classrooms are no longer pertinent (Beatty, 2003).

The issue concerning CALL in Thailand is that many teachers are not able to apply computers in their pedagogy. Since access to hardware, software and telecommunications have spread throughout the world, the need for underlying

pedagogical framework to support the use of new technologies in language classrooms are ever more necessary (Egbert and Smith, 1999). Consequently, we must look into what is missing from today's language classrooms.

One element that is lacking from language classrooms is opportunity for authentic communication. A majority of Asians have studied English in formal educational settings in their own country, often for a period of six or more years, their experience of language interaction with native speakers in informal settings is usually very limited (Levy, 1999: 29). Communicating in English for many Thais can be extremely painstaking, furthermore, frustrating for both the messenger and receiver. The inability of Thai EFL learners to communicate after several years of studying English reflects the need to insert communicative practice.

Previously, language teaching had focused on providing grammatical rules and structures to learners in order to enhance learners' language competency. Conversations had a peripheral role, merely used in role-plays or dialogue drills to practice new words, grammatical rules and sentence structures. The potential to use conversation as means to learn a second language was brought to attention by Hatch in 1978. In her work, she called on second language (L2) teachers and researchers to look into interaction, or conversing, in the second language as a way to learn lexical items, grammatical rules, and syntax.

Interaction can play a significant role in second language acquisition. According to Long (1996), interaction between native speakers and L2 learners, or between L2 learners themselves leads to comprehensible input, pushed output and negotiation for meaning and form. Interaction between native speakers and L2 learners can provide learners with positive input. In other words, L2 learners are exposed to a variety of samples of the target language. In addition, learners also have

opportunities to use the target language and negotiate meaning when there is a communication breakdown. Negotiation for meaning is a process where communication breakdown occurs as a result, causing interlocutors to discuss the problematic item so they can continue their talk. The result of negotiation for meaning requires a modification of language, which leads to uptake of new vocabulary or correction of form.

Accordingly, there is a need for interaction between learners since it leads to the process of negotiation for meaning and form. In the same way, there is a need for pedagogical applications of computers in language classrooms. In recent years, synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC)—known for its common term “chat”—has been used in language classrooms to provide opportunities for authentic communicative practice.

It is well documented that SCMC plays a significant role in enhancing communicative practice given the right conditions. It provides vast input and opportunities for output (Lee, 2001; Ortega, 1997; Smith, 2003; Kitade, 1999). It could also enhance oral proficiency and allow practices for different kinds of social roles (Abrams, 2003; Darhower, 2002). Learners participate more in discussion through SCMC (Chun, 1994; Kern, 1995; Warshauer, 1996; Freiermuth, 1998 and 2002). In short, SCMC is an effective way to bring about interaction, which facilitates different conditions for L2 learning.

However, since interaction places importance on the role of negotiation for meaning, namely the input it provides, and the pushed output it initiates, it is worthwhile to investigate the features of negotiation for meaning in SCMC. Scarcely have there been studies to determine features of negotiation for meaning and form that are claimed to provide comprehensible input and pushed output. Furthermore,

there are few studies of negotiation for meaning and form between non-native speakers (NNS) and non-native speakers (NNS) with the same first language background. Such studies if done will yield deeper insight into SCMC interaction and provide useful information about using SCMC in language classrooms.

2. Research questions

1. What features are used for the negotiation for meaning and form during SCMC interaction?
2. What are learners' opinions towards SCMC?

3. Objectives of the study

1. To analyze the features of negotiation for meaning and form during SCMC interaction among students according to the types that were used and tasks performed.
2. To study the opinions of students after using SCMC in practicing English.

4. Scope of the study

1. The population of this study covers undergraduate students who take the English for Humanities and Social Sciences (411-205) remedial course in the summer at Khon Kaen University.

2. The negotiation features covered in this study are based on the categories adapted from the combination of Varonis and Gass's (1994) negotiation routine model and Smith's (2003) SCMC negotiation routine model.

3. The tasks used in this study are information gap tasks and collaborative tasks only.

5. Definition of terms

The following are operation terms used in the present study.

Synchronous Computer-mediated Communication refers to the use of the computer to communicate with one another by typing messages and reading replies on the computer screen in real-time through chat software.

Negotiation routine is the process of negotiation for meaning, or negotiation for form. The routine is composed of negotiation features based on a study by Smith (2003), which include trigger, signal, response, reaction to response, confirmation, and reconfirmation.

Negotiation for meaning refers to the process, where learners concentrate on the meaning of messages when communication breakdown occurs in order to continue the conversation.

Negotiation for form refers to the process, where learners concentrate on the structural or grammatical aspect of messages when communication breakdown occurs.

Negotiation Features are the categories and subcategories taken from the combination of Varonis and Gass's (1994) negotiation routine model and Smith's (2003) CMC negotiation routine model (see figure 3 and Appendix A1). The negotiation features are as follow.

Trigger is a message or part of a message that creates the problem of understanding, which is subcategorized into 4 groups as the following (see Appendix A2, excerpt 1 and 3)

Lexical Triggers are problematic lexical items.

Syntactic Triggers are problematic structural or grammatical items.

Discourse Triggers are general coherence of the conversation. For example, a speaker is unable to identify the reference of a pronoun during interaction.

Content Triggers are problems that cannot be related to the previous triggers.

Signal or Indicator is an explicit or implicit indication that there is a problem with understanding the previous utterance or some parts of the previous utterance. Clarification requests and comprehension checks are examples of explicit indicators. It is subcategorized into 3 groups as the following (see Appendix A, excerpt, 1,3 and 7)

Global strategies are indicators that do not specify the problem e.g. What?, I don't understand.

Local strategies are indicators that specify the problem or trigger e.g. What does *wrench* mean? This could also include confirmation checks e.g. Did you mean *drums*?

Inferential strategies are guesses or hypothesis about the trigger e.g. Okay, so that means he is tired.

Response is a reply to the signal. It is subcategorized into 5 groups as the following (see Appendix A, excerpt 1-8).

First language is a response to a signal in the first language.

Minimal response is a short reply with no elaboration such as “yes” or “no”.

Repeating the trigger with no modification is repeating the problematic lexical item or the syntactic structure exactly as it was.

Repeating the trigger with lexical modifications, but without addressing the fundamental problem signaled in the indicator phase

Rephrasing is explaining a lexical item, or elaborating the previous discourse such as paraphrasing.

Reaction to response is a feedback to the response phase to acknowledge the understanding of the trigger and a signal to the initiator that he/she is ready to return to the conversation. However, reaction to response can be positive or negative. If positive, it can end the routine. If negative, it can act as another indicator. However, this phase has been seen as optional in prior studies. It is subcategorized into 4 groups as the following.

Minimal response is a short reply to the response, such as, “Yes”, “Okay.”

Metalinguistic reactions comments on what the problem had been, such as “So I should say claim not argue.”

Task appropriate is an implicit reaction to response where the learner utters implicitly to show understanding of the previous discourse (see Appendix A2, excerpt 3).

Testing deduction is an implicit reaction to response that is similar to inferential signals where learners try to guess the meaning of the trigger. Testing deductions occur when learners try to test his/ her understanding (see Appendix A2, excerpt 2).

Confirmation is a response to task appropriate or testing deductions. It either confirms or disconfirms the degree of understanding based on the reaction to response. Its subcategories are the following 3 groups (see Appendix A2, excerpt 4,5,6, and 7)

Simple confirmation is a minimal response that confirms that the testing deduction or task appropriate is correct e.g. that's right! ok, Good. It can also take form of a praise e.g. Great!, Good job! (see Appendix A2, excerpt 4 and 5)

Reaffirmation provides additional information as a response. This is to make sure the trigger is understood (see Appendix A2, excerpt 6 and 7).

Confirmation check is a question to confirm whether the trigger is understood e.g. do you understand? got it? (See Appendix A2, excerpt 8)

Reconfirmation is optional and follows the confirmation phase. It is essentially the same as a positive (minimal) reaction to response such as ok, good, right or yes. If it follows a praise it can be a response such as thank you (see Appendix A2, excerpt 8).

Opinions in this study refer to what students think about, or how students feels about using SCMC in practicing English.

Task in this study refers to tasks designed specifically for learners to perform in SCMC. The tasks used in the study are two types as follow.

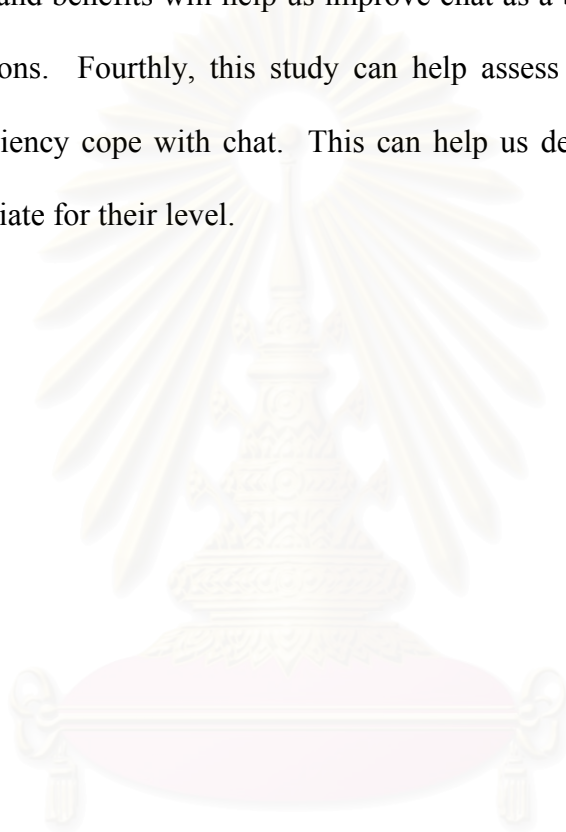
Information gap task refers to tasks where learners have to convey information to or request information from their pair or group members in order to achieve the task objective.

Collaborative task refers to tasks where learners work together in pairs or groups in order to achieve the task objective.

6. Significance of study

First of all, results from the study will reveal learners' use of negotiation features to negotiate for meaning and form in SCMC. This will help us make a decision whether SCMC is a useful tool for learning a second language. Secondly, it

will provide significant information for educators in developing a pedagogical framework for chat and language teaching. Thirdly, it will help us understand how learners with the same language background interact when chatting in English. We can learn more about learners' problems and difficulties when chatting. In addition, we can learn of learners' benefits and what they have gained from chatting in English. Both problems and benefits will help us improve chat as a better learning activity for future applications. Fourthly, this study can help assess how learners with lower language proficiency cope with chat. This can help us design better chat activities that are appropriate for their level.



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CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEWS

This chapter provides important literature related to the present study. The chapter is comprised of five main parts including, Synchronous Computer-mediated Communication, advantages and limitations of Synchronous Computer-mediated Communication, Synchronous Computer-mediated Communication and language instruction, tasks, and related research.

1. Synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC)

Computers can be applied in language teaching in different forms. Some teachers produce a computer-assisted instruction (CAI) program in the form of CDs or websites focusing on grammar lessons, reading, writing, listening and different genres of English such as business and survival English. Other teachers apply computer programs as mediums for communication such as web-boards, e-mails, multi-user object oriented (MOO) and chat. In this case, learners have the opportunity to interact with others in the target language. These programs are referred to as computer-mediated communication (CMC).

Computer-mediated communication (CMC) is one application of Computer assisted language learning (CALL). CMC refers to communication using the computer as a medium. The term encompasses e-mail, bulletin boards, chat-lines, multi-user domain (MUD) and multi-user object oriented (MOO) environments (Beatty, 2003). CMC is categorized into either asynchronous computer-mediated communication (ACMC) or synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC). Asynchronous communication means interaction that takes place at

different times. Users do not need to be online at the same time; therefore, they are not able to send messages and respond simultaneously. Examples of APMC are e-mails and web-boards. SCMC is communication made through computers by typing messages to another person in real-time. It can be a one-to-one or a more popular many-to-many conversation. Examples of SCMC are web-chat, internet relay chat, MOO, and Microsoft network messengers. Some SCMC are private and only those who have access are allowed to join the conversation. These conversations can be recorded by the system and the transcripts will be kept. In public SCMC, anyone with the software can access and join the conversation. In this case, users are guests and can join in any conversation they are interested in but the conversations are not saved by the system and transcripts are not kept.

Each public SCMC has a name, which is called a channel or chat-room. There are chat-rooms about almost any topic. Users can find out what chat-rooms are available by clicking on the list chat-room button, or by typing the command /list in the text box. If users double-click on the chat-room name they will join in the conversation in that room, and a list of other participants will appear on the screen. If users are not interested in any of the rooms from the list, they can create their own rooms and invite other people to them. In that case, users will be the host and they are able to dismiss people that are impolite out of their room. Users can also use their rooms to hold instant conferences with colleagues, teachers, friends, etc.

SCMC programs as mentioned previously use typed commands, and special jargon. These usually do not take a long time to learn. The popularity of SCMC has led to constant development. Today, SCMC programs are much more appealing than earlier programs. Users can use symbols, which are animated pictures to show how you feel about certain comments or debates. Some programs like MSN and Yahoo

messenger also provide voice conversation, but the sound quality is not yet high. The quality of course also depends on the properties of the hardware and the type of Internet connection used. Computers with larger memories with connections through a special dedicated telephone line—T1 are twenty times faster than a regular modem connection, and much more effective.

SCMC is considered a new kind of medium because it has certain features that are both similar to and distinguished from speaking and writing (Murray, 2000). It is similar to speaking in that it provides immediate response from its conversation partner (Beauvois, 1998). The form of language also resembles that of spoken discourse since it occurs in real time and it can encourage negotiation between interlocutors (Lee, 2002). The users can use italics and boldface to stress words and phrases, in order to express his/her feelings as in face-to-face interaction (Smith, 2003). What it lacks in terms of speaking is intonation, verbal cues, and nonverbal cues (body language) because users are not able to see or hear each other while chatting. Recently, however, this gap has been, at some level, compensated with emoticons e.g. ☺, ☹, and the use of capital letters and exclamation marks for shouting (Smith, 2003). In terms of writing, users need to type their messages and read them in order to understand. This is commonly known as text-based interaction (Warshauer, 1997; Beauvois, 1998). Users also use capitalization of first letter and names, and punctuations as in written language (Smith, 2003). However, the language of SCMC is less formal and contains more errors than conventional writing and users are more tolerant to written errors in SCMC.

In short, SCMC has similar features to both speaking and writing. What's more, it is similar to face-to-face interaction and provides immediate feedback; thus, it can draw an extensive amount of communication between interlocutors.

2. Advantages and limitations of SCMC

Synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) has come to the attention of many language teachers the past decade (Warshauer, 1997). Previous SCMC studies have yielded positive results regarding motivation, learning styles, authenticity (Egbert, Chao, & Hanson-Smith, 1999), exposure, production (Nagata, 1998) interaction and higher participation (Peyton, 1999; Freiermuth, 2001). Evidently, SCMC, specifically chat has captured most ESL/EFL researchers, particularly interactionists' attention as it is seen to be a medium which provides opportunities for input and pushed output, improve oral communication, increase higher participation from students compared to face-to-face discussion, decentralizing teacher's role which leads to higher participation of learners'.

Through SCMC, learners are provided input, feedback, and pushed output while negotiating through online chat via SCMC (Lee, 2001). In addition, SCMC allows learners more time to process input, monitor and edit output through a self-paced learning environment, while they retain real-time interactive nature (Kern, 1995; Ortega, 1997; Smith, 2003; Kitade, 1999). Learners can read and type at their own pace. This is different from face-to-face interaction in which learners have to produce the language at the rate that must keep the conversation flowing. In face-to-face interaction, if interlocutors are slow, the conversation might break down. In addition, via SCMC learners can look at and read their messages over and over before sending. That means they can focus more on the language form.

SCMC is claimed to improve or at least facilitate oral communication competency. Abrams (2003) found that SCMC can develop fluency. Learners are able to access necessary vocabulary quicker and produce more language in a given time when using SCMC. Similarly, SCMC can improve oral proficiency by

developing the same cognitive mechanisms used in speaking (Payne & Whitney, 2002). In terms of social roles in oral communication, SCMC appears to provide users a more variety of roles (Abrams, 2003). Additional SCMC roles included attacker, challenger, supporter and joker (Abrams, 2003). Abram's results also revealed more rotations of roles in SCMC, thus providing learners to practice more social roles. Darhower (2002) strengthens this claim by revealing that learners used a variety of discourse functions that go beyond typical L2 classroom.

Last but not least, SCMC decentralizes teachers' roles in discussion (Chun, 1994; Kern, 1995) and provides more opportunities for learners' production. This could be due to reduction of anxiety level (Kern, 1995; Warschauer, 1996; Freiermuth, 1998 and 2002). In 1998, a study by Freiermuth involving computer interactions in chat revealed that learners were more engaged in the conversations using chat than in face-to-face interaction. It was found that groups chatting online were generally more equitable than their counterparts in verbal interaction groups (Freiermuth, 1998). Warschauer (1996) also found similar results. He found that in face-to-face discussion, Filipino group members tended to dominate discussion while Japanese learners hesitated, but in on-line mode, participation was much more evenly distributed across nationalities. Sufficient interaction in part of the L2 learner is necessary if there were to be any kind of negotiation for meaning. Since computers can yield more participation, thus more interaction and modification of language by NNSs, learners will be able to increase their L2 proficiency.

Previous studies have shown that SCMC is extremely beneficial to language learning. It is a resource for input and also a place where learners can actually use the second language in an authentic situation. Moreover, it stimulates more learner production than in a language classroom.

Although SCMC seems to be very advantageous, there are certain precautions to be aware of. First, network connections and computer facilities need to work properly if there were to be any flow in the activity. Slow internet connections and constant network breakdowns can discourage and frustrate both learners and teachers (Egbert & Smith, 1999).

Second, typing skills are a prerequisite learners need to develop before actually performing tasks online (Freiermuth, 2002: 37). Furthermore, the fast pace nature of online interactions could provoke learners to turn to abbreviations, or short but ungrammatical structures as long as they convey meaning (Beaty, 2003), or if they had the same L1 they would resort to it (Fernandez-Garcia & Martinez-Arbelaiz, 2002).

Third, it has been found that tasks have effects on participation (Lee, 2001). Evidently, problem-solving tasks, or tasks that involve collaboration have yielded more participation in both face-to-face (Porter, 1986), and CMC (Warshauer, 1997; Vick, Crosby, & Ashworth, 2000) than debates, or divergent tasks. It was also found that decision-making and information gap tasks were appropriate for chat tasks since it stimulated more negotiation (Smith, 2003; Vick, Crosby, & Ashworth, 2000).

Fourth, Freiermuth (2002) cautions that the use of public chatrooms will not be appropriate since there can be interruptions from outside users. He suggests that private chatrooms will be more appropriate to perform discussions.

Finally, number of participants is another caution, even in face-to-face discussions (Porter, 1986). Similarly, Bohlke (2003) discovered that participation is more evenly distributed in chatrooms with four members. Too many participants can result in lesser opportunities for production. Thus, before performing tasks learners

are often divided into small groups (Chun, 1994; Warshauer, 1996; Freiermuth, 1998).

In sum, before applying SCMC to language classrooms it is necessary to consider the speed of internet connections, learners typing ability, appropriate tasks, privacy of chatrooms, and number of participants in a group.

3. Synchronous computer-mediated communication and language instruction

As mentioned above, SCMC has its advantages to language learning. According to Smith (2003), SCMC is involved with the theory of interaction in second language acquisition either directly or indirectly. Therefore, it is essential to discuss roles of interaction and negotiation.

Previously, language teaching had focused on providing grammatical rules and structures to learners in order to enhance learners' language competency. Conversations had a peripheral role, merely used in role-plays or dialogue drills to practice new words, grammatical rules and sentence structures. The potential to use conversation as means to learn a second language was brought to attention by Hatch in 1978. In her work, she called on L2 teachers and researchers to look into interaction or conversing in the second language as a way to learn lexical items, grammatical rules, and syntax (Hatch, 1978). This notion was accompanied by Krashen's input hypothesis, which argued for the necessity of comprehensible input in second language acquisition (SLA). His hypothesis is that learners are able to acquire new forms of the second language (L2) only if those forms are made comprehensible and just beyond the learners' current level ($i + 1$). In other words, messages sent between interlocutors must be just above the competency level of those

NNSs in order for them to be acquired (Krashen, 1978 and 1981). Thus, comprehensible input was seen as one of the optimal conditions in SLA.

Long (1981) agrees with Krashen that comprehensible input is crucial in second language acquisition. But he argues that comprehensible input has to come from interactional modifications when there is communication breakdown. Later, in his revised version he emphasizes the role of negative feedback, which leads to negotiation for meaning. He concludes that negotiation for meaning, which brings about interactional modifications facilitates acquisition (Long, 1996: 451).

In the same way, Swain (1985) argues that input is not sufficient since comprehensible input may not necessary allow learners to acquire lexical items, grammatical rules or syntactical structures. She also proposes a *comprehensible output hypothesis*, which states that learner output is crucial in language acquisition. Learners need opportunities to produce *pushed* output in order to acquire a language (Swain, 1985 and 1993: 158). She explains that output provides four types of opportunities. First, learners have the opportunity to use their linguistic resources, which will develop their automaticity. In other words, they will develop their fluency but not necessary their accuracy. Second, producing the language may force learners to recognize what they know or do not know about the language. Accordingly, they may choose to ignore it, search for their own linguistic knowledge, or identify their gap and pay attention to relevant input. Third, learners have the opportunity to test their hypothesis and try to determine whether what they understand is correct or not. Finally, their production may trigger feedback from their conversational partner, which may give them information about well-formed or ill-formed utterances. Furthermore, they may notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language. This may lead to modification of their language (Swain, 1993; Schmidt,

1990). Thus, learners need to produce language in order to make use of their linguistic knowledge and reflect on their output (Swain, 1993: 158). More recently, Mackey (1999) proved that being involved in interaction was more beneficial than observing and not negotiating at all. Her study of comparing development of question forms between different dyads revealed that “interactional modifications led to SL development and more active involvement in negotiated interaction led to greater development”. Thus, output also played a significant role in learning L2.

One surprising finding on interaction was that more interaction and negotiation for meaning was apparent in NNSs and NNSs dyads than NSs and NNSs counterparts (Varonis and Gass, 1994; Long, 1981 and 1996). As far as production was concerned, Porter’s (1986) findings also supported the claim. In her study, L2 learner interaction between advanced and intermediate learners had more opportunities for production than interaction between NSs with L2 learners. A study of classroom interaction by Ellis (1994) also discovered that learners were involved in more interaction when doing tasks together than teacher led tasks.

Moreover, Lightbown and Spada (1999) also confirm that through learner-learner interaction, learners do not learn each other errors. From their interaction with their peers, learners do not produce more errors than interacting with native speakers. In addition, learners can provide each other with effective corrections even though in a small amount (Porter, 1986). Learner-learner interaction may yield better benefit to improve learner’ learning than teacher-learner interaction (Pica et al., 1996). Through learner-learner interaction, students have more chances to produce the language and negotiate for meaning than in the conventional interaction, teacher-learner interaction. Learners are capable of providing comprehensible input and encourage

comprehensible output to each other. Thus, NNSs and NNSs interaction appeared to also be, if not more, facilitative for drawing negotiation.

In sum, interaction triggers negotiation for meaning, which in turn provides comprehensible input and is claimed to be a necessary condition in SLA (Krashen, 1981; Long, 1981 and 1996; Varonis and Gass, 1994), or negotiation for meaning itself can directly bring about L2 development (Pica, 1994: 493). Moreover, interaction promotes output, which causes learners to focus on form, which is an essential operation in L2 learning (Long, 1996; Pica, 1994; Swain, 1993; Mackey, 1999).

4. Features of negotiation

Negotiation for meaning is a semantically-related talk during a conversation where interlocutors try to make a problematic item understood. The negotiation usually occurs when there is communication breakdown because of a problematic item that prevents speakers from carrying on their talk. To keep the conversation going, native speakers (NS) or more competent speakers use different kinds of strategies to negotiate for meaning. To negotiate for better understanding, NSs use negotiation features such as *comprehension checks*, *confirmation checks*, *recasts* and *clarification request* (Long, 1981) (see a sample of negotiation in Figure 1). Negotiation can also lead to the *uptake* or the use of correct form, in other words, negotiation may lead to the acquisition of form (see Figure 2). The samples of interactional features are shown in Figure 3.

NNS: I many fren
 NS: (CC) You have many friends?
 NNS: Yes

Figure 1 Sample of negotiation for meaning (Long, 1996: 449)

NNS: Uh, how-how do you feel Taiwan?
 NS: How did I like it? (recast)
 NNS: Yeah, how do you like it? (uptake)

Figure 2 Sample of negotiation for form (Long, 1996: 449)

Interactal features	Samples
Requests for clarification	1. "Sorry?" 2. "Huh?" 3. "I beg you a pardon."
Requests for confirmation	1. By using intonation or tag questions: <i>A: Mexican food have a lot of ulcer</i> <i>B: Mexicans have a lot of ulcers?</i>
Self and other-repetition	1. Using exact or semantic (i.e. paraphrase) and complete or partial

Figure 3 Samples of interactal features (Ellis, 1994)

4.1 Varonis and Gass's features of negotiation

Long's negotiation for meaning process was studied more in-depth by Varonis and Gass. To understand how the negotiation for meaning operates, Varonis and Gass investigated oral interaction between NSs and NNS. As a result, Varonis and Gass (1994) were able to develop a model for the components that encompasses the *negotiation routine*. They separated the routine into stages; namely, *triggers*, *signals (indicators)*, *responses*, and *reaction to responses* (see Figure 4). They also found that each stage had to be subcategorized since there were variations within each phase.

Trigger (T)	Signal (S)	Response (R)	Reaction to Response (RR)
Lexical	Global	Minimal	Minimal
Syntactic	Local	Repeating the trigger	Metalinguistic talk
Discourse	Inferential	with no modification	Testing deductions
Content		Repetition with lexical modification Rephrasing	Task appropriate response

Figure 4 Negotiation Routine (Varonis & Gass, 1994)

The negotiation for meaning or form routine begins with a *trigger*. A trigger is a message or part of the message that causes a problem of understanding. It can be subcategorized into the following:

- 1) *Lexical Triggers* are triggers, which involve a problematic lexical item,
- 2) *Syntactic Triggers* are triggers, which involve problematic structural or grammatical items,
- 3) *Discourse Triggers* are triggers, which involve general coherence of the conversation. For example, a speaker is unable to identify the reference of a pronoun during interaction.
- 4) *Content Triggers* are problems that cannot be related to the previous triggers.

The second part of the negotiation routine that follows the trigger is the *Signal* or the *Indicator*. The Signal is an explicit or implicit indication that there is a problem with understanding the previous utterance or some parts of the previous utterance. Clarification requests and comprehension checks are examples of explicit indicators. It can be subcategorized into the following strategies:

- 1) *Global strategies* are signals that do not specify the problem e.g. What?, I don't understand.

2) *Local strategies* are indicators that specify the problem or trigger e.g. What does *wrench* mean? This could also include confirmation checks e.g. Did you mean *drums*?

3) *Inferential strategies* are guesses or hypothesis about the trigger e.g. Okay, so that means he is tired.

The next stage of the negotiation routine is the ***response***. The response is a reply to the signal and can be the end of the negotiation routine. It essentially tries to solve the communication breakdown. It can be subcategorized into the following:

1) *Minimal response* is a short response such as yes, no, right

2) *Repeating the trigger* is a response that does not modify the original trigger

3) *Repeating the trigger with lexical modifications* is a response that modifies the original trigger but without addressing the fundamental problem signaled in the indicator phase.

4) *Elaborating or rephrasing* can be explaining the lexical item, or elaborating the previous discourse.

The negotiation routine can end at the response stage but it can go one step further with the ***reaction to response*** but this stage is optional. It can be separated into the following:

1) *Minimal responses* are replies to the response such as, “Yes”, “I understand”

2) *Metalinguistic reactions* comments on what the problem was, such as “So I should claim not argue.”

3) *Task appropriate responses* are replies to the response where the learner utters implicitly to show understanding of the previous discourse.

4) *Testing deductions* is the last type of *Reaction to Response*. Similar, to inferential signals where learners try to guess the meaning, testing deductions occur when learners try to test his/ her understanding. The learner does this by applying the lexical item, grammatical structure in their production. (Varonis and Gass, 1994: 295).

4.2 Smith's expanded version of the negotiation routine

More recently, in a study of negotiation routine in SCMC, Smith (2003) revealed two more stages in addition to those categorized by Gass and Varonis. After the reaction to response stage he found that the routine could expand further. He called those stages the *confirmation* stage and the *reconfirmation* stage, respectively (see Figure 5 and Appendix A1).

Trigger (T)	Signal (S)	Response (R)	Reaction to Response (RR)	Confirmation (C)	Reconfirmation (RC)
Lexical	Global	Minimal	Minimal	Simple confirmation	
Syntactic Discourse Content	Local Inferential	Repetition with lexical modification Rephrasing	Repeating the trigger with no modification Metalinguistic talk Testing deductions Task appropriate response	Comprehension check	

Figure 5 Smith's expanded version of the negotiation routine (Smith, 2003)

The *confirmation* stage is initiated by a positive or negative reaction to response. These reaction to responses could be expressed explicitly such

as I understand and thanks, or implicitly as either a *testing deduction* or a *task appropriate response*. If the reaction to response is negative, it leads to a negative confirmation. The negative confirmation is either a return to the response stage or an abandon altogether—though rare. On the other hand, if the reaction to response is positive, it leads to positive confirmation, which can be subcategorized into the following:

1) *Simple confirmation* is a sort of minimal response such as ok, good, and right. It can also be a praise to their conversation partner for instance excellent, well done, or good job.

2) *Reaffirmation* is a positive confirmation but adds more explanation than a simple confirmation in case the initiator has not fully grasped the meaning.

3) *Comprehension check* takes a form of a question and occurs when the respondent is unsure whether the initiator has fully understood the response.

The *reconfirmation* stage is the last step of the negotiation routine. This stage, which is optional, follows a positive *confirmation* and is essentially the same as a minimal *reaction to response* such as ok, good, or thanks.

Accordingly, it has been well established that interaction can play a significant role in L2 learning. It is unfortunate, however, that classrooms hardly provide opportunities for authentic communication, which leads to no or very little negotiation and output. As teachers, we need to provide ways for learners to interact as it has been claimed. One way to enhance a communicative classroom is to use tasks.

5. Tasks

5.1 Definition of task

Tasks can be defined in a variety of ways. In a typical sense, tasks are things people do in everyday life such as mailing a letter, painting a house, washing a car, making hotel reservations. These can be referred to as real-world tasks and do not always involve using language (Nunan, 1989: 10). In a pedagogical view, tasks are work-plans or procedures that learners have to follow in order to accomplish an objective, which is usually specified by the teacher (Richards, Platt and Weber cited in Nunan, 1989: 6). Drawing a map while listening to a tape or performing a command can be considered tasks. In this sense, tasks do not necessarily draw language production. However, since interaction plays an important role in today's language classroom, tasks need to involve communicative practice. According to Willis (1996: 23) tasks involve using the target language for a communicative purpose to achieve an outcome. Nunan (1989: 10) states that communicative tasks involve classroom work, which involves comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while focusing on meaning rather than form. Thus, tasks should not only have a goal or outcome but should also involve communicative practice.

5.2 Task types

As mentioned above, teachers can encourage interaction through tasks. Tasks that encourage learners to communicate or interact in the target language can be done by having learners work together. Collaborative tasks are the types of tasks that insist learners to work cooperatively to reach the task objectives. Learners are required to work cooperatively, discuss methods to achieve the goal of learning, and assess their learning (Swain, 2001). Furthermore, according to Porter (1986) despite learners

having the same first language, they still attempt to use the target language to complete the tasks. In her study, L2 learner interaction between advanced and intermediate learners had more opportunities for production than interaction between native speakers with L2 learners (Porter, 1986).

The list below is task types defined by Willis (1996: 26-28). As shall be seen most of these tasks involve some sort of learners collaboration. Willis (1996: 26-28) divides types into six main types including listing, ordering and sorting, comparing, problem-solving, sharing personal experiences, and creative tasks. Below is a brief description of each task.

Listing tasks involve brainstorming ideas from learners' knowledge or experience in pairs or groups about specific topics. Listing advantages and disadvantages of living in a big city or things to take on a holiday trips can be topics.

Ordering and sorting tasks include sequencing items in chronological order, ranking items according to their values or specified criteria, categorizing items in given groups, or classifying items with no groups given. Giving a list of items to learners and have them rank which items are most necessary to survive on a deserted island can be one of the tasks.

Comparing tasks involve matching, comparing similarities or differences of information from different sources. Finding differences between two pictures is a common task of this type.

Problem-solving tasks involve a more intellectual and analytical skill from learners. Learners are presented with puzzles or real-life problems and have to discuss to agree to a solution. For example, having learners decide what kinds of gifts to buy for Christmas with for certain kinds of people can be a good problem-solving topic.

Sharing experiences tasks deals with learners talking more freely about themselves and their experiences. The conversation is closer to casual social and not necessarily goal-oriented. This task is Teachers can provide cards with different types of topics such most frightening experience, or best holiday.

Creative tasks involve learners working in pairs or groups collaborating some kind of creative work. Assigning environmental projects where learners need to look create posters to encourage people to take care of the environment is one example. The outcome is also appreciated by the audience as well as the producers.

Brown (2001: 183-186) separated tasks into 10 typical task types and each can be adapted to collaborative tasks where learners have to work together to achieve a goal. Brown (2001: 183-186) separated tasks into games, role-plays and simulations, drama, projects, interview, brainstorming, information gap, jigsaw, problem-solving, and opinion exchange.

Games are activities that use scores as a stimulator to encourage learners participation or competition. Learners can compete in pairs or in teams. Guessing games such as twenty questions and charades where learners have to guess what the items are are common games.

Role-play and simulations involves giving a role to group members and assigning an objective. For example, student A is an immigration officer and student B is a visitor from a foreign country. Student B has to answer a series of questions from student A in order to enter the country.

Drama is a more complex type of role-play that involves a planned story-line and scripts. This kind of task can be very time consuming and take a lot of work.

Projects is similar to creative tasks above. It can be adapted for all ages and especially good for young learners who would have hands-on experiences while conducting the project. Projects can be about protecting the environment, protecting the wildlife, promoting safe driving, giving knowledge about marine life, etc.

Interview is a task that can be done as pairs or in groups. It can be very structured such as limiting the types of questions to be yes or no questions or it can be more independent by assigning a topic such as interviewing a movie star.

Brainstorming is a task where learners use their knowledge and experience to list as many ideas as possible about certain topics. Topics can be about almost any sort such as entertainment, politics, environment, technology, etc.

Information gap is a task that involves conveying or requesting information from the pair or group members. There are two important characteristics in information gap task. One is that the focus is on the information and not language forms. Two is that it requires communicative interaction to reach the goal. An example, of an information gap task can be finding information about birthdays, favorite food, zodiac signs, etc. For example, learners can be given items that are different and hidden from each other. Learners have to describe what those items are as well as asking for information of their friend's items.

Jigsaw task is one type of information gap tasks where learners are given different specific information where they have to ask questions from their group member or pair in order to complete their own or group's task.

Problem-solving and decision making tasks involves learners working together to find a solution to a specified problem. It could be puzzles, real-life or imaginary situations created by the teacher and involve other task characteristics such

as ranking. For example, the problem can be how to survive on a deserted island while given items that need to be ranked in order of importance.

Opinion exchange involves expressing beliefs or feelings. Moral, ethical, religious, and political issues are usually hot topics. Learners must learn to respect others opinions and value disagreement rather than ridiculing them (Brown, 2001: 187).

In sum, Willis (1996) and Brown (2001) classified tasks into types. Those types, although involve different methods, encourages language production in a meaningful way. Furthermore, since the types are usually in designed for pair or group work it, also encourages collaborative work among learners. Therefore, they can also be classified into collaborative tasks, which also focus on having learners communicate in the target language and work together to achieve a goal (Swain, 1991). Collaborative tasks in SCMC can provide a variety of input, more opportunities for production than face-to-face interaction, and thus has a real potential for interaction, negotiation for meaning and learner production (Warschauer, 1997; Freiermuth, 2001). In previous studies have suggested that tasks suitable for SCMC group interaction be collaborative tasks because they are able to draw output from learners (Warschauer, 1997; Freiermuth, 2001).

6. Related research

There have been many studies related to SCMC and language learning. Previous studies on SCMC have used discourse or conversation analysis to determine features of using SCMC. These studies find typical discourse functions similar to face-to-face interaction. Furthermore, they find that SCMC draws more production from learners.

Chun (1994) claimed that SCMC could increase learners' interactive competence because SCMC allowed language learners to use a variety of discourse functions. In her study, first year German students used SCMC as a medium for classroom discussions. The results revealed a high quantity of learners' language production, more direct interaction between the learners and learners took more initiative in discussions. In addition, those discourses composed of different kinds of functions e.g. greetings and leave taking, requests, suggestions, imperatives, exclamations etc. Similarly, Kern (1995) found that SCMC drew more production from learners and demonstrated more variety of discourse functions, when compared to face-to-face interaction. What is more, he found that both teachers and learners were favorable of using SCMC for discussions.

Furthermore, interactional modifications that are similar to face-to-face interaction also appear in SCMC discussions. Sotillo (2000) compared discourse functions that occurred between asynchronous CMC and SCMC. Results revealed the types of negotiation features that were necessary for SLA. Some of those features included comprehension checks, clarification and explanation requests.

In another study, Kitade (2000: 143) also found that interaction via SCMC provides a broader range of interaction features. In her study, she investigated Japanese as a foreign language learners interacting with other learners and with native Japanese speakers via chat. Results concluded that collaborative learning through SCMC is able to draw comprehensible interaction and learners' self-correction.

More recently, Smith (2003) investigated communication strategies that were used in free discourse talks via SCMC. Results revealed the use of a variety of communication strategies (e.g. framing, politeness, directness, and rudeness) as well

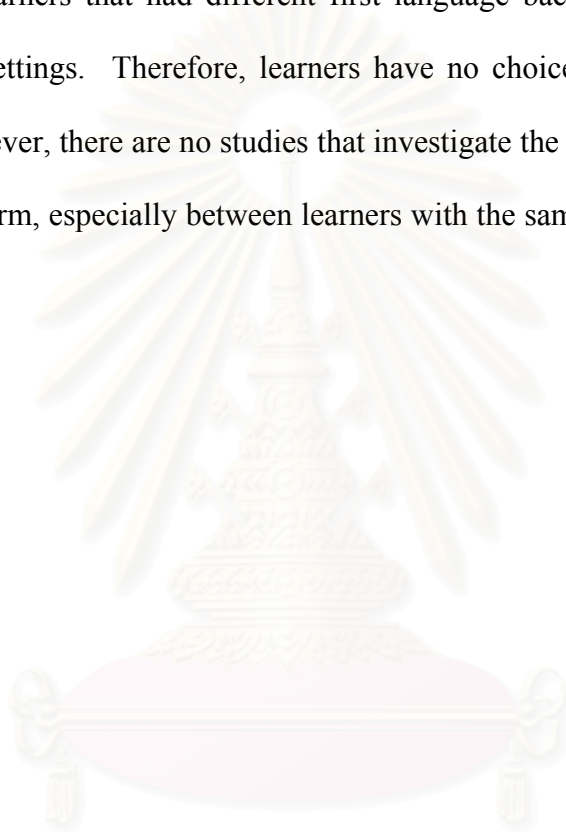
as compensatory strategies—attempts to express meaning when there is communication breakdown (Smith, 2003: 43-44).

Evidently, previous studies have showed that SCMC is able to draw a variety of discourse functions from language learners, communication strategies in addition to negotiation features. However, there are few studies that investigate negotiation for meaning in SCMC discussions.

Probably the closest investigations on negotiation for meaning were conducted by Fernandez-Garcia and Martinez-Arbelaiz (2002) and Smith (2003). Both using Varonis and Gass's model of the negotiation routine (1994), they found that learners do negotiate for meaning. Fernandez-Garcia and Martinez-Arbelaiz (2002) found that in the negotiation routine, learners with the same first language would resort to the first language rather than modifying the language like in Varonis and Gass's model. However, there is negotiation. Smith (2003), on the other hand, focused on the routine itself. Smith used information gap tasks to draw negotiation from learners. In this task, each learner had different pieces of information missing that was needed to complete the task. Since, the missing information was with the other learner, they needed to ask each other for the missing that information. In his study, pairs of learners were given a picture of a garage but each garage had different equipment. Thus, learners had to ask what equipment their partner had. Negotiation occurred when their partner did not understand the meaning of the target word (the equipment). Therefore, the partner had to explain the vocabulary. From results, he claimed that by adding two negotiation phases, namely confirmation and reconfirmation to Varonis and Gass's model, the routine becomes more accurate for monitoring the negotiation routine in SCMC (Smith, 2003). However, it is noted that

many negotiations are finished at the response stage and can be abandoned after negative confirmation (see Appendix A1).

To sum up, previous research related to SCMC has focused on its effectiveness in language learning, the general discourse functions and communicative strategies, negotiation routines in SCMC. What's more, previous studies used learners that had different first language backgrounds as subjects and were in ESL settings. Therefore, learners have no choice but to use English as a medium. However, there are no studies that investigate the features for negotiation of meaning and form, especially between learners with the same first language and in an EFL setting.



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CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the methodology used in the current study. The chapter includes the population and sample, research instruments, data collection, and data analysis.

1. Population and Sample

The population in this study was undergraduate students taking the 411-205 English for Humanities and Social Sciences remedial course at Khon Kaen University in the summer. Students in five faculties are required to take this course: Management Science, Fine Arts, Education, Architecture and Humanities and Social Sciences. The sample of the study was students who were enrolled in the 411-205 English for Humanities and Social Sciences remedial summer course of academic year 2003. Purposive sampling was used to select one of four sections as the sample group. The section consisted of 32 participants: 16 Education students, 14 Fine Art students, one Architecture student and one Management Science students. The participants were asked to perform tasks designed by the researcher and interact with each other in groups of four via chat in a computer laboratory.

2. Research instruments

The instruments used are six language tasks, and a questionnaire. Below are descriptions of the instruments.

2.1 Language Tasks

The following are steps in task design and task description.

2.1.1 Steps in designing the tasks

There were five steps in designing the tasks: review literature, study content of the course book, create the tasks, pilot the tasks, and adaptation of tasks.

Step 1 Review Literature. There are several kinds of tasks that can be used to draw interaction from learners such as simulation and role-plays, surveys, free discussions, projects, tandem learning, and debates. However, previous studies have suggested that tasks suitable for SCMC group interaction be collaborative learning tasks because they are able to draw output from learners (Warschauer, 1997; Freiermuth, 2001).

Collaborative learning tasks are tasks that insist learners to help each other reach the task objectives. In this kind of task, students are required to work cooperatively, discuss methods to achieve the goal of learning, and assess their learning. Therefore, collaborative tasks provide opportunities for learners to produce language.

In addition, it is also mentioned that collaborative tasks whose content are related to lessons of the course can promote negotiation for form. It has been suggested that if learners were familiar with the content of the tasks, they would have less burden of dealing with meaning and would be more attentive to form.

Step 2 Study the content of the textbook. The second step was to study the lessons in the course book. As mentioned above, tasks that could bring about negotiation for form were tasks that learners were familiar with the content. The 411-205 course followed lessons 17 to 32 of course book Opportunities, intermediate level. Six lessons from the course were selected for content of the tasks. The lessons were chosen according to learners' interest and lessons that learners would have already completed. This would make learners familiar with content of

the tasks. The lessons included lesson 18 (Personalities), 23 (Choosing Schools), Warm-up (Careers), lesson 21 (Understanding), lesson 32 (Visiting Britain), lesson 30 (Living abroad). Details of the lessons are described below with the tasks. All six tasks were collaborative tasks as it had been suggested that this task type was appropriate for SCMC (Warschauer, 1997; Freiermuth, 2001).

Step 3 Create the tasks. Six tasks were created based on the content in the course book as follows. The first task was ‘What’s in common?’ In this task, learners were asked to find out what kinds of personalities their group members had. This task was related to lesson 18 “Personalities”. In this lesson, learners learned vocabulary about people’s personalities, how to ask about people’s personalities and listened to a recording of a person’s description and personality.

The second task was “Ideal schools”. In this task, students had to discuss with each other how each of their ideal school would be like. This task was related to lesson 23 “Choosing schools”. In this lesson, learners learned vocabulary about school and listen to recording of people discussing about their schools. It was also related to their writing assignment where they had to write about their ideal school.

The third task was “Careers”. In this task, students were given a career and their friends had to guess what it was by asking questions. This task was related the Warm-up part of Module 7 Careers. In this warm-up, students learned vocabulary about jobs and job areas.

The forth task was “Planning a trip”. In this task, students had to make a travel plan while thinking about the destination, what to bring, how to get around, and what to see. This task was related to lesson 32 “Visiting

Britain”. In this lesson, students learned what to expect, what to see and things they needed to prepare when going to Britain.

The fifth task was “Cast Away”. In this task, students had to choose from a list of things they would need to survive if they were stranded on an island together and give reasons for their choice. This task was related to the lesson 21 “Understanding”. In this lesson, students read a short story about philosophy of life and how to survive in the world.

The sixth task was ‘Culture Shock’. In this task, students pretended to be someone from a different culture. Each person will have information about “their culture” and have to find more about other members’ culture by asking questions. This task was related to lesson 30 “Living abroad”. In this lesson, learners read an interview of a refugee about his life in his new home.

All the tasks created were validated by the thesis advisor.

Step 4 Pilot study. The purpose of the study was to try out all six tasks. The following is the description of the pilot study.

Participants. The participants in the pilot study consisted of 30 first year students taking the 411-205 course for semester two of the 2003 academic year. All 30 participants were from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at Khon Kaen University. The English level of the participants was considered high compared to students taking the same course because they were placed in the first section of their groups. Students are placed into sections according to their English scores on the entrance exams with high-score students put in the earlier sections.

Data collection. Two types of training were given to prepare participants for SCMC. First, they were trained how to type in English. Participants were trained how to use the Typing Tutor CD, which had lessons and exercises on typing in English. They were given, in their own time, two weeks to complete the exercises in the CD. Second, participants learned how to use the Language Education Chat System (L.E.C.S) chat website. An orientation to introduce and train participants how to use the chat website was arranged. The training included how to enter the website, login and enter their chat room and join the discussion, and how to check their chat results. After two weeks of training, the participants began to perform the tasks. Learners performed one task per week; totaling six weeks of chat. The first task learners performed was “What’s in common?” followed by “Ideal schools”, “Careers”, “Planning a Trip”, “Cast Away”, and “Culture Shock” respectively. The time allocated was 50 minutes per session and at the beginning of each session participants were randomly put into groups of four.

Results. Results revealed of a large amount of turns in each session. Despite that, there was no evidence of negotiation for meaning and form, which is core in the present study. This was because the tasks could not stimulate negotiation. The tasks were designed in order to stimulate output from learners, which was successful. However, tasks were unsuccessful in stimulating negotiation because there was barely any unfamiliar vocabulary; learners used only the vocabulary they knew. However, In terms of the affective domain, participants said they enjoyed chatting to their peers in class. However, they did not feel that the tasks were difficult and preferred more time allocated. The number of turns they

managed to produce indicated that their English level was efficient enough to hold conversations in English.

In sum, the tasks were successful in stimulating output from participants. Overall, participants enjoyed chatting but preferred longer sessions. Although, the tasks succeeded in stimulating a lot of discussion, it did not stimulate features of negotiation for meaning and form. As a consequence, tasks had to be adapted so they could stimulate negotiation for meaning and form.

Step 5 Adaptation of Tasks. In order to make learners negotiate for meaning and form, the tasks had to be adapted. Therefore, tasks types that had been considered to draw some negotiation in previous studies had to be applied. Tasks that can draw negotiation for meaning from learners are information gap tasks (Smith, 2003). In this task, learners have pieces of information missing that is needed to complete the task. The missing information is with another learner; therefore, they need to ask each other for the missing pieces. Smith (2003) in his study of negotiation routine in SCMC found that information gap tasks were able draw negotiation from learners. In his study, pairs of learners were given a picture of a garage but each garage had different equipment. Thus, learners had to ask what equipment their partner had. Negotiation occurred when their partner did not understand the meaning of the target word (the equipment). Therefore, the partner had to explain the vocabulary.

Accordingly, three tasks were adapted and changed to information gap tasks. Firstly, the task “Planning a Trip” was adapted. The objective of the task was not changed since it was still able to stimulate output. The content of the task changed from lesson 32 Visiting Britain to lesson 19 “Watching people” to make it more interesting. In this lesson, learners listened to a recording of two people

watching other people that are on a sea trip. Therefore, in the new task instructions were made specific that participants were planning a trip to the sea. Thus, the task's name was also changed to "Sea Trip" to give a better picture of the task. In addition, two task sheets with different pictures were added to induce negotiation. Each task sheet had four separate pictures that were different from the other task sheets.

Secondly, the task "Cast Away" was adapted. The objectives were not changed as it proved to stimulate discussion. The content was still related to lesson 21 "Understanding". However, the location of the situation on an island was shifted to the moon to make it more interesting. The task was adapted into an information gap task by adding different pictures on four separate task sheets.

Thirdly, task "Careers" was changed to "New Years Present" to make it more related to participants' experiences. Therefore, the content of the task had changed from Warm-up Module 7 to lesson 24 "Teachers" to make it more relevant to learners' experience. In this lesson, learners read an article about a student talking about his teacher when he was in high school. The task was adapted and changed to information gap tasks by including task sheets that had pictures of different items.

The three information gap tasks above were related to the course and were made more interesting. In addition, tasks that were directly related to content could also stimulate negotiation for form. Therefore, the other three collaborative learning tasks also were directly related to the lessons from course book—Opportunities, intermediate level. One task was related to lesson 23—choosing schools. This lesson focused on vocabulary about schools. The second task was related to Communication workshop—describing pictures. This activity focused on practicing describing pictures. The third task was related to lesson 30—living

abroad. This lesson focused on interviewing someone who has just arrived in a foreign country. Detailed descriptions of all the tasks are described below.

In sum, the tasks were expected to elicit the features of negotiation investigated in the study: 1) negotiation for meaning, and 2) negotiation for form. Therefore, all six tasks had content that was related to the lessons. The first three were information gap tasks and the last three were collaborative learning tasks. These final tasks were validated by three experts (see Appendix C).

2.1.2 Description of Tasks

Following the literature review, the study of content from the lessons in 411-205 summer course and pilot study, six tasks were designed including *Sea Trip*, *New Year Present*, *Cast Away*, *Interview*, *Ideal School*, and *Picture Dialogue*. Three were information gap tasks and three were collaborative learning tasks. Each task is described in detail below.

There were two types of the tasks: 1) information gap tasks and 2) collaborative learning tasks that have topics related to the course. The first three tasks were information gap tasks and the topics were *Sea Trip*, *New Year Present*, and *Cast Away*. These were general topics and were related to the lessons. The last three tasks were collaborative learning tasks and the topics were *Ideal School*, *Interview* and *Picture Dialogue* (see Appendix B). These topics were related to the lessons from the 411-205 summer course. Eighty minutes was given to complete each task.

Task 1 Sea Trip. Task one was an information gap task. The objective of the task was for learners to make a decision together what items they would like to bring to their trip to the sea. They had to choose items that were in the task sheets only. Before doing the task, each learner was given a task sheet. There were two different task sheets: task sheet A and task sheet B. The task sheets consisted of four

separate items. Two members of the same group had task sheets A while the other two had task sheets B. Each group was asked to choose only four items out of the combined eight items. Before they could make a decision; however, they were asked to identify what items they had in their sheets. Once they understood what items each member had possessed then they were able to choose the items. Learners were also given useful expressions for giving and asking for opinions.

Task 2 New Year presents. Task two was an information gap task and was essentially the same as task one. The objective of this task is also similar to Task one, but in this task students have to make a decision what items they would like to buy for three different teachers based on the items given in the worksheet. What is more, in this task each group member is given a different task sheet (task sheets A, B, C, and D). Each task sheet consisted of two separate items. Learners were asked to identify the items each member had on the task sheet. Later, they had to choose together three items out of the combined eight items, which ones to give to each teacher.

Task 3 Cast Away. Task three was a survival game but also had elements of an information gap task. The objective of the task was for students to rank the importance of items that were necessary for survival on the moon. Similar to task two, there were four different task sheets; task sheet A, B, C and D. The items in each task sheet were different. Learners needed to identify all the items before they could complete the task.

Task 4 Ideal School. Task four is a collaborative learning task. The objective of the task is for learners to use their knowledge of vocabulary about school and education they had learned from class. Learners were asked in groups to come up with characteristics of their ideal school. They were given a situation where they had

to think of the best school in order to win funding to build their ideal school. They had to make decisions on the location of the school, the courses provided, the facilities, the rules and extra curricular activities for their school.

Task 5 Interview. Task five was a collaborative learning task. The objective of the task was for learners to apply their knowledge of interview questions. They were asked to interview, who played a role of a foreign visitor. Learners were then asked to switch roles, first as a visitor and later as an interviewer. As interviewers, they had to write up at least four questions to ask their group members. They were expected to be familiar with the types of questions to ask and how to respond. This was because they had already read a short interview from lesson 30 living abroad, about a refugee who has recently migrated to Ireland. As visitors, they were then had to think of a new identity for themselves. They had to pretend they were visiting Thailand and had to answer the interview questions their friends had prepared.

Task 6 Picture Dialogue. The final task was a collaborative task. The objective of the task was for learners to write a dialogue for three pictures. Each learner was given three identical pictures. The first picture was a picture of two women talking in a park. The second was a picture of a group of people at a dinner table. The third was a picture of two people talking to each other. Learners were expected to be familiar with this kind of task, as they had already gone through the lesson 18 about describing peoples' personalities. Moreover, they had learned directed and reported speech so they were also expected to be able to complete the task. In the dialogue, they had to think of names of the people in the pictures and what each person was saying.

2.2 Questionnaire

The following is the description of the questionnaire and the development of the questionnaire used in the study. The objective of the questionnaire was to elicit learners' opinions towards using SCMC in practicing English. The questionnaire was presented in open-ended questions and five-ratio likert scale items. Details of the development and description of the questionnaire are described below.

2.2.1 Development of a questionnaire

The development of contents in the questionnaire can be described in two fold. First, the questionnaire previously designed by Kern (1995) which studied participants' opinions towards using SCMC for language practice was studied. Kern used a Likert-scale with 32 items to elicit their opinions. Second, variables that would help determine the effectiveness of using SCMC were reviewed. These variables were drawn from Freiermuth (2002) and Beaty (2003). The variables were mainly 1) the chat software, 2) the activity and 3) computer literacy.

Accordingly, the contents of the questionnaire concurred with these two findings, and were developed. The questionnaire was separated into 6 sections: 1) general background, 2) opinions towards the chat website, 3) opinion towards the chat activities, 4) opinions towards chat and learning English, 5) opinion towards chat and computer applications, 6) opinion towards advantages and disadvantages of using chat.

To test its validity, the initial version of the questionnaire was read by three experts (see Appendix C). Consequently, the wording of 14 items from the first draft of the questionnaire was adapted to make them clearer and eliminate any ambiguity. The instruction of the questionnaire was also made clearer by giving description of each section of the questionnaire. A sample of how to do the

questionnaire was also added before section two of the questionnaire. The two components of the questionnaire adapted were the instructions and wording. Below are details of the adaptation.

1. *Instructions.* The first draft of the questionnaire immediately asked respondents to complete the first section of the questionnaire—general background information. There was no description of the purpose, the sections, or request to answer all the items. Thus, these were added at the beginning of the first page. In addition, a sample of how to complete the Likert-scale items in sections two to five was presented before section two.

2. *Wording.* According to the experts, the wording of the statements of some items in sections two to five was not explicit, had a negative tone or did not use appropriate vocabulary. Therefore, the wording of those items had to be changed to make them clearer and to use more appropriate wording.

2.1 *Appropriate vocabulary.* Firstly, The word “ฉันท” in all the items were changed to “ข้าพเจ้า”. Secondly, the word “เวลาเช็ด” was changed to “ในขณะที่เช็ด”. The changes were made on all the items for consistency and reliability.

2.2 *Inexplicit wording.* Some items were inexplicit and could thus cause confusion to the respondents. Consequently, these items had to be edited. See Figure 6 for sample from section 2 of the questionnaire.

Section 2 Opinions towards the website	
<i>Original statement</i>	Item 5 การสรุปผลหลังจากการเช็ดมีประโยชน์สำหรับฉัน
<i>Edited statement</i>	Item 5 การสรุปผลหลังจากการเช็ดทำให้ข้าพเจ้าประเมินการมีส่วนร่วมในการเช็ดได้

Figure 6 Sample of changes of inexplicit wording and its correction

2.3 *Negative tone.* Some items had a negative tone and could thus influence respondents' choice. As a result, these items had to be edited. (See Figure 7).

Section 3 Opinion towards the chat activities	
<i>Original statement</i>	Item 1 สมาชิกสี่คนต่อกลุ่มนั้นมากเกินไป
<i>Edited statement</i>	Item 1 จำนวนสมาชิกสี่คนต่อกลุ่มนั้นมีความเหมาะสม
<i>Original statement</i>	Item 3 เวลาในการแชตหนึ่งครั้ง (60 นาที) น้อยเกินไป
<i>Edited statement</i>	Item 3 เวลาในการแชตหนึ่งครั้ง (60 นาที) มีความเหมาะสม

Figure 7 Sample of changes of negative tone and its correction

The questionnaire was adapted according to the suggestions above and used to collect data (see Appendix D).

2.2.2 Description of questionnaire

The purpose of the questionnaire was to elicit participants' opinions towards using SCMC in practicing English. The questionnaire comprised of six sections: 1) general background, 2) opinions towards the website, 3) opinion towards the chat activities, 4) opinions towards chat and learning English, 5) opinion towards chat and computer applications, 6) opinion towards the advantages and disadvantages of using chat.

1. *General background.* This section elicits information about the learners' biological and educational background. It also provides information of learners' experience with using chat.

2. *Opinions towards the website.* This section of the questionnaire elicits learners' opinions towards the L.E.C.S website. This section

contained five Likert-scale items. The items included opinions towards the feasibility of the website and its content.

3. *Opinion towards the chat activities.* This section elicited learners' opinions towards the chat activities. This section consisted of 9 Likert-scale items. The content included opinions towards 1) grouping 2) anonymity of identity 3) time limit 4) frequency of the activity 5) the clarity of the instructions and 6) the interest in the activities.

4. *Opinions towards chat and learning English.* This section elicited learners' opinions towards chat and learning English. Many of the items were adapted from Kern (1995). This section included 17 items. It included the most items since it contained the most topics. The items included opinions towards chat and its connection to 1) learning English 2) developing vocabulary, grammar, writing and reading skills and 3) negotiation for meaning and form.

5. *Opinion towards chat and computer applications.* This section elicited learners' opinions towards chat and computer literacy. There were 5 Likert-scale items. The content included 1) typing skills and 2) computer skills. One item asked for learners' preference between chat and their typical self-access center activities.

6. *Opinion towards the advantages and disadvantages of using chat.* This section was designed to elicit deeper insight to learners' opinions the benefits and doubts towards using chat to learn English. The content included 4 open-ended questions. The items include 1) learners' opinions towards benefits of using SCMC in practicing English, 2) learners' opinions towards problems using SCMC in practicing English, 3) learners' opinions towards improvements on using

SCMC in practicing English, and 4) learners' other comments towards using SCMC in practicing English.

To test its reliability, the adapted version of the questionnaire was revised and administered with a sample group of approximately 30 subjects who were similar to the sample group in the study. The obtained data was analyzed for the reliability of the questionnaire using Cronbach coefficient alpha. The SPSS program was used to calculate its reliability. The calculation revealed a reliability score of 0.81.

3. Data collection

In each session, learners were randomly separated into groups of four or less. It had been suggested that a small group of four or less is enough for discussion in SCMC (Freiermuth, 2002). This is because the less number of participants the higher opportunity for participation. The identity of members in each group was hidden. Not knowing each others identity has been claimed to decrease the anxiety level because the threat of embarrassment had vanished (Warschauer, 1996). Therefore, in each session learners were put in different groups, and at the same time had no knowledge of the identity of the members in their group.

The data was collected in the summer semester of the academic year 2003 at Khon Kaen University. The participants met online once a week for a total of six weeks. Each session was done outside class and lasted 80 minutes. Before beginning each task, students were separated into groups of four by picking a piece of paper, which had the group number on it. With 32 participants, there were a total of 8 groups. The group members were reselected before each task. Each group had members with similar but not exact English language abilities. Therefore, each group was identical in terms of language ability but not identical in terms of exact

proficiency. This, however, did not affect the results since the study did not aim to compare results between groups.

Before performing the tasks, learners were given two weeks to complete a typing tutor course on CD. In addition, two sessions were devoted to train the use of the computer and the L.E.C.S website. L.E.C.S is free chat software designed for language teaching. It was developed in 1999 by Tomohiro Yasuda and Taoka Harada. Teachers are able access the software by registering at <http://home.kanto-gakuin.ac.jp/~taoka/lecs/>. L.E.C.S, once registered, becomes a private chat; teachers can allow only their students to access the chat-rooms. The software is also selected for this study because 1) it is able to create as many chat groups desired, 2) it is easy to use even for novices, 3) it does not require a powerful computer to operate, 4) it automatically saves the transcripts of the conversation after each session, 5) the program calculates the percentage of turns each member contributes in one session and the average of number of words per turns in one session, and 6) the word frequency is also recorded. The teacher or student, thus, is able to check what words are used most frequently, and can refer to that original utterance if they wanted to read what they have said.

After the training, all participants knew how to operate the website. Next, participants performed the tasks prepared by the researcher. The researcher was online during those sessions in order to provide learners with assistance.

After each session, the transcripts from learners' conversations were saved on the chat software. The data consisted of six eighty-minute transcripts per group. There were 8 groups thus made 48 transcripts altogether. These transcripts were then coded according to the categories from the SCMC negotiation routine suggested by

Smith (2003). Figure 8 below is the negotiation features suggested by Smith (2003) and used for analysis in this study.

Trigger (T)	Signal (S)	Response (R)	Reaction to Response (RR)	Confirmation (C)	Reconfirmation (RC)
Lexical	Global	Minimal	Minimal	Simple confirmation	
Syntactic	Local	Repetition	Repeating the	Comprehension	
Discourse	Inferential	with lexical modification	trigger with no modification	check	
Content		Rephrasing	Metalinguistic talk		
			Testing deductions		
			Task appropriate response		

Figure 8 SCMC Negotiation Routine proposed by Smith 2003

After the end of the sixth session, which was the last, participants were asked to fill out the opinion questionnaire.

4. Data analysis

In order to answer the first research question, *what are the negotiation features used to negotiate for meaning and for form?* Transcripts from each session are coded for their negotiation features. First, the transcripts from the conversations were broken down into idea units. Idea units are utterances that represent a single idea. They can be in a form of a single utterance, phrase, clause or sentence (Pereira, 1991). The researcher was trained by an expert to identify idea units from transcripts (Appendix, C). See Figure 9 and Figure 10 for idea units and their negotiation features

Excerpt 1 Taken from group 3 of task one		
S1	We should take some sunglasses	(Lexical Trigger)
S3	OK, and a Sunscreen	(Lexical Trigger)
S1	OK	
S3	Do you agree?	
S2	What does Sunglasses and Sunsgreen mean?	(Local signal)
S1	It is something you wear to protect your eyes from the sun.	(Rephrasing)

Figure 9 Samples of SCMC idea units and their negotiation features

Excerpt 2 Taken from group 2 of task two		
S1	a biacelet	
S1	I mean a bracelet	(Lexical Trigger)
S2	I think I'll buy a towel for the Art teacher.	
S2	What does a bracelet mean?	(Local signal)
S1	สร้อยข้อมือ mean.	(L1 response)

Figure 10 Samples of SCMC idea units and their negotiation features

Each utterance by each student was considered one idea unit. Therefore, in excerpt one there were six idea units and in excerpt two there were five idea units.

After the dialogue was broken down into idea units, they were assigned to their negotiation feature category. The negotiation features were as follows:

Trigger is a message or part of a message that creates the problem of understanding, which is subcategorized into the following (see Appendix A2, excerpt 1 and 3)

Lexical Triggers are problematic lexical items.

Syntactic Triggers are problematic structural or grammatical items.

Discourse Triggers are general coherence of the conversation. For example, a speaker is unable to identify the reference of a pronoun during interaction.

Content Triggers are problems that cannot be related to the previous triggers.

Signal or Indicator is an explicit or implicit indication that there is a problem with understanding the previous utterance or some parts of the previous utterance. Clarification requests and comprehension checks are examples of explicit indicators. It is subcategorized into the following

Global strategies are indicators that do not specify the problem e.g. What?, and I don't understand.

Local strategies are indicators that specify the problem or trigger e.g. What does *wrench* mean? This could also include confirmation checks e.g. Did you mean *drums*?

Interential strategies are guesses or hypothesis about the trigger e.g. Okay, so that means he is tired.

Response is a reply to the signal. It is subcategorized into the following (see Appendix A2, excerpt 1-8)

First language is a response to a signal in the first language.

Minimal response is a short reply with no elaboration such as “yes” or “no”.

Repeating the trigger with no modification is repeating the problematic lexical item or the syntactic structure exactly as it was.

Repeating the trigger with lexical modifications, but without addressing the fundamental problem signaled in the indicator phase

Rephrasing is explaining the lexical item, or elaborating the previous discourse such as paraphrasing.

Reaction to response is a feedback to the response phase to acknowledge the understanding of the trigger and a signal to the initiator that he/she is ready to return to the conversation. However, reaction to response can be positive or negative. If positive, it can end the routine. If negative, it can act as another indicator. However, this phase has been seen as optional in prior studies. It is subcategorized into the following.

Minimal response is a short reply to the response, such as, “Yes”, “Okay”

Metalinguistic reactions comments on what the problem had been, such as “So I should say claim not argue.”

Task appropriate is an implicit reaction to response where the learner utters implicitly to show understanding of the previous discourse (see Appendix A2, excerpt 3).

Testing deduction is an implicit reaction to response that is similar to inferential signals where learners try to guess the meaning of the trigger. Testing deductions occur when learners try to test his/ her understanding (see Appendix A2, excerpt 2).

Confirmation is a response to task appropriate or testing deductions. It either confirms or disconfirms the degree of understanding based on the reaction to response. Its subcategories can be the following (see Appendix A2, excerpt, .4,5,6, and 7)

Simple confirmation is a minimal response that confirms that the testing deduction or task appropriate is correct e.g. that’s right!, ok, Good. It can also take form of a praise e.g. Great!, Good job! (see Appendix A2, excerpt 4 and 5)

Reaffirmation provides additional information as a response. This is to make sure the trigger is understood (see Appendix A2, excerpt 6 and 7).

Confirmation check is a question to confirm whether the trigger is understood e.g. do you understand? got it? (See Appendix A2, excerpt 8)

Reconfirmation is optional and follows the confirmation phase. It is essentially the same as a positive (minimal) reaction to response such as ok, good, right or yes. If it follows a praise it can be a response such as thank you

Once the written utterances had been assigned to its negotiation feature, each category was counted for its frequency and its percentage according to the following form (see Figure 11).

No	Negotiation Features	Frequency (idea units)	Percentage
1	Triggers (T) Lexical Syntactic Discourse Content		
2	Signals or Indicators (I) Global Local Inferential		
3	Responses (R) First language Minimal responses Repeating the trigger with no modification Repetition with lexical modification Rephrasing		
4	Reaction to responses (RR) Minimal Metalinguistic talk Testing deductions Task appropriate response		
5	Confirmation(C) Simple confirmation Reaffirmation Comprehension check		
6	Reconfirmation (RC)		

Figure 11 Form for analyzing features of negotiation for meaning and form

In order to evaluate the reliability with which the data were categorized, the data was tested for its intra-rater reliability. Ten percent of the transcripts—five transcripts—were randomly selected for the test. The results revealed a reliability score of 96.67. Inter-rater reliability was also measured to confirm consistency when the data is analyzed by another analysis. First, the researcher trained a co-rater (see Appendix C) how to analyze the transcripts. Next, ten percent of the transcripts—five transcripts—were randomly selected for the test. Then the co-rater and the researcher analyzed the same sample of transcripts. The results showed an inter-rater reliability score of 88.17.

To answer the second question, *what are the students' opinions towards using Synchronous Computer-mediated Communication (SCMC)?* The mean score (\bar{x}) of each item on the questionnaire is calculated to determine opinions of participants in average. The standard deviation (S.D.) of each item is calculated to determine the range of its mean score.

The data from section 1 of the questionnaire, biological and educational background, were analyzed for frequency and percentage. The data from sections 2-5, opinions towards chat website, chat and learning English, and chat activities, and chat and computer application, were analyzed for mean (\bar{x}) and standard deviation (S.D.). The mean of each item is interpreted using the following ranges.

4.50 – 5.00	=	Students agree with the statement at the highest level
3.50 – 4.49	=	Students agree with the statement at a high level
2.50 – 3.49	=	Students agree with the statement at a moderate level
1.50 – 2.49	=	Students disagree with the statement at a high level
1.00 – 1.49	=	Students disagree with the statement at the highest level

The open-ended from section 6 of the questionnaire were summarized and presented in frequency and percentage according to the four items in the section including 1) learners' opinions towards benefits of using SCMC in practicing English, 2) learners' opinions towards problems using SCMC in practicing English, 3) learners' opinions towards improvements on using SCMC in practicing English, and 4) learners' other comments towards using SCMC in practicing English.



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CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter shows the results of the study. This chapter describes the features of negotiation for meaning and form by type and by task found in the tasks and results from the questionnaire.

1. Features of negotiation by types

The overall picture of the frequency, which is counted by idea units and percentage of negotiation features found in this study are illustrated in Table 1 below. Tables 2 to 7 illustrate the frequency and percentage of negotiation features found in each subcategory of the negotiation features.

Table 1 Frequency and percentage of negotiation features

Negotiation Features	Frequency	Percentage
1. Trigger	96	27.75
2. Signal	125	36.13
3. Response	94	27.17
4. Reaction to response	23	6.65
5. Confirmation	7	2.02
6. Reconfirmation	1	0.29
Total	346	100

According to Table 1, a total of 346 negotiation features appeared. The negotiation feature that appeared most frequently was the Signal, 125 signals (36.13 %) of all negotiation features found in the study. The second and third features appeared most frequently were the Trigger, 96 triggers (27.75%) and the Response, 94 responses (27.17%). The negotiation feature that was used least frequently was the Reconfirmation 1 idea unit (0.29 %).

Table 2 Frequency and percentage of types of triggers of all tasks

Triggers (T)	Frequency	Percentage
1. Lexical	91	94.79
2. Syntax	0	0.00
3. Discourse	4	4.17
4. Content	1	1.04
Total	96	100

Table 2 shows that the type of Triggers that appeared most frequently was the Lexical trigger, 91 triggers (94.79%) of all Triggers found in the study. The second most feature that appeared was the Discourse Trigger, 4 times (4.17%) of all Triggers found. There was only 1 Content Trigger (1.04%) while the Syntax trigger was not apparent (0%).

Table 3 Frequency and percentage of types of signals of all tasks

Signals (S)	Frequency	Percentage
1. Global	7	5.6
2. Local	118	94.4
3. Inferential	0	0.00
Total	125	100

According to Table 3, Local Signals frequency dominated all types of signals found in the study, 118 signals (94.4%). There was a mere 7 Global Signals (5.6%) and no evidence of any Inferential Signals (0%).

Table 4 Frequency and percentage of responses of all tasks

Responses (R)	Frequency	Percentage
1. First Language	61	64.89
2. Minimal Responses	3	3.19
3. Repeating the Trigger with no Modification	0	0.00
4. Repetition with Lexical Modification	2	2.13
5. Rephrasing	28	29.79
Total	94	100

Table 4 reveals that the most common type of Response learners employed was the First Language response, 61 responses (64.89%). Rephrasing made up almost a third (29.79 %) of all Response types. There was a mere 3 (3.19%) of Minimal Responses and 2 (2.13%) of Repetition with Lexical Modification. There was no evidence of Repeating the Trigger with no Modification and.

Table 5 Frequency and percentage of types of reaction to response

Reaction to Response (RR)	Frequency	Percentage
1. Minimal	17	73.91
2. Metalinguistic Talk	0	0.00
3. Testing Deductions	1	4.35
4. Task Appropriate Response	5	21.74
Total	23	100

According to Table 5, the most frequent Reaction to Response was the Minimal, 17 Reaction to Responses (73.91%) of all Reaction to Responses. The second most frequent feature that found was the Task Appropriate Responses, 5 (21.74 %). There was no evidence of any Metalinguistic Talk and merely 1 (4.35%) Testing Deduction.

Table 6 Frequency and percentage of types of confirmation

Confirmation (C)	Frequency	Percentage
1. Simple Confirmation	1	14.29
2. Reaffirmation	0	0.00
3. Comprehension Check	6	85.71
Total	7	100

Table 6 reveals a total of merely 7 confirmations. Most of the confirmation type that appeared was the Comprehension Check, 6 (85.71%) of all confirmations found. There was only one instance of a simple confirmation (14.29 %) and no evidence of reaffirmation.

Table 7 Frequency and percentage of types of reconfirmation

Reconfirmation (C)	Frequency	Percentage
1. Reconfirmation	1	100
Total	1	100

According to Table 7, only one reconfirmation (100%) appeared.

2. Features of negotiation by tasks

This part demonstrates the frequency of negotiation features in accordance to all six tasks performed by learners. The overall picture of the frequency of negotiation features found with respect to its task is illustrated in Table 9 below. The frequency of subcategories of negotiation features in terms of its task is revealed in Tables 10 to 15. The percentage of each feature is calculated in respect to all six tasks.

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Table 8 Frequency and percentage of features of negotiation from six tasks

Negotiation features categories	Frequency by tasks (Percentage)						Total
	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Task 6	
1. Triggers	32 (33.33)	19 (19.79)	26 (27.08)	7 (7.29)	8 (8.33)	4 (4.17)	96 (100)
2. Signals	46 (36.8)	20 (16.0)	39 (31.2)	11 (8.8)	5 (4.0)	4 (3.2)	125 (100)
3. Responses	45 (47.87)	15 (15.96)	26 (27.66)	3 (3.19)	3 (3.19)	2 (2.13)	94 (100)
4. Reaction to responses	7 (30.43)	9 (39.13)	3 (13.04)	1 (4.35)	3 (13.04)	0 (0.0)	23 (100)
5. Confirmations	4 (57.14)	0 (0.0)	2 (28.57)	1 (14.29)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100)
6. Reconfirmation	1 (100)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (100)
Total	135 (39.02)	63 (18.21)	96 (27.75)	23 (6.65)	19 (5.49)	10 (2.89)	346 (100)

According to Table 8, six tasks elicited a total 346 features. Task 1 initiated the most number of negotiation features with a total 135 features followed by Task 3 with 96 features, and Task 2 with 63 features. Task 4, 5, and 6 stimulated a small amount of negotiation features with 23, 19, and 10 features, respectively.

Tasks 1, 3, and 2 were also able to initiate the highest frequency of Triggers, Signals, and Responses. Tasks 4, 5, and 6 were able to draw only a small amount of those categories with task 6 initiating the least features in all categories. Reaction to responses, Confirmations, and Reconfirmations appeared in a low frequency in all six tasks. However, overall they still appeared more in Tasks 1, 2, and 3 than in Tasks 4, 5 and, 6.

Table 9 Frequency and percentage of triggers from six tasks

Triggers (T)	Frequency (Percentage)						
	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Task 6	Total
Lexical	32 (35.16)	19 (20.88)	25 (27.47)	6 (6.59)	8 (8.78)	1 (1.10)	91 (100)
Syntactic	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Discourse	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (25)	0 (0.0)	3 (75)	4 (100)
Content	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (100)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (100)
Total	32 (33.33)	19 (19.79)	26 (27.08)	7 (7.29)	8 (8.33)	4 (4.17)	96 (100)

Table 9 reveals a total of 96 triggers. The lexical trigger occurs the most and is most frequent in tasks 1 (32 triggers), task 3 (26 triggers) and task 2 (19 triggers), respectively. Tasks 4, 5 and 6 show little occurrences of triggers, merely 7, 8 and 4 triggers respectively. There was no evidence of Syntactic triggers in any of the tasks.

Table 10 Frequency and percentage of signals from six tasks

Signals (S)	Frequency (Percentage)						
	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Task 6	Total
Global	2 (28.57)	1 (14.29)	0 (0.0)	3 (42.86)	0 (0.0)	1 (14.29)	7 (100)
Local	44 (37.29)	19 (16.10)	39 (33.05)	8 (6.78)	5 (4.24)	3 (2.54)	118 (100)
Inferential	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Total	46 (36.8)	20 (16)	39 (31.2)	11 (8.8)	5 (4.0)	4 (3.2)	125 (100)

According to Table 10, the total number of Signals is 125 signals. Tasks 1 and 3 demonstrate the highest frequency of Signals, particularly local signals, 44 and 39 signals respectively. Tasks 5 and 6 reveal a very low number of signals, 5 and 4 signals respectively.

Table 11 Frequency and percentage of responses from six tasks

Responses (R)	Frequency (Percentage)						Total
	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Task 6	
First Language	24 (39.34)	11 (18.03)	21 (34.43)	1 (1.64)	3 (4.92)	1 (1.64)	61 100
Minimal responses	2 (66.7)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (33.3)	3 (100)
Repeating the trigger with no modification	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Repetition with lexical modification	2 (100)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (100)
Rephrasing	17 (60.71)	4 (14.29)	5 (17.86)	2 (7.14)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	28 (100)
Total	45 (47.87)	15 (15.96)	26 (27.66)	3 (3.19)	3 (3.19)	2 (2.13)	94 (100)

Table 11 shows a total of 94 Responses. The highest frequency of Responses is in task 1 (45 responses) followed by tasks 3 (26 responses) and 2 (15 responses). Tasks 4, 5 and 6 show a very low frequency of responses, merely 3, 3 and 2 responses respectively. Task 1 demonstrates highest frequency especially in first language and rephrasing response types. There was no evidence of repeating trigger with no modification in all tasks.

Table 12 Frequency and percentage of reaction to responses from six tasks

Reaction to responses (RR)	Frequency (Percentage)						Total
	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Task 6	
Minimal	4 (23.53)	8 (47.06)	3 (17.65)	1 (5.88)	1 (5.88)	0 (0.0)	17 (100)
Metalinguistic talk	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Testing deduction	1 (100)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (100)
Task appropriate responses	2 (40)	1 (20)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (40)	0 (0.0)	5 (100)
Total	7 (30.43)	9 (39.13)	3 (13.04)	1 (43.48)	3 (13.04)	0 (0.0)	23 (100)

Table 12 reveals a total of 23 reaction to responses. The highest frequency of reaction to responses is in task 2 (8 reaction to responses) followed by task 1 (7 reaction to responses). The lowest frequency of reaction of responses is in task 6 (0 reaction to responses).

Table 13 Frequency and percentage of confirmation from six tasks

Confirmation (C)	Frequency (Percentage)						Total
	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Task 6	
Simple confirmation	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
Reaffirmation	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (100)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (100)
Comprehension check	4 (66.7)	0 (0.0)	2 (33.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	6 (100)
Total	4 (57.14)	0 (0.0)	2 (28.57)	1 (14.29)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	7 (100)

According to Table 13, a total of 7 Confirmations appeared. Although there is a low frequency of confirmation in total, it did occur most in task 1 (4 confirmations). Comprehension check was the confirmation type that appeared most (6

confirmations). Reaffirmation occurred only once in task 4 while there was no evidence of simple confirmation in all tasks.

Table 14 Frequency and percentage of reconfirmation from six tasks

Reconfirmation (R)	Frequency (Percentage)						Total
	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Task 6	
Reconfirmation	1 (100)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (100)
Total	1 (100)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (100)

Table 14 reveals that there was only 1 occurrence of reconfirmation and that it appeared only in task 1. Other tasks revealed no evidence of reconfirmation.

3. Results from the questionnaire

The results from the questionnaire can be summarized as follows.

3.1 Description of learners' background

Following are the results of the first section of the questionnaire. The purpose of this section was to collect information about learners' background including year of study, major, gender, age, and chat experience.

Table 15 Frequency and percentage of types of learners' background description

Description of learners' background	Frequency (percentage)
1. Year of study	
Forth year	10 (31.3)
Third year	10 (31.3)
Second year	10 (31.3)
First year	2 (6.3)
2. Major	
Architecture	1 (3.1)
Education	16 (50)
Fine Arts	14 (43.8)
Management Science	1 (3.1)
3. Gender	
Male	24 (75)
Female	8 (25)
4. Age	
23-24	8 (26)
21-22	12 (37.6)
19-20	10 (31.2)
Na	2 (6.3)
5. Chat experience	
No experience	7 (21.9)
Prior experience	7 (21.9)
Chat in English	4 (12.5)
Chat in Thai	13 (40.6)
Chat in other languages	1 (3.1)
	N=32 (100%)

Table 15 shows a total of 32 participants. According to learners' year of study, ten learners were studying in the second year, ten in the third year, ten in the fourth year, and two in the first year. Most learners majored in Education (16) and Fine Arts (14). There was only one learner, who majored in Management Science and one learner, who majored in Architecture. There was a higher number of males (24) than females (8). The largest proportion of learners was 21-22 years old (12), followed by learners, who were 19-20 years old (10) and 23-24 years old (8). Two participants did not reveal their age. Most learners had experience chatting in Thai (13), followed by prior experience (7), no experience (7), experience chatting in English (4), and experience chatting in other language (1).

3.2 Mean and standard deviation of learners' responses

Table 16 to 19 shows results to sections 2 to 5 of the questionnaire i.e. learners' opinions towards the chat software, learners' opinions towards the chat activity, learners' opinions towards chat and language learning, and learners opinions towards chat and computer applications. In each section, the responses to the items were calculated for their mean score (\bar{x}) and standard deviation (S.D.). Notable scores from each section are described under its table.

Table 16 Mean and standard deviation of learners' opinions towards the chat software

No.	Statements	\bar{x}	S.D.
1	The chat website (L.E.C.S) was easy to log on	4.22	0.87
2	The procedure to log into a chat room was too complicated	2.81	1.26
3	That the messages I send to my peers slightly delay bothers me	3.56	1.22
4	Using different letter colors was better than using the same colors.	4.59	0.91
5	The chat results helped me evaluate my performance	4.22	0.91

According to Table 16, learners agreed at the highest level that the use of different letter colors was proven beneficial ($\bar{x}=4.59$). They agreed that the software was feasible ($\bar{x}=4.22$), viewing chat results after chatting was helpful ($\bar{x}=4.22$), and that the delay of messages was annoying ($\bar{x}=3.56$) at a high level. Last, learners agreed at a moderate level that the software was not complicated to use ($\bar{x}=2.81$).

Table 17 Mean and standard deviation of learners' opinions towards the chat activity

No.	Statements	\bar{x}	S.D.
1	Four members in each group was an appropriate number	4.22	0.97
2	I could not effectively follow the conversations during chat	3.00	1.11
3	Rotating members between tasks was appropriate	3.91	0.93
4	I feel comfortable expressing opinions when the identity of members are hidden	4.16	0.85
5	80 minutes is an appropriate length of time to complete the task	4.03	1.03
6	One chat session per week is enough	3.31	1.35
7	The task instructions were clear	3.75	1.02
8	The tasks were too difficult	2.59	1.01
9	Each task was interesting	4.16	0.85

Table 17 shows learners' opinions towards the tasks used in the chat sessions. Results in general revealed positive opinions towards the tasks used at a high level. Learners showed optimism especially towards appropriateness of four members in a group ($\bar{x}=4.22$) and not knowing each other's identity while chatting ($\bar{x}=4.16$). Results also revealed that learners agreed at a high level that the activities used were interesting ($\bar{x}=4.16$) and that 80 minutes was appropriate for completing the tasks ($\bar{x}=4.03$). Learners also agreed at a high level that rotating members between tasks was appropriate ($\bar{x}=3.91$), and tasks instructions were clear ($\bar{x}=3.75$). Learners agreed at a moderate level that one session per week was enough ($\bar{x}=3.31$),

they could not follow the conversations ($\bar{x}=3.00$) and that the tasks were too difficult ($\bar{x}=2.59$).

Table 18 Mean and standard deviation of learners' opinions towards chat and language learning

No	Statements	\bar{x}	S.D.
1	Chatting was a positive addition to learning English	4.72	0.46
2	Chatting with peers to practice English was a fun experience	4.63	0.61
3	I feel that chatting on the computers with peers helped me improve my English	4.44	0.76
4	I use more English in chat than in the regular classroom	4.19	0.74
5	I feel more confident to use English when chatting than in the classroom.	3.91	1.00
6	I learned new vocabulary from my friends' messages when chatting	4.13	0.79
7	I applied the vocabulary learned in class to use during chat	4.38	0.71
8	I asked my peers and teacher for vocabulary assistance when I were stuck.	3.91	1.06
9	I asked my peers and teacher for assistance with English sentences and phrases when I got stuck	3.69	1.15
10	When I did not understand the messages that my peers sent I asked the person next to me and the teacher.	4.13	2.38
11	My peers helped correct me when I made English mistakes during chat	3.19	1.49
12	I feel that my grammar has improved	4.06	0.91
13	I did not care whether the messages I sent were grammatically correct or not	3.59	1.21
14	I feel that chatting with peers on the computer helped improve my writing skills	4.25	0.72

Table 18 Mean and standard deviation of learners' opinions towards chat and language learning (continued)

15	I pay attention to spelling while chatting	4.00	1.11
16	I feel that chatting with peers on the computer helped improve my reading skills	4.35	0.80
17	I feel that chatting with peers on the computer helped me read more fluently	4.28	0.77

Table 18 shows learners opinions towards the connection between chat and learning English. All items revealed learners positive opinion towards chat and learning English. Items 1 and 2 revealed that learners agreed at the highest level that chatting was a positive addition to learning English and that chatting with peers was a fun experience ($\bar{x}=4.72$ and $\bar{x}=4.63$ respectively).

Learners agreed at a high level that chatting on the computer helped improved their English ($\bar{x}=4.44$) and that they applied the vocabulary learned in class to use during chat ($\bar{x}=4.38$). They also agreed a high level that they felt chatting with peers on the computer helped improve their reading skills ($\bar{x}=4.35$), and that chatting with peers on the computer helped them read more fluently ($\bar{x}=4.28$). Furthermore, they agreed at a high level that they felt chat improved their writing ($\bar{x}=4.25$), when they did not understand the messages sent they asked the person next to them and the teacher ($\bar{x}=4.13$), and that they learned new vocabulary from their friends' messages when chatting ($\bar{x}=4.13$). In addition, they agreed at a high level that they used more English in chat than in the regular classroom ($\bar{x}=4.19$), and paid attention to spelling while chatting ($\bar{x}=4.00$). They also agreed that they asked their peers and teacher for vocabulary assistance when they were stuck

($\bar{x}=3.91$), and felt more confident to use English when chatting than in the classroom ($\bar{x}=3.91$) at a high level. Furthermore, learners agreed at a high level that they asked for peers and teacher's assistance when they got stuck with sentences and phrases ($\bar{x}=3.69$), but did not care whether the messages sent were grammatically correct or not ($\bar{x}=3.59$). Finally, learners agreed at a moderate level that their peers assisted them when they did not use English correctly ($\bar{x}=3.19$).

Table 19 Mean and standard deviation of learners' opinions towards chat and computer applications

No	Statements	\bar{x}	S.D.
1	Typing practice before chatting sessions began was beneficial	4.56	0.72
2	I feel that chat helped improve my typing skills	4.44	0.62
3	High computer skills are necessary in order to chat	3.90	1.23
4	Good computer skills were necessary for active participation in discussions	4.00	1.14
5	I prefer chat to doing activities at the SAC	4.25	0.84

Table 19 shows learners' opinions towards chat and computer applications. Accordingly, learners agreed at a highest level that typing practice before the chatting sessions was beneficial ($\bar{x}=4.56$). They agreed at a high level that chat helped improve their typing skills ($\bar{x}=4.44$), chat was a better exercise than using the self-access center ($\bar{x}=4.25$). Furthermore, they also agreed at a high level that good computer skills were important for participating in chat conversations ($\bar{x}=4.00$), and high computer skills was necessary for chat ($\bar{x}=3.90$).

3.3 Open-ended response.

The open-ended response section of the questionnaire consisted of four items namely, benefits, problems, things to improve, and other comments. The responses of each item are summarized below.

3.3.1 Learners' opinions towards benefits of SCMC in practicing

English

Out of 32 learners, five did not give opinions towards the benefits of chatting. The remaining 27 learners' opinions towards the benefits of chat can be summarized as follows.

Table 20 Frequency and percentage of learners' opinions towards benefits of using SCMC in practicing English

Benefits of SCMC in practicing English	Frequency	Percentage
Communication practice	9	30
Learn and use new vocabulary	7	23.33
Develop typing skills	6	20
Develop grammar	5	16.67
Develop reading and writing skills	3	10
Total	30	100

Table 20 reveals that nine learners (30%) expressed that chat gave them an opportunity to communicate and use English. Seven learners (23.33%) clearly stated benefits of learning new vocabulary and making use of the ones learned in class. Six learners (20%) explicitly stated that chat helped improve their English typing skills.

Five learners (16.67%) stated that chat benefited learning grammar. Three learners (10%) explicitly expressed that chat helped them with reading and writing in English.

3.3.2 Learners' opinions towards problems using SCMC in practicing English

Out of 32 learners, four did not express their opinions towards problems in using chat. The remaining 28 learners' opinions can be summarized as follows.

Table 21 Frequency and percentage of learners' opinions towards problems using SCMC in practicing English

Problems using SCMC in practicing English	Frequency	Percentage
Grammatical	7	29.93
Spelling	6	22.22
Vocabulary	6	22.22
Typing and computers	6	22.22
Instructions	2	7.04
Total	27	100

According to Table 21, seven learners (29.93%) stated that grammatical knowledge caused a problem for them when chatting. Six learners (22.22%) stated that spelling as a problem when chatting. Six learners (22.22%) mentioned that vocabulary knowledge was a problem for them when chatting. Six learners (22.22%) stated that typing and computers skill and computer processes as problems when chatting. Two participants (7.04%) stated that they had trouble understanding the instructions.

3.3.3 Learners' opinions towards improvements on using SCMC in practicing English

Out of 32 learners, 11 did not give opinion on the improvement of the chat activity. The remaining learners' responses can be summarized in Table 22 as follows.

Table 22 Frequency and percentage of learners' opinions towards improvements on using SCMC in practicing English

Improvements using SCMC in practicing English	Frequency	Percentage
I. Improvements for learners		
a) Language skills	7	35
II. Improvements on the activity		
a) Computer	5	25
b) Increase time limit	4	20
c) Improve task topics	3	15
d) Instruction	1	5
Total	20	100

According to Table 22, seven comments (35%) were made about improvements related to language skills. The following suggestions were made on the activity and learners' own improvements. Five comments (25%) were made about improvements related to computers. Four learners (20%) indicated that they need more time allocated to complete the chat activity. Finally, three learners (15%) stated that task topics and its instructions needed improvement.

3.3.4 Learners' other comments towards using SCMC in practicing English

There were 11 responses out of 32 responses on this item. The comments were mainly positive and indicated that participants' enjoyment of the chat activity, that it should continually be developed and used with students in the future. Two learners also expressed improvements on language and delay of messages.



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CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a summary of the study, give a discussion and conclusion of results, provide pedagogical implications, and give suggestions for future research.

1. Summary of the study

1.1 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study on An Analysis of Features of Negotiation for meaning and form of Khon Kaen University Students were

2. To analyze the features of negotiation for meaning and form during SCMC interaction among students by types and tasks.
3. To study the opinions of students after using SCMC in practicing English.

1.2 Participants

The participants comprised 32 students: 16 Education students, 14 Fine Art students, one Architecture student and one Management Science student. Purposive sampling was used to select one from four sections of students in five faculties that were required to take the English for Humanities and Social Sciences summer course.

1.3 Research instruments

The instruments used in this research composed of 1) six tasks: tasks one to three were information gap tasks and tasks four to six were collaborative tasks via the Language Educational Chat System (L.E.C.S), and 2) a questionnaire to elicit

participants' opinions after using SCMC to learn English. The questionnaire comprised five-ratio likert-scales items and open-ended questions.

1.4 Data collection

Participants were asked to perform the six tasks via the L.E.C.S. Tasks were given once a week and participants were divided into groups of four or less before each session. The time allocation for each session was 80 minutes. After they had completed the sixth task, they were asked to complete the questionnaire.

1.5 Data Analysis

The obtained data composed of two types. The first type were transcripts from participants' performance of the six tasks. Transcripts from each session were broken down into idea units and coded to their negotiation feature category and subcategory. Each category was calculated for the frequency and percentage by type and task. The second type of data was participants' response from the developed questionnaire. Responses from the likert-scale items were calculated for mean score (\bar{x}) and standard deviation (S.D.). Open-ended responses were calculated for their frequency and percentage.

2. Summary of results

2.1 The negotiation feature for meaning that appeared most frequently was Signals, Triggers, and Responses respectively. The subcategories that appeared most were the Local Signal, Lexical Trigger, and First Language Response, respectively, which were lexical items. Tasks one, two and three, which were information gap tasks were able to draw a high frequency of features of negotiation for meaning. In contrast, tasks four, five, and six, which were collaborative tasks drew a low

frequency of negotiation for meaning features. Both tasks, however, were unsuccessful in drawing features of negotiation for form.

2.2 Learners' opinions towards using SCMC for practicing English were mainly positive. Mean score from likert-scale items revealed mainly positive opinions towards the chat software except for delay of messages. Mean score also revealed positive opinions towards chat activity, chat and language learning, and chat and computer applications. Frequency and percentage of open-ended questions revealed learners opinions towards benefits highest in communication practice and vocabulary use; problems highest in grammar, spelling, vocabulary, and typing; and improvements highest on language skills, computers, the delay of messages, time limit extension, and task topics. Other comments revealed the SCMC activity should continue and improvements on learners' language.

4. Discussion of results

In this part, the features of negotiation and participants' opinions towards using SCMC in practicing English will be discussed.

3.1 Features of negotiation

The features of negotiation that will be discussed are the features of negotiation for meaning and form.

3.1.1 Features of negotiation for meaning

Features of negotiation for meaning can be discussed under two important topics; the quantity of negotiation features for meaning by types, and quantity of negotiation for meaning features by task.

3.1.1.1 Quantity of negotiation features for meaning by types

The main objective of this study was to determine what kinds of negotiation features for meaning and form would be produced when learners interact via SCMC. Results revealed the use of all types of negotiation for meaning features but in different quantity.

In the overall picture, the feature that appeared most was the Signal such as “What does “towel” mean?”, “What is VCR?” This is not surprising because the Signal is considered a very necessary step in the negotiation routine and cannot be omitted (Varonis and Gass, 1994). It indicates a communication breakdown when two or more people are in a conversation. However, we will later look into Signal’s subcategories to better understand the nature of the Signal.

Triggers appeared the second most frequent. Although a Trigger initiates the negotiation and should appear as frequently as the Signal, it is not the case in SCMC. This is because one Trigger can initiate more than one Signal. For example, one person can ask for the meaning of the same vocabulary twice. Also, two people can ask for the meaning of the same vocabulary. In Excerpt 1 below, S2 asks for the meaning of the word “sweatshirt” twice before he received a response.

Excerpt 1 Task 2, group 5		
...	(7 turns)	
S1	I want a <i>sweatshirt</i> for science teacher	Lexical Trigger
...	(7 turns)	
S2	a sweatshirt mean (?)	Local Signal
...	(6 turns)	
S1	What do you think a sweatshirt for Eng, teacher	
...	(1 turn)	
S2	a sweatshirt mean (?)	Local Signal
...	(2 turns)	
S1	เสื้อกันหนาว	L1 Response

Thus, the Signal is repeated either because more than one person asks for the meaning of a word or the same person asks for the meaning twice if he does not receive any response.

The Response was the third most frequent negotiation feature that appeared. The number was just slightly lower than the frequency of Triggers. The close number can be explained by the fact that the Response is the solution to the initial problem, the Trigger. In Excerpt 1 above, for example, the first language Response—“เสื้อกันหนาว” is the solution to the problem caused by the Lexical Trigger—“I want a *sweatshirt* for science teacher”.

And in the case of SCMC, the Response stays on the screen for other participants to see. This means the others also could pick up the meaning of the vocabulary and thus do not need to ask for the definition again.

The three features that showed the least frequency were the Reaction to response, the Confirmation, and the Reconfirmation. According

to Varinos and Gass (1994), the Reaction to response is optional because it is unnecessary. This study shows a similar result in SCMC.

The Confirmation appears very little. According to the Model of Computer-mediated Negotiation Interaction (Smith, 2002), the Confirmation is optional, thus not a necessarily step in the negotiation routine. The results in this study suggest a similar finding.

The Reconfirmation is the least frequent used negotiation feature appearing only once. This implies that the Reconfirmation is not an important negotiation feature. It is optional and can be claimed unnecessary.

To conclude, the high frequency of negotiation features reflect the first three stages in the negotiation routine—Trigger, Signal and Response. Rarely does it continue to the Reaction to Response stage and almost never to the Confirmation and Reconfirmation stage. Therefore, negotiation for meaning in SCMC rarely follows Smith's extended model.

Now that the categories that most has been established subcategories of the negotiation features will be discussed in order to provide a deeper analysis of learners' negotiation for meaning.

Types of Triggers and Signals can help indicate what kinds of problems causes communication breakdown during a conversation. In this study, results imply that vocabulary meaning is the main cause of communication breakdown. What is more, learners try to seek meanings of the new vocabulary.

Out of all Triggers, the Lexical Trigger appeared most frequently. This is mainly because the first three Tasks were seeded with unfamiliar vocabulary. Participants had not learned these words prior to doing the task (e.g.

towel, snorkel, compass, sweatshirt). Therefore, those vocabularies caused communication breakdowns stimulating participants to negotiate for meaning.

Out of all Signals, the Local Signal appeared most frequently such as “What is a bouquet?”, “a sweatshirt means?”. This implies that most of the Signals were explicit and were directed to specific items. Those specific items were mainly vocabulary items. The large amount of Lexical Triggers reflects this finding. The low amount of Global Signals, which does not specify the problematic item such as “What?”, also supports the idea that most negotiation for meaning was specific.

Similarly, participants’ stated they do learn new vocabulary while chatting. They also claimed that they had the opportunity to use words they had learned from class.

Thus, it can be concluded that most negotiation features concentrated around vocabulary. Most of the problematic vocabularies were seeded and were necessary in order to complete the task. When problematic vocabulary occurred, participants used Signals to show their conversation partner the problem. Their conversation partner used Responses to help them.

The Response is the stage where an explanation to the problematic item is explained. In this stage, therefore, learners are given the opportunity to pick up meaning of new vocabulary, knowledge of structures, etc. This study has already established that most of the Triggers and Signals focused around vocabulary. Consequently, most of the Responses were concentrated on the vocabulary.

First Language type of Response dominated other subcategories. This could be because, first, participants were all Thai native speakers.

Thus, it was simpler to give the explanation to the vocabulary in Thai despite the fact that they were told to use English only. Second, all of the participants were not highly proficient in English. They were taking this course—411 205 as a remedial course. Therefore, they were not equipped enough to give explanations in English. As a result, they had to revert back to Thai.

However, the amount of Rephrasing indicated that some participants attempted to give explanations in English. Sometimes, they had to revert to Thai because their conversation partner could not understand the English explanation.

Excerpt 2		Task 1: Group 2	
S1	I have sandals walkman short and snorkel		(Lexical Trigger)
...	(1 turn)		
S2	what.'s snorkel?		(Local Signal)
...	(1 turn)		
S3	snorkel are for looking at reefs		(Rephrasing)
...	(1 turn)		
S2	sorry. what does snorkel mean?		(Local Signal)
S1	snorkel mean in thai na-gak-dum nam		(L1 Response)
S3	snorkel are for looking at reefs		(Rephrasing)
...	(2 turns)		
S3	dum nam yes		(L1 Response)
S1	read in Thai you know		

In Excerpt 2, S3 initially tries to explain the meaning of ‘snorkel’ in English e.g “snorkel are looking at reefs”. In the end, he resorted to Thai but using Roman alphabets e.g. “dum nam yes”. S1, on the other hand,

immediately gave the Thai meaning but in Roman alphabets e.g. “snorkel mean in thai na-gak-dum nam”. In other cases, some participants opted to Thai alphabets.

In Excerpt 3 below, S1 tries to give the explanation of the word “sweatshirt” in English. However, she gave the description of the word bracelet was in Thai. This could be because explaining it in English was too overwhelming and she wanted to continue with the task.

Excerpt 3 Task2, Group 4		
S1	I have a sweatshirt	(Lexical Trigger)
S2	How are you	
S1	and a bracelet	(Lexical Trigger)
S2	What does sweatshirt and bracelet mean?	(Local Signal)
...	(1 turn)	
S1	you use sweatshirt it to protect your cool	(Rephrasing)
...	(1 turn)	
S1	bracelet mean สร้อยคอ	(L1 Response)

In sum, participants with the same first language often resorted to their native language for explanations. Despite their proficiency, some participants did try to give explanations of problematic items in English.

3.1.1.2 Quantity of negotiation for meaning features by task

Looking at the results of the frequency of negotiation features by task can help us understand what kinds of tasks promote negotiation for meaning and form and which do not. Both types of task used in this study stimulated long dialogues from participants. However, the information gap task forced them to negotiate for meaning much more than the collaborative task.

Findings reveal that information gap tasks were able to promote negotiation for meaning. In the information gap tasks, participants were given different pieces of information, which they had to exchange in order to help each other complete the task. Tasks 1 to 3, which were information gap tasks, were able to stimulate a large proportion of negotiation features. If combined, the three tasks make up to 84% of all the negotiation features.

The most successful information gap task was the Sea Trip task, which stimulated the most negotiation features. In this task, two people were given the same set of items; thus, they were able to help each other explain their meanings. In Excerpt 2 above, S3 and S1 helped each other explain the meaning of the word 'snorkel'. In tasks two and three, on the other hand, each participant was given different sets of items; therefore, they could not provide any help in explaining the meaning of the items.

Thus, it can be said that negotiation for meaning can be done more successfully with information gap tasks where learners can help each other explain problematic items. In addition, a simpler information gap task stimulates more use of negotiation features.

Collaborative tasks, on the other hand, including tasks 4 to 6 stimulated a low amount of negotiation features. Collaborative tasks were tasks where participants had to work together to reach the task objective (e.g. discuss what their ideal school would be like). When all the negotiation features in tasks 4 to 6 were combined, they stimulate only 16% of the total negotiation features. A small amount of negotiation features could be because unfamiliar vocabulary was not needed as in the information gap task. This probably meant that participants rather used words they were familiar with. And since they were virtually at the same level,

their lexical capacity was probably close and not very wide. Therefore, there was less discussion about vocabulary and more discussion about how to complete the task. These numbers imply that in SCMC, if learners are not required by the task to negotiate for meaning, they may not negotiate, or in this case very little.

In sum, task type does have a large effect on whether learners negotiate for meaning or not. An information gap task is a very effective task for making learners negotiate for meaning while collaborative tasks are much less effective.

3.1.2 Features of Negotiation for form

All six tasks used were based on the lessons from the course, which assumed to make learners more familiar with the meaning of the content and thus concentrate more on form. Results revealed evidence of negotiation features for meaning in both information gap and collaborative tasks with high frequency in information gap task but no evidence of negotiating for form in either task.

The types of negotiation features that occurred did not display learners' negotiation that centered on form. Even though spelling and grammatical mistakes were potential Triggers that could have lead to Signals that focused on form, they did not. This could imply that incorrect structure in SCMC did not lead to communication breakdown as do unfamiliar vocabulary. Although there were grammatical errors in the dialogues, they were not enough to cause communication breakdown, which would have lead to negotiation for form. Thus, participants continued with the task while ignoring the grammatical and spelling mistakes. In short, participants put more attention on completing the task and paid less attention the accuracy of form.

Both information gap and collaborative tasks in this study may not have been sufficient to encourage learners to negotiate for form. Learners were able to complete the tasks despite the problems of incorrect language form. Although, the tasks were designed to relate to the lessons from the course to make learners focus more on form than content, it was not enough to stimulate negotiation for form. Learners though did pay attention to form as in correcting their own spelling (see excerpt 4). They also stated in the questionnaire that asked for their peers and the teacher's help when they were stuck with phrases and sentences. However, this did not appear in their SCMC transcripts so they may have done negotiated for form verbally to their peers sitting next to them.

Learners' English proficiency could have been an obstacle for them to analyze the form of the language used. Not being confident enough with their English to correct their friends inhibited them to negotiate for form. Besides this, learners may not have recognized their conversation partners' mistakes. Therefore, grammatical mistakes or mistakes with form that could have caused negotiation for form, did not do so because learners' possible inability to negotiate.

In sum, incorrect structure did not lead to communication breakdown resulting in no features of negotiation for form because the accuracy of form was not vital in order to complete the task. Those tasks, therefore, were not sufficient to draw negotiation for form. Furthermore, participants' English proficiency level may have shy them from negotiating for form.

3.2 Learners' opinions towards using SCMC in practicing English

Results from the questionnaire revealed mainly positive opinions towards using chat in practicing English. Evidently, chatting was a positive addition to learning English.

Participants agreed that chatting was a useful activity for learning English. Participants felt that it was fun, improved their English, gave them more confidence and also helped them learn new vocabulary as well as using the ones they had learned (e.g. I learned new vocabulary from friends when chatting).

Results also showed that chat when done in the same room promotes collaborative learning among students. Participants agreed that they would ask for language assistant either from their friends or teacher when performing the chat activity. This is beneficial for creating a more self-learning skill by asking and giving assistance to peers. Chatting in groups was quite effective especially when participants did not know the true identity of the person they were chatting with. This confirms Warschauer's (1996) claim that learners felt freer to interact in SCMC particularly when they are anonymous.

Reading skills were other parts where participants thought they had improved. Participants feel chat helps them read more fluently and develop their reading (e.g. I improved in reading and writing in English).

Participants also stated that chat helped them develop their writing. There was also evidence from the transcripts that participants concentrated on spelling. In Excerpt 4, S1 misspelled the word 'survival' but immediately corrected himself.

Excerpt 4	Task 3: Group 1
S1	now i prepare go to group 2
S2	I prepare to you
S1	do you prepare for survivel
S1	do you prepare for survival

The open-ended response also supported this finding. Participants agreed that spelling was one of the main obstacles when chatting. Thus, it could be implied that chatting may help learners be aware of correct spelling.

Although mainly there were positive opinions, participants also felt that the delay of messages, time allocation, and task topics could be improved. That is, the delay of messages that appeared on the screen was quite a frustration. This problem was reflected in both the mean score with a high level of agreement on the item and open-ended question where participants expressed that the messages appeared too slow. The use of different colors though was very useful. The chat website was also easy to access. This meant that if the messages could be made to appear more immediate, learners would enjoy chatting more.

The time limit, 80 minutes, to perform the chat activity seemed to be enough, however, some participants would prefer if more time was allocated. In addition to performing the tasks, the time limit also included time to access the chat website and login to their groups. Thus, if the time spent on those processes were diminished learners would have enough time to do the activity. On the other hand, none of the participants implied that the session was too long. This showed that although the session was a bit longer than 50 minute-classes, the learners could still enjoy it.

Information gap tasks and collaborative tasks both seemed to interest participants. However, some participants thought task topics should be improved (e.g., I want the topic to be more related to me, so I can think of what to say easier, some of the topics are impossible so I couldn't think of things to say).

In sum, participants had a positive opinion towards using chat in practicing English. Not only was it fun, for them, it also helped develop their

vocabulary, reading, and writing. Evidence also suggests that chat promoted collaborative learning. However, the delay of messages, time allocation and task topics should be improved.

4. Pedagogical Implications

SCMC was very successful in making learners produce language. It possessed a student-centered environment in terms of making learners more active than a typical classroom, where students rarely have the chance to interact and produce their language for authentic communication. Thus, it is a beneficial tool for language learning. Below are some suggestions for instructors who would like to use SCMC in their class.

First, as this study shows it is possible to use SCMC as an activity with learners at limited proficiency. However, tasks should be provided and they should be well prepared. Topics should be related to learners such as a topic that relates to their experience or to a recent lesson in class. As for information gap tasks, teachers should not include too many gaps (target vocabulary). Even though they promote a lot of negotiation, they give less time to complete the task which is what learners want to accomplish. Collaborative task is also another effective task for drawing production. However, it is possible that one learner may contribute more than others.

Second, the group size should be small. This study used four people in a group but lesser can also be favorable. With less proficient learners, two members in a group maybe optimal because both learners feel they have to contribute. What's more, students at this level should be given more time to focus on language with fewer members.

Third, teachers should select chat software or website that is user friendly. The L.E.C.S chat website does not have a lot of graphics, therefore the access was not too slow. The chat website should also be as simple as possible to access, in that way learners can spend more time performing the tasks. The chat website should also allow the teacher to create rooms so learners can be put into groups.

Fourth, as demonstrated, if messages appear on screen slowly it could be both frustrating and time consuming. Try to select chat websites that do not have this problem. Learners should also be told to use different colors when chatting. This can help learners see the messages more clearly.

Fifth, it is more beneficial to put learners in mixed ability than in equal proficiency. In this way, learners with lower proficiency can learn by asking for language assistance from higher proficient learners. Higher proficient learners can also learn by teaching. If learners had different first language backgrounds that would be most favorable. However, as demonstrated, learners with the same first language can also chat to each other in the second language. To make it more effective learners, teachers should set up measures to prevent learners from using the first language.

Finally, teachers should be in the computer room at all times when learners are chatting because they will need assistance. Learners will need help with troubleshooting; therefore, teachers should also have this skill. Teachers should expect problems during the chat session (e.g., the computer crashes and problem accessing the chat website); therefore, teachers should be in the room to help learners. The other reason teachers should stay in the room is to help learners with language problem, such as vocabulary and English structure. Teachers should also walk go from table to table to check on their progress.

5. Recommendation for future research

5.1 In this study, learners expressed that chat helped them improve their writing, reading and grammar. It would be interesting to see if this true. Further research should focus on whether in fact chat does help students improve these skills. The researcher can use a pre and post-test focusing on these skills to examine this.

5.2 It is found that learners at this level do negotiate for meaning in SCMC but it would be interesting to study whether they are able to put this in their long-term memory. A study that could shed light on this matter would be extremely beneficial.

5.3 This study used learners that were at the same proficiency level and found that there was an extent to negotiate for meaning and no evidence of negotiation for form. It would be interesting to study whether negotiating for meaning and form would be more effective using learners with mixed ability.

5.4 In this study tasks were successful in encourage participation and negotiation for meaning. They were less successful in stimulating negotiation for form. Since form focus is an important part in language learning, it is interesting to study the kinds of tasks that may be successful in stimulating negotiation for form.

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สถาบันวิทยบริการ
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย



APPENDICES

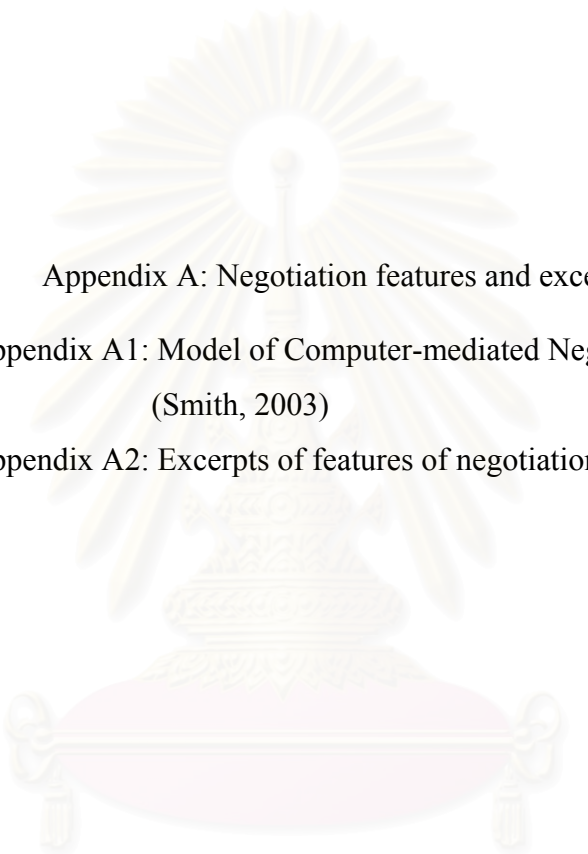
Appendix A: Negotiation features and excerpts

Appendix B: Tasks

Appendix C: List of Experts

Appendix D: Questionnaire

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Appendix A: Negotiation features and excerpts

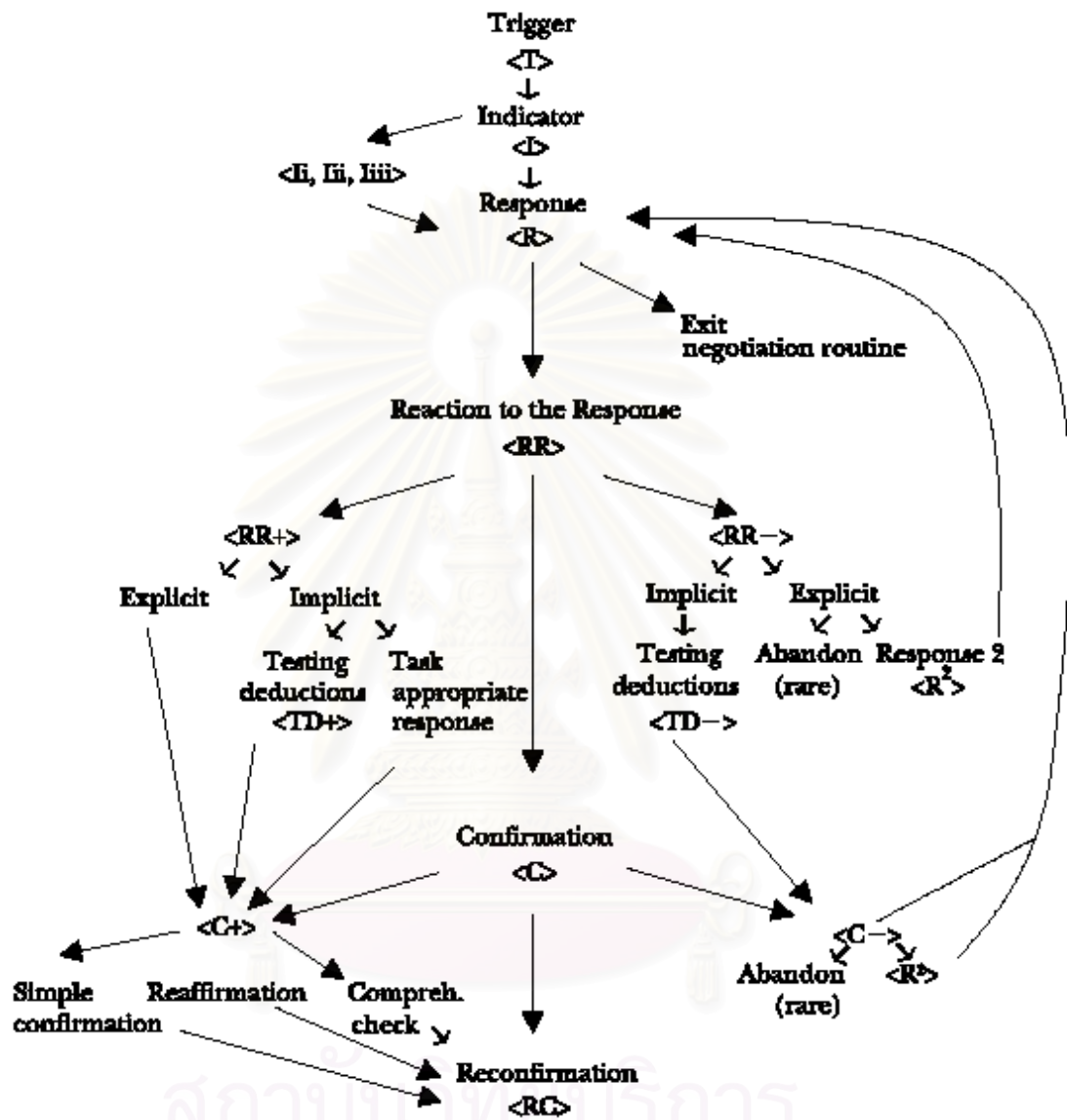
Appendix A1: Model of Computer-mediated Negotiated Routine
(Smith, 2003)

Appendix A2: Excerpts of features of negotiation

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Appendix A1

Model of Computer-mediated Negotiated Routine (Smith, 2003)



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Appendix A2

Excerpts of features of negotiation

Excerpt 1 (Smith, 2003)

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--|
| <T> | 1. C: and he hold the
dust-pan |
| <I> | 2. O: I don't under-
stand what it is? |
| | 3. O: how look like? |
| <R> | 4. C: dustpad os collect-
ing the trash. |
| | 5. C: is |
| | 6. C: dustpan is collect-
ing the trash |
| <RR-><TD><I> | 7. O: m . . . it . . . looks
like finger? |
| <C-> | 8. C: no |
| | 9. O: ? |
| <R ² > | 10. C: it was invented
before baccom. |
| <RR ² +> | 11. O: ok . . . |
| <C ² > Reaffirmation | 12. C: old people used
the Dustpan |

Excerpt 2 (Smith, 2003)

Testing Deductions

- | | |
|-------------------|--|
| <I> | P: ok what is razor |
| <R> | C: Razor? This is very useful
for guys. |
| <RR-> Explicit | P: can describ it more |
| <R ² > | C: If the guy want to cut his
hair, he can cut use Razor. |
| | C: Most of guys use it in the
morning. |
| <TD+> <RR+> | P: you mean for shaving |
| | C: That's right! |
| | P: ok . . . |

Excerpt 3 (Smith, 2003)

Task Appropriate Response

- <I> C: if u like the tree, you need
the chainsaw.
<I> O: what is chainsaw?
<R> C: chainsaw is cutting the
tree.
<TAR><RR+> O: i hope to protect tree
C: ok . . .

Excerpt 4 (Smith, 2003)

Simple Confirmation

- <R> C: . . . when you open wine bottle or
something like that, you use it
<RR+> A: A . . . Ok!
<C+> C: ok

Excerpt 5 (Smith, 2003)

Simple Confirmation

- <R> J: . . . and have a red ribbon on the
bottom of the green circle
<RR+> B: I got it
<C+> J: Good job, B.
<RC> B: Thanks . . .

Excerpt 6 (Smith, 2003)

Reaffirmation

- <R> C: corkboard is similar blackboard
C: do u understand?
<RR+> E: I see
<C+> C: but corkboard have a pin

Excerpt 7 (Smith, 2003)

Reaffirmation

- <I> O: what is bongos?
<R> C: bongos is similar to drum
<RR+><TD+> O: it is play music
O: oh,,,
<C+> C: but it is traditional drum

Excerpt 8 (Smith, 2003)

Comprehension Check

<I> B: what is razor? can you explain?

A: razor is . . .

<R> A: when you want to cut your chin
hair, you use it.

A: it's kind of knife.

<RR+> B: I see

<C+> A: got it?

<RC> B: ok



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Appendix B: Tasks

Appendix B 1: Task 1

Appendix B 2: Task 2

Appendix B 3: Task 3

Appendix B 4: Task 4

Appendix B 5: Task 5

Appendix B 6: Task 6

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Appendix B1

Task one: Sea Trip

Student A

Next week is a long holiday, so you and your friends are planning a trip to the south of Thailand. You will go to beautiful sandy beaches and visit exotic islands. Before the trip you need to prepare the things you want to bring. Each of you has a list of different things you can bring.

1) First identify the objects each person has.

2) then decide together five things that you think is most important for the trip.

Give reasons to support your decision.



Useful Language

Asking for opinions		Giving opinions	
English	Thai	English	Thai
What do you think (about...)?	คุณคิดอย่างไร (เกี่ยวกับ...)	I think ...	ฉันคิดว่า...
Do you agree?	คุณเห็นด้วยไหม	We can ...	เราสามารถที่จะ...
What's your opinion (about..)?	คุณมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไร(เกี่ยวกับ...)	We should ...	เราน่าจะ...
		Why don't we...	ทำไมเราไม่...

Agreeing		Disagreeing	
I agree	ฉันเห็นด้วย	I disagree	ฉันไม่เห็นด้วย
That's right	ถูกต้อง	I don't think so	ฉันไม่คิดอย่างนั้น
You are right	คุณพูดถูก	Yes, but...	ใช่/ ก็ถูกแต่...
right	ใช่/ ถูก	Not really	ก็ไม่เชิง
		Maybe but...	อาจจะใช่แต่...

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Student B

Next week is a long holiday, so you and your friends are planning a trip to the south of Thailand. You will go to beautiful sandy beaches and visit exotic islands. Before the trip you need to prepare the things you want to bring. Each of you has a list of different things you can bring.

1) First identify the objects each person has.

2) then decide together five things that you think is most important for the trip.

Give reasons to support your decision.

sandals**walkman****shorts****snorkel****Useful Language**

Asking for opinions		Giving opinions	
English	Thai	English	Thai
What do you think (about...)?	คุณคิดว่าอย่างไร (เกี่ยวกับ...)	I think ...	ฉันคิดว่า...
Do you agree?	คุณเห็นด้วยไหม	We can ...	เราสามารถที่จะ...
What's your opinion (about..)?	คุณมีความคิดเห็นว่าจะอย่างไร(เกี่ยวกับ...)	We should ...	เราน่าจะ...
		Why don't we...	ทำไมเราไม่...

Agreeing		Disagreeing	
I agree	ฉันเห็นด้วย	I disagree	ฉันไม่เห็นด้วย
That's right	ถูกต้อง	I don't think so	ฉันไม่คิดอย่างนั้น
You are right	คุณพูดถูก	Yes, but...	ใช่/ ก็ถูกแต่...
Right	ใช่/ ถูก	Not really	ก็ไม่เชิง
		Maybe but...	อาจจะใช่แต่...

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Appendix B 2

Task 2: New Years Present

Student A

It is near New Years. You and your friends are planning to buy presents for your English teacher, who is a man in his mid 20's your Art teacher, who is a woman in her early 40's, and your science teacher, who is a man in his late 50's. You go to Big C and find many interesting things but you need only three presents.

- 1) Find out what items each member in your group has got (20 mins)
- 2) and decide which items you are going to buy for each teacher (40 mins).

a bouquet



back pack



Useful Language

Asking for opinions		Giving opinions	
English	Thai	English	Thai
What do you think (about...)?	คุณคิดอย่างไร (เกี่ยวกับ...)	I think ...	ฉันคิดว่า...
Do you agree?	คุณเห็นด้วยไหม	We can ...	เราสามารถที่จะ...
What's your opinion (about...)?	คุณมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไร(เกี่ยวกับ...)	We should ...	เราน่าจะ...
		Why don't we...	ทำไมเราไม่...

Agreeing		Disagreeing	
I agree	ฉันเห็นด้วย	I disagree	ฉันไม่เห็นด้วย
That's right	ถูกต้อง	I don't think so	ฉันไม่คิดอย่างนั้น
You are right	คุณพูดถูก	Yes, but...	ใช่/ ก็ถูกแต่...
Right	ใช่/ ถูก	Not really	ก็ไม่เชิง
		Maybe but...	อาจจะใช่แต่...

Describing things		Example	
It's made of ...	มันทำด้วย...	It's made of cloth	มันทำด้วยผ้า
You use it to + infinitive	คุณใช้มันสำหรับ...	You use it to protect your skin from the sun	คุณใช้มันสำหรับป้องกันผิวจากแสงแดด

Student B

It is near New Years. You and your friends are planning to buy presents for your English teacher, who is a man in his mid 20's your Art teacher, who is a woman in her early 40's, and your science teacher, who is a man in his late 50's. You go to Big C and find many interesting things but you need only three presents.

- 3) Find out what items each member in your group has got (20 mins)
- 4) and decide which items you are going to buy for each teacher. (40 mins)

a blow-dryer**a photo frame****Useful Language**

Asking for opinions		Giving opinions	
English	Thai	English	Thai
What do you think (about...)?	คุณคิดว่าอย่างไร (เกี่ยวกับ...)	I think ...	ฉันคิดว่า...
Do you agree?	คุณเห็นด้วยไหม	We can ...	เราสามารถที่จะ...
What's your opinion (about...)?	คุณมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไร(เกี่ยวกับ...)	We should ...	เราน่าจะ...
		Why don't we...	ทำไมเราไม่...

Agreeing		Disagreeing	
I agree	ฉันเห็นด้วย	I disagree	ฉันไม่เห็นด้วย
That's right	ถูกต้อง	I don't think so	ฉันไม่คิดอย่างนั้น
You are right	คุณพูดถูก	Yes, but...	ใช่/ ก็ถูกแต่...
Right	ใช่/ ถูก	Not really	ก็ไม่เชิง
		Maybe but...	อาจจะใช่แต่...

Describing things		Example	
It's made of ...	มันทำด้วย...	It's made of cloth	มันทำด้วยผ้า
You use it to + infinitive	คุณใช้มันสำหรับ...	You use it to protect your skin from the sun	คุณใช้มันสำหรับป้องกันผิวจากแสงแดด

Student C

It is near New Years. You and your friends are planning to buy presents for your English teacher, who is a man in his mid 20's your Art teacher, who is a woman in her early 40's, and your science teacher, who is a man in his late 50's. You go to Big C and find many interesting things but you need only three presents.

- 5) Find out what items each member in your group has got (20 mins).
- 6) and decide which items you are going to buy for each teacher. (40 mins).

a VCR



a towel



Useful Language

Asking for opinions		Giving opinions	
English	Thai	English	Thai
What do you think (about...)?	คุณคิดว่าอย่างไร (เกี่ยวกับ...)	I think ...	ฉันคิดว่า...
Do you agree?	คุณเห็นด้วยไหม	We can ...	เราสามารถที่จะ...
What's your opinion (about...)?	คุณมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไร(เกี่ยวกับ...)	We should ...	เราน่าจะ...
		Why don't we...	ทำไมเราไม่...

Agreeing		Disagreeing	
I agree	ฉันเห็นด้วย	I disagree	ฉันไม่เห็นด้วย
That's right	ถูกต้อง	I don't think so	ฉันไม่คิดอย่างนั้น
You are right	คุณพูดถูก	Yes, but...	ใช่/ ก็ถูกแต่...
Right	ใช่/ ถูก	Not really	ก็ไม่จริง
		Maybe but...	อาจจะใช่แต่...

Describing things		Example	
It's made of ...	มันทำด้วย...	It's made of cloth	มันทำด้วยผ้า
You use it to + infinitive	คุณใช้มันสำหรับ...	You use it to protect your skin from the sun	คุณใช้มันสำหรับป้องกันผิวจากแสงแดด

Student D

It is near New Years. You and your friends are planning to buy presents for your English teacher, who is a man in his mid 20's your Art teacher, who is a woman in her early 40's, and your science teacher, who is a man in his late 50's. You go to Big C and find many interesting things but you need only three presents.

- 7) Find out what items each member in your group has got (20 mins)
- 8) and decide which items you are going to buy for each teacher. (40mins)

a bracelet**a sweatshirt****Useful Language**

Asking for opinions		Giving opinions	
English	Thai	English	Thai
What do you think (about...)?	คุณคิดว่าอย่างไร (เกี่ยวกับ...)	I think ...	ฉันคิดว่า...
Do you agree?	คุณเห็นด้วยไหม	We can ...	เราสามารถที่จะ...
What's your opinion (about..)?	คุณมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไร(เกี่ยวกับ...)	We should ...	เราน่าจะ...
		Why don't we...	ทำไมเราไม่...

Agreeing		Disagreeing	
I agree	ฉันเห็นด้วย	I disagree	ฉันไม่เห็นด้วย
That's right	ถูกต้อง	I don't think so	ฉันไม่คิดอย่างนั้น
You are right	คุณพูดถูก	Yes, but...	ใช่/ ก็ถูกแต่ว่า
Right	ใช่/ ถูก	Not really	ก็ไม่เชิง
		Maybe but...	อาจจะใช่แต่ว่า

Describing things		Example	
It's made of ...	มันทำด้วย...	It's made of cloth	มันทำด้วยผ้า
You use it to + infinitive	คุณใช้มันสำหรับ...	You use it to protect your skin from the sun	คุณใช้มันสำหรับป้องกันผิวจากแสงแดด

Appendix B 3 Task 3: Cast Away

Student A

Your group has landed on the moon, but has become separated from the main party at the base, and has 200 miles to cover in order to reach it. Each of you has different items necessary for survival.

1. Find out what each person in the group has
2. and number them into order of importance.

Oxygen tanks

(ถังออกซิเจน)



first-aid kit

(อุปกรณ์ปฐมพยาบาล)



Useful Language

Asking for opinions		Giving opinions	
English	Thai	English	Thai
What do you think (about...)?	คุณคิดอย่างไร (เกี่ยวกับ...)	I think ...	ฉันคิดว่า...
Do you agree?	คุณเห็นด้วยไหม	We can ...	เราสามารถที่จะ...
What's your opinion (about...)?	คุณมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไร(เกี่ยวกับ...)	We should ...	เราน่าจะ...
		Why don't we...	ทำไมเราไม่...

Agreeing		Disagreeing	
I agree	ฉันเห็นด้วย	I disagree	ฉันไม่เห็นด้วย
That's right	ถูกต้อง	I don't think so	ฉันไม่คิดอย่างนั้น
You are right	คุณพูดถูก	Yes, but...	ใช่/ ก็ถูกแต่ว่า
Right	ใช่/ ถูก	Not really	ก็ไม่เชิง
		Maybe but...	อาจจะใช่แต่ว่า

Describing things		Example	
It's made of ...	มันทำด้วย...	It's made of cloth	มันทำด้วยผ้า
You use it to + infinitive	คุณใช้มันสำหรับ...	You use it to protect your skin from the sun	คุณใช้มันสำหรับป้องกันผิวจากแสงแดด

Student B

Your group has landed on the moon, but has become separated from the main party at the base, and has 200 miles to cover in order to reach it. Each of you has different items necessary for survival.

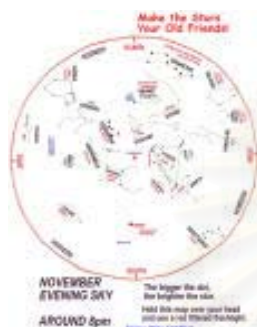
1. Find out what each person in the group has
2. and number them into order of importance.

Map of stars

(แผนที่ดวงดาว)

canned food

(อาหารกระป๋อง)

**Useful Language**

Asking for opinions		Giving opinions	
English	Thai	English	Thai
What do you think (about...)?	คุณคิดว่าอย่างไร (เกี่ยวกับ...)	I think ...	ฉันคิดว่า...
Do you agree?	คุณเห็นด้วยไหม	We can ...	เราสามารถที่จะ...
What's your opinion (about...)?	คุณมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไร(เกี่ยวกับ...)	We should ...	เราน่าจะ...
		Why don't we...	ทำไมเราไม่...

Agreeing		Disagreeing	
I agree	ฉันเห็นด้วย	I disagree	ฉันไม่เห็นด้วย
That's right	ถูกต้อง	I don't think so	ฉันไม่คิดอย่างนั้น
You are right	คุณพูดถูก	Yes, but...	ใช่/ ก็ถูกแต่...
Right	ใช่/ ถูก	Not really	ก็ไม่จริง
		Maybe but...	อาจจะใช่แต่...

Describing things		Example	
It's made of ...	มันทำด้วย...	It's made of cloth	มันทำด้วยผ้า
You use it to + infinitive	คุณใช้มันสำหรับ...	You use it to protect your skin from the sun	คุณใช้มันสำหรับป้องกันผิวจากแสงแดด

Student C

Your group has landed on the moon, but has become separated from the main party at the base, and has 200 miles to cover in order to reach it. Each of you has different items necessary for survival.

1. Find out what each person in the group has
2. and together, number them into order of importance.

compass

(เข็มทิศ)



signal flares

(ปืนส่งสัญญาณ)



Useful Language

Asking for opinions		Giving opinions	
English	Thai	English	Thai
What do you think (about...)?	คุณคิดอย่างไร (เกี่ยวกับ...)	I think ...	ฉันคิดว่า...
Do you agree?	คุณเห็นด้วยไหม	We can ...	เราสามารถที่จะ...
What's your opinion (about...)?	คุณมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไร(เกี่ยวกับ...)	We should ...	เราน่าจะ...
		Why don't we...	ทำไมเราไม่...

Agreeing		Disagreeing	
I agree	ฉันเห็นด้วย	I disagree	ฉันไม่เห็นด้วย
That's right	ถูกต้อง	I don't think so	ฉันไม่คิดอย่างนั้น
You are right	คุณพูดถูก	Yes, but...	ใช่/ ก็ถูกแต่...
Right	ใช่/ ถูก	Not really	ก็ไม่เชิง
		Maybe but...	อาจจะใช่แต่...

Describing things		Example	
It's made of ...	มันทำด้วย...	It's made of cloth	มันทำด้วยผ้า
You use it to + infinitive	คุณใช้มันสำหรับ...	You use it to protect your skin from the sun	คุณใช้มันสำหรับป้องกันผิวจากแสงแดด

Student D

Your group has landed on the moon, but has become separated from the main party at the base, and has 200 miles to cover in order to reach it. Each of you has different items necessary for survival.

1. Find out what each person in the group has
2. and number them into order of importance.

50 feet of rope

(เชือกยาว 50 ฟุต)

**five gallons of water**

(น้ำเปล่า 5 แกลลอน)

**Useful Language**

Asking for opinions		Giving opinions	
English	Thai	English	Thai
What do you think (about...)?	คุณคิดอย่างไร (เกี่ยวกับ...)	I think ...	ฉันคิดว่า...
Do you agree?	คุณเห็นด้วยไหม	We can ...	เราสามารถที่จะ...
What's your opinion (about...)?	คุณมีความคิดเห็นอย่างไร(เกี่ยวกับ...)	We should ...	เราน่าจะ...
		Why don't we...	ทำไมเราไม่...

Agreeing		Disagreeing	
I agree	ฉันเห็นด้วย	I disagree	ฉันไม่เห็นด้วย
That's right	ถูกต้อง	I don't think so	ฉันไม่คิดอย่างนั้น
You are right	คุณพูดถูก	Yes, but...	ใช่/ ก็ถูกแต่ว่า
Right	ใช่/ ถูก	Not really	ก็ไม่เชิง
		Maybe but...	อาจจะใช่แต่ว่า

Describing things		Example	
It's made of ...	มันทำด้วย...	It's made of cloth	มันทำด้วยผ้า
You use it to + infinitive	คุณใช้มันสำหรับ...	You use it to protect your skin from the sun	คุณใช้มันสำหรับป้องกันผิวจากแสงแดด

Appendix B 4

Task 4: Ideal School

One of the Thai government's policy is education reform to improve the education in Thailand. The government, thus, has opened a school design competition. The best design will receive 45 million baht to build their school. Thus, you and your friends have decided to enter the competition and to design a new secondary school. You and your friends have to decide on:

1. the location of the school (e.g. in the city, outside the city, seaside).
2. courses provided (e.g. history, swimming, science).
3. facilities (e.g. swimming pool, library, computer center)
4. rules (e.g. must wear school uniform, no uniform)
5. extra curricular activities (e.g. field trips, sports day, clubs)



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Appendix B 5

Task 5: Interview

Individually, write at least four interview questions to someone who is planning to live in Thailand. Ask those questions to the members in your chat room and note down their answers. Also play a foreigner that is planning to stay in Thailand and answer your friends' interview questions.

Example:

What are you going to do in Thailand?



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Appendix B 6**Task 6: Picture Dialogue**

In groups, write three dialogues for these three pictures. Decide together what they might be saying and make up names for them and write down what they say.

A.



B.



C.





Appendix C: List of Experts

Appendix C1: List of experts for the tasks validation

Appendix C2: List of experts for the questionnaire validation

Appendix C3: Expert for idea-unit analysis training

Appendix C4: Co-rater for inter-rater reliability

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Appendix C1

List of experts for the tasks validation

1. Asst. Prof. Pavinee Thirakhupt, Ph.D.
Chulalongkorn University Language Institute,
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2. Ajarn Kornwipa Poonpol
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Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences
Khon Kaen University

3. Ajarn Phipawin Supawat
Department of Foreign Languages,
Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences
Khon Kaen University



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Appendix C2

List of experts for the questionnaire validation

1. Ajarn Angkana Tongpoon
Department of Foreign Languages,
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Khon Kaen University

2. Ajarn Sukhum Wasuntarasophit
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3. Ajarn Kornwipa Poonpol
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Appendix C3

Expert for idea-unit analysis training

Asst. Prof. Pavinee Thirakhupt, Ph.D.
Chulalongkorn University Language Institute,
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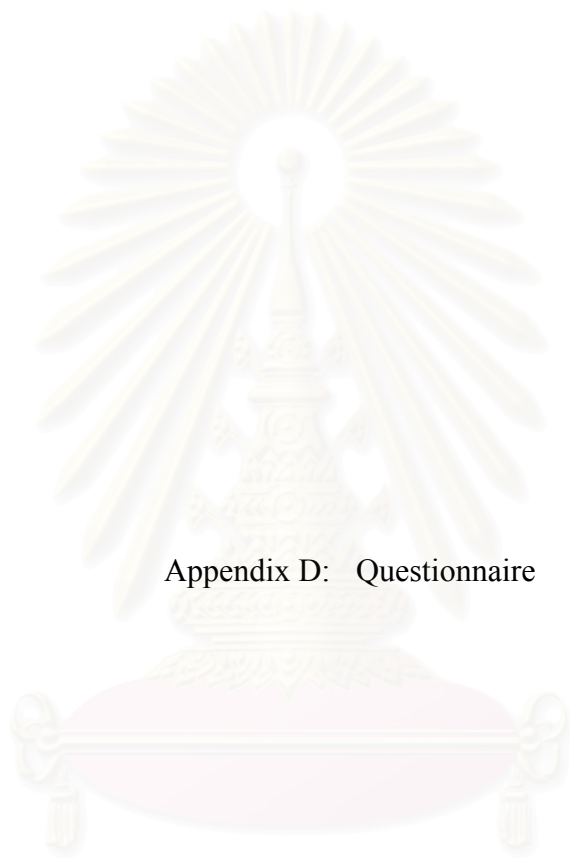
Appendix C4

Co-rater for inter-rater reliability

Ajarn Angkana Tongpoon
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Appendix D: Questionnaire

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Appendix D: Questionnaire

แบบสอบถามความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับกิจกรรมสนทนาทางอินเทอร์เน็ต (แช็ต)

คำชี้แจง

1. แบบสอบถามนี้สร้างขึ้นเพื่อสอบถามความคิดเห็นของนักศึกษาต่อการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษด้วยกิจกรรมแช็ต คำตอบของนักศึกษามีประโยชน์อย่างยิ่งต่อการปรับปรุงการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษให้มีประสิทธิภาพมากขึ้น กรุณาตอบคำถามให้ตรงกับความรู้สึกรู้สึกของนักศึกษา การตอบแบบสอบถามนี้ไม่มีผิดหรือถูกแต่ประการใด และไม่มีผลใดๆต่อวิชา 411 205 ทั้งสิ้น
2. แบบสอบถามนี้มีทั้งหมด 4 ตอน คือ
 - ตอนที่ 1 ข้อมูลทั่วไปของนักศึกษา
 - ตอนที่ 2 ความคิดเห็นของนักศึกษาต่อเว็บไซต์ที่ทำกิจกรรมแช็ต
 - ตอนที่ 3 ความคิดเห็นของนักศึกษาต่อกิจกรรมการแช็ต
 - ตอนที่ 4 ความคิดเห็นของนักศึกษาต่อเว็บไซต์การแช็ตและการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ
 - ตอนที่ 5 ความคิดเห็นของนักศึกษาด้านอื่นๆที่เกี่ยวข้องกับการแช็ต
 - ตอนที่ 6 ความคิดเห็นของนักศึกษาต่อประโยชน์และปัญหาการใช้กิจกรรมแช็ตของนักศึกษา
3. โปรดตอบคำถามทุกข้อ

ตอนที่ 1 ข้อมูลทั่วไปของนักศึกษา

1. ชั้นปีที่ _____ คณะ _____
2. เพศ ชาย หญิง
3. อายุ _____
4. จำนวนครั้งที่เข้าทำกิจกรรมแช็ต เข้าครบทุกครั้ง (6 ครั้ง)
 ไม่ครบ (โปรดระบุจำนวนครั้งที่เข้าแช็ต) จำนวน _____ ครั้ง
5. นักศึกษาเคยแช็ต ไม่เคย
 เคย เป็นภาษา อังกฤษ ไทย ภาษาอื่น (โปรดระบุ) _____

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คำอธิบายในการตอบแบบสอบถาม ตอนที่ 1-5

ให้นักศึกษาพิจารณาเลือกคำตอบจากข้อความทางซ้ายมือ โดยทำเครื่องหมายกากบาท (X) ลงในช่องที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นของนักศึกษามากที่สุด

5	=	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง (มากที่สุด)
4	=	เห็นด้วย (มาก)
3	=	ไม่มีความคิดเห็น (ปานกลาง)
2	=	ไม่เห็นด้วย (น้อย)
1	=	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง (น้อยที่สุด)

ตัวอย่าง

ข้อที่	ข้อความ	5	4	3	2	1
1	ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นวิชาที่มีความสำคัญ	x				
2	ข้าพเจ้าอ่านหนังสือพิมพ์ภาษาอังกฤษ				x	

จากข้อความข้างบนแสดงว่านักศึกษามีความเห็นที่ภาษาอังกฤษมีความสำคัญอย่างยิ่ง และนักศึกษาไม่ค่อยอ่านหนังสือพิมพ์ภาษาอังกฤษ

ตอนที่ 2 ความคิดเห็นของนักศึกษาต่อเว็บไซต์ที่ทำกิจกรรมแชต

ข้อที่	ข้อความ	5	4	3	2	1
1	เว็บไซต์ที่ใช้ทำกิจกรรมแชตง่ายต่อการใช้งาน					
2	ขั้นตอนการเข้าห้องแชตยุ่งยาก					
3	ที่ข้อความที่ส่งให้เพื่อนปรากฏบนจอข้าพเจ้าทำให้ข้าพเจ้ารำคาญ					
4	การใช้ตัวหนังสือต่างสีกันของสมาชิกในขณะที่แชตดีกว่าการใช้สีเดียวกัน					
5	การสรุปผลหลังจากการแชตทำให้ข้าพเจ้าประเมินการมีส่วนร่วมในการแชตได้					

ตอนที่ 3 ความคิดเห็นของนักศึกษาต่อกิจกรรมการแชต

ข้อที่	ข้อความ	5	4	3	2	1
1	จำนวนสมาชิกที่คนต่อกลุ่มนั้นมีความเหมาะสม					
2	ข้าพเจ้าตามการสนทนาในห้องแชตไม่ค่อยทัน					
3	การสลับเปลี่ยนสมาชิกในกลุ่มแต่ละครั้งมีความเหมาะสม					
4	ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกสบายใจที่จะแสดงความคิดเห็นเมื่อข้าพเจ้าไม่รู้ว่าคนที่กำลังแชตด้วยเป็นใคร					
5	เวลาในการแชตหนึ่งครั้ง (50 นาที) มีความเหมาะสม					
6	การแชตสัปดาห์ละหนึ่งครั้งนั้นเพียงพอแล้ว					
7	คำสั่งในการทำกิจกรรมชัดเจนดี					
8	กิจกรรมที่ทำยากเกินไป					
9	กิจกรรมที่ทำในการแชตแต่ละครั้งน่าสนใจ					

ตอนที่ 4 ความคิดเห็นของนักศึกษาต่อกิจกรรมการแชตในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ

ข้อที่	ข้อความ	5	4	3	2	1
1	การแชตเป็นกิจกรรมเสริมที่ดีในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ					
2	การแชตกับเพื่อนๆ เพื่อฝึกภาษาอังกฤษเป็นกิจกรรมที่สนุก					
3	การแชตกับเพื่อนๆ ช่วยให้ภาษาอังกฤษของข้าพเจ้าพัฒนาขึ้น					
4	ข้าพเจ้าได้ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อสื่อสารกับเพื่อนเวลาแชตมากกว่าในห้องเรียน					
5	ข้าพเจ้ามีความมั่นใจในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในขณะที่แชตมากกว่าเมื่ออยู่ในห้องเรียน					
6	ข้าพเจ้าได้เรียนรู้คำศัพท์ใหม่จากการแชตกับเพื่อนๆ					
7	ข้าพเจ้าได้นำคำศัพท์ใหม่ที่เรียนในห้องมาใช้ในการแชต					
8	เมื่อข้าพเจ้าคิดคำศัพท์เป็นภาษาอังกฤษไม่ออก ข้าพเจ้าจะถามเพื่อนนั่งใกล้ๆ และอาจารย์					
9	เมื่อข้าพเจ้าคิดประโยคเป็นภาษาอังกฤษไม่ออก ข้าพเจ้าจะถามเพื่อนที่นั่งใกล้ๆ และอาจารย์					
10	เมื่อข้าพเจ้าไม่เข้าใจข้อความที่เพื่อนเขียน ข้าพเจ้าจะถามเพื่อนที่นั่งใกล้ๆ และอาจารย์					
11	เพื่อนๆ ช่วยให้คำแนะนำแก่ข้าพเจ้าเมื่อข้าพเจ้าใช้ภาษาอังกฤษไม่ถูกต้องในขณะที่แชต					
12	ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกว่าการแชตช่วยให้ไวยกรณ์ของข้าพเจ้าพัฒนาขึ้น					
13	ข้าพเจ้าไม่ค่อยสนใจว่าข้อความของข้าพเจ้าจะถูกไวยกรณ์หรือไม่ ในขณะที่แชต					
14	ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกว่าการแชตกับเพื่อนๆ ช่วยพัฒนาทักษะการเขียน					
15	ข้าพเจ้าใส่ใจกับการสะกดคำให้ถูกต้อง ในขณะที่แชต					
16	ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกว่าการแชตกับเพื่อนๆ ช่วยพัฒนาทักษะการการอ่าน					
17	ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกว่าการแชตกับเพื่อนๆ ช่วยให้ข้าพเจ้าอ่านภาษาอังกฤษคล่องขึ้น					

ตอนที่ 5 ความคิดเห็นของนักศึกษาเกี่ยวกับด้านคอมพิวเตอร์

ข้อที่	ข้อความ	5	4	3	2	1
1	การฝึกพิมพ์ก่อนการแชตช่วยข้าพเจ้าได้มาก					
2	ข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกว่าการแชตช่วยพัฒนาทักษะการพิมพ์ของข้าพเจ้า					
3	การมีทักษะทางคอมพิวเตอร์สูงจำเป็นต่อการแชต					
4	การมีส่วนร่วมในการแชตจำเป็นต้องมีความคล่องแคล่วในการใช้คอมพิวเตอร์					
5	ข้าพเจ้าชอบแชตเป็นกิจกรรมเสริมมากกว่าการเข้าห้อง SAC					

ตอนที่ 6 ความคิดเห็นของนักศึกษาต่อประโยชน์และปัญหาการใช้กิจกรรมแชตของนักศึกษา

1. สิ่งที่เป็นประโยชน์ที่นักศึกษาได้รับมากที่สุดจากการแชต

2. สิ่งที่เป็นอุปสรรคมากที่สุดในการแชตเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ

3. สิ่งที่ต้องปรับปรุงในกิจกรรมการแชต

4. อื่นๆ

ขอขอบคุณนักศึกษาทุกคนที่ให้ความร่วมมือ



สถาบันวิทยบริการ
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

Curriculum Vitae

Chomraj Patanasorn was born on the 19th December 1976 in Khon Kaen city. He obtained his Bachelors degree of Arts (English) in 1998. After graduating, he taught English at the Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at Khon Kaen University for three years before continuing his to pursue a Masters degree of Arts in English as an International Language, Chulalongkorn University. He currently teaches English at Khon Kaen University, Nong Khai campus.



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