

ISSN XXXX-XXXX (Online)

*Volume 2 No. 1 (January - June 2025)*

**JLRP**

*Journal of*  
**LANGUAGE RESEARCH  
AND PRACTICE**



*Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science  
Kasetsart University*

# **Journal of Language Research and Practice**

## **Volume 2, Issue 1 (January-June) 2025**

### **Advisor**

Dean, Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science

### **Editor-in-Chief**

Wisut Jarunthawatchai

Kasetsart University, Thailand

### **Editors**

Ratchadavan Kongsatt

Kasetsart University, Thailand

Suphatra Sucharitrak

Kasetsart University, Thailand

Pornrawee Thunnithet

Kasetsart University, Thailand

Kasidit Supan

Naraesuan University, Thailand

### **Editorial Assistant**

Kittima Taibanguai

Kasetsart University, Thailand

### **Editorial Board**

Paul Kei Matsuda

University of Arizona, USA

Will Baker

University of Southampton, UK

Leslie Barratt

Indiana State University, USA

Yilin Sun

Seattle Colleges, USA

Pham Vu Phi Ho

HCMC Open University, Vietnam

Shuling Yang

East Tennessee State University, USA

Peter White

University of New South Wales, Australia

Peter Mickan

University of Adelaide, Australia

John Wash

University of Adelaide, Australia

Supakorn Phoocharoensil

Thammasat University, Thailand

Pragasit Sitthitikul

Thammasat University, Thailand

Saneh Thongrin

Thammasat University, Thailand

Phongsakorn Methitham

Naraesuan University, Thailand

Kamonwat Phuwichit

Kamphaeng Phet Rajabhat University

Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science

Kasetsart University, Kamphaeng Saen Campus

Kamphaeng Saen, Nakhon Pathom, 73140

Email: [editorjlrp@gmail.com](mailto:editorjlrp@gmail.com)

Website: <https://so17.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/JLRP>

# Table of Contents

1. NBA and FIBA Basketball News Headlines: A Formality Analysis and Players' Perspectives	1
Theethat Preechawan, Bantita Koennonkok, Paniti Pararattanawat, Uraiwan Rattanapan Noonkong, Wisut Jarunthawatchai	
2. Exploring the Use of Cohesive Devices in Argumentative Essays: A Study of Thai English-Major Students at a Public University	22
Tiprada Pholwised, Kancharat Thiamthat, Kantima Amnuaisaksophon, Sirisuda Thongchalerm, Wisut Jarunthawatchai	
3. Investigating English Code-Switching Frequency in ATEEZ's Korean Pop Songs	39
Nawat Sriautarawong, Napapach Wattanapanich, Tanaporn Chokkeaw, Wisut Jarunthawatchai	
4. Negotiating Meaning in the Marketplace: Communication Strategies of Thai Vendors at Chatuchak Market	57
Wutthipong Mokharat, Karintip Hemadhulin, Ornjira Chaithong, Patita Sakamula, Wisut Jarunthawatchai	
5. Exploring English-Major Students' Perspectives on Peer Feedback in Second Language Writing	71
Intuon Sinlapavijitkarn, Kanyarat Sriyota, Napatsorn Thotherdwilai, Wisut Jarunthawatchai	

## **NBA and FIBA Basketball News Headlines: A Formality Analysis and Players' Perspectives**

**Theethat Preechawan<sup>1</sup>, Bantita Koennonkok<sup>1</sup>, Paniti Pararattanawat<sup>1</sup>,  
Uraivan Rattanapan Noonkong<sup>2</sup>, Wisut Jarunthawatchai<sup>1\*</sup>**

### **Abstract**

This study examined the formality of 40 basketball news headlines (20 NBA, 20 FIBA) published in 2023 using Heylighen and Dewaele's F-score method via the CLAWS tagger, with NBA headlines totaling 217 words and FIBA headlines 208 words. To capture reader reactions, 41 purposively sampled participants familiar with basketball compared paired headlines (20 NBA–FIBA pairs) and rated each headline's influence on their interest on a 1–5 scale. The analysis revealed that NBA headlines exhibited a marginally higher average F-score (mean difference = 1.05%), although both sources demonstrated moderate formality levels (both > 50% F-score). Participants overwhelmingly preferred NBA headlines (18 of 20 pairs), regardless of which item had the higher F-score, suggesting that slight formality advantages alone do not fully predict reader choice. These results provide practical guidance for sports editors seeking to balance formal tone with audience appeal when crafting basketball news headlines.

**Keywords:** News Headlines, English formality, NBA, FIBA, Basketball News

Received 23 April 2025; Received in revised form 18 June 2025; Accepted 20 June 2025

---

\* Corresponding Author

E-mail: faaswsj@ku.ac.th

<sup>1</sup> Kasetsart University, Thailand

<sup>2</sup> Prince of Songkla University, Thailand

## **1. Introduction**

News plays a crucial role in presenting current situations of society or global matters to audiences. Chalaysap (2012) argues that the primary role of news is disseminating updated information to the public, enabling people to keep pace with topics such as economics, politics, and sports. In particular, sports coverage provides excitement and pleasure for audiences for cheering their favorite teams or athletes. Basketball is one of the world's widely recognized sports. Major basketball organizations, such as FIBA (The International Basketball Federation) and the NBA (The National Basketball Association), have become key sources for watching basketball games and retrieving news. The NBA, with 30 teams based in the United States and one in Canada, is hailed as one of the most successful sports leagues (Cuzzolin, 2020). Meanwhile, FIBA comprises national teams from 32 countries, organizing international competitions like the Basketball World Cup and the Olympic Basketball Tournament.

News headlines are among the most critical news elements, because they encapsulate the main idea and capture readers' attention. Reah (1998) points out that headline writers must employ concise and straightforward language organized into readable patterns. Given that many readers now prefer brief yet accurate information, headlines must effectively communicate the core message (Jongyingjaroenwong, 2004). Overly complex headlines can confuse readers and diminish their interest, while clear, well-chosen language can stimulate readers to continue reading.

Since news addresses the public, it generally requires a formal register. Careful attention to pronunciation, vocabulary, and sentence structure is given to formal language (Richards, Platt, and Platt, 1997). Nevertheless, there are some variations in defining formality (Heylighen & Dewaele, 1999). Hence, crafting headlines that remain concise without sacrificing precision is particularly challenging. Writers must convey the central idea succinctly, ensuring that the language is at once interesting, accessible, and suitably formal.

Several studies, e.g. Reah (1998), Prateepchaikul (2010), and Chalaysap (2012), have centered on news language, writing techniques, and comparative analyses. However, there appear to be very few investigations into basketball news headlines, especially focusing on formality analysis. There is, thus, a need for research examining the formality of headlines published by prominent basketball organizations and exploring readers' attitudes toward these headlines.

Accordingly, this study aims to determine how different parts of speech affect the level of formality in basketball news headlines from the NBA and FIBA. Furthermore, it explores whether varying degrees of headline formality influence reader interest and preference among

Thai basketball players, basketball news readers, and those familiar with the basic rules of basketball.

### **Research Questions**

1. How do different parts of speech in headlines affect the formality level?
2. What is the significant degree of the formality differences between NBA and FIBA, two different news sources?
3. How do participants rate their interest based on each basketball news headline that interests them in various categories?

## **2. Literature review**

### **2.1 Structure and Function of News Headlines**

News headlines serve as a crucial element of journalistic discourse, aiming to attract readers while summarizing the core message of an article. According to Stengel (1989), news releases were historically employed as strategic tools by politicians, businesses, and organizations. They typically include lead elements—concise introductory paragraphs answering fundamental journalistic questions: Who? What? When? Where? How? and Why? (Stengel, 1989). Ward (1967) identified six key news values, later refined into three primary elements: prominence, normality, and significance. Prominence pertains to the newsworthiness of individuals or institutions due to achievements or incidents. Normality involves common or extraordinary events, while significance refers to the broader impact on the audience.

Further studies (Itule & Anderson, 1994) refined these criteria, emphasizing newsworthiness based on ten principles, including factual accuracy, clarity, conciseness, and objectivity. These factors reinforce the role of news as an informative yet engaging medium. The linguistic choices in headlines further enhance reader engagement, influencing both perception and consumption patterns (Bedřichová & Urbanová, 2006). Headlines are strategically placed and structured to maximize visibility, often employing curiosity-driven techniques to entice readers (Chen, Conroy, & Rubin, 2015). The effectiveness of a headline, therefore, extends beyond summarization—it operates as a persuasive tool, shaping audience interest and engagement (Bowles & Borden, 2000).

### **2.2 Theoretical Framework of Formality in English**

#### **2.2.1 Definition and Features of Formality**

Formality in language is a multifaceted concept that varies across contexts and discourse types. Heylighen and Dewaele (1999) contend that formality lacks a definitive universal definition but is distinguishable through linguistic characteristics. Formal speech, for instance, is marked by careful pronunciation, precise word choices, and complex sentence structures. In contrast, informal speech is characterized by spontaneity and flexibility in

syntax and vocabulary. According to Richards, Platt, and Platt (1997), three primary factors influence formality: proportion, consistency, and stylistic salience. These dimensions shape the overall tone and appropriateness of language in different communicative settings (Lasan, 2022).

English writing styles encompass both formal and informal registers, depending on the purpose and audience. Formal writing is prevalent in academic, legal, and business discourse, requiring clarity, precision, and structured argumentation (Kaur & Saini, 2018). Informal writing, by contrast, is common in casual conversations, social media, and personal correspondence. Heylighen and Dewaele (1999) highlight that formal language aims to minimize ambiguity through explicit phrasing and well-defined lexical choices. The adoption of formality in professional and academic settings signifies expertise, credibility, and authority (Raximbayevna & Raxmatullayevna, 2024).

### **2.2.2 Characteristics of Formal and Informal Language**

The linguistic features distinguishing formal from informal communication have been extensively analyzed. Sheikha and Inkpen (2021) identify several key markers of formal text, including:

- The use of respectful salutations (e.g., “Sir” and “Madam”)
- Objective presentation of facts
- Complex syntax and vocabulary
- Absence of contractions (e.g., “do not” instead of “don’t”)
- Limited use of acronyms
- Prevalence of passive voice and impersonal pronouns

In contrast, informal texts display more personal and conversational traits, such as active voice, first-person pronouns, colloquialisms, and phrasal verbs. The study suggests that formal and informal registers are not strictly dichotomous but exist along a continuum, influenced by social and contextual factors (Akhtursunova & Aubakirova, 2024). While formal communication maintains structured and hierarchical discourse, informal communication fosters interpersonal rapport and accessibility.

The fluidity between these two modes underscores the adaptability of language use in different domains. Informal communication enhances social bonding, whereas formal discourse ensures clarity and professionalism in structured interactions. The coexistence of these styles within a single discourse community necessitates an awareness of contextual appropriateness and communicative intent (Akhtursunova & Aubakirova, 2024).

## **2.3 Previous Studies on News Headlines and Formality**

Extensive research has examined the linguistic and communicative functions of news headlines. Stengel (1989) analyzed news elements in relation to editorial decisions, emphasizing the role of timeliness and local relevance. Bell (1991) further explored media

language, highlighting the structural and stylistic mechanisms employed in news writing. He posited that the lead paragraph in news stories functions similarly to abstracts in academic writing, summarizing key information concisely. His work aligns with later studies on the persuasive function of headlines, particularly in digital journalism, where clickbait strategies influence reader engagement (Kuiken, Schuth, Spitters, & Marx, 2017).

The semantic interplay between headlines and subheadlines has also been a subject of scholarly interest. Bedřichová and Urbanová (2006) examined discourse patterns in *The Guardian*, identifying news values such as negativity and personalization as factors influencing headline construction. The increasing prominence of social media has further transformed headline consumption, with incidental exposure to news shaping reader perceptions (Segado-Boj, Díaz-Campo, & Quevedo-Redondo, 2019).

In parallel, studies on linguistic formality have provided insights into textual variation across genres. Lasan (2024) demonstrated that social context significantly influences verbal expression formality, with consistency and stylistic salience determining textual tone. Akhtursunova and Aubakirova (2024) similarly emphasized the functional distinction between formal and informal writing, noting that grammatical complexity, lexical precision, and syntactic rigidity characterize formal discourse.

The study by Shie (2010) examined lexical variations in headlines from *The New York Times* and Taiwan's *United Daily News*. Findings indicated that headlines in *The New York Times* incorporated more colloquial and slang expressions, whereas *United Daily News* maintained a higher degree of lexical formality. The study suggested that headline accessibility is strategically managed to balance engagement and credibility.

A quantitative approach to measuring formality was employed by Eriksson (2017), who used the F-measure method to analyze sports reporting. The results indicated that articles on horse polo exhibited higher formality levels than soccer articles, based on noun-to-verb ratios. This methodological framework, initially proposed by Heylighen and Dewaele (1999), remains a reliable metric for assessing linguistic formality in various discourse types. Supporting studies by Finegan (2004) and Biber and Conrad (2009) further corroborate the notion that non-deictic elements elevate formality in written texts.

This review has examined the foundational research on news headlines and English language formality, synthesizing key theoretical perspectives and empirical findings. The studies discussed underscore the role of structural, lexical, and stylistic choices in shaping news discourse. Additionally, the distinction between formal and informal registers highlights the necessity of contextually appropriate language use. The F-measure method provides a viable approach for analyzing formality levels, offering a quantitative dimension to linguistic research. The insights presented in this review form the basis for the methodological framework of this study, as detailed in the subsequent section.

### **3. Methodology**

This section outlines the research methodology employed in the study. It is organized into six main parts: source materials evaluation, news source justification, data collection, framework of analysis, data analysis, and research procedure.

#### **3.1 Source Material Evaluation**

##### **3.1.1 Definition of NBA**

The NBA (National Basketball Association) is widely recognized as one of the most successful basketball leagues in the world, attracting global audiences. The league is based in North America and features a regular season comprising 82 games (Cuzzolin, 2020; Huyghe, Alcaraz, Calleja-González, & Bird, 2022).

##### **3.1.2 Definition of FIBA**

FIBA, officially known as the Fédération Internationale de Basketball (International Basketball Federation), is a globally recognized organization that governs international basketball competitions. For North American players unfamiliar with FIBA regulations, its global nature presents unique challenges (Cuzzolin, 2020). FIBA tournaments involve 32 teams divided into eight groups, progressing through an initial group stage, a qualifying round, and finally, the playoff stage.

For this study, which focuses specifically on news headlines, several potential materials were considered for analysis, including the NBA, FIBA, Sports Illustrated (SI), and the Basketball Champions League. Ultimately, the researchers selected NBA and FIBA news headlines as the primary sources. The rationale for this selection is discussed below.

#### **3.2 News Source Justification**

Given that basketball seasons typically run from October to April, the year 2023 was chosen for this study, as it represents the most recent complete season prior to the study year (2024). Selecting 2023 ensures that the language used in news headlines remains current and reflective of contemporary usage. Furthermore, focusing on a single year allows for a consistent comparison in terms of linguistic features and levels of formality.

The NBA, based in North America, has played a crucial role in popularizing basketball globally. As one of the most successful sports leagues, its influence extends beyond the United States, promoting widespread appreciation for the sport.

Similarly, FIBA is the central authority for international basketball, organizing prestigious tournaments such as the Basketball World Cup and the Olympic Basketball Tournament. It functions as a federation of national basketball organizations worldwide.

This study focuses on news headlines because they serve as key attention-grabbing elements in sports journalism. Headlines encapsulate the main ideas of articles in a concise format, meeting the demands of today's readers who often seek quick and accessible information. Moreover, headlines are suitable for analysis using the F-measure, as they offer

a comparable number of words across different sources, allowing for effective evaluation of formality.

The decision to focus on sports news, particularly basketball, stems from several factors. The fast pace and dynamic nature of basketball games make them exciting to watch and analyze. Fans are drawn to both team performance and individual player statistics, which enhances their engagement with the sport. Factors such as player trades, game strategies, merchandise associated with popular players, and even familial connections of athletes contribute to the sport's broad appeal.

Specifically, the study aims to examine the degree of formality in basketball news headlines to understand how linguistic choices influence reader engagement. Language formality plays a critical role in shaping perceptions of credibility and accessibility. Highly formal or overly casual language can affect how readers interpret and engage with the news.

Finally, the study investigates how varying levels of formality in basketball news headlines attract reader attention. Authors' linguistic choices—whether formal or informal—may influence how approachable and engaging the headlines appear. This approach also helps identify trends in headlines that focus on individual players, teams, or international competitions.

### **3.3 Data Collection**

A total of 40 news headlines were collected from the official websites: NBA headlines from [www.nba.com/news](http://www.nba.com/news) and FIBA headlines from [www.fiba.basketball/news](http://www.fiba.basketball/news). We limited our corpus to all headlines published between January and December 2023. We collected 20 headlines from each source. These headlines were copied into a Google Document for word count analysis. NBA headlines contained a total of 217 words, while FIBA headlines comprised 208 words. The details are presented in Appendix 1 and 2.

To further enrich the analysis, a questionnaire was designed to capture readers' perspectives. Participants selected for this questionnaire were individuals familiar with basketball to ensure informed responses.

#### **3.3.1 Participants**

Participants were selected through purposive sampling, as described by Etikan, Musa, and Alkassim (2016). Purposive sampling, also known as judgmental or selective sampling, is a non-probability sampling technique where participants are chosen based on specific criteria such as availability, geographic proximity, and willingness to participate. Rai and Thapa (2015) also highlight purposive sampling as a widely used method for selecting participants who meet the research criteria.

In this study, 41 participants were selected, all of whom had a basic familiarity with basketball. The criteria for participation were as follows:

1. Fundamental ability to play basketball.
2. Basic understanding of basketball rules.
3. Genuine interest in basketball.

Sample size determination followed the recommendations of Krejcie and Morgan (1970), who propose methods for identifying appropriate sample sizes in research. According to Ahmad and Halim (2017), an alpha level of 0.05 is typically used in educational research. Based on this guideline, a minimum sample size of 36 participants was deemed appropriate for the study, given the total of 40 news headlines analyzed. The final sample consisted of 41 participants.

### **3.4 Framework of Analysis**

The primary analytical tool employed in this study is the F-score, developed by Heylighen and Dewaele (1999), which quantifies formality based on word class frequency. Specifically, the F-score calculation is as follows:

**F-score** = ((noun + adjective + preposition + article - pronoun - verb - adverb - interjection + 100) / 2)

Word counts for each part of speech were obtained, and frequencies were expressed as percentages. A higher F-score indicates greater formality (Heylighen & Dewaele, 1999).

Eriksson's (2017) pilot study also utilized the F-score, affirming its suitability for analyzing the presence of eight parts of speech in texts from various fields. Heylighen and Dewaele (1999) demonstrated that informational texts scored highest in formality (61), while interviews scored lower (46). This method has been validated across different text types and is considered effective for analyzing news headlines.

Additionally, Eriksson (2017) employed the CLAWS tagger (Constituent Likelihood Automatic Word-tagging System) from Lancaster University to tag parts of speech. This free tool was also used in the current study to tag each news headline.

### **3.5 Data Analysis**

The analysis was conducted in two main parts: evaluation of news headline formality and participant questionnaire responses.

First, the 40 collected headlines were analyzed using the CLAWS tagger to calculate their F-scores. Results were compared between the two news sources.

Second, after formality analysis, a questionnaire was distributed via Google Forms. The questionnaire consisted of two sections:

- Participants selected their preferred headline from pairs of NBA and FIBA headlines.
- Participants rated each headline on a 1–5 scale based on its influence on their interest, without knowing the source or formality level.

In total, participants responded to 40 rating items and made 20 choices between headline pairs.

Upon collecting responses from all 41 participants, data were analyzed to determine trends:

- Preference patterns were compared with formality levels to assess whether participants favored more or less formal headlines.
- Interest ratings were analyzed to identify common characteristics among the highest-rated headlines, continuing down to the lowest-rated headlines.

Results were presented in tables and charts for clarity.

### 3.6 Procedure

The procedure for this study is summarized as follows:

1. News headlines were collected from NBA and FIBA official websites.
2. Headlines were selected from all articles published in January–December 2023 (NBA) and January–December 2023 (FIBA).
3. A total of 40 headlines were chosen for analysis.
4. The F-score methodology, based on Eriksson (2017) and Heylighen and Dewaele (1999), was applied to assess formality.
5. A questionnaire was distributed to basketball enthusiasts to gather reader attitudes.
6. Collected data were analyzed, tabulated, and visualized in charts and tables.

## 4. Findings

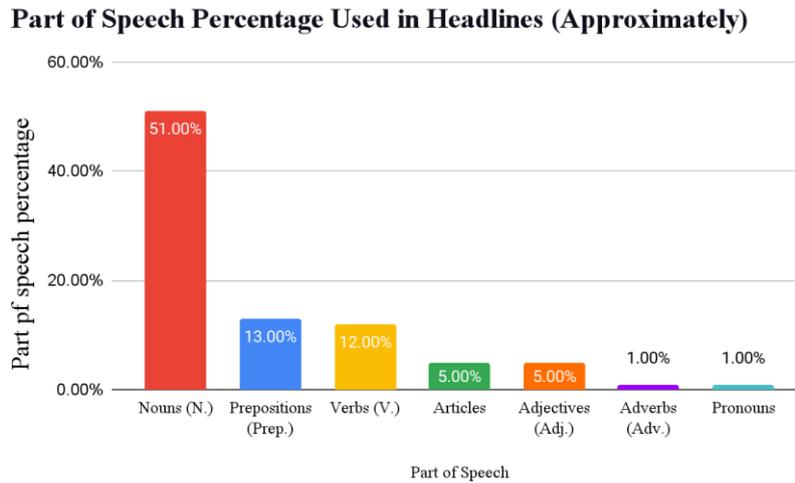
The first objective of this study was to investigate the language characteristics of basketball news headlines, specifically focusing on formality. To achieve this, the F-measure method, as proposed by Eriksson (2017) and Heylighen and Dewaele (1999), was applied to calculate the formality percentage of each headline. The frequency of each part of speech was determined by dividing the total count of each word class by the overall word count of the headlines. The following subsections report the findings in line with the research questions.

### 4.1 Frequency of Parts of Speech in News Headlines

**Research Question 1:** *How do different parts of speech in headlines affect the formality level?*

The findings reveal that three parts of speech—**nouns, prepositions, and verbs**—dominate the construction of headlines across both NBA and FIBA sources. Specifically, nouns emerged as the most frequent, highlighting the emphasis on informativeness and precision, which are key features of formal writing. Conversely, the use of adjectives and adverbs was less prominent, suggesting that headlines prioritize clarity and brevity over embellishment.

These patterns suggest that formal headline writing relies heavily on nouns to convey essential information efficiently. This is consistent with previous findings by Heylighen and Dewaele (1999), who noted that formal writing often features higher noun frequency.

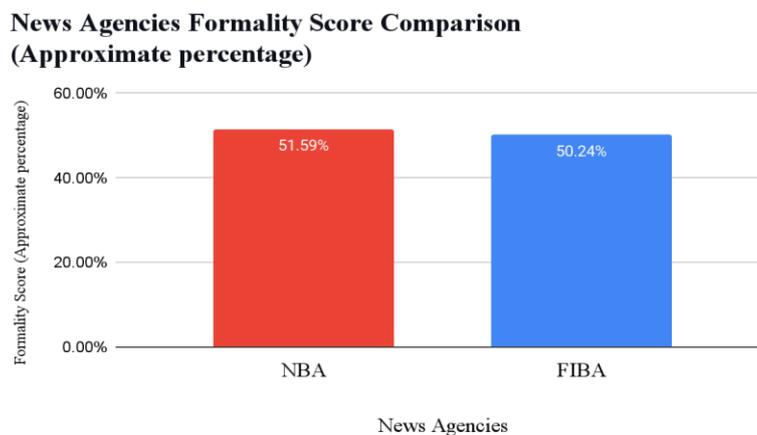


**Figure 1** Overview of part of speech frequency in NBA and FIBA headlines using the CLAWS tagger

#### 4.2 Formality Levels of News Headlines

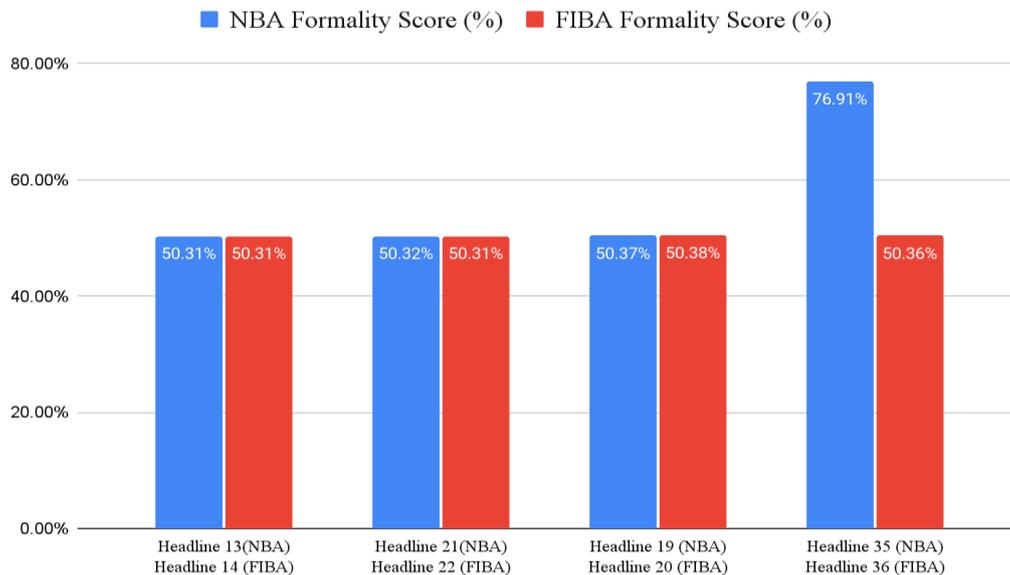
**Research Question 2:** *What is the significant degree of formality difference between NBA and FIBA headlines?*

Although NBA headlines averaged 51.59% formality versus 50.24% for FIBA, this marginal gap should be interpreted cautiously. This suggests that there is no meaningful variation in formality between the two news sources. Both sets of headlines exceed the 50% threshold, indicating that a formal writing style is generally preferred in basketball news headlines, regardless of the source.



**Figure 2** Overall formality comparison between NBA and FIBA headlines

The following figure presents four key pairs of headlines that illustrate significant comparisons of formality scores between NBA and FIBA news headlines. These headline pairs were selected to highlight notable patterns observed in the overall analysis of forty headlines, organized into twenty NBA–FIBA pairs.



**Figure 3** Significant comparisons of formality percentages between NBA and FIBA headlines

This figure highlights three significant findings. First, there is a pair of headlines that share an identical formality score: **headlines 13 (NBA) and 14 (FIBA)**, both scoring **50.31%**. This suggests that in some cases, despite differing sources, the linguistic choices result in highly comparable levels of formality.

Second, two headline pairs demonstrate the smallest gap in formality scores, with only a **0.01% difference**. These are:

- **Headlines 19 (NBA) and 20 (FIBA):** NBA headline “5 takeaways: Nuggets drop Heat for 1st NBA championship” scored **50.37%**, while the FIBA headline “Yuta Tabuse talks Japan’s World Cup and Asia Cup clash with Gilas’ Castro” scored **50.38%**.
- **Headlines 21 (NBA) and 22 (FIBA):** NBA headline “Bleacher Report: Latest Mock Draft as key March action looms” scored **50.32%**, closely matched by the FIBA headline “Gytis the Great - Lithuanian reflections on winning World Cup J9 Predictor Game” at **50.31%**.

Third, the widest gap in formality scores appears between **headlines 35 (NBA) and 36 (FIBA)**. The NBA headline “A healthy Zion Williamson is a boon for the Pelicans (and the

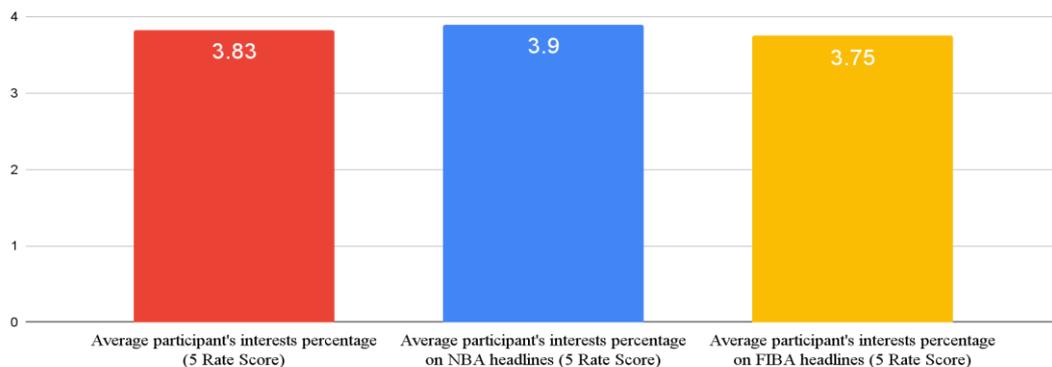
NBA)” scored **76.91%**, while the FIBA headline “Junckers courts catch the eye at the FIBA Basketball World Cup 2023” scored **50.36%**, resulting in a difference of **26.55%**.

Overall, the analysis reveals that NBA headlines tend to achieve higher formality scores more frequently than FIBA headlines. Specifically, NBA headlines scored higher in **12 out of the 20 headline pairs**, while FIBA headlines had higher formality scores in **7 pairs**. One pair of headlines exhibited the same score. These patterns are valuable in understanding how differences in language formality between the two sources might influence reader perceptions and preferences in the subsequent questionnaire analysis.

### 4.3 Participants’ Preferences

**Research Question 3:** *How do participants rate their interest in various basketball news headlines?*

Participants were asked to compare paired headlines from NBA and FIBA and rate their interest on a scale from 1 to 5. The findings indicate that participants predominantly rated their interest above 3 points, suggesting a general preference for the headlines used in the study. Despite the largely formal style of the headlines, participants showed sustained interest, regardless of the news source.



**Figure 4** Average participant interest ratings

The final objective of this study was to explore participants’ preferences through the questionnaire. With responses collected from 41 participants via Google Forms, the following figure illustrates the results of the first part of the questionnaire, which focused on participants’ headline preferences. In this figure, odd-numbered headlines represent news from the NBA, while even-numbered headlines correspond to FIBA news. The overall comparison of participants’ preferences is presented in Figure 5.

Interests Comparison between NBA and FIBA headlines

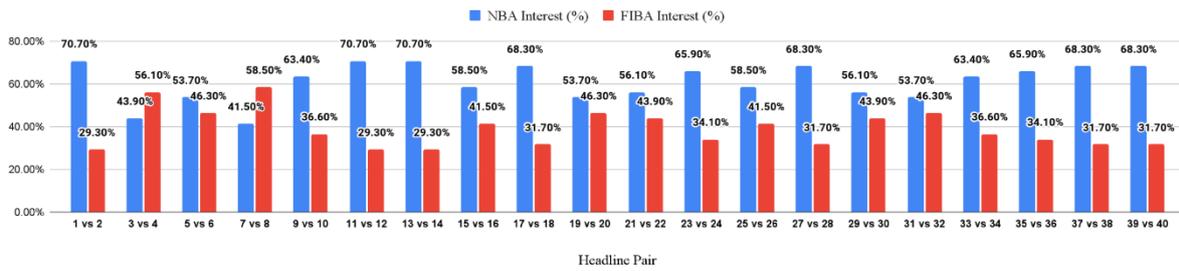


Figure 5 Participant preference comparison between NBA and FIBA headlines

The results illustrated in Figure 5 indicate a clear preference for NBA headlines over those from FIBA. Despite the relatively similar levels of formality in headline writing between the two news agencies, NBA headlines were consistently more appealing to the participants. Specifically, out of the twenty headline pairs presented, NBA headlines were selected in **eighteen pairs**, while FIBA headlines were preferred in only **two pairs**. This suggests that NBA news headlines have greater potential to capture readers’ attention and generate interest, even when formality levels are comparable between the two sources.

Figures 6 and 7 show the comparison between the formality scores and the participants’ interest ratings by using the F-measure method. The results show that NBA headlines scored higher than FIBA headlines in both the formality levels and participants’ interest. Specifically, NBA headlines had higher formality scores in more headline pairs and also gained higher interest ratings from participants.

These findings suggest that a higher level of formality in NBA headlines does not lower the readers’ interest. Instead, the results show that formal language in news headlines can still successfully attract readers. In other words, writing headlines with more formal language does not always make readers less interested, and for NBA headlines, it might even help to make them more attractive.

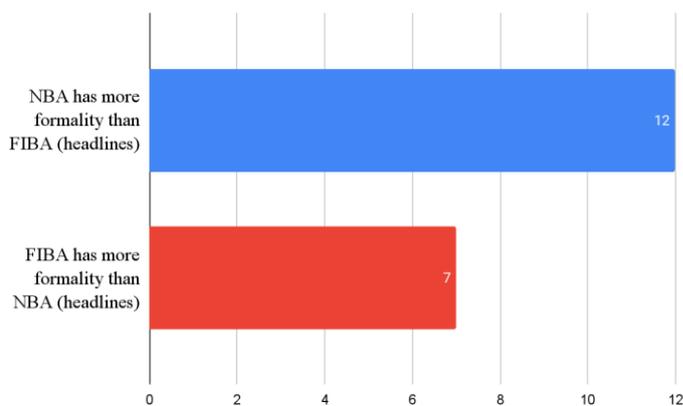
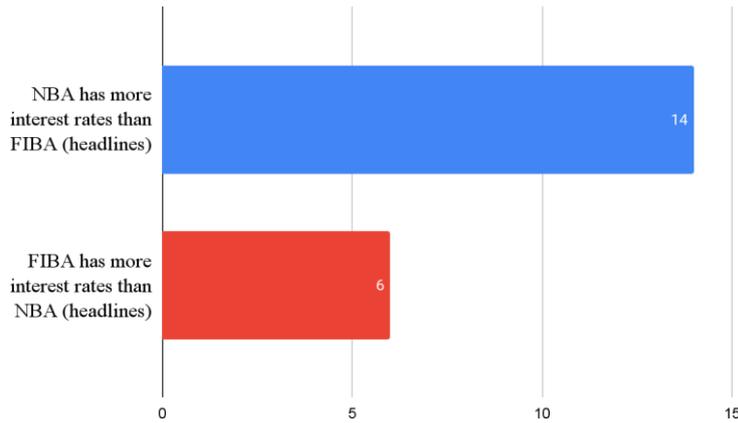


Figure 6 Formality score comparison using the F-measure method



**Figure 7** Participant interest rating comparison between NBA and FIBA headlines

## 5. Discussion and Conclusion

### 5.1 Purpose of the Study

This study aimed to investigate the formality of headline writing in basketball news from two main sources: the NBA and FIBA. It also explored how the formality of these headlines could influence readers' attention, particularly among basketball fans. The research focused on three main objectives:

1. To examine the language use characteristics related to formality in basketball news headlines.
2. To compare the formality levels of NBA and FIBA headlines using the F-measure method.
3. To understand participants' preferences for news headlines from the two sources.

To address these objectives, a total of 40 headlines—20 from each news agency—were randomly selected from their official websites. Additionally, 41 participants familiar with basketball completed a questionnaire to share their preferences and interest ratings for the selected headlines.

This study confirms that both NBA and FIBA headlines employ moderate formality (F-score > 50 %), relying predominantly on nouns for clarity. The slight but significant formality edge in NBA headlines is mirrored in participants' stronger headline preferences. Sports editors should note that moderate formality does not deter engagement—in fact, full-clause constructions and nominal compounds (e.g., “Finals MVP Ladder”) can enhance both clarity and appeal.

### 5.2 Summary of Findings

#### 5.2.1 Language Use Characteristics in Headlines

To answer the first research question, the study analyzed parts of speech in the selected headlines. The results revealed that nouns, prepositions, and verbs were the most frequently

used word classes in both NBA and FIBA headlines. This pattern suggests that headline writing in basketball news emphasizes clarity and informativeness, using nouns especially to deliver concise and direct messages. The limited use of adjectives and adverbs further supports the intention to maintain straightforward language and avoid unnecessary elaboration.

This finding aligns with Eriksson's (2017) framework, which highlights that formal texts tend to use specific parts of speech, like nouns, to enhance clarity and reduce ambiguity.

### **5.2.2 Formality Comparison Between NBA and FIBA Headlines**

Addressing the second research question, the study compared the formality levels of NBA and FIBA headlines using the F-measure method. The analysis showed marginally difference of 1.05 percent, with NBA headlines being marginally more formal. This small gap suggests that both NBA and FIBA adopt a similar formal writing style in their headlines.

However, a closer look at individual headline pairs revealed some interesting variations. One pair of headlines had identical formality scores, two pairs showed a minimal difference of 0.01 percent, and one pair had the largest gap of 26.55 percent. These patterns highlight that while overall formality is comparable, individual headlines may vary in their degree of formality.

### **5.2.3 Participants' Preferences for Headlines**

The third research question focused on participants' preferences and interest ratings. The questionnaire results showed that, despite the small difference in formality levels between NBA and FIBA headlines, participants clearly favored NBA headlines. In most of the headline pairs, NBA headlines were selected more frequently, suggesting that factors beyond formality, such as familiarity with teams or reporting style, likely influenced participant choices.

Furthermore, participants generally rated their interest levels between four and five across the headlines. This indicates that the selected headlines from both news sources were engaging overall, with NBA headlines capturing slightly more interest.

## **5.3 Discussion of Results**

### **5.3.1 Formality of Headlines**

The findings of this study confirm that both NBA and FIBA headlines are typically written in a formal style. This supports Eriksson's (2017) research, which observed that sports news reporting across different sports often maintains a formal tone. The small formality difference found in this study suggests that both sources continue this tradition of formal reporting in sports journalism.

Additionally, the frequent use of nouns, prepositions, and verbs in the headlines corresponds with Heylighen and Dewaele's (1999) explanation that formal texts use non-deictic words to minimize ambiguity. Finegan (2004) and Biber and Conrad (2009) also noted that nouns and explicit structures characterize formal writing, which this study further supports.

Although the researchers initially assumed that less formal headlines might attract more reader interest, the findings revealed the opposite. Participants tended to prefer the more formal NBA headlines. This suggests that formality, rather than deterring readers, may actually enhance the appeal of headlines in sports news.

### **5.3.2 Part of Speech Usage in Headlines**

The analysis of parts of speech directly answers the first research question. The dominance of nouns in both NBA and FIBA headlines emphasizes the role of clear references to players, teams, and locations in sports reporting. This aligns with Prateepchaikul (2010), who observed that sports headlines often highlight names and places to capture readers' attention and quickly convey essential details.

Using nouns helps headlines remain informative and accessible, which supports the goal of making headlines easy to understand and engaging for readers.

### **5.3.3 Functions of Headlines in Capturing Readers' Attention**

The participant ratings addressed the third research question, revealing that headlines from both NBA and FIBA effectively captured attention, with scores mostly between four and five. However, NBA headlines were generally preferred.

This finding supports Bedřichová and Urbanová (2006), who emphasized that headlines are crucial in drawing readers in through specific language choices and compact structure. Headlines act as the first point of contact, summarizing the story and sparking curiosity.

Moreover, as Segado-Boj, Díaz-Campo, and Quevedo-Redondo (2019) explained, incidental exposure to news on social media highlights the importance of well-crafted headlines. In such cases, headlines serve as the deciding factor for reader engagement. This study reinforces the idea that well-designed headlines, even when written in a formal style, can successfully attract and maintain readers' attention.

## **5.4 Conclusion**

In summary, this study found that both NBA and FIBA headlines follow a formal writing style, with only a small difference in formality scores. The analysis confirmed that nouns were the most frequently used part of speech, contributing to the overall formal tone of the headlines. Using the F-measure method, the study showed that while NBA headlines were slightly more formal, both sources shared similar formality levels.

Importantly, the questionnaire results revealed that NBA headlines not only had higher formality scores but also attracted more attention from participants. This suggests that formal headlines, particularly from the NBA, can effectively capture reader interest, especially among basketball fans.

Overall, the study concludes that writing headlines in a formal style does not reduce reader engagement. Instead, clear and informative headlines with a formal tone can successfully draw attention and interest.

### **5.5 Limitations**

This study has some limitations to consider. First, the small sample size of headlines and participants limits the generalizability of the findings to all sports news headlines and basketball fans. Second, it was challenging to target participants with a strong interest in basketball, which may have affected the reliability of the results. Third, the study focused only on headlines, as full news articles vary greatly in length and word count, making it difficult to apply the F-measure method consistently across entire articles.

### **5.6 Recommendations for Future Research**

Building on these limitations, several recommendations are proposed for future research. Future studies should include a wider range of news sources and a larger collection of headlines to allow for broader comparisons. Additionally, researchers could analyze other parts of news articles—such as lead paragraphs, body texts, and conclusions—to compare formality levels across different sections. Finally, involving larger and more diverse groups of participants would provide deeper insights into reader preferences and allow comparisons across different audiences.

## **Authors**

**Theethat Preechawan** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English, Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science, Kasetsart University.

**Bantita Koennonkok** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English, Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science, Kasetsart University.

**Paniti Pararattanawat** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English, Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science, Kasetsart University.

**Uraiwat Rattanapan Noonkong** Lecturer at Department of Foreign Languages, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkla University.

**Wisut Jarunthawatchai** Assistant Professor at Division of English, Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science, Kasetsart University.

## **References**

- Ahmad, H., & Halim, H. (2017). Determining sample size for research activities. **Selangor Business Review**. <https://sbr.journals.unisel.edu.my/ojs/index.php/sbr/article/view/12>
- Akhtursunova, A., & Aubakirova, G. (2024). Features of formal and informal communication in English language. *Bulletin of L.N. Gumilyov Eurasian National University. Philology Series*, 146(1), 33–40. <https://bulphil.enu.kz/index.php/main/article/view/759>

- Bedřichová, L., & Urbanová, L. (2006). **Headlines and sub-headlines in newspaper reporting** [Master's thesis, Masaryk University].
- Bell, A. (1991). **The language of news media**. Blackwell.
- Biber, D., & Conrad, S. (2009). **Register, genre, and style**. Cambridge University Press.
- Bowles, D. A., & Borden, D. L. (2000). **Creative editing**. Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Chalaysap, N. (2012). Contrastive analysis of headlines in Thai and English language newspapers in Thailand. In **Current Issues and Future Directions in Media, Communication and Language** (p. 66).
- Chen, Y., Conroy, N. K., & Rubin, V. L. (2015). News in an online world: The need for an “automatic crap detector”. **Proceedings of the Association for Information Science and Technology**, 52(1), 1–4. <https://doi.org/10.1002/pr2.2015.145052010081>
- Cuzzolin, F. (2020). Training and performance differences between the NBA and FIBA rules and major competition aspects (Euro, WC, and Olympics). In F. Cuzzolin (Eds.), **Basketball sports medicine and science** (pp. 791–797). Springer.
- Eriksson, D. (2017). **Using the F-measure to test formality in sports reporting**. [Unpublished Manuscript].
- Etikan, I., Musa, S. A., & Alkassim, R. S. (2016). Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. **American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics**, 5(1), 1–4. <https://doi.org/10.11648/j.ajtas.20160501.11>
- Finegan, E. (2004). **Language: Its structure and use** (4th ed.). Thomson Wadsworth.
- Heylighen, F., & Dewaele, J. M. (1999). Formality of language: Definition, measurement and behavioral determinants. **Interneter Bericht**, 4(1).
- Huyghe, T., Alcaraz, P. E., Calleja-González, J., & Bird, S. P. (2022). The underpinning factors of NBA game-play performance: A systematic review (2001–2020). **The Physician and Sportsmedicine**, 50(2), 94–122. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00913847.2021.1896957>
- Itule, B. D., & Anderson, D. A. (1994). **News writing and reporting for today's media** (3rd ed.). McGraw-Hill.
- Jongyingjaroenwong, P. (2004). **Business news writing style and the perception of readers on source credibility** [Master's thesis, Chulalongkorn University].
- Kaur, J., & Saini, J. R. (2018). Emotion detection and sentiment analysis in text corpus: A differential study with informal and formal writing styles. **SSRN**. <https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3291299>
- Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. **Educational and Psychological Measurement**, 30(3), 607–610. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001316447003000308>
- Kuiken, J., Schuth, A., Spitters, M., & Marx, M. (2017). Effective headlines of newspaper articles in a digital environment. **Digital Journalism**, 5(10), 1300–1314. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21670811.2017.1279978>
- Lasan, I. (2022). Expression of formality in writing: English-dominant speakers' and English learners' knowledge, preferences, and other-language influence. **International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism**, 27(1), 98–112. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2022.2157204>
- Prateepchaikul, N. (2010). **Headline writing techniques in general news**. Thesis.SWU. [http://thesis.swu.ac.th/swuthesis/Eng\(M.A.\)/Nita\\_P.pdf](http://thesis.swu.ac.th/swuthesis/Eng(M.A.)/Nita_P.pdf)
- Rai, N., & Thapa, B. (2015). A study on purposive sampling method in research. **Kathmandu School of Law Review**, 5(1), 8–15.
- Raximbayevna, I. A., & Raxmatullayevna, A. N. (2024). View of lexical and grammatical features of the formal style. Scientific Conference Management System. <https://econferenceseries.com/index.php/scms/article/view/3455/3360>
- Reah, D. (1998). **The language of newspapers**. Routledge.
- Richards, J., Platt, J., & Platt, H. (1997). **Dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics**. Longman.

- Segado-Boj, F., Díaz-Campo, J., & Quevedo-Redondo, R. (2019). Influence of the 'News Finds Me' perception on news sharing and news consumption on social media. **Communication Today**, 10(2), 90–104.
- Sheikha, F. A., & Inkpen, D. (2021, September). Generation of formal and informal sentences. **Proceedings of the First Workshop on Stylistic Variation**. <https://aclanthology.org/W11-2826.pdf>
- Shie, J. S. (2010). **Lexical feature variations between New York Times and Times Supplement news headlines**. [Unpublished manuscript].
- Stengel, S. P. (1989). News elements and their relationship to news releases. <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/215278444.pdf>
- Ward, W. J. (1967). **News values, news situations, and news selections: An intensive study of ten city editors** [Doctoral dissertation, University of Iowa].

## Appendix 1

### NBA news headlines, date published, and word count

NBA (Headlines)	Published	Word count
1. Bleacher Report: Latest Mock Draft as key March action looms	09 March 2023	10
2. Finals MVP Ladder: Nuggets dominate race after big Game 4	10 June 2023	10
3. 24 thoughts on Game 4 of 2023 NBA Finals	10 June 2023	9
4. Aaron Gordon gets his statement performance to put Nuggets on brink of title	10 June 2023	13
5. After hard-earned NBA journey, Michael Porter Jr. unfazed by Finals shooting woes	11 June 2023	12
6. Finals Film Study: Nuggets' defense puts them one win away from a championship	11 June 2023	13
7. Heat finally meet their match against Nikola Jokic, Nuggets	13 June 2023	9
8. Twitter reacts to Nuggets' 2023 NBA championship	14 June 2023	7
9. Nikola Jokic adds NBA championship, Finals MVP to impressive resume	15 June 2023	10
10. 5 takeaways: Nuggets drop Heat for 1 <sup>st</sup> NBA championship	15 June 2023	9
11. Spurs select victor wembanyama with no.1 pick in 2023 NBA draft	22 June 2023	12
12. Why there are no debates surrounding the No. 1 pick in the 2023 NBA Draft	22 June 2023	15
13. Warriors acquire Chris Paul from Wizards in exchange for Jordan Poole	7 July 2023	11
14. Bucks' massive trade for Damian Lillard puts NBA on notice	1 August 2023	10
15. Germany wins FIBA World Cup for first time, defeats Serbia for gold medal	11 September 2023	13
16. NBA Board of Governors approves new player participation policy	14 September 2023	9
17. NBA players react to Damian Lillard trade to Bucks	28 September 2023	9
18. Grizzlies face an uphill climb while awaiting Ja Morant's return	9 October 2023	10
19. A healthy Zion Williamson is a boon for the Pelicans (and the NBA)	10 October 2023	13
20. Victor Wembanyama becomes youngest with 20 points and 20 rebounds in a game	9 December 2023	13

## Appendix 2

### FIBA news headlines, date published, and word count

FIBA (Headlines)	Published	Word Count
1. Canada fly over Slovenia to reach the Semi-Finals for the first time	6 September 2023	12
2. Serbia and Germany qualify directly to Paris 2024	6 September 2023	8
3. One for the ages: Germany stun USA in a Semi-Final with 224 points	8 September 2023	13
4. Latvia cruise to win over Lithuania in battle for fifth	9 September 2023	10
5. Women's World Cup Global Ambassador Sue Bird excited to make a difference	9 September 2023	12
6. How did they do it? Three takeaways from Serbia's win over Canada	9 September 2023	12
7. Josh Giddey awarded first Wanda Rising Star Award	10 September 2023	8
8. Dennis Schroder named FIBA Basketball World Cup 2023 TISSOT MVP	10 September 2023	10
9. World Cup record owner Arturs Zagars finishes with most assists in 2023. Check the race from start to finish	13 September 2023	19
10. Valanciunas barely beats Milutinov as the top rebounder. Check the race from start to finish	13 September 2023	15
11. Six things we've loved and learned from the FIBA Basketball World Cup 2023	15 September 2023	13
12. Junckers courts catch the eye at the FIBA Basketball World Cup 2023	15 September 2023	12
13. Advanced stats from the World Cup: find out who was the best player on iso, and more	19 September 2023	17
14. Thunder GM Presti: "Shai will be a better player after playing at World Cup"	6 October 2023	14
15. Yuta Tabuse talks Japan's World Cup and Asia Cup clash with Gilas' Castro	13 October 2023	13
16. Record 125 international players on opening night rosters in the NBA	25 October 2023	11
17. Bogdan Bogdanovic balling, a Serbian summer tradition of excellence	20 November 2023	9
18. Gytis the Great - Lithuanian reflections on winning World Cup J9 Predictor Game	6 December 2023	12
19. Shai Gilgeous-Alexander honored as Canada's top athlete in 2023	12 December 2023	9
20. Nowitzki savors rise of Germany national team, growth of FIBA ball	14 December 2023	9

## **Exploring the Use of Cohesive Devices in Argumentative Essays: A Study of Thai English-Major Students at a Public University**

**Tiprada Pholwised<sup>1</sup>, Kancharat Thiamthat<sup>1</sup>, Kantima Amnuaisaksophon<sup>1</sup>,  
Sirisuda Thongchalerm<sup>2</sup>, Wisut Jarunthawatchai<sup>\*</sup>**

### **Abstract**

This study investigates the use of cohesive devices in argumentative essays written by Thai second-year English major students at a public university. Students in an English Writing course were assigned to write a 300–350-word argumentative essay on a specific topic. However, only 40 students agreed to participate in the research and provided their essays for analysis. The study, drawing on Halliday and Hasan’s cohesion framework, examined the most frequently used cohesive devices. The findings indicate that references and conjunctions accounted for more than 80% of the cohesive devices used, followed by lexical cohesion, substitution, and ellipsis. The results show that both the frequency of cohesive ties and students’ knowledge of cohesive devices significantly impact the overall quality of their argumentative essays. Cohesive devices help students enhance the effectiveness of their writing, making argumentative essays more logical, coherent, and easier for readers to understand the writer’s perspective.

**Keywords:** Cohesive devices, Argumentative essays, Thai EFL students

Received 23 April 2025; Received in revised form 18 June 2025; Accepted 20 June 2025

---

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding Author

E-mail: faaswsj@ku.ac.th

<sup>1</sup> Kasetsart University, Thailand

<sup>2</sup> Ubon Ratchathani Rajabhat University, Thailand

## **1. Introduction**

Writing is a fundamental part of the curriculum at every educational level, from elementary schools to universities (Weigle, 2002). Among the various writing genres, argumentative writing is notably demanding because it compels authors to adopt a stance on a controversial issue and support this stance with reasoning in order to persuade readers (Intraprawat, 2002). As Connor (1987) highlights, composing an argumentative essay is a complex cognitive endeavor that involves considering the writer's intent, the audience's expectations, rhetorical structures, and contextual factors. For students learning English as a foreign language (EFL), this complexity is often heightened. Specifically, Thai EFL students tend to struggle with elements that make argumentative writing both cohesive and coherent, such as selecting appropriate linking devices and organizing logical argument chains (Baker & Boonkit, 2004).

Despite this recognition, existing literature on cohesion in ESL/EFL writing has not fully addressed the specific patterns of cohesive device use among Thai EFL students, particularly in argumentative contexts. While Pawapatcharodom (2007) and Baker and Boonkit (2004) report that students frequently rely on metacognitive strategies for writing, the precise ways in which Thai EFL learners employ cohesive devices to construct persuasive arguments remain underexplored. Insights into these patterns can guide targeted instructional interventions that address the unique needs of Thai EFL writers.

In seeking ways to improve students' argumentative essays, many researchers have singled out the role of cohesive devices, which can strongly influence clarity and persuasiveness. Halliday and Hasan (1976) were among the first to conceptualize cohesive devices, defining them as linguistic mechanisms that connect parts of a text and facilitate understanding. Cohesion complements coherence, which refers to the logical relationship between ideas, enabling readers to follow the text's overall meaning (de Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981). Johns (1986) emphasizes that coherence in written text involves cohesion and unity as well as the reader's interaction with the text, while Johns (1986) maintains that cohesion is crucial for creating coherence. Halliday and Hasan (1976) classify cohesive devices into five categories: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion.

Studies have explored the role of cohesion in evaluating writing quality. For instance, Faigley and Witte (1981) found that essays rated more favorably tended to have a higher density of cohesive devices than those with lower ratings, although cohesion and coherence were only weakly correlated. Still, excessive errors can lead readers to perceive a text as less coherent (Tanawong, 2014). However, most of these studies have focused on general EFL or ESL populations without specifically focusing on Thai EFL undergraduates in argumentative writing. These findings underscore an importance of understanding how Thai EFL students,

in particular, select and use cohesive devices to make their argumentative writing more effective. By examining how Thai second-year English majors use these devices, this study offers evidence-based guidance for Thai EFL writing instruction.

This study aims to investigate the cohesive devices that second-year English major students use in their argumentative essays. By identifying the frequency and accuracy of different types of cohesive ties, we seek to inform pedagogical practices that can help Thai EFL students produce more coherent and persuasive argumentative texts.

## **2. Literature Review**

### **2.1 Cohesion in Writing**

Halliday and Hasan (1976) emphasize that cohesion is crucial for creating meaningful connections in texts, with each sentence typically containing at least one cohesive element that links it to surrounding sentences and guides the reader through the discourse. Cohesion itself does not determine whether a text is “good” or “bad,” but rather clarifies why a reader perceives it in a certain way and explains how conversational inferences arise—how listeners or readers infer meanings not explicitly stated. Because cohesion is a semantic concept, it focuses on the meaningful relationships among elements in a text, shaping them into a unified whole (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). To illustrate these relationships, Halliday and Hasan introduced the term “tie,” referring to moments when two elements in a text are linked cohesively, and identified five principal cohesive ties: reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion.

### **2.2 Types of Cohesion**

Halliday and Hasan (1976) identify five main categories of cohesion—reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion—each connecting parts of a text to ensure clarity, coherence, and smooth progression of ideas.

#### **2.2.1 Reference**

Reference involves pointing to another element for interpretation. Endophoric references direct readers within the text (anaphoric looks backward; cataphoric looks forward), while exophoric references point outside the text. Common types include personal references (e.g., *he*, *she*), demonstrative references (e.g., *this*, *that*), and comparative references (e.g., *as many*, *more*). Such indicators help maintain continuity by linking each new mention to previously established points.

#### **2.2.2 Substitution**

Substitution replaces one linguistic element with another at the lexicogrammatical level. Halliday and Hasan (1976) categorize it as nominal (*one/ones*), verbal (*do*), or clausal (*so/not*). For instance, the nominal substitute *one* may stand in for a previously mentioned

noun, while verbal substitution (e.g., *runs faster than I do*) helps avoid repetition by substituting the verb. Substitution thus ensures conciseness without sacrificing meaning.

### **2.2.3 Ellipsis**

Ellipsis likewise reduces redundancy by omitting elements that are understood from context. Halliday and Hasan distinguish nominal ellipsis (omitting a noun), verbal ellipsis (omitting the verb or operator), and clausal ellipsis (omitting part of the clause). For example, in *They started early, and we [Ø] later*, the missing phrase is inferred, allowing concise, clear communication.

### **2.2.4 Conjunction**

Conjunctions create logical and semantic links among sentences or clauses. They do more than just connect text; they guide readers through relations such as addition (*and*), opposition (*but*), cause (*so*), and sequence (*then*). This alignment of ideas into a coherent chain is vital for reader comprehension, giving structure to arguments and explanations.

### **2.2.5 Lexical Cohesion**

Lexical cohesion pertains to word choice and recurrence. Reiteration refers to repeating terms, using synonyms, or employing superordinates (e.g., *forest* → *woods*). Collocation involves words that frequently appear together (e.g., *north* and *south*). By echoing or associating terms within a text, lexical cohesion strengthens the overall unity and helps readers track themes and topics seamlessly.

## **2.3 Argumentative Essay**

An argumentative essay is a type of academic writing that presents a claim and supports or challenges another statement whose validity may be subject to debate (Hatch, 1992; Kopperschmidt, 1985). Kopperschmidt (1985) noted that argumentation involves evaluating the validity of statements to assess facts or actions. Hatch (1992) explained that while the structure of an argumentative essay is flexible, the classical model typically consists of an introduction, explanation of the issue, outline of the arguments, supporting evidence, refutation, and conclusion. Nonetheless, alternative organizational patterns are also widely recognized.

Maccoun (1983, as cited in Hatch, 1992) identified several organizational structures for argumentative writing. One such structure adopts a "zigzag" pattern, alternating between supporting and opposing arguments. Another presents a problem, refutes the opposing view, and proposes a solution. Some essays adopt a "one-sided argument," presenting only one viewpoint without counterarguments. Others follow an "eclectic approach," selectively acknowledging or rejecting different perspectives. Additional patterns include presenting the opposing view before the writer's stance or questioning opposing arguments without direct refutation. Regardless of structure, argumentative essays generally comprise three essential components: pro-arguments, counterarguments, and refutations.

For instructional purposes, students in this study were guided to follow the organizational model proposed by Reid (2000), structured as follows:

- I. Introduction with thesis statement (intent and opinion)
- II. Background paragraph (optional)
- III. Pro-argument #1 (weakest argument in support of the opinion)
- IV. Pro-argument #2 (moderately strong argument)
- V. Pro-argument #3 (strongest argument)
- VI. Counterarguments and refutation
- VII. Conclusion (summary, recommendation, solution, and/or prediction)

Although this structure differs from Maccoun's (1983) patterns, it was selected to help students build upon their prior knowledge of expository writing. This approach allowed them to develop well-organized argumentative essays incorporating the key elements of argumentation: pro-arguments, counterarguments, and refutations.

## 2.4 Relevant Research Studies

Researchers have frequently examined how cohesive devices correlate with writing quality and textual coherence. One such study, conducted by Tanawong (2014) at Srinakharinwirot University, investigated how Thai EFL students employ cohesive ties in their writing. His study involved 23 students who completed a writing task for a composition course. Findings revealed that *lexical cohesion* and *reference* were employed most frequently, followed by *conjunctions*, *substitution*, and *ellipsis*. He also identified cohesive errors—both grammatical and ungrammatical—stemming from students' limited grammar knowledge. A significant, though moderate, correlation between cohesion and coherence was discovered, implying that Thai EFL learners who use cohesive devices carefully tend to produce more coherent texts.

Similar tendencies are also observed in the work of Saputra and Hakim (2020), who analyzed cohesive devices in argumentative essays. Their research, which looked at the types of cohesive devices used by top-performing Indonesian university students, showed that *ellipsis* and *substitution* were rarely used. This underuse was attributed to students' unfamiliarity with these devices. Instead, *synonyms* were most commonly employed under lexical cohesion, a practice consistent with studies by Alarcon (2013) which found that the frequent use of synonyms can be a marker of higher-rated writing. Saputra and Hakim also noted that the article "the" was used more than other cohesive devices because it can function as both a connector and an article, reflecting a certain degree of stylistic sophistication among proficient writers.

Taken together, these studies indicate a shared pattern across different contexts: although writers learning English as a second or foreign language tend to use certain cohesive devices—particularly reference, conjunctions, and lexical items such as synonyms—other

forms like substitution and ellipsis are relatively underutilized. Scholars commonly argue that limited exposure and explicit instruction in these areas may constrain students' ability to diversify their cohesive strategies. These findings highlight the importance of teaching a broad range of cohesive devices in ESL writing courses, as they directly influence writing clarity, coherence, and overall quality. By focusing on less familiar but potentially powerful devices like substitution and ellipsis, educators may be able to improve learners' written expression, fostering a richer, more versatile control of discourse.

In summary, the literature underscores cohesion as a key component of effective writing. Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework remains influential, providing a systematic way to identify and categorize cohesive devices, while empirical studies across diverse ESL/EFL contexts consistently show that employing a wide array of such devices can enhance both cohesion and coherence. Nonetheless, the uneven usage of different forms (particularly substitution and ellipsis) points to an ongoing need for targeted pedagogical strategies to ensure students gain both awareness of and confidence in deploying the full range of cohesive tools.

### **3. Research Methodology**

#### **3.1 Research Design**

This study employed a qualitative approach to investigate the use of cohesive devices in argumentative essays written by undergraduate students. This approach enabled an in-depth analysis of how students applied cohesive devices in their academic writing. The analysis specifically focused on identifying patterns of use and evaluating both the appropriateness and accuracy of these devices within argumentative texts.

#### **3.2 Population and Sample**

The participants in this study were second-year English major students, aged 19 to 20, enrolled in the English Writing (01355231) course at a public university in Thailand. Their English proficiency level was generally at the pre-intermediate, based on curriculum expectations. All students had previously completed the prerequisite course, *Introduction to English Reading and Writing Skills* (01355131), and their first language was Thai. Of the 81 students enrolled in the course, 40 voluntarily agreed to participate in the study and submitted their essays for analysis.

#### **3.3 Research Instrument**

The main research instrument was a writing task designed to explore the use of cohesive devices in students' argumentative essays. The essays were analyzed following Halliday and Hasan's (1976) cohesion framework. The analysis followed several steps:

- (1) Each essay was divided into three main sections—introduction, body, and conclusion;

- (2) Sentences were sequentially numbered to facilitate the identification of cohesive devices;
- (3) All cohesive ties were categorized according to Halliday and Hasan's classification;
- (4) The frequency of each type of cohesive device was calculated as a percentage.

After completing the qualitative analysis, the accuracy of cohesive device usage was evaluated. The researcher carefully examined each cohesive tie to determine its correct use within context. To ensure the reliability of the findings, an expert in cohesion analysis—an experienced English lecturer at Kasetsart University, Kamphaeng Saen Campus—independently reviewed and verified the classification.

### **3.4 Data Collection Procedure**

Data were collected from second-year English major students enrolled in the English Writing (O1355231) course. As part of the final examination, students were assigned to write a 300–350-word argumentative essay, choosing from one of the following topics:

- University students working part-time: Do the benefits outweigh the disadvantages?
- Environmental conservation on campus: Should students at Kamphaeng Saen Campus be prohibited from using motorcycles and private cars?

Following the examination, the researchers invited students to participate in the study. Those who agreed signed consent forms, and their essays were collected for analysis.

### **3.5 Data Analysis**

The analysis focused on identifying and classifying the cohesive devices used in students' argumentative essays. In the first phase, the frequency of cohesive devices was quantified and categorized according to Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework, as shown in Table 1. In the second phase, the distribution and use of cohesive devices were analyzed to evaluate their contribution to the coherence and effectiveness of the essays. Following this classification, the accuracy of cohesive device use was evaluated. Each essay was reviewed individually to determine whether cohesive ties were appropriately applied within their contexts.

For the in-text citation, if there is a single author, please follow this pattern (Author's surname, year, page); for instance, (Hyland, 2007, p. 150). If there are two authors, please follow this pattern (1st Author's surname & 2nd Author's surname, year, page); for instance, (Baker & Boonkit, 2004, p. 305). If there are more than two authors, please follow this pattern (1st Author's surname et al., year, page); for instance, (Callaghan et al., 1993, p. 148-164). The content must employ 11 pt Georgia font with 1.5 line spacing. Each paragraph starts with a one-inch indentation and have full indentation.

**Table 1** Cohesive ties based on Halliday and Hasan's (1976) Cohesion in English

Cohesion Type	Subtype	Description
Reference	Personal, Demonstrative, Comparative	Links between pronouns and their referents
Substitution	Nominal, Verbal, Clausal	Replacing elements to avoid repetition
Ellipsis	Nominal, Verbal, Clausal	Omitting elements recoverable from context
Conjunction	Additive, Adversative, Causal, Temporal	Connecting clauses logically
Lexical Cohesion	Repetition, Synonymy, Antonymy, Collocation	Using lexical relations to create coherence

### 3.6 Statistical Analysis

All data collected from the students' essays in the final exam were compiled and analyzed quantitatively to determine the frequency and percentage of cohesive devices used. The following formula was employed to calculate the proportion of each cohesive device type:

#### Percentages Formula

$$P = \frac{F \times 100}{n}$$

Where: P = Percentage (%)

F = The frequency number of parts

n = The total number

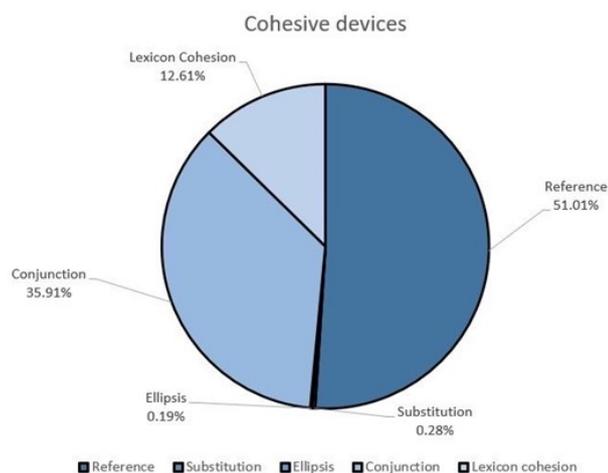
The results were then interpreted to identify patterns in students' use of cohesion, highlighting both strengths and areas that require improvement in their academic writing.

## 4. Findings

This section presents the findings of the study, which are organized around two key aspects: (1) the frequency and types of cohesive devices used by students in their argumentative essays, and (2) the relationship between the use of these cohesive devices and the structure of argumentative writing. These findings address the research objective by illustrating how different cohesive ties contribute to the overall construction of the essays.

### 4.1 Overall Use of Cohesive Devices

The analysis revealed that students employed a range of cohesive devices in their argumentative essays, including reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction, and lexical cohesion. Figure 1 illustrates the distribution of these devices as a percentage of total cohesive ties identified.



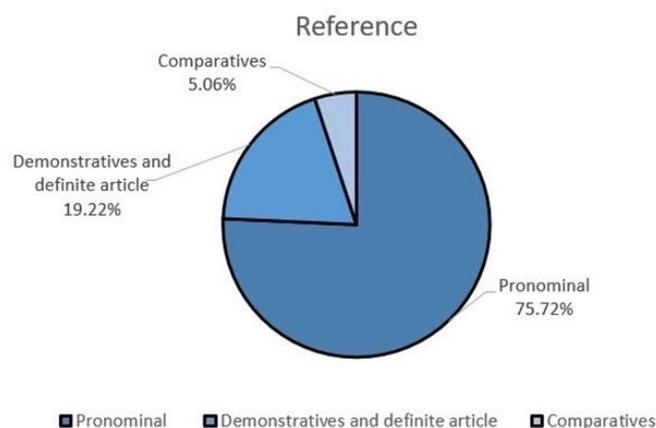
**Figure 1** Distribution of cohesive devices in percentage

Among these, *reference* was the most frequently used device, accounting for 51.01% of the total. *Conjunction* followed at 35.91%, while *lexical cohesion* represented 12.61%. The least frequently used devices were *substitution* (0.28%) and *ellipsis* (0.19%). Each of these categories was further examined in terms of its subtypes.

## 4.2 Subtypes of Cohesive Devices

### 4.2.1 Reference Subtypes

As shown in Figure 2, *pronominal reference* dominated within this category, making up 75.72% of all reference ties. This was followed by *demonstrative reference* at 19.22%, and *comparative reference* at 5.06%.



**Figure 2** Distribution of reference subtypes

The frequent use of reference in students' writing reflects its essential role in argumentative essays. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), reference is used to point to elements within or outside the text for interpretation. By using references, students avoided excessive repetition of the same nouns and created clearer connections between ideas. This is

especially important in argumentative essays, where writers need to distinguish their own opinions from those of others, as demonstrated in Example 1.

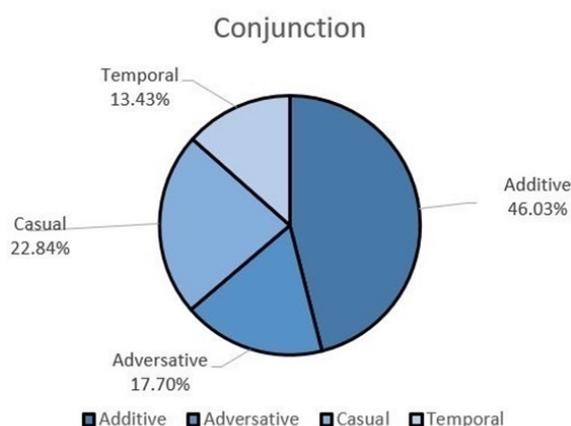
**Example 1** Use of reference in argumentative writing

Biking is useful for people who wake up late or hasten. When I was freshy I didn't had this problem by biking bicycle. But now I'm not freshy anymore, I have the problem. Due to a lot of work make me sleep plate often. I don't have energy enough if I wake up early. So, my motorcycle is my best friend; it can take me to my class in time like I have the wings.

In Example 1, the student uses pronominal references such as *I*, *me*, and *my* to maintain subject continuity and avoid repetition. The demonstrative *this* refers back to the earlier problem, supporting textual cohesion. Definite articles like *the* also help link ideas by signaling known or previously mentioned elements. These cohesive ties guide the reader through the writer's personal narrative.

**4.2.2 Conjunction Subtypes**

Figure 3 presents the distribution of conjunction subtypes. *Additive conjunctions* were used most frequently (46.03%), followed by *causal conjunctions* (22.84%), *adversative conjunctions* (17.70%), and *temporal conjunctions* (13.43%).



**Figure 3** Distribution of conjunction subtypes

Conjunctions are vital in argumentative essays because they align closely with the essay's structure—pro arguments, counterarguments, and refutations. To construct pro arguments, students commonly used additive, causal, and temporal conjunctions to extend and clarify their reasoning, as illustrated in Example 2. In contrast, adversative conjunctions were frequently used in counterarguments and refutations to signal contrast and opposition, as shown in Example 3.

**Example 2** Use of conjunction in pro arguments

First, students can use their knowledge from studying for working. At this point, I would like to give an example that students work as waiters or waitresses in a restaurant. They have to talk to customers in order to get a correct order, so it improves students communicative skill.

**Example 3** Use of conjunction in counterarguments

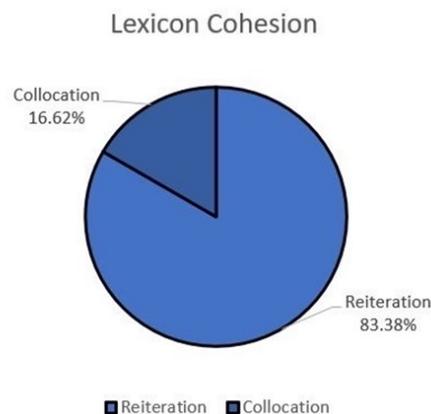
On the other hand, some people maintain that it is not safe for the student's lie. This is because students may be robbed or victims for child abuse during they work. This is not true. I would argue that any places for working is not dangerous, such as Eastern, Orentel, and Dusit Thani hotels. They have a strong system security, which is including a lot of security guards, Moreover, the hot employee's profile and interview them carefully before they give a job, thus any students do work part-time is not necessary to worry about unsafety life.

In Example 2, the student uses temporal (*First*), additive (*At this point*), and causal (*so*) conjunctions to develop a clear pro argument and connect ideas logically. These conjunctions help sequence the explanation, provide supporting examples, and show cause-effect relationships, which are essential in persuasive writing. Example 3 illustrates the use of adversative (*On the other hand*), causal (*because, thus*), and additive (*Moreover*) conjunctions to contrast opposing views and reinforce the writer's stance. These cohesive ties allow the student to refute counterarguments while maintaining logical flow. Overall, the use of conjunctions demonstrates students' awareness of how to guide readers through different parts of their argument and build coherence within and across sentences.

Due to the limited clarity or frequency of some cohesive subtypes in the students' essays, only reference and conjunction are illustrated with textual examples. Substitution, ellipsis, and lexical cohesion are discussed without excerpts but based on observed usage patterns in the data.

**4.2.3 Lexical Cohesion Subtypes**

Figure 4 displays the proportion of lexical cohesion subtypes. *Reiteration* was by far the most used (83.38%), while *collocation* accounted for 16.62%.

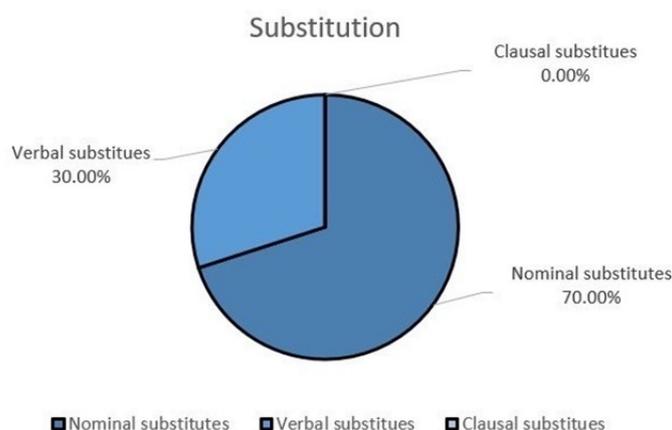


**Figure 4** Distribution of lexical cohesion subtypes

Lexical cohesion played a key role in enhancing clarity and coherence in students' argumentative essays. Through careful word choice and repetition, students were able to unify their texts and strengthen meaning throughout their writing.

#### 4.2.4 Substitution Subtypes

As shown in Figure 5, within the substitution category, *nominal substitution* was the most frequently used (70.00%), followed by *verbal substitution* (30.00%). No instances of *clausal substitution* were found.

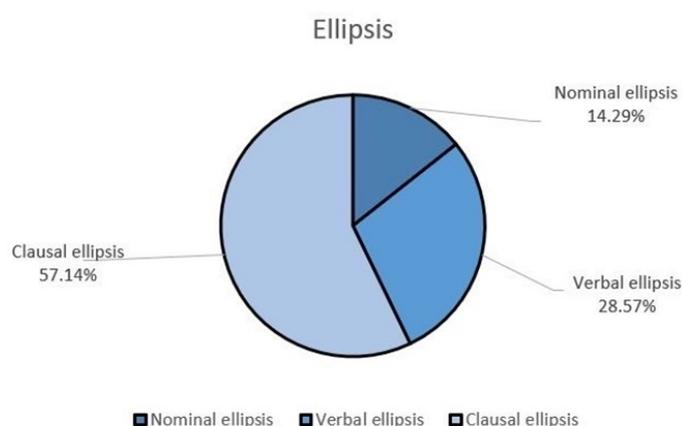


**Figure 5** Distribution of substitution subtypes

Substitution was rarely used by students, possibly because it may reduce clarity and weaken argumentation in an academic context. Argumentative essays often require precise explanations to construct persuasive arguments, and longer expressions may serve this purpose better than substitutions.

#### 4.2.5 Ellipsis Subtypes

Figure 6 illustrates the distribution of ellipsis subtypes. *Clausal ellipsis* accounted for 57.14%, *verbal ellipsis* for 28.57%, and *nominal ellipsis* for 14.29%.



**Figure 6** Distribution of ellipsis subtypes

Ellipsis was also used infrequently in students' essays. Since ellipsis involves omitting elements of a sentence, its use can sometimes create ambiguity. In argumentative essays, where clarity is crucial, the omission of information risks confusing readers. Therefore, this type of cohesive device appears less suitable for academic writing contexts.

### **4.3 Summary of Findings**

The findings of this study highlight the essential role of cohesive devices in argumentative essay writing. Cohesive ties help connect pro arguments, counterarguments, and refutations, making students' writing smoother and more coherent. They also support logical flow and enhance persuasiveness. Furthermore, cohesive devices improve the readability of essays by guiding readers through the writer's line of reasoning and helping them understand the writer's stance on the issues discussed.

In summary, while reference and conjunction were the most frequently used cohesive devices, lexical cohesion also contributed significantly to essay clarity and unity. Substitution and ellipsis, by contrast, were less favored, likely due to their potential to obscure meaning in argumentative discourse. These findings underscore the importance of teaching a broad range of cohesive strategies to improve students' writing proficiency and academic argumentation skills.

## **5. Discussion and Conclusion**

This section discusses the findings of the study, summarizes key conclusions, acknowledges the study's limitations, and offers recommendations for future research on cohesive devices in student writing.

### **5.1 Discussion**

This study applied Halliday and Hasan's (1976) framework to examine the use of cohesive devices in argumentative essays written by second-year English major students. The analysis covered both the overall frequency and subtype distribution of cohesive devices, offering insight into how Thai EFL learners construct cohesion in academic writing.

Consistent with previous research (Bahaziq, 2016; Dastjerdi & Samian, 2011), reference was the most frequently used cohesive device in the present study, followed by conjunction and lexical cohesion. Nevertheless, some variation exists in the literature. For example, Parin (2014) found lexical cohesion to be the most frequently used category, followed by reference and conjunction. Such discrepancies may be attributed to differences in participants' proficiency levels, writing prompts, or instructional background. The present study involved students enrolled in an English Writing course with pre-intermediate proficiency, which may explain their more limited lexical range and greater reliance on grammatical devices like reference and conjunction. Additionally, the specific instructional

model used in this course—based on Reid’s (2000) structured approach—may have guided students toward particular patterns of cohesion aligned with argument development.

The minimal use of substitution and ellipsis in this study may also reflect both linguistic and pedagogical factors. Students may not have received sufficient exposure or practice in using these more implicit cohesive strategies, which are less commonly emphasized in typical EFL writing instruction. Moreover, because argumentative essays require structured, explicit reasoning, students may perceive substitution and ellipsis as risky or less appropriate in academic contexts where clarity is essential. This supports prior claims that cohesion and coherence are not solely linguistic outcomes, but are shaped by genre expectations, instructional scaffolding, and students’ perceptions of academic writing norms.

To improve the quality of argumentative writing, students should be guided not only in the functional use of cohesive devices but also in how to align their use with effective rhetorical structures. Reid (1988) outlines three accessible organizational plans: (1) presenting arguments for one side, (2) presenting arguments followed by counterarguments, and (3) presenting both sides equally with refutation. Although these structures differ from Maccoun’s (1983) more nuanced models, they offer scaffolding that supports cohesion through predictability and balance. When students understand how to map cohesive devices onto argument structures—using conjunctions to transition between claims, or lexical reiteration to reinforce key points—they can enhance both the clarity and persuasiveness of their writing.

Finally, as emphasized by Yu et al. (2021), cohesive devices are instrumental in linking sentences and paragraphs, ultimately contributing to overall textual fluency. This study reaffirms that students benefit from explicit instruction not only in cohesion types but also in how and when to apply them in alignment with genre-specific expectations. Future pedagogical interventions may therefore benefit from incorporating targeted practice in underused cohesive forms—such as substitution and ellipsis—while reinforcing the strategic use of reference, conjunction, and lexical cohesion to improve coherence in argumentative writing.

## 5.2 Conclusion

The current study examined the use of cohesive devices in argumentative essays written by second-year English major students. Cohesive devices are crucial in academic writing because they help organize ideas, connect arguments, and guide readers through the text.

The findings revealed that reference devices were the most frequently used (51.01%), particularly *pronominal references* such as *he*, *she*, and *they*. *Conjunctions* were the second most used (35.91%), followed by *lexical cohesion* (12.61%). *Substitution* (0.28%) and *ellipsis* (0.19%) were the least employed. These patterns suggest that students rely heavily on

reference and conjunction to maintain clarity and coherence, whereas substitution and ellipsis, being more characteristic of spoken language, are less favored in academic writing.

Notably, the study also found that neither excessive nor insufficient use of cohesive devices guarantees effective writing. Essays with an overuse of cohesive devices appeared redundant and verbose, diminishing clarity. Conversely, those with too few cohesive devices lacked connectivity and coherence, making them difficult to follow. Thus, an appropriate balance in the use of cohesive devices is essential for producing well-structured, logical, and persuasive argumentative essays. Ultimately, cohesive devices play a critical role in helping students construct coherent arguments, seamlessly transition between ideas, and present their viewpoints effectively to readers.

### **5.3 Pedagogical Implications**

The findings of this study suggest several important points for teaching writing in English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom. The frequent use of reference and conjunction in the students' writing shows that they are familiar with basic cohesive devices for connecting ideas and organizing their essays. However, the less frequent use of lexical cohesion indicates that students still need more practice in this area.

Lexical cohesion, such as using repetition and synonyms, is very important for keeping ideas connected and supporting arguments throughout the essay. When students know how to use different vocabulary choices effectively, they can avoid repeating the same words too often and make their writing clearer and more interesting. Teachers should give students more practice with lexical cohesion by using activities that focus on choosing the right synonyms, paraphrasing, and creating word chains to connect their ideas better.

Even though substitution and ellipsis were used less often, this is acceptable in academic writing, where it is important to be clear and direct. Instead of focusing on these less common devices, teachers should continue to emphasize the careful use of reference, conjunction, and especially lexical cohesion to help students improve the flow of their writing.

In addition, teachers should help students learn to balance their use of cohesive devices. Using too many can make the writing sound repetitive, while too few can make the writing difficult to follow. To support this, teachers can use sample texts, guided writing exercises, and clear feedback to help students improve both their accuracy and their use of cohesive devices to strengthen their arguments.

By focusing on these areas, writing instruction can help students produce more cohesive and effective academic writing. Improving students' use of lexical cohesion, in particular, can help them write clearer essays and make their arguments easier for readers to understand.

## **5.4 Limitations**

This study was limited to a sample of forty second-year English major students enrolled in the English Writing (01355231) course at a public university. The essays analyzed were written as part of the course's final examination during the first semester. As such, the findings reflect students' writing performance at a single point in time under exam conditions.

The limited sample size and specific institutional context may affect the generalizability of the results to other student populations or educational settings. In addition, the analysis focused solely on final drafts, without examining students' earlier drafts, revision processes, or writing development over time. These constraints suggest the need for future research involving a broader range of participants, longitudinal data, or comparisons across instructional contexts.

While this study offers valuable insights into the use of cohesive devices in EFL argumentative writing, it also highlights the importance of exploring how writing instruction and drafting stages influence cohesion and coherence.

## **5.5 Recommendations for Future Research**

Future studies should explore further how cohesive devices impact writing quality across different educational contexts and proficiency levels. Intervention practices could be developed to support students in mastering the use of cohesive devices in argumentative writing, thereby enabling all learners to reach a higher standard of writing proficiency.

Moreover, future research could extend the investigation to other types of writing, such as descriptive or narrative essays, to provide a more comprehensive understanding of how cohesive devices function across various genres of academic writing.

## **Authors**

**Tiprada Pholwised** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English at Kasetsart University, Nakhon Pathom, Thailand.

**Kancharat Thiamthat** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English at Kasetsart University, Nakhon Pathom, Thailand.

**Kantima Amnuaisaksophon** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English at Kasetsart University, Nakhon Pathom, Thailand.

**Sirisuda Thongchalerm** Assistant Professor at Faculty of Education, Ubon Ratchathani Rajabhat University.

**Wisut Jarunthawatchai** Assistant Professor at Division of English, Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science, Kasetsart University, Nakhon Pathom, Thailand.

## References

- Alarcon, J. B. (2013). Lexical cohesion in students' argumentative essays among a select group of Filipino college students. **Journal on English Language Teaching**, 3(2), 43–52.
- Bahaziq, A. (2016). Cohesive devices in written discourse: A discourse analysis of a student's essay writing. **English Language Teaching**, 9(7), 112–119. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v9n7p112>
- Baker, W., & Boonkit, K. (2004). Learning strategies in reading and writing: EAP contexts. **RELC Journal**, 35(3), 299–328.
- Connor, U. (1987). Research frontiers in writing analysis. **TESOL Quarterly**, 21, 677–696. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586989>
- Dastjerdi, H. V., & Samian, S. H. (2011). Quality of Iranian EFL learners' argumentative essays: Cohesive devices in focus. **Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences**, 2(2), 65–76.
- De Beaugrande, R., & Dressler, W. (1981). **Introduction to text linguistics**. Longman.
- Faigley, L., & Witte, S. P. (1981). Analysing revision. **College Composition and Communication**, 32(4), 400–415.
- Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). **Cohesion in English**. Longman.
- Hatch, E. (1992). **Discourse and language education**. Cambridge University Press.
- Intraprawat, P. (2002). **English 5 writing an argumentative essay** [Unpublished teaching material, Suranaree University of Technology].
- Johns, A. M. (1986). Coherence and academic writing: Some definitions and suggestions for teaching. **TESOL Quarterly**, 20, 247–265. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3586543>
- Kopperschmidt, J. (1985). An analysis of argumentation. In T. A. Van Dijk (Eds.), **Handbook of discourse analysis: Volume 2 Dimensions of discourse**. Academic Press.
- Maccoun, W. (1983). **On the acquisition of argumentative discourse from a comprehensive point of view** [Unpublished master's thesis, University of California].
- Parin, P. (2014). **The relationship between cohesion and coherence in writing: The case of Thai EFL students** [Master's thesis, Srinakharinwirot University].
- Pawapatcharaudom, R. (2007). **An investigation of Thai students' English language problems and their learning strategies in the international program at Mahidol University** [Master's thesis, King Mongkut's Institute of Technology].
- Reid, J. (1988). **The process of composition**. Prentice Hall Regents.
- Reid, J. M. (2000). **The process of composition** (3rd ed.). Prentice Hall.
- Saputra, Y., & Hakim, M. (2020). Cohesive devices in argumentative essays by Indonesian EFL students. **Journal on English as a Foreign Language**, 10(2), 337–358. <https://doi.org/10.23971/jefl.v10i2.1949>
- Tanawong, P. (2014). **The relationship between cohesion and coherence in writing: The case of Thai EFL students** [Master's thesis, Srinakharinwirot University].
- Weigle, S. C. (2002). **Assessing writing**. Cambridge University Press.
- Yu, T., Kim, M., Crossley, S., & Wang, Q. (2021). Cohesive devices as indicators of L2 students' writing fluency. **Journal of Second Language Writing**, 54, 101–109. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2021>.

## Investigating English Code-Switching Frequency in ATEEZ's Korean Pop Songs

Nawat Sriautarawong<sup>1\*</sup>, Napapach Wattanapanich<sup>1</sup>,  
Tanaporn Chokkeaw<sup>1</sup>, Wisut Jarunthawatchai<sup>1\*</sup>

### Abstract

To attract a global multilingual audience, K-pop has long incorporated English lyrics as a strategic tool. This study analyzes 20 songs by ATEEZ, a prominent fourth-generation K-pop group, focusing on tracks promoted through music videos to examine the phenomenon of code-switching. The analysis applies Poplack's (1980) code-switching framework alongside word class categorization by Biber, Conrad, and Leech (2002). The findings reveal that intra-sentential code-switching dominates, with interjections representing the most frequent word class. Furthermore, the study highlights that English lyrics are primarily employed for entertainment and marketing purposes, aiming to enhance listener engagement and expand global reach. These insights contribute to a deeper understanding of linguistic hybridity in K-pop and the evolving role of English in global music trends.

**Keywords:** K-pop, Code-switching, English lyrics

Received 23 April 2025; Received in revised form 18 June 2025; Accepted 20 June 2025

---

\* Corresponding Author  
E-mail: faaswsj@ku.ac.th  
<sup>1</sup> Kasetsart University

## **1. Introduction**

The global dominance of English across popular culture, science, and business has profoundly influenced communication worldwide, affecting how people write and interact in various languages. In daily life, this is evident in the widespread use of English in social media conversations and photo captions, even in non-English-speaking environments. Recently, mixing two languages in a single statement has become a growing trend among bilingual speakers, evolving into a habitual practice for those fluent in multiple languages. This phenomenon extends beyond casual conversation to more specific contexts, notably in music, where English words, phrases, clauses, and sentences are woven into lyrics to enhance their impact.

In Korean pop music, known globally as K-pop, English has been prominently featured, particularly in song titles and idol stage names. Since the early 1990s, English inclusion has served to enhance artist identities and foster global appeal (Berliana & Anjarningsih, 2022). English continues to dominate the charts, reflecting both Korea's cultural export ambitions and the industry's responsiveness to global pop culture trends. The increasing integration of English also showcases K-pop idols' bilingual abilities and their adaptation to an international market. As K-pop expands worldwide, many artists now come from English-speaking backgrounds such as the United States, Canada, and Australia, further strengthening the genre's global orientation.

This study focuses on ATEEZ, a rising fourth-generation K-pop group comprising eight Korean members—Hongjoong, Seonghwa, Yunho, Yeosang, San, Mingi, Wooyoung, and Jongho. Debuting in 2018, ATEEZ rapidly gained international recognition for their high-energy performances and innovative concepts, quickly building a dedicated global fanbase. Their influence is evident in their social media presence, chart success, and numerous awards, including the Worldwide Fans' Choice Award at the 2020 Mnet Asian Music Awards, and the Favorite Global Performer Male Group award at the 2023 MAMA Awards. Their album *ZERO: NEVER Part.2* debuted on the Billboard 200, demonstrating their significant global reach.

Despite extensive research on the role of English in K-pop's global success, few studies have examined how specific cultural and linguistic choices, particularly code-switching, contribute to a group's international appeal. ATEEZ, as a representative fourth-generation K-pop group, demonstrates the effective use of English lyrics to enhance their global reach while maintaining a distinct Korean identity. This study focuses on analyzing English phrases in the lyrics of ATEEZ's songs released between 2018 and 2024, concentrating solely on the lyrical content without examining musical or vocal elements. To guide the investigation, the study poses two research questions:

- (1) What code-switching patterns occur in the selected songs?
- (2) What English word classes are incorporated into the selected songs?

By exploring English code-switching in K-pop lyrics, this research seeks to deepen understanding of language mixing phenomena and encourage further investigation into this underexplored area of multilingual music production.

## **2. Literature review**

### **2.1 Why has K-pop gained popularity?**

K-pop's global rise is attributed to its catchy melodies, captivating choreography, high production values, and the constant release of engaging content, propelling it to international fame (Romano, 2018). Psy's "Gangnam Style" exemplified how a novel melody combined with distinctive choreography and slick production can trigger viral spread, breaking the Guinness World Record with 1.578 billion views on YouTube in 2012. Similarly, BLACKPINK's visual appeal and powerful stage presence, as in "How You Like That" (82.37 million views in 24 hours), demonstrate how strong vocals and dynamic performances leverage those production values to dominate global charts. Groups like BLACKPINK have attracted global fans with their visual appeal, strong vocal and dance skills, and dynamic performances. By 2021, BLACKPINK had achieved over 20 million Spotify followers, reflecting their global influence. Their fans, known as "Blinks," embody the strong, worldwide community that surrounds K-pop artists.

### **2.2 Definition and Concepts of Code-Switching and Code-Mixing**

Code-switching refers to the use of two or more languages within the same conversation. Crystal (2003) defines it as bilingual speakers alternating between languages, often within the same sentence or paragraph. It is a natural feature of multilingual communities, reflecting group membership and social dynamics (Hymes, 1971). Bokamba (1988) describes it as the integration of words, phrases, or sentences from different grammatical systems within the same discourse, while Auer (2004) frames it as the alternate use of two or more codes in a single conversation. Although traditionally misunderstood as a sign of linguistic deficiency, contemporary perspectives recognize code-switching as a marker of bilingual proficiency. Poplack (2000) highlights how skilled bilinguals navigate between languages with competence, while Wardhaugh (1997) emphasizes speakers' choices in creating new linguistic forms through switching and mixing. Myers-Scotton (1993) further explains that code-switching typically occurs within the same conversation, and even within sentences.

Scholars also differentiate code-switching from code-mixing based on linguistic structure and function. McCormick (1995) defines code-switching as shifting between languages across longer sentences, while code-mixing involves blending smaller linguistic units—such as words or phrases—within the same utterance. Similarly, McLaughlin (1984,

cited in González, 1989) distinguishes code-mixing as involving intra-sentential switches, whereas code-switching spans phrases or full sentences. Although distinctions exist, scholars like Gardner-Chloros (2009) and Hamers and Blanc (2000) observe minimal differences between the two, often leading to overlap in practice. Muysken (2000) supports this view, describing code-mixing as intra-sentential switching, while code-switching usually operates at the clause or sentence level.

### **2.3 Reasons for Code-Switching**

Hoffman (1991) outlines several reasons for code-switching: to discuss certain topics, quote others, express solidarity, use interjections, clarify through repetition, ensure comprehension, or assert group identity. Interjections like “*Damn!*” or “*Hey!*” are especially common for emotional emphasis.

Likhithongsathorn (2012) adds that in music, code-switching serves marketing, trend alignment, rhythm, and global reach. English phrases make songs catchy and accessible to international audiences, particularly younger listeners. Songwriters also use code-switching creatively to enhance rhythm, rhyme, and musicality, while contributing to global appeal and identity expression.

Furthermore, it is important to note that code-switching is not limited to specific proficiency levels or settings. Pedraza (1978) highlights that code-switching emerges across a wide spectrum of language proficiencies, indicating its role as a flexible communicative tool in both casual and artistic contexts. Complementing this, Poplack (1978) classifies code-switching based on the degree of integration between languages. Fluent bilinguals, for example, skillfully integrate linguistic structures from both languages, while non-fluent bilinguals may exhibit influence from their first language. These insights not only broaden the understanding of everyday conversational switching but also provide relevant background for exploring its intentional use in music lyrics.

### **2.4 Code-Switching in Song Lyrics**

Code-switching in lyrics differs from spontaneous conversational switching. In music, language choices are deliberate, shaped by aesthetics and audience appeal (Riehl, 2005). Sarkar and Winer (2006) argue that songwriters consciously use code-switching to represent cultural identity and enhance rhythm and meaning. Nyman (2012) emphasizes the intentionality in written lyrics, requiring conscious selection of linguistic codes. Code-switching in songs thus functions to highlight meaning, create musicality, and evoke emotion, making it distinct from conversational code-switching.

### **2.5 Code-Switching in Korean Pop Songs**

Previous studies of K-pop lyrics have explored English usage and code-switching patterns. Margaretta and Rangkuti (2024) examined songs by NewJeans, while Likhithongsathorn (2012) analyzed English in Thai pop songs, revealing varied listener and

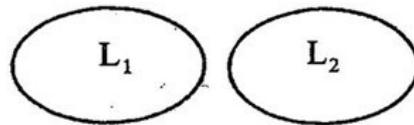
songwriter perceptions. Lawrence (2010) explored the functions of English in second-generation K-pop, including identity expression and challenging traditional norms.

However, few studies have specifically analyzed code-switching's role in attracting international audiences in K-pop. This study seeks to fill that gap by examining how ATEEZ, a fourth-generation group, integrates English into their lyrics to enhance global appeal.

## 2.6 Shana Poplack's Theoretical Framework

Shana Poplack, a leading scholar in sociolinguistics, defines code-switching as the practice of alternating between two or more languages or dialects within a single discourse, sentence, or conversation. Her theoretical framework, developed in the early 1980s, remains highly influential in understanding the structural patterns of code-switching. According to Poplack (1980), code-switching can be categorized into three primary types: inter-sentential switching, tag-switching, and intra-sentential switching.

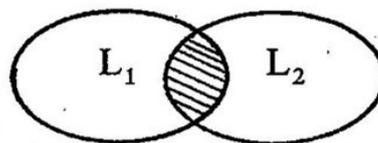
**Inter-sentential switching** involves shifting from one language to another between sentences. In this type, complete sentences are composed in different languages, typically separated at sentence boundaries. For example: “*I am going to the store. ¿Quieres comer algo?*”



a. Inter-sentential switching

**Figure 1a** Model of Inter-sentential Switching (Poplack, 1980, p. 615).

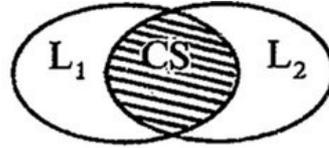
**Tag-switching** refers to the insertion of a tag phrase or short expression from one language into a sentence structured in another language. Such tags may include exclamations or discourse markers like “*you know*” or “*I mean*”, which can be seamlessly integrated into monolingual sentences without disrupting syntactic rules. For instance: “*It’s a beautiful day, ¿verdad?*”



b. ‘tag’-switching

**Figure 1b** Model of Tag-switching (Poplack, 1980, p. 615).

**Intra-sentential switching**, often equated with code-mixing, occurs within a single sentence. It involves embedding words, phrases, or clauses from another language directly into the grammatical structure of the base language. An example of this is: “*I’m going to the tienda to buy some milk.*”



c. Intra-sentential switching

**Figure 1c** Model of Intra-sentential Switching (Poplack, 1980, p. 615).

Poplack’s model highlights that these forms of switching are not random but follow identifiable linguistic patterns. Particularly, intra-sentential switching requires a high degree of bilingual proficiency, as it involves greater syntactic and morphological integration across languages. This framework is crucial for the present study, as it provides the analytical lens to examine the types of code-switching in ATEEZ’s lyrics.

## 2.7 Word Class Classification

Following Biber, Conrad, and Leech (2002), words are categorized into lexical and functional classes. Lexical words carry the primary meaning of a sentence and include nouns, lexical verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. These words are essential for conveying the core message and content within any given text.

In contrast, functional words provide the grammatical structure necessary for constructing coherent sentences. This category includes determiners, pronouns, auxiliaries, prepositions, interjections, coordinators, and subordinators. Although functional words do not carry substantial meaning on their own, they play a crucial role in connecting lexical words and ensuring the grammatical integrity of the sentence.

This classification provides a useful framework for analyzing the types of English words used in ATEEZ’s lyrics, supporting the study’s investigation of code-switching patterns.

## 3. Methodology

### 3.1 Research Design

This study adopted a mixed-methods design with a primary focus on quantitative content analysis to investigate the presence of English in the lyrics of ATEEZ’s songs, the patterns of code-switching, and their potential role in attracting audiences. Twenty songs—the top 20 most-viewed ATEEZ music videos featuring English code-switching as of March 1, 2025—were selected, all of which are title tracks promoted via official music videos.

Creswell (2009) notes that combining quantitative frequency counts with qualitative examples can provide both breadth and depth in understanding linguistic phenomena.

A total of 20 songs were selected for analysis, focusing specifically on title tracks promoted through music videos. These songs were chosen because title tracks serve as the primary promotional tools for K-pop artists and are widely accessible to global audiences through platforms like YouTube. For example, *Wonderland*, one of ATEEZ's title tracks, played a pivotal role in establishing their presence in the K-pop industry, garnering numerous awards such as the Worldwide Fans' Choice Award at the Mnet Asian Music Awards in 2019 and 2023. The track also achieved significant streaming success on Spotify and appeared on various global music charts. By analyzing the English-mixed lyrics in these selected songs, this study aims to explore the different functions of English usage in ATEEZ's music and how such integration contributes to their global recognition and audience engagement.

### **3.2 Population and Sample**

The population of this study consisted of Korean pop songs that feature code-switching. Purposive sampling was employed, relying on the researchers' knowledge and expertise in the field. As Patton (2002) describes, purposive sampling focuses on selecting information-rich cases that provide deep insights into the subject under investigation.

The sampling process began with the selection of ATEEZ's title tracks, promoted through music videos from their debut in 2018 up to 2024. From a total of 106 Korean-language songs (excluding Japanese releases), 20 songs were selected based on their popularity, measured by YouTube views. The decision not to include all album tracks was intentional, as non-title tracks are often tailored to dedicated fanbases and not promoted to the broader global audience. Title tracks, by contrast, receive the most promotion and exposure worldwide, making them more suitable for examining the role of English code-switching in reaching international listeners.

### **3.3 Research Instrument**

In line with the qualitative nature of this study, the researchers themselves served as the primary research instruments. Sugiyono (2011) states that in qualitative research, human instruments play a central role, performing tasks such as data collection, evaluation, interpretation, and conclusion drawing. Sugiyono (2024), further argues that human instruments are fundamental in naturalistic inquiry.

The researchers in this study demonstrated the essential characteristics of effective qualitative instruments, as outlined by Nasution 2021 (cited in Sugiyono, 2024):

1. Sensitivity to environmental stimuli relevant to the research.
2. Flexibility to adapt to varying situations and data collection needs.
3. Holistic understanding of research contexts beyond quantitative measurement.
4. Active human participation that extends beyond mere data gathering.

5. Ability to interpret and make evaluative judgments based on collected data.
6. Capacity for drawing meaningful conclusions from qualitative evidence.
7. Emphasis on responses and findings that are not purely statistical but contextual and nuanced.

In addition to the researchers' active role, printed song lyrics were used as supporting tools to ensure accuracy during the data collection and analysis processes.

### **3.4 Data Collection Procedure**

Data collection involved a systematic process focused on ATEEZ's songs promoted through music videos. The researchers first identified all music videos listed on ATEEZ's official YouTube profile. Next, they retrieved the corresponding song lyrics from reliable online sources to determine which songs contained instances of Korean-English code-switching. Only songs featuring such code-switching were selected for further analysis, ensuring alignment with the study's research questions.

### **3.5 Data Analysis**

The data analysis followed a structured process comprising five steps to address the research questions and ensure the credibility of findings:

#### **1. Selecting the target data**

The researchers compiled a list of ATEEZ's songs and identified the extent of code-switching in each title track.

#### **2. Identifying the types of code-switching**

Using Poplack's (1980) framework, the researchers classified instances of code-switching into inter-sentential, intra-sentential, and tag-switching categories. Additionally, they employed the word class classification system by Biber, Conrad, and Leech (2002) to categorize the English words found in the lyrics.

#### **3. Identifying the types of words**

After classifying the code-switching types, the researchers analyzed the English words based on their grammatical categories to answer the second research question. This process relied on established linguistic frameworks rather than subjective judgment.

#### **4. Establishing reliability in analysis**

To enhance reliability, six classmates familiar with the theoretical frameworks reviewed the sample analyses. Their feedback helped verify the accuracy and consistency of the coding.

#### **5. Summarizing the findings**

Finally, the researchers summarized the analysis results to directly address the study's two research questions, providing a clear and coherent presentation of the findings.

## 4. Findings

This section presents the analysis undertaken to address the two research objectives. The findings are reported in two main parts: (1) the types of code-switching found in Korean pop songs, and (2) the identification and categorization of English word classes used in these songs.

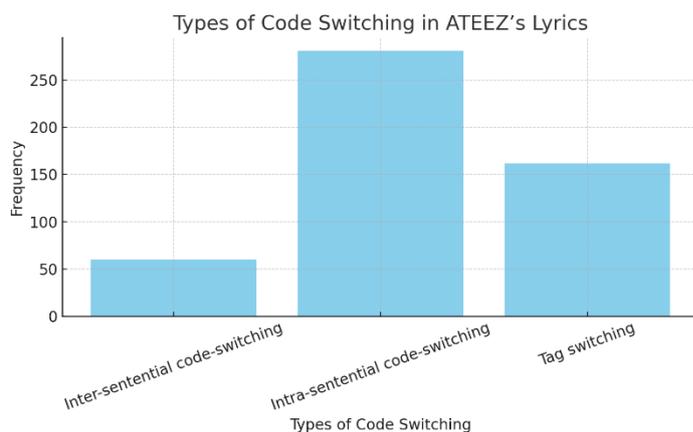
### 4.1 Analysis of Code-Switching Types in Korean Pop Songs

#### 4.1.1 Code-Switching Types

The analysis of 20 selected songs revealed a total of 503 instances of code-switching, which were categorized into three types (see Table 1). As shown in Figure 2, intra-sentential code-switching emerged as the most frequent type, with 281 occurrences, accounting for 55.86% of the total instances. Tag switching followed, with 162 occurrences (32.21%), indicating the common use of English exclamations or short phrases to add emphasis and stylistic variation to the lyrics. Inter-sentential code-switching was the least frequent, appearing 60 times (11.93%), which suggests that full English sentences were less commonly used, likely to maintain the lyrical flow and rhythm of the songs. Overall, the high frequency of intra-sentential switching shows that songwriters often integrated English words or phrases within Korean sentences to create smooth and natural-sounding lyrics.

**Table 1** Frequency and Percentage of Code-Switching Types in ATEEZ's Lyrics

No.	Types of Code Switching	Frequency	Percentage (%)
1	Inter-sentential code-switching	60	11.93
2	Intra-sentential code-switching	281	55.86
3	Tag switching	162	32.21



**Figure 2** Types of Code Switching in ATEEZ's Lyrics

#### 4.1.2 Examples of Code-Switching in Korean Pop Song Lyrics

Detailed examples of each type of code-switching identified in the lyrics are provided below.

##### Inter-sentential Switching

This refers to full sentences in English inserted between Korean sentences. A total of 60 instances (11.93%) were identified. For example, in the song *Deja Vu*:

“기억하고 있는 것 같아 I know you get déjà vu.”

(Translation: Remembers you, I know you get déjà vu.)

##### Intra-sentential Switching

This involves switching within a sentence, often embedding English phrases into Korean structures. A total of 281 instances (55.86%) were found. For example, in *Say My Name*:

“더 이상을 better than better”

(Translation: Evermore better than better.)

##### Tag Switching

Tag-switching includes exclamations or phrases inserted from one language into another. A total of 162 instances (32.21%) were observed. For example, in *Firework*:

“Hey! 불놀 O/O.”

(Translation: Hey! Fireworks.)

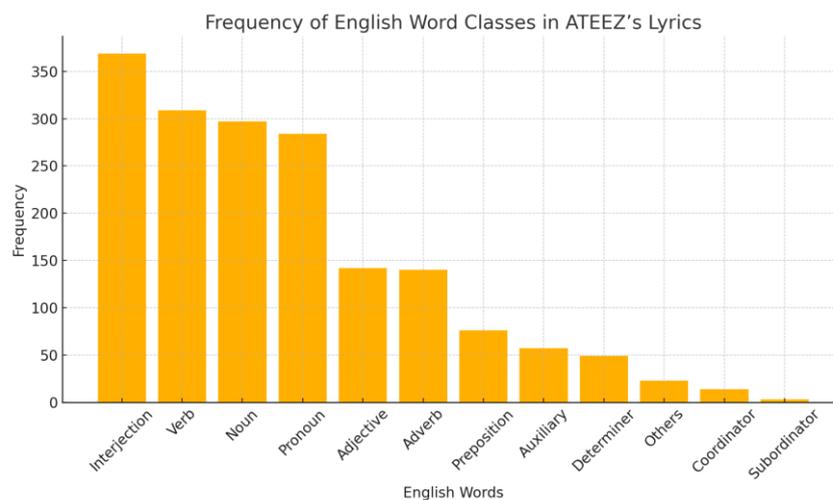
### 4.2 Identification and Categorization of English Word Classes in Korean Pop Songs

#### 4.2.1 Overview of Word Class Occurrences (Frequency)

The analysis of the lyrics found a total of 1,466 English words, which were grouped into different word classes (see Table 2). As shown in Figure 3, interjections were the most common, appearing 369 times, or 20.93% of all English words. Verbs and nouns were also frequently used, with 309 occurrences (21.08%) and 297 occurrences (20.26%) respectively. These three categories together accounted for over 60% of the total, showing the energetic and active style of K-pop songs. On the other hand, less frequent categories like coordinators and subordinators made up less than 1%, suggesting that K-pop lyrics tend to use simpler and more direct expressions rather than complex sentence structures. Overall, this distribution shows how English is used in K-pop lyrics to attract listeners and make the songs more engaging and rhythmic.

**Table 2** Frequency and Percentage of English Word Classes in Korean Pop Song Lyrics

English Words	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Interjection	369	20.93
Verb	309	17.53
Noun	297	16.85
Pronoun	284	16.11
Adjective	142	8.05
Adverb	140	7.94
Preposition	76	4.31
Auxiliary	57	3.23
Determiner	49	2.78
Others	23	1.3
Coordinator	14	0.79
Subordinator	3	0.17

**Figure 3** Distribution of English Word Classes in ATEEZ's Lyrics

#### 4.2.3 Examples of Word Classes in Korean Pop Song Lyrics

Detailed examples of each identified word class are presented below.

##### Interjections

Interjections are expressive words conveying emotions or exclamations. A total of 369 instances (20.93%) were identified. An example from *Halazia*:

“Mm, 소리를 잃은 작은 파랑새야.”

(Translation: Mm, the little blue bird that lost its voice.)

##### Verbs

Verbs indicate actions or states. A total of 309 instances (17.53%) were recorded. For example, in the song *Wave*:

“다 던져버려 drink.”

(Translation: Throw it all away, drink.)

### **Nouns**

Nouns represent people, places, objects, or concepts. A total of 297 instances (16.85%) were found. For example, in the song *Hala Hala*:

“그치 변신해 가치는 God 씩운 이 scene에 어쌔신 같지 난.”

(Translation: That's right, values transform, I'm like an assassin in this god-covered scene.)

### **Pronouns**

Pronouns replace nouns to avoid repetition and maintain the flow of speech or writing. The analysis identified 284 instances (16.11%) of English pronouns in the selected lyrics. For example, in the song *Thanxx*:

“각자의 속도는 다 달라, we are all another, baby.”

(Translation: Everyone goes at a different pace, we are all another, baby.)

### **Adjectives**

Adjectives describe or modify nouns, providing additional information about qualities or quantities. There were 142 instances (8.05%) of adjectives in the lyrics. For example, in the song *Treasure*:

“점점 더 눈이 멀어 crazy.”

(Translation: Going more and more blind, crazy.)

### **Adverbs**

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, indicating manner, time, place, or degree. The findings identified 140 instances (7.94%) of adverbs in the lyrics. For example, in the song *Answer*:

“두려운 것도 anymore.”

(Translation: We're not afraid anymore.)

### **Prepositions**

Prepositions indicate relationships between nouns or pronouns and other words in a sentence. A total of 76 instances (4.31%) were found. For example, in the song *Inception*:

“Where you at? Where you at? 너는 어디에.”

(Translation: Where you at? Where you at? Where are you?)

### **Auxiliary Verbs**

Auxiliary verbs assist the main verb to form tenses, voices, or moods. The analysis found 57 instances (3.23%) in the lyrics. For example, in the song *Pirate King*:

“이제 닻을 올려라 어두운 맘을 걷어라 어디든지 we can go.”

(Translation: Raise the anchor, put away your dark hearts, wherever it is, we can go.)

### **Determiners**

Determiners introduce nouns and specify them as known or unknown, definite or indefinite. The findings recorded 49 instances (2.78%). For example, in the song *Eternal Sunshine*:

“약속할 게 I'll get you a star.”

(Translation: I'll promise you, I'll get you a star.)

### **Others**

This category includes English tokens that could not be clearly classified into conventional grammatical categories, such as numbers or ungrammatical expressions. There were 23 instances (1.3%) found. For example, in the song *The Real*:

“발걸음은 not dum-di-ri-dum, dum-di-ri-dum-dum.”

(Translation: The steps are not dum-di-ri-dum, dum-di-ri-dum-dum.)

### **Coordinators**

Coordinators connect words, phrases, or clauses of equal grammatical rank. The analysis identified 14 instances (0.79%) in the selected lyrics. For example, in the song *Guerrilla*:

“지겨, 지겨워, sick and 지끈지끈 또.”

(Translation: Boring, boring, sick, and tired again.)

### **Subordinators**

Subordinators link clauses by making one clause dependent on another. Only 3 instances (0.17%) were identified. For example, in the song *Bouncy*:

“비켜봐 'cause we need some air.”

(Translation: Move aside 'cause we need some air.)

## **5. Discussion and Conclusion**

### **5.1 Discussion**

This study aimed to address two research questions:

(1) What code-switching patterns occur in the selected songs?

(2) What English word classes are incorporated into the selected songs?

The analysis was based on Poplack's (1980) framework for code-switching types and Biber, Conrad, and Leech's (2002) classification of English word classes.

The phenomenon of code-switching reflected the blending of language and culture, as speakers incorporated elements of a foreign language into their native discourse. In Korea, especially within the entertainment industry, code-switching was widespread. The global popularity of Korean pop culture, often referred to as the "Korean Wave," has led to widespread enjoyment of Korean music and television worldwide. This study examined code-switching within Korean pop songs, taking into account typical song structures, including intro, verses, chorus, pre-chorus, post-chorus, bridge, outro, and refrains.

### **5.1.1 Types of Code-Switching in Korean Pop Songs**

The findings revealed that all three types of code-switching proposed by Poplack (1980) were present in the selected ATEEZ songs. However, the distribution varied across songs. For instance, "Hala Hala" and "Say My Name" showed a higher frequency of intra-sentential code-switching, followed by tag switching, with inter-sentential switching occurring least. In contrast, "Firework" displayed a different pattern, where tag switching was the most frequent, followed by intra-sentential, and again, inter-sentential was the least common.

Interestingly, this finding diverges from Daoh's (2016, as cited in Rusli et al., 2018) study, which reported inter-sentential switching as the most frequent type. Contrary to Jocelin and Tryana's (2019) research, where tag-switching was the least common, this study found inter-sentential switching to be the least employed across the selected songs.

Additionally, code-switching appeared predominantly in the chorus, pre-chorus, and bridge sections of songs, aligning with the observations of Lawrence (2010). However, exceptions were found, such as the use of code-switching in the intros of "Answer" and "Wave," the outros of "Deja Vu" and "Halazia," and the hooks of "Thanxx" and "Say My Name." These results support Lauren's (2018) and Sea's (2018) findings, which emphasize the enduring use of code-switching as a strategy to attract global audiences.

Unlike previous research, this study observed a higher number of individual English words rather than full sentences, suggesting that inserting single English words or phrases may be a deliberate stylistic choice to capture listeners' attention. Notably, full English sentences often appeared in rap sections of the songs, such as in "Wonderland" and "Bouncy."

### **5.1.2 English Word Classes in Korean Pop Songs**

The analysis further indicated that interjections were the most frequent English word class in the selected songs, followed by verbs, nouns, and pronouns. This contrasts with previous research by Kannaovakun (2001), Samingkaew (2001), Amornsupornsart and Chitladaphitak (2004), Preechaamornkul (2005), Kotchasit (2006), and Janhom (2011), which reported nouns as the most common word class in English–Thai code-mixing studies.

In the context of Korean pop songs, the prevalence of English interjections likely reflects their ease of use and their effectiveness in energizing the lyrics. These exclamatory words contribute to the lively atmosphere of songs and are especially useful for engaging listeners. Verbs, ranking second in frequency, serve to highlight or intensify actions within the lyrics, aligning with the dynamic themes commonly found in K-pop.

The use of nouns, while not as frequent as interjections or verbs, adds to the playfulness of the lyrics. Given that lyrics are a hybrid of written and spoken forms, often enhanced by rhythm, melody, and instrumental accompaniment, nouns in English may be chosen for their playful or catchy quality. This characteristic use of nouns supports the notion that K-pop lyrics are crafted not just for semantic meaning but also for musical effect.

### **5.1.3 Motivations for English Code-Switching in K-Pop**

The findings suggested that code-switching and the incorporation of English elements in K-pop are largely driven by marketing strategies. English phrases, particularly catchy hooks, could make songs more memorable and appealing to international audiences. Simple, easily understood English words contribute to the accessibility and catchiness of the songs, enhancing their global reach.

Moreover, the primary target audience for K-pop includes teenagers and young adults, who are often familiar with basic English expressions. The use of English aligns with their preferences for trendy, globally connected content. Additionally, English words often fit the rhyme and rhythm of the music better than Korean, due to their brevity and flexibility, making them an attractive choice for songwriters.

Beyond stylistic considerations, English words are sometimes chosen for their ability to convey deeper meanings succinctly or to align more naturally with the song's melody. However, the researchers recognize that language alone does not guarantee international success. Other crucial factors include rhythm, melody, performance, and the overall image of the artists.

## **5.2 Conclusion**

This study concluded that intra-sentential code-switching is the most prevalent form of code-switching in ATEEZ's songs. Songwriters often embedded English words or phrases within Korean sentences, seamlessly blending languages to enhance the lyrical flow. Tag-switching ranked second, typically involving exclamatory expressions or brief English insertions for emphasis and stylistic flair. Inter-sentential switching was the least common, likely due to the challenges of maintaining grammatical coherence and rhythmic alignment in songs.

The frequent use of English interjections reflects their role in energizing the music and fostering listener engagement. Verbs serve to amplify action, while nouns contribute to playful

and memorable lyrical content. This pattern underscores the integration of language with musical elements such as rhythm and melody, shaping the overall aesthetic of K-pop.

Moreover, the study highlights the strategic use of English in K-pop as a tool for global marketing and audience connection. Songwriters leverage English expressions for their brevity, expressiveness, and compatibility with musical composition, thus broadening their appeal to international audiences. Nevertheless, the research acknowledges that language is only one facet of K-pop's global success, with other elements like melody, rhythm, and performance playing equally vital roles.

An important observation from this study is the prevalence of natural sound imitations in the lyrics, such as animal sounds or instrumental effects. These features, not fully addressed by existing frameworks, suggest the need for expanded analytical models that incorporate non-lexical elements in musical texts.

### **5.3 Recommendations for Future Research**

Building on these findings, future research could explore the functional roles of English code-switching in a broader range of K-pop genres or among newer generations of artists, such as those in the fifth generation of K-pop. Comparative studies across different genres or artists may reveal evolving patterns or new functions of code-switching.

Additionally, researchers could examine the impact of English usage on audience engagement using measurable indicators, such as trends in YouTube viewership before and after song releases. Investigating other forms of Korean entertainment could also provide a more comprehensive understanding of English's influence in Korean pop culture.

## **Authors**

**Nawat Sriautarawong** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English at Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science, Kasetsart University.

**Napapach Wattanapanich** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English at Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science, Kasetsart University.

**Tanaporn Chokkeaw** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English at Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science, Kasetsart University.

**Wisut Jarunthawatchai** Assistant Professor at Department of English, Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science, Kasetsart University.

## **References**

- Amornsupornart, P., & Chitladaphitak, R. (2004). **A study of English–Thai code-mixing in Thai stars** [Unpublished master's thesis, National Institute of Development Administration].
- Auer, P. (2004). A postscript: Code-switching and social identity. **Journal of Pragmatics**, 37, 403–410.

- Berliana, A. D., & Anjarningsih, H. Y. (2022). "Such a good night": Analyses of Korean-English code-switching and music-video comments of ASTRO's songs. **Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics**, 12(2), 293–307. <https://doi.org/10.21009/ijal.12.2.293>
- Biber, D., Conrad, S., & Leech, G. (2002). **Longman student grammar of spoken and written English**. Pearson Education.
- Bokamba, E. G. (1988). Code-mixing, language variation, and linguistic theory: Evidence from Bantu languages. **Lingua**, 76, 21–52.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). **Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches** (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.
- Crystal, D. (1987). **The Cambridge encyclopedia of language** (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Daoh, N. (2016). **An analysis of code-switching in the lyrics of Bird Thongchai McIntyre's songs** [Undergraduate thesis, Universitas Islam Negeri Maulana Malik Ibrahim].
- Gardner-Chloros, P. (2009). **Code-switching**. Cambridge University Press.
- González, G. (1989). Review of *Bilingualism: Basic principles* by H. Baetens Beardsmore. **Studies in Second Language Acquisition**, 11(1), 92–94.
- Hamers, J. F., & Blanc, M. H. A. (2000). **Bilinguality and bilingualism** (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.
- Hoffman, C. (1991). **An introduction to bilingualism**. Longman.
- Hymes, D. (1971). Ways of speaking. In R. Bauman & J. Sherzer (Eds.), **Explorations in the ethnography of speaking** (pp. 433–451). Cambridge University Press.
- Janhom, W. (2011). **English–Thai code-mixing in Thai health magazine** [Master's project, Srinakharinwirot University]. <http://thesis.swu.ac.th>
- Jocelin, E., & Tryana, T. (2019). Code-mixing and code-switching in a Korean-song lyric. **Lexeme: Journal of Linguistics and Applied Linguistics**, 1(2). <https://doi.org/10.32493/ljal.v1i2.5127>
- Kannaovakun, P. (2001). **The mixing of English and Thai in Thai television programs: Characteristics, attitudes, perceptions, and motivations** [Master's thesis]. <http://elibrary.trf.or.th>
- Kotchakit, T. (2006). **Code-mixing in Thai radio programs** [Master's thesis, Chiang Mai University]. <http://tdc.thailis.or.th/tdc>
- Lauren, Y. R. C. (2018). **The commodification of English in K-pop: Globalisation and multiple markets** [Doctoral dissertation, National University of Singapore].
- Lawrence, C. B. (2010). The verbal art of borrowing: Analysis of English borrowing in Korean pop songs. **Asian Englishes**, 13(2), 42–63. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13488678.2010.10801379>
- Likhithongsathorn, T., & Sappapan, P. (2012). **A study of English code-mixing and code-switching in Thai pop songs** [Master's thesis, Thammasat University]. [https://digital.library.tu.ac.th/tu\\_dc/frontend/Info/item/dc:94956](https://digital.library.tu.ac.th/tu_dc/frontend/Info/item/dc:94956)
- Margaretta, W. E., & Rangkuti, R. (2024). Korean–English code mixing and code switching of NewJeans's song. **Bahtera: Jurnal Pendidikan Bahasa dan Sastra**, 23(1), 111–126. <https://doi.org/10.21009/bahtera.231.10>
- McCormick, K. (1995). Convergence in Cape Town. In R. Mesthrie (Ed.), **Language and social history: Studies in South African sociolinguistics** (pp. 193–211). David Philip Publishers.
- McLaughlin, B. (1984). **Second-language acquisition in childhood: Preschool children** (2nd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Muysken, P. (2000). **Bilingual speech: A typology of code-mixing**. Cambridge University Press.
- Myers-Scotton, C. (1993). **Social motivations for code-switching: Evidence from Africa**. Clarendon Press.
- Nasution, A. R. S. (2021). Identifikasi permasalahan penelitian. **ALACRITY: Journal of Education**, 1(2), 13–19.

- Nyman, K. R. (2012). **English influence on Japanese popular music: A case study of language contact** [Master's thesis, University of Eastern Finland] <https://erepo.uef.fi/handle/123456789/11055>
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). **Qualitative research and evaluation methods** (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.
- Pedraza, P. (1978). **Ethnographic observations of language use in El Barrio** [Unpublished manuscript].
- Preechaamornkul, T. (2005). **Code-mixing of English and Thai in Thai television music programs** [Master's thesis, Chiang Mai University]. <http://tdc.thailis.or.th/tdc>
- Poplack, S. (1980). "Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish y termino en español": Toward a typology of code-switching. *Linguistics*, 18(7-8), 581-618.
- Poplack, S. (2000). **Sometimes I'll start a sentence in Spanish y termino en Español: Toward a typology of code-switching**. Routledge.
- Riehl, C. M. (2005). Code-switching in bilinguals: Impacts of mental processes and language awareness. In J. Cohen, K. T. McAlister, K. Rolstad, & J. MacSwan (Eds.), *ISB4: Proceedings of the 4th International Symposium on Bilingualism* (pp. 1945-1959). Cascadilla Press.
- Romano, A. (2018). How K-pop became a global phenomenon. *Vox*. <https://www.vox.com/culture/2018/2/16/16915672/what-is-kpop-history-explained>
- Rusli, W. N. S. W., Shaari, A. H., Zainuddin, S. Z., Shi, N. L., & Amin, A. S. (2018). Intra- and inter-sentential code-switching phenomena in modern Malay songs. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 24(3), 184-205.
- Samingkaew, N. (2001). **Code-mixing in Thai daily entertainment news** [Master's thesis, Thammasat University].
- Sarkar, M., & Winer, L. (2006). Multilingual code-switching in Quebec rap: Poetry, pragmatics and performativity. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 3(3), 173-192. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14790710608668318>
- Sea, A. (2018). **Types and motivations of Korean to English code-switching in Taeyeon's album My Voice song lyrics** [Undergraduate thesis, Universitas Sanata Dharma].
- Sugiyono. (2011). **Metode penelitian kuantitatif, kualitatif, dan R&D**. Alfabeta.
- Wardhaugh, R. (2000). **An introduction to sociolinguistics** (4th ed.). Blackwell Publishers.

## **Negotiating Meaning in the Marketplace: Communication Strategies of Thai Vendors at Chatuchak Market**

**Wutthipong Mokharat<sup>1</sup>, Karintip Hemadhulin<sup>1</sup>, Ornjira Chaithong<sup>1</sup>,  
Patita Sakamula<sup>1</sup>, Wisut Jarunthawatchai<sup>1\*</sup>**

### **Abstract**

This study investigates the communication repair strategies employed by Thai vendors interacting with non-native English speakers at Chatuchak Market in Bangkok. Drawing on frameworks from Færch and Kasper (1977), Tarone (1977), and Lin (2007), the research analyzes how two vendors—a smoothie seller and a masseuse—used strategic language and nonverbal tactics to manage real-world misunderstandings in English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) contexts. Data were collected from naturally occurring vendor–customer interactions and analyzed through a two-tier framework comprising Reduction and Achievement Strategies. Findings reveal a clear preference for Achievement Strategies such as code-switching, appeal for assistance, mime/gesture, compensatory tools (e.g., calculators), and self-repair. These multimodal and interactive tactics were notably effective in resolving communicative breakdowns. In contrast, Reduction Strategies like topic avoidance and message abandonment were less effective and often led to unresolved exchanges. The study highlights the practical importance of visual, bilingual, and collaborative strategies in cross-cultural communication, particularly in fast-paced service encounters. By examining authentic ELF discourse, this research provides insights for language educators, business communication trainers, and vendors aiming to enhance transactional fluency in multicultural settings.

**Keywords:** Communication strategies, Multimodal communication, Marketplace discourse

Received 2 May 2025; Received in revised form 18 June 2025; Accepted 20 June 2025

---

\* Corresponding Author  
E-mail: wisut.ja@ku.ac.th  
<sup>1</sup> Kasetsart University

## **1. Introduction**

During recent decades, English has played a role in different countries worldwide, including in Asia; as Crystal (2003) notes, it functions as a Global Language. Thailand is one of the Asian countries that has used English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) since the era of King Rama III, and English assumed an increasingly prominent role during King Rama IV's reign (1851–1868) (Snodin et al., 2024). Over time, English became more and more essential in Thai education and society (Boonsuk & Ambele, 2021). Furthermore, Thailand's future plans aim to develop citizens into a society capable of using English to communicate widely in affairs of daily life, education, and business.

At present, Thailand remains a major tourist attraction where foreigners interact with Thai people more than ever. The role of English in these interactions is critical, particularly for those in the service industry and merchants who need to communicate with overseas visitors. Yet misunderstandings frequently arise from factors such as an inability to understand foreign speech clearly, limited vocabulary, or grammatical inaccuracies. Such breakdowns can impede transactions and affect vendor–customer rapport (Snodin et al., 2024).

Communication strategies offer a helpful way to bridge these gaps. Tarone's (1977) framework—including mime, avoidance, and conscious transfer (language switch)—and Lin's (2007) classifications—such as compensatory strategies and code-switching—describe tools speakers use to overcome miscommunication. However, empirical research on how these strategies are enacted in real-world Thai marketplace settings remains scarce.

This study examines the English communication strategies employed by two Thai vendors—a smoothie vendor and a masseuse—at Chatuchak Market. Using naturally occurring conversational data recorded during their work, we apply Tarone's and Lin's frameworks to identify which strategies are used, how frequently they occur, and how effectively they resolve misunderstandings. By focusing on authentic interactions, this research seeks to illuminate the practical dynamics of strategy deployment in ELF contexts and to offer insights for language learners, trainers, and marketplace vendors striving for smoother cross-cultural communication. This study addresses the following research questions:

1. Which communication strategies do Thai vendors use when interacting with non-Thai speakers at Chatuchak Market?
2. How frequently are the different strategies employed by the participants?
3. To what extent do these strategies resolve misunderstandings during vendor–customer interactions?

## **2. Literature review**

### **2.1 Definitions of Communication**

“Communication” has been conceptualized in myriad ways. Early work by Dance and Larson (1976) revealed over 126 distinct definitions, underlining the concept’s complexity and its evolution over time. Sapir (1933) emphasized that communication extends beyond mere verbal exchange; it encompasses instinctive actions and culturally rooted symbols that convey meaning without conscious awareness. Building on these insights, Lynch (1996) proposed a process-oriented definition comprising three core elements: (1) a sender, (2) a message, and (3) a receiver, asserting that “communication involves enabling someone else to understand what we want to tell them” (p. 45). Together, these perspectives suggest that communication is not merely the transmission of linguistic forms but a dynamic interplay of verbal, nonverbal, and socio-cultural factors that can succeed only when interlocutors share sufficient common ground.

### **2.2 English as a Global Lingua Franca and Its Role in Thailand**

English’s ascendancy as a global language can be traced to two historical waves: the expansion of the British Empire between the seventeenth and nineteenth centuries and the subsequent rise of the United States as a world power. In the first wave, mass migration of English speakers across Scotland, Ireland, North America, Australia, and New Zealand gave rise to diverse mother-tongue varieties. In the second, colonial ventures in Africa and Asia introduced English as a second-language medium, forming localized varieties still evident today. More recently, economic integration and international trade within ASEAN have reinforced English’s centrality; ASEAN’s adoption of English as its sole official language in 2007 exemplifies this trend, despite ongoing efforts to preserve local tongues (Kirkpatrick, 2010).

Unlike many Southeast Asian nations, Thailand was never formally colonized. Nonetheless, early contacts with Great Britain during the Ayutthaya period initiated nonverbal diplomatic exchanges that later evolved into verbal communication in English. The 1826 Treaty of Burney—Thailand’s first formal agreement with a Western power—marked the official introduction of English. Under King Rama IV (1851–1868), English education expanded within the royal court, as American missionaries were invited to teach the language to the monarch’s family to modernize the nation and prevent colonial subjugation (Snodin et al., 2024). By the reign of King Rama V (1910–1925), English instruction reached the Thai middle class (Masavisut, Sukwiwat, & Wongmontha, 1986), gradually positioning English as the preferred medium for international diplomacy and commerce (Dhiravegin, 1975). In contemporary Thailand, English proficiency remains a national priority in education and business (Boonsuk & Ambele, 2021), with policy documents envisioning Thai citizens as competent users of English across daily, academic, and professional domains. Nonetheless,

the incorporation of English as a second language is sensitive, requiring careful balancing with national identity (Tejarajanya, 2018).

### **2.3 Barriers to Effective Communication**

Despite English's widespread utility, non-native speakers often encounter obstacles that impede mutual understanding. Drawing on workplace studies, Rani (2016) categorizes communication barriers into five types:

1. **Attitudinal Barriers:** Prejudicial attitudes and stereotypes, arising from race, gender, education, or lifestyle differences, can lead to misjudgments and inhibit open exchange.
2. **Behavioral Barriers:** Biases and generalizations shape expectations, often resulting in stereotype-confirming interactions that restrict genuine communication (Johnston & Macrae, 1994).
3. **Cultural Barriers:** Distinct values, beliefs, and social norms necessitate empathy—understanding others' perspectives—to bridge interpretive gaps.
4. **Language Barriers:** Limited vocabulary, complex jargon, and grammatical inaccuracies obstruct message clarity. In Thailand, cultural communication styles—such as indirectness or high-context reliance—can further complicate exchanges with foreigners.
5. **Environmental Barriers:** Physical factors, such as noise or spatial configuration, also influence how effectively messages are conveyed and received.

These barriers underscore the need for adaptive repair strategies that extend beyond linguistic accuracy to include cultural sensitivity and situational awareness.

### **2.4 Intercultural Communication**

#### **2.4.1 Definitions of Culture**

Culture has been variously defined as the shared beliefs, values, practices, customs, and artifacts that characterize a group or society, encompassing language, religion, social organization, arts, and technology (Birukou et. al., 2013). It also comprises behavior patterns that persist across generations within specific populations, even as they vary among different groups (Snowdon, 2018). Together, these definitions underscore culture's role in shaping both what we communicate and how we interpret others' messages.

#### **2.4.2 Definitions of Intercultural Communication**

Intercultural communication occurs whenever members of one cultural group produce messages for consumption by members of another. Samovar and Porter (2004) emphasize that such interactions involve exchanges between individuals whose cultural perceptions and symbol systems differ sufficiently to influence comprehension. Allwood (1990) further frames it as “the sharing of information on different levels of awareness and control between people with different cultural backgrounds, where different cultural backgrounds include both

national cultural differences and differences which are connected with participation in the different activities that exist within a national unit.” Gudykunst (2003) restricts the term to exchanges among different nationalities, whereas Scollon (2012) extends it to any communication across group or discourse boundaries—even within the same nation—highlighting that divergent worldviews can emerge between, for example, adolescents and senior citizens.

### **2.4.3 Impact of Cultural Differences**

Cultural differences can give rise to misunderstandings, conflict, and communicative breakdowns. Linguistic challenges stem from unique grammar and sentence-structure rules that resist direct translation; words or phrases may carry disparate meanings or connotations across languages, leading to confusion or unintended offense. Nonverbal cues—gestures, facial expressions, and body language—may be perceived as polite in one context yet rude in another. Cultural norms fundamentally shape attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors, making it essential for interlocutors to recognize and adapt to these differences. Developing intercultural sensitivity—empathy for others’ perspectives and conventions—is therefore critical for building rapport and avoiding miscommunication (Dhital, 2023).

## **2.5 Communication Strategies**

When linguistic or cultural barriers threaten mutual understanding, speakers employ communication strategies—deliberate or spontaneous tactics to convey intended meanings despite resource constraints. Færch and Kasper (1977) characterize these as potentially conscious plans to resolve problems in reaching a communication goal. They distinguish three types: formal reduction strategies, whereby speakers simplify utterances to avoid non-fluency or errors; functional reduction strategies, in which the communicative goal itself is downscaled to match available resources; and achievement strategies, where speakers expand their toolkit—through paraphrase, synonyms, or gestures—to express complex ideas.

Tarone (1977) offers a more granular taxonomy of repair tactics used when language structures prove inadequate. Avoidance strategies manifest as topic avoidance or message abandonment, allowing speakers to sidestep or truncate difficult subjects. Paraphrase strategies include approximation (selecting a semantically adjacent term), word coinage (inventing a new form), and circumlocution (describing concepts indirectly). Conscious transfer entails literal translation from the speaker’s first language, preserving meaning at the expense of idiomaticity. Language switch involves momentary reversion to the L1 to fill lexical gaps, while appeal for assistance—overtly requesting help—engages interlocutors as collaborators. Finally, Tarone’s addition of mime underscores the multimodal dimension of repair, with gestures and pantomime serving as visual channels for meaning when words fail.

Lin (2007) builds on these foundations by defining six strategies employed to overcome communicative breakdowns: avoidance (steering clear of problematic forms),

compensatory strategies (using gestures, simplification, or paraphrase), appeal for assistance, circumlocution, code-switching (akin to Tarone's language switch), and self-repair (correcting one's own errors to maintain clarity). By integrating the frameworks of Færch and Kasper, Tarone, and Lin, researchers can systematically analyze how non-native speakers negotiate meaning in authentic intercultural settings such as marketplace interactions.

The frameworks of Færch and Kasper (1977), Tarone (1977), and Lin (2007) provide complementary lenses for categorizing both reduction and repair tactics in naturally occurring vendor–customer exchanges. By applying these three models in concert, this study can systematically identify and compare speakers' strategic choices, thereby fulfilling its aim of elucidating how Thai vendors negotiate and overcome miscommunication in authentic ELF interactions.

### **3. Methodology**

#### **3.1 Research Site and Context**

To investigate how non-native speakers resolve miscommunication, data were collected at Chatuchak Market—a busy weekend destination in Bangkok popular for both Thai shoppers and international visitors. Fieldwork took place on two weekends (13–15 and 21 September 2024) during peak hours (10 AM–4 PM), with a particular focus on the lunch period when vendor–customer exchanges were most numerous. Each participant was recorded for approximately two hours in situ, allowing researchers to capture authentic, unscripted interactions.

#### **3.2 Participants**

Two Thai vendors voluntarily participated in this study: a smoothie vendor and a masseuse at a nearby massage stall. Both vendors held basic English proficiency. They relied on English to conduct business with foreign customers despite having had limited formal English instruction. They used English pragmatically—without concern for grammatical accuracy—to fulfill transactional needs. Participants were purposively selected for their high volume of encounters with native and non-native English speakers, ensuring rich data on strategy deployment in genuine marketplace contexts.

#### **3.3 Data Collection**

Audio recordings of each participant's conversation with foreign customers were made discreetly over two-hour sessions. Researchers positioned portable recorders so as not to disrupt normal business operations. All recordings were then transcribed verbatim, with time stamps and line numbers inserted for reference. Nonverbal behaviors—gestures, calculator displays, and other compensatory actions—were annotated in square brackets to preserve the full context of each exchange.

### **3.4 Data Analysis**

In order to examine how Thai vendors negotiate miscommunication in authentic vendor–customer exchanges, we integrated the seminal typologies of Færch and Kasper (1977), Tarone (1977), and Lin (2007) into a unified, two-tier framework comprising Reduction and Achievement Strategies. Færch and Kasper’s original distinction between reduction strategies—which simplify or downscale a message to avoid breakdowns—and achievement strategies—which proactively expand resources to restore understanding—provided the foundation. Tarone’s taxonomy of avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, language switch, appeal for assistance, and mime, along with Lin’s parallel classification of avoidance and compensatory tactics, all mapped neatly onto these two domains.

#### **Reduction Strategies**

These refer to deliberate simplifications or content-scale-backs when linguistic resources are strained, allowing speakers to maintain conversational flow at the expense of fuller expression.

- **Formal Reduction:** Omission or abbreviation of words and phrases to prevent non-fluent or erroneous utterances (Færch & Kasper, 1977).
- **Functional Reduction/Avoidance:** Steering clear of difficult topics (topic avoidance) or truncating messages mid-utterance (message abandonment) to match communicative goals to available proficiency (Færch & Kasper, 1977; Tarone, 1977; Lin, 2007).

#### **Achievement Strategies**

These encompass resource-expanding tactics that speakers deploy to bridge understanding after a breakdown.

- **Paraphrase (Circumlocution):** Lexical workarounds—approximation, word coinage, descriptive phrases—when precise terms are unavailable (Tarone, 1977).
- **Conscious Transfer (Literal Translation):** Word-for-word L1→L2 translation, preserving semantic content despite non-idiomatic phrasing (Tarone, 1977).
- **Language Switch/Code-Switching:** Temporary reversion to the speaker’s native or another known language to fill gaps and maintain flow (Tarone, 1977; Lin, 2007).
- **Appeal for Assistance:** Direct solicitation of help—asking for words, confirmation, or phrasing—from interlocutors (Tarone, 1977; Lin, 2007).
- **Mime/Gesture:** Use of nonverbal behaviors—gestures, facial expressions, pantomime—to convey meaning when words fail (Tarone, 1977; Lin, 2007).
- **Self-Repair/Correction:** Speaker-initiated corrections to one’s own utterance to clarify meaning and sustain coherence (Lin, 2007).

All recorded turns of talk were coded into one of these nine categories. We then compiled frequency counts for each strategy to determine prevalence and selected qualitative

excerpts to illustrate how vendors deployed these tactics to overcome cultural, linguistic, and environmental barriers. This combined quantitative–qualitative approach directly addressed our research questions: which strategies were used, how frequently they occurred, and how effectively they resolved misunderstandings in real-world ELF interactions.

#### 4. Findings

As shown in Table 1, Reduction Strategies were infrequently employed—Functional Reduction/Avoidance occurred only three times and Formal Reduction not at all. In contrast, Achievement Strategies appeared across a broad spectrum: Code-Switching was most frequent ( $n = 5$ ), followed by Appeal for Assistance, Mime/Gesture, and Compensatory nonverbal tactics ( $n = 4$  each); Self-Repair was observed three times; Conscious Transfer twice; and Paraphrase once. This distribution highlighted vendors’ preference for dynamic, resource-expanding tactics over simple content downscaling. Overall, Thai vendors employed various strategies—drawing on interactive, multimodal, and reductive tactics—rather than relying on any single approach when negotiating meaning with non-Thai customers.

**Table 1** *Frequencies of Communication Strategies (n)*

Strategy Category	Frequency (n)
Reduction Strategies	
Functional Reduction / Avoidance	3
Formal Reduction	0
Achievement Strategies	
Paraphrase (Circumlocution)	1
Conscious Transfer (Literal Translation)	2
Language Switch / Code-Switching	5
Appeal for Assistance	4
Mime / Gesture	4
Compensatory (Nonverbal)	4
Self-Repair / Correction	3

The following section presents examples of communication strategies that emerged from our vendor-customer transcripts, grouping them into Reduction and Achievement categories. Each example is accompanied by commentary on how vendors deployed these strategies to negotiate meanings and manage breakdowns in real-world ELF interactions.

## **4.1 Reduction Strategies**

### **4.1.1 Functional Reduction / Avoidance**

#### **Message Abandonment**

When speakers began an utterance but abandoned it mid-phrase due to difficulty expressing themselves (Tarone, 1977; Lin, 2007). The example below showed that the smoothie vendor started speaking to a Korean customer but abandoned halfway due to difficulties in finding words to express her message.

#### **Example (line 53; 24.43):**

Smoothie Vendor: Ahh sorry. สักครู้เก็บเงินไม่ครบ ชาติอีกสามสิบเก้าบาท

(A moment ago, I told you that price but actually there was still thirty-nine baht missing.)

Customer: Oh!

Smoothie Vendor: Ok. Sorry for... (laughing)...

Here, the vendor laughed instead of completing her intended message, indicating she could not formulate the English sentence. As a result, the purpose of her message remained unclear, and miscommunication persisted.

#### **Topic Avoidance**

When speakers sidestepped topics they found linguistically challenging by answering vaguely or indicating ignorance (Tarone, 1977; Lin, 2007). Example below showed that the smoothie vendor avoided answering the customer's question.

#### **Example (line 344; 1.30.20):**

Customer: (asks a question)

Smoothie Vendor: Ah, I don't know. Bye bye.

By responding "I don't know," the vendor avoided the question entirely, prematurely ending the exchange and failing to resolve the customer's request. This strategy thus did not remedy the breakdown.

## **4.2 Achievement Strategies**

### **4.2.1 Mime/ Gesture**

The speaker used body language or pointing when verbal resources were insufficient (Tarone, 1977; Lin, 2007). In the example below, smoothie vendor used gestures instead of speaking.

#### **Example (lines 141–143; 37.00):**

Smoothie Vendor: Hello. Hi, what would you like?

Customer: (points at mangoes)

Smoothie Vendor: now? [She misunderstood and thought the customer wanted to buy mango sticky rice.]

Customer: (points at the blender)

Smoothie Vendor: อ่อน้ำ ปั่น (Oh, smoothie)

Customer: Two.

Smoothie Vendor: Two, ok. มะม่วงสองคะ (Two mango smoothie)

The customer's first gesture (pointing at mangoes) led to misunderstanding ("mango sticky rice"), but the second gesture (pointing at the blender) successfully conveyed "mango smoothie." Mime, used twice, resolved the breakdown on its second instance.

#### **4.2.2 Paraphrase – Circumlocution**

This speaker described the concept or object they wanted by using alternative words or phrases when the precise term was unknown (Tarone, 1977). The example below showed that she used alternative words because she did not know specific word expressing her intended meaning.

**Example (line 328; 1.19.04):** Foreign customer tried to speak Thai.

Customer: เอา mango (I wanted to buy a mango)

Smoothie Vendor: Mango อร่อยมาก sticky rice อร่อยมาก ๆ (Mango is delicious. Sticky rice are very delicious)

Customer: กินข้าวหรือยัง วันนี้คุณกินข้าวหรือยัง (Have you eaten lunch today?)

Smoothie Vendor: วันนี้กินแล้ว ตอน lunch I don't, only morning (Today, I have already eaten breakfast. But I haven't eaten lunch yet)

Smoothie Vendor: Bye bye. Enjoy your day.

Here, the vendor said "morning" instead of "breakfast." Both terms related to the first meal of the day, allowing the customer to infer meaning from context. Circumlocution thus successfully bridged the lexical gap.

#### **4.2.3 Conscious Transfer (Literal Translation)**

Word-for-word translation from L1 to L2, preserving semantic content but yielding non-idiomatic phrasing (Tarone, 1977). The speaker directly translated phrases or expressions from their native language into English, even if they were not idiomatic.

**Example (line 351; 1.36.50):**

Smoothie Vendor: Hello, very good? มีย

Customer: yeah อร่อย

Smoothie Vendor: mango sticky rice very good.

Customer: good

Smoothie Vendor: I can understand. Because is good. Good so much around eat it and shopping...enjoy your day.

Thinking in Thai before speaking English led to unidiomatic constructions (“Because is good,” “Good so much around”). In this instance, literal translation failed to clarify the message fully.

#### **4.2.4 Language Switch / Code-Switching**

Reversion to the speaker’s native language when L2 vocabulary was unavailable (Tarone, 1977; Lin, 2007). Example below showed that the smoothie vendor used Thai words in English sentence.

##### **Example (line 111; 34.47):**

Smoothie Vendor: Hello, you come here ma lew smoothie? (มาเร็ว)

The insertion of Thai “ma lew” (“come quickly”) within an English sentence served to convey urgency. Although potentially confusing for monolingual English speakers, the bilingual context here helped interlocutor guess the meanings in communication.

#### **4.2.5 Appeal for Assistance**

Soliciting help from other interlocutor could be a way to help express a message (Tarone, 1977; Lin, 2007). Example below showed that at the smoothie stall, the masseuse asked for help when she was unable to express her thoughts in English.

##### **Example (line 256; 1.04):**

Masseuse: ...รับตั้งค์ 99 บาทหน่อย พี่บอกเขาไม่เป็น (Please collect 99 baht for me; I don’t know how to tell the customer.)

Smoothie Vendor: Ninety-nine baht. Just moment.

The masseuse explicitly asked the vendor for assistance in communicating the price, and the vendor explained it in English. Appeal for Assistance thus resolved the breakdown.

#### **4.2.6 Self-Repair / Correction**

Speaker initiated correction upon realizing an error in their own utterance (Lin, 2007). In the following sample, the smoothie vendor self-corrected her initial utterance to make sure she used correct words to communicate.

##### **Example (line 47; 23.30):**

Customer: Mangosteen smoothie

Smoothie Vendor: One just moment. Just moment.

After producing the hybrid “One just moment,” the vendor corrected to “Just moment,” clarifying her intended phrase and preventing confusion.

#### **4.2.7 Compensatory Strategies**

Employing nonverbal tools (e.g. calculators, drawings) was a way to convey quantitative information when language failed (Lin, 2007). Following example showed that the masseuse used a calculator to show the service fee to a Chinese customer to help the customer understand the message.

**Example (line 449; 6.48):**

Masseuse: Three hundred...Three-hundred baht.

Customer: (speechless)

Masseuse: (uses calculator to show the price)

The masseuse displayed the service fee on a calculator when she could not convey it verbally, ensuring the customer understood the amount owed. The masseuse's use of the calculator demonstrated how compensatory strategies effectively resolved miscommunication when verbal resources were insufficient.

## **5. Discussion**

This study's two-tier framework revealed a clear preference for Achievement over Reduction Strategies. Of the nine tactics identified, Code-Switching ( $n = 5$ ), Appeal for Assistance ( $n = 4$ ), Mime/Gesture ( $n = 4$ ), and Compensatory tools ( $n = 4$ ) predominated, while Functional Reduction/Avoidance appeared only three times and Formal Reduction not at all. These findings align with Færch and Kasper's (1977) assertion that speakers favor resource-expanding measures when confronted with communicative challenges. In the high-stakes, fast-paced marketplace of Chatuchak, vendors evidently prioritize strategies that actively negotiate meaning rather than simply downscale their messages.

Our analysis further shows how specific strategies corresponded to distinct barriers. Cultural mismatches—such as divergent head-shake conventions—were routinely countered by Mime/Gesture and Code-Switching, which provided visual and bilingual cues to bridge nonverbal gaps (Noreewong, 2006). Language barriers, stemming from uneven English proficiency, elicited Conscious Transfer, Paraphrase, Appeal for Assistance, and Self-Repair; these tactics enabled vendors to negotiate unfamiliar vocabulary by drawing on L1 knowledge or interlocutor support (Jung, 2010; Rani, 2016). Environmental noise and crowding triggered Compensatory strategies—calculator displays and exaggerated gestures—that amplified the message beyond ambient interference. Thus, vendors deploy a dynamic strategy resource to precisely tackle the barrier at hand.

Regarding overall effectiveness, multimodal and interactive tactics proved most reliable. Mime and calculator-assisted displays consistently resolved breakdowns, demonstrating the universal power of visual channels when verbal communication falters. In contrast, Avoidance strategies—Topic Avoidance and Message Abandonment—uniformly failed to clarify the intended meaning, often terminating exchanges without resolution. These contrasts underscore that while Reduction strategies may preserve conversational flow, they rarely achieve communicative closure in authentic ELF settings.

Collectively, these insights fully address our research questions. First, Thai vendors employ nine distinct repair tactics spanning both Reduction and Achievement domains.

Second, frequency counts demonstrate a marked predominance of Achievement over Reduction, with interactive, multimodal strategies leading usage. Third, effectiveness assessments reveal that nonverbal and bilingual resources are the most successful in resolving misunderstandings, whereas avoidance undermines resolution.

## **6. Conclusion and Recommendations**

In conclusion, this study extends the frameworks of Færch and Kasper (1977), Tarone (1977), and Lin (2007) by applying them to authentic vendor–customer interactions at Chatuchak Market. Our findings show that Thai vendors rely on a varied repertoire of Achievement Strategies—code-switching, appeal for assistance, mime/gesture, compensatory tools, self-repair, conscious transfer, and paraphrase—far more than on Reduction Strategies. Gesture, bilingual insertions, and nonverbal aids proved especially effective in bridging cultural, linguistic, and environmental divides, whereas avoidance tactics rarely resolved misunderstandings.

This study was limited to two vendors in a single market setting. The findings may not represent the communication strategies used by all vendors. Spending more time collecting data and recording conversations with a wider range of customers from different countries would help provide a clearer picture of how vendors adjust their strategies in diverse situations. Future research could explore whether similar patterns appear across other vendors and settings to strengthen the conclusions drawn from this study.

These findings show an important point. That is in multilingual and multicultural contexts, successful communication does not depend on speaking English like a native speaker. Instead, it depends on how well speakers can use different resources—such as gestures, language mixing, or other strategies—to make their message understood. The way the vendors handled communication with customers from different countries shows that being clear, flexible, and using strategies that fit the situation is more important than using perfect grammar. In today’s global context, especially where English is used as a common language among people from different backgrounds, what matters most is being able to understand and be understood—not trying to sound like a native speaker.

## **Authors**

**Wutthipong Mokharat** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English at Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science, Kasetsart University.

**Karintip Hemadhulin** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English at Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science, Kasetsart University.

**Ornjira Chaithong** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English at Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science, Kasetsart University.

**Patita Sakamula** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English at Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science, Kasetsart University.

**Wisut Jarunthawatchai** Assistant Professor at the Department of English, Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science, Kasetsart University.

## References

- Allwood, J. S. (1990). **On the role of cultural content and cultural context in language instruction** (Gothenburg Papers in Theoretical Linguistics No. 60). University of Gothenburg.
- Birukou, A., Blanzieri, E., Giorgini, P., & Giunchiglia, F. (2013). A formal definition of culture. In K. Sycara, M. Gelfand, & A. Abbe (Eds.), **Models for intercultural collaboration and negotiation** (Vol. 6, pp. 1–26). Springer. [https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-5574-1\\_1](https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-5574-1_1)
- Boonsuk, Y., & Ambele, E. A. (2021). Towards integrating lingua franca in Thai EFL: Insights from Thai tertiary learners. **International Journal of Instruction**, 14(3), 17–38. <https://doi.org/10.29333/iji.2021.1432a>
- Crystal, D. (2003). **English as a global language** (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511486999>
- Dance, F. E. X., & Larson, C. E. (1976). **The functions of human communication: A theoretical approach**. Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Dhital, R. (2023). Applying Hofstede's cultural dimension theory to analyze intercultural communication differences. **Journal of Linguistics and Communication Studies**, 2(3), 17–23. <https://www.pioneerpublisher.com/JLCS/article/view/415>
- Dhiravegin, L. (1975). **Siam and colonialism [1855–1909]: An analysis of diplomatic relations**. Thai Watana Panich.
- Gudykunst, W. B. (2003). **Cross-cultural and intercultural communication**. Sage Publications, Inc.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2010). **Asian Englishes today: English as a lingua franca in ASEAN: A multilingual model**. Hong Kong University Press.
- Lynch, T. (1996). **Communication in the language classroom**. Oxford University Press.
- Masavisut, N., Sukwiwat, M., & Wongmontha, S. (1986). The power of the English language in Thai media. **World Englishes**, 5(2–3), 197–207. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-971X.1986.tb00726.x>
- Noreewong, O. (2006). **A study of intercultural communication: A case study of cultural influence of ACL English (Thailand)** [Unpublished master's thesis, Srinakharinwirot University].
- Sapir, E. (1933). Language. In E. R. A. Seligman & A. Johnson (Eds.), **Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences** (Vol. 9, pp. 155–169). Macmillan. [https://brocku.ca/MeadProject/Sapir/Sapir\\_1933\\_a.html](https://brocku.ca/MeadProject/Sapir/Sapir_1933_a.html)
- Scollon, R. (2012). **Intercultural communication: A discourse approach** (2nd ed.). Wiley-Blackwell.
- Snodin, N., Savski, K., & Sameephet, B. (2024). English in Thailand. In A. J. Moody (Ed.), **The Oxford handbook of Southeast Asian Englishes** (pp. 311–326). Oxford University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1093/oxfordhb/9780192855282.013.16>
- Usha Rani, K. (2016, March). Communication barriers. **Veda's Journal of English Language and Literature (JOELL)**, 3(Special Issue 2). [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/304038097\\_COMMUNICATION\\_BARRIERS](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/304038097_COMMUNICATION_BARRIERS)

## **Exploring English-Major Students' Perspectives on Peer Feedback in Second Language Writing**

**Intuon Sinlapavijitkarn<sup>1</sup>, Kanyarat Sriyota<sup>1</sup>,  
Napatsorn Thotherdwilai<sup>1</sup>, Wisut Jarunthawatchai<sup>1\*</sup>**

### **Abstract**

It is widely accepted that English serves as a global language for communication among people from diverse backgrounds. In Thailand, despite English not being an official language, it has become increasingly important in academic, professional, technological, and social contexts. Writing in English as a second language is considered a complex skill, and peer feedback is often integrated into writing classrooms as part of the writing process. This study aimed to investigate students' attitudes toward peer feedback and to explore the advantages and limitations that affect its effectiveness. The study adopted a qualitative approach, involving fifteen third-year English major students at a public university, who had prior experience with peer feedback in writing classes. Data were collected through one-on-one, semi-structured interviews and analyzed using a color-coding method. The findings revealed that while students recognized the benefits of peer feedback, including enhanced confidence and skill development, they also identified limitations such as cultural influences, emotional concerns, and insufficient feedback training. These insights highlight the need for appropriate peer feedback training to maximize its effectiveness in second language writing classrooms.

**Keywords:** Peer feedback, Second language writing, Thai EFL students, Student perspectives, Writing instruction

Received 23 April 2025; Received in revised form 18 June 2025; Accepted 20 June 2025

---

\* Corresponding Author  
E-mail: faaswsj@ku.ac.th  
<sup>1</sup> Kasetsart University

## **1. Introduction**

Writing in a second language is an essential skill for academic and professional success, as it enables learners to articulate complex ideas, engage in disciplinary discourse, and participate effectively in globalized contexts (Archibald & Jeffery, 2000). In Thailand, English proficiency—particularly in writing—has become increasingly vital across education, business, and technology sectors, even though English is not an official national language (Jarunthawatchai, 2010).

Among the instructional strategies designed to develop L2 writers' skills, peer feedback has attracted considerable attention. Unlike teacher-centred, product-focused approaches that emphasise error correction, peer review encourages collaborative interaction, critical reflection, and metalinguistic awareness as students comment on drafts and negotiate meaning (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Such reciprocal engagement can foster deeper understanding of genre conventions and improve subsequent revisions.

English-major undergraduates in Thai universities face particular demands: they must produce essays, reports, and research papers in English to demonstrate disciplinary knowledge and prepare for careers in education, translation, or international business (Jarunthawatchai, 2010). However, their feedback literacy—knowing how to give, interpret, and act on peer comments—may be uneven, and cultural factors can influence their willingness to critique classmates or to trust peer suggestions.

Although numerous studies show the pedagogical benefits of peer feedback in L2 writing, little is known about how English-major students in Thailand perceive its value, challenges, and impact on their composing process. Addressing this gap, the present study explores English-major undergraduates' attitudes toward peer review, identifying the advantages they experience and the limitations they encounter in Thai higher-education writing classrooms.

### **Research Questions**

1. What are students' attitudes toward peer feedback in second language writing?
2. What are the advantages and limitations that affect the effectiveness of peer feedback in second language writing within the Thai context?

## **2. Literature review**

### **2.1 Writing Process**

Writing is a complex process that involves more than merely putting words on paper. In terms of second language writing instruction, there are two understandings of the writing process. The first is the internal cognitive process of writers, which is intricate and non-linear, and therefore difficult to describe systematically. The second, which this study focuses on, is

the writing process used in classroom teaching, which provides a clear instructional cycle guiding students through stages of writing development.

White and Arndt (1991) presented a widely accepted model of the classroom writing process. Their model begins with generating ideas, followed by focusing, outlining, and drafting the first version of the text. Evaluation, using feedback for reviewing and revising, follows. Importantly, this process is recursive rather than linear; students may return to earlier stages based on the feedback received. Feedback plays a crucial role in this cycle, especially in the later stages of writing, helping learners to refine their drafts and improve their final outputs.

## **2.2 The Importance of Feedback in Second Language Writing**

Feedback has been recognized as a pivotal tool in developing students' understanding of texts, the writing process, and overall language use (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). It guides students not only in identifying weaknesses in their writing but also in improving rhetorical structure and academic literacy skills (Lalande, 1982; Srichanyachon, 2012). The presence of effective feedback transforms writing instruction by providing learners with concrete suggestions that foster skill development and deeper engagement with their writing.

Broadly, feedback in second language writing is categorized into two types: teacher feedback and peer feedback. Both play complementary roles in helping students revise and improve their drafts.

## **2.3 Teacher Feedback**

Teacher feedback remains a dominant form of response in second language writing classrooms. Hyland (2003, as cited in Hyland & Hyland, 2006) stressed that teacher feedback is essential in supporting students' writing proficiency development. Teachers typically provide feedback addressing both global concerns, such as content and organization, and local issues, such as grammar, vocabulary, spelling, and punctuation (Min, 2005). With their experience and expertise, teachers are trusted to deliver accurate, reliable feedback (Nguyen T. T., 2017; Tsui & Ng, 2000). Students often feel more confident revising their work based on teacher feedback because it points clearly to areas needing improvement (Ferris, 1995).

However, teacher feedback is not without its drawbacks. Some studies suggest that an overemphasis on correction can result in student anxiety and demotivation (Srichanyachon, 2012). Repeatedly seeing corrections, especially marked in red ink, may undermine students' confidence. Truscott (1996) argued that successful learning occurs when students enjoy the learning process, but heavily corrective feedback risks diminishing that enjoyment. Furthermore, some researchers have noted that teacher feedback can be inconsistent and difficult to interpret. Zhao (2010) and Zamel (1985) observed that teacher feedback tends to focus primarily on language errors while giving less attention to content and organization, despite acknowledging their importance. Lee (2008) similarly noted that teachers often spend

so much effort correcting language issues that little time remains for addressing broader concerns. Moreover, inexperienced teachers sometimes give ambiguous feedback, using vague questions instead of direct statements, which leaves students uncertain about how to revise their work effectively (Ferris et al., 1997).

Given that the present study focuses on peer feedback, it does not delve further into the merits and limitations of teacher feedback. Nonetheless, understanding teacher feedback provides useful context for appreciating the role of peer feedback in the writing classroom.

## **2.4 Peer Feedback**

Peer feedback is an interactive learning strategy in which students evaluate and comment on each other's writing. Liu and Hansen (2002) defined peer feedback as an activity where students assume responsibility for giving constructive comments on their peers' work, as directed by the teacher. This method allows learners to reflect on both their own writing and that of others, offering insights into strengths, weaknesses, and possible improvements (Nguyen, 2017). Hyland and Hyland (2006) further noted that peer feedback plays a vital role in the development of second language writers, enabling them to engage in dialogue about their writing and make meaningful revisions. By working collaboratively, students benefit from diverse perspectives and learn from mutual support (Tsui & Ng, 2000).

### **2.4.1 Advantages of Peer Feedback**

One of the key advantages of peer feedback is its role in fostering self-confidence. Rollinson (2005) suggested that giving students opportunities to read and critique others' work helps them to build confidence in their writing abilities. Through practice, students learn to trust their judgment and become more independent in revising their own drafts.

Another significant benefit of peer feedback lies in skill development. According to Hu (2005), peer feedback promotes improvements in academic writing as students engage in critical reading and exchange valuable suggestions. Peer feedback also heightens students' awareness of audience expectations and common writing challenges. Srichanyachon (2012) reported that peer feedback not only enriches students' learning experiences but also motivates them to improve their writing. Students often find that peer feedback provides new ideas, inspiration, and encouragement. Moreover, it can reduce teachers' workload by serving as an additional revision resource. Liu and Hansen (2002, as cited in Nguyen, 2017) emphasized that peer feedback fosters active student participation and continuous learning improvement.

### **2.4.2 Limitations of Peer Feedback**

Despite its benefits, peer feedback has certain limitations. One common concern is insufficient knowledge among students. Srichanyachon (2012) pointed out that students may lack the confidence and expertise to provide useful feedback. Ruegg (2015) noted that while high-proficiency learners offer more accurate feedback, learners at lower proficiency levels

may struggle to do so effectively. Tsui and Ng (2000) also found that students often question the reliability of feedback from non-native English speakers. Similarly, Hu (2005, as cited in Nguyen, 2017) highlighted that limited English proficiency, superficial comments, and negative attitudes toward peer feedback can hinder its effectiveness. Furthermore, Wang (2015) discovered that dissatisfaction with poor-quality peer feedback may lead to negative perceptions of the practice.

Cultural factors also influence peer feedback effectiveness. Ruegg (2015) observed that hierarchical cultural norms, such as those in Japanese society, can make students reluctant to critique their peers. Zhang (1995) similarly argued that Asian students, accustomed to teacher-centered instruction, may be less inclined to engage fully with peer feedback. However, Fithriani (2017) found that Indonesian students, while respecting teacher feedback, are not necessarily afraid to question it and make independent revisions.

Emotional factors can also limit peer feedback. Carson and Nelson (1996) found that Chinese students were hesitant to provide critical comments, fearing it might harm group harmony. Students are more likely to use peer feedback when they have positive interactions with their classmates (Nelson & Murphy, 1993).

Another issue is the inappropriate use of peer feedback models. Demirel and Enginarlar (2016) noted that peer feedback loses its effectiveness if not implemented properly. Holt (1992, as cited in Demirel & Enginarlar, 2016) emphasized the importance of discussing not only writing mechanics but also the expression of ideas. Min (2005) demonstrated that with proper training, students can offer specific, relevant feedback, particularly on global issues like idea development and organization. Min's study also found that well-trained students gained greater confidence and critical thinking skills.

### **2.4.3 Peer Feedback Training**

Effective peer feedback requires preparation and training. Berg (1999) argued that providing and responding to peer feedback is a complex skill, especially for ESL learners with limited experience. Min (2005) proposed a four-step training procedure: clarifying writers' purposes, analyzing issues, explaining points of concern, and giving specific comments. Teachers play a crucial role in guiding students through this process, offering both in-class and individual support. With adequate training, students not only deliver better feedback but also develop a more positive attitude toward the process, enhancing their writing proficiency and critical thinking (Min, 2005). Nelson and Murphy (1993) also stressed the teacher's responsibility to ensure peer feedback is conducted appropriately and meaningfully.

### **2.5 Comparing Teacher Feedback and Peer Feedback**

The effectiveness of peer feedback is often compared to that of teacher feedback. Paulus (1999) found that students tend to prioritize teacher feedback during revisions.

Similarly, Srichanyachon (2012) reported that students generally value teacher feedback more highly, believing in teachers' expertise and knowledge.

However, some studies challenge this perspective. Fox (1980, as cited in Ruegg, 2015) found no significant difference in writing performance between students receiving teacher feedback and those receiving peer feedback. Hidetoshi and Fujita (2004) observed similar findings, with both groups achieving comparable scores.

Interestingly, students seem to appreciate receiving both types of feedback. Nguyen T. T. (2017) noted that while students value teacher feedback, they also recognize the benefits of peer feedback. Demirel and Enginarlar (2016) concluded that students' attitudes toward peer feedback tend to improve with experience. However, relying solely on teacher feedback may foster over-dependence on teachers.

Other researchers have argued that peer feedback, despite being less influential than teacher feedback, offers unique advantages. Miao, Badger, and Zhen (2006) explained that peer feedback encourages meaningful revisions and promotes autonomous learning. Unlike teacher feedback, which often focuses on surface-level errors, peer feedback tends to generate more substantial changes in content and meaning. Furthermore, the interactive nature of peer feedback discussions enhances students' understanding and reduces miscommunication.<sup>3</sup>

### **3. Methodology**

#### **3.1 Population and Sample**

The English curriculum for English-major students at the Faculty of Liberal Arts and Science in a public university in central Thailand includes four writing courses: *Introduction to English Reading and Writing Skills*, *English Writing*, *Integrated English Reading and Writing Skills*, and *Advanced Integrated English Reading and Writing Skills*. The population of this study consisted of third-year English major students, aged between 21 and 22 years. Fifteen third-year English-major students voluntarily participated in this study. All of them had completed the aforementioned writing courses and had engaged in peer feedback activities during their classes.

#### **3.2 Research Design**

This study employed a qualitative research design, using interviews as the primary data collection instrument. Interviews are recognized as a versatile tool commonly used in qualitative research for gathering in-depth insights (Dörnyei, 2007). The purpose of the interviews was to explore participants' general perceptions and experiences with peer feedback in second language writing. Each participant was individually interviewed in a one-to-one setting, allowing researchers to observe non-verbal cues, such as body language, facial expressions, and eye contact, to gain a deeper understanding of the participants' responses.

The interviews were semi-structured. Although a set of guiding questions had been prepared in advance, participants were encouraged to express their views openly. The researchers not only used these guiding questions but also probed further when participants provided interesting or unexpected answers, allowing for richer and more nuanced responses (Dörnyei, 2007). The interview questions were designed by adapting existing instruments from previous studies, including Nguyen T. T. (2017), Tsui and Ng (2000), and Wang (2015). Additionally, the researchers developed supplementary questions to elicit more in-depth information from participants.

### **3.3 Data Collection Procedure**

All fifteen participants were invited to take part in the interviews at times that were convenient for them. The interviews were conducted in various locations on campus, including empty classrooms, the university library, and the Language Learning building backyard. Each interview lasted approximately 15 to 25 minutes. Before beginning the interviews, the researchers obtained participants' consent to audio-record the sessions. To help participants feel comfortable and encourage them to focus on expressing their ideas freely, the interviews were conducted in Thai, the participants' native language. This approach allowed participants to articulate their thoughts without the additional challenge of translating from Thai to English. After each interview, the researchers promptly transcribed the audio recordings. Each participant was assigned a pseudonym to maintain confidentiality.

### **3.4 Data Analysis**

Data analysis followed a structured, multi-step procedure. First, the first three authors independently reviewed the interview transcripts, highlighting significant quotations that corresponded to the peer-review framework outlined in the literature review. Using this framework as a coding guide, they systematically coded participants' responses and allowed emerging themes to surface. To ensure inter-rater reliability, these initial codes were then cross-checked among the three authors; any discrepancies were discussed and resolved through consensus. This collaborative, iterative approach not only secured the trustworthiness of the coding but also enabled clear categorization of responses and the identification of key themes and patterns directly relevant to the study's research questions.

## **4. Findings**

This section presents the findings from the interviews, organized thematically based on the participants' responses. The themes include Confidence, Skills Development, Insufficient Knowledge, Cultural Influence, Emotional Influence, Peer Review Training, and Inappropriate Models. Participant responses are quoted to illustrate the emerging themes.

## **4.1 Attitudes toward Peer Feedback**

### **4.1.1 Confidence**

Many participants shared that receiving peer feedback enhanced their confidence in writing. Positive comments encouraged them to continue writing and revise their drafts based on peer suggestions. However, even with increased confidence, some still preferred to receive further feedback for reassurance.

“I had more confidence to write [after peer feedback].” (Eye)

“If I got a good comment on my draft, like... it is okay, I would feel that I wrote quite well. Good comments gave us more confidence in our writing.” (Gigi)

“[After receiving feedback], I would be able to recheck by myself. I had received feedback about this point, having feedback from peers already. I would bring it to improve my draft.” (Jaja)

Some participants still felt uncertain and desired additional feedback.

“I was not 100% confident regardless of how many times I received feedback. There might be some slight mistakes. I still want new feedback.” (May)

As feedback givers, a few participants expressed that regularly commenting on peers' drafts helped them build confidence in their own writing and evaluation abilities.

“I felt more confident when I kept commenting on peers' drafts. They trusted me. After I commented in the second year, my peers asked me for help again in a speaking course. I felt more confident that I was quite good at writing.” (Ploy)

“It made me know that I also had the potential to correct peers' drafts. I gained more confidence, not in the sense of believing I was always right, but in my ability to explain reasons to peers.” (Prim)

### **4.1.2 Assertiveness**

Although no participants mentioned gaining assertiveness as receivers, a few, as givers, shared that frequent commenting increased their assertiveness when providing feedback.

“Peers would be more courageous because not everyone dared to say what they thought. If one peer dared to comment, others might have joined in discussion. If this happened frequently, it would increase that person's assertiveness to talk more.” (May)

“If I saw that peers were not writing well, I corrected it for them, and I felt good. It made me more assertive in commenting on peers' drafts.” (Toy)

## **4.2 Perceived Advantages of Peer Feedbacks**

### **4.2.1 Skills Development**

#### **Gaining Different Ideas and Perspectives**

About half of the participants, as receivers, highlighted that peer feedback broadened their perspectives. Peers offered alternative views and spotted mistakes they had overlooked in their own drafts.

"I gained different views from others' perspectives. Sometimes only my view was not enough. I might have gained an unexpected view from peers' comments." (Eye)

"Each person had different writing styles and different thoughts. If I received suggestions from peers, it helped me improve my writing." (Nine)

Feedback givers also gained insights from reading multiple drafts, which expanded their understanding of the topic.

"If I read peers' drafts, I could get their way of thinking. They might have had a writing style different from mine. It could have expanded my way of thinking." (Fome)

### **Gaining Knowledge**

Some participants, as receivers, learned grammar rules through peer corrections.

"If peers corrected the errors, it could have made me understand more how to use that kind of grammar." (Toy)

Givers, too, reported gaining knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, and even general knowledge from reviewing peers' drafts.

"If I read many peers' drafts, I could see if they used difficult vocabulary. If I used the easy one, I needed to revise it." (Gigi)

"It improved my vocabulary treasury. I could remember the new vocabulary and apply it." (Namwaan)

### **Improving Writing Skills**

Participants, both receivers and givers, indicated that peer feedback heightened their awareness of mistakes and encouraged them to apply this awareness in future writing.

"When peers commented on my draft, I could see where my mistake was. It made me think more when writing the next draft." (Ploy)

"More than knowledge, it helped me improve all aspects. When I found an error, I knew my weaknesses and what I should have improved." (Captain)

Givers also reflected that peer reviewing trained them to apply the same careful examination to their own drafts.

"Practicing checking peers' drafts made me reconsider my draft. If peers' drafts had these mistakes, what about mine?" (May)

## **4.2.2 Peer Review Training**

### **Before the Activity**

Participants reported inconsistent training experiences. Some mentioned that teachers provided only oral explanations without clear forms or structured guidance.

"It seemed like just telling the topic." (Eye)

"The teacher just explained orally." (Prim)

Others noted that teachers provided guidance and checklists, focusing mostly on grammar, organization, and content.

“Teachers taught us beforehand how proper writing should be.” (Nine)

### **During the Activity**

Some participants observed that teachers were actively involved, monitoring student progress and providing clarification when needed.

“The teacher walked around asking some questions.” (Eye)

“If we did not understand, we could ask the teacher how much score we should give.” (Nine)

Others mentioned that the teacher let them work independently with minimal intervention.

“Teacher let us do it ourselves.” (Captain)

### **After the Activity**

Participants shared mixed experiences regarding follow-up. Some teachers checked peer feedback and provided further explanations.

“After the comments were finished, I gave them to the teacher, and she checked them again.” (Friend)

## **4.3 Perceived Limitations of Peer Feedback**

### **4.3.1 Insufficient Knowledge**

Over half of the participants, as receivers, expressed concerns about the reliability of peer feedback, given peers' similar knowledge level and lack of expertise.

“I did not believe in peers' comments because they were at the same level as me. I did not trust them 100%.” (Eye)

“Peers were not experts. They might not have really known what they were doing.” (Money)

As givers, several participants admitted hesitation to comment on peers' drafts, fearing insufficient knowledge might lead to giving incorrect feedback.

“Sometimes, peers wrote drafts with a lot of information. I did not know what I should have commented on. Maybe because of insufficient knowledge?” (Friend)

### **4.3.2 Cultural Influence**

Most participants strongly believed that teacher feedback was more trustworthy than peer feedback. They valued teachers' expertise and saw their feedback as more reliable.

“Teachers guided us better than friends because of more experience.” (Eye)

“Although peers were better than me, they were not professional and did not have more knowledge than teachers.” (Money)

Only one participant highlighted that teacher authority influenced her decision to accept feedback without question.

“If the teacher commented by themselves, since I was just a student, I was afraid to argue. But if it was my peers, I would have dared to argue.” (May)

### **4.3.3 Emotional Influence**

Some participants, as givers, felt uncomfortable providing critical feedback, especially to close friends, fearing it might harm their relationships.

“Sometimes I got a close friend’s draft. I did not know how to write it softly because I was afraid they might have sulked.” (Friend)

Conversely, receivers generally expressed openness to feedback and did not feel offended by negative comments.

“If I got feedback, then I needed to improve. I just focused on whether it was right, without prejudice.” (Captain)

A few participants believed that conflicts or biases could influence how feedback was given or received.

“If it seemed they did not like me, I did not believe their feedback.” (May)

Others disagreed, stating that feedback is separate from personal relationships.

“I did not think about the personality of peers. I received all the comments to consider.” (Jaja)

Some givers also felt that giving feedback could improve relationships through constructive collaboration.

“It should be in a good way, as I helped peers to develop. It might improve our relationship to be better and closer.” (Eye)

### **4.3.4 Inappropriate Models**

#### **Training Styles**

A few participants criticized the lack of clarity in training models, suggesting the need for clearer instructions and structured forms.

“If for checking the draft, this type of teaching was not very clear. The method was not clear.” (Captain)

#### **Activity Styles**

Participants highlighted that peer feedback activities lacked follow-up discussions or opportunities to revise drafts based on feedback.

“After peer edited the draft, we did not revise it at all.” (Jaja)

“It should have one class for writing a review and another class for discussion.” (Grace)

Some participants also felt peer feedback activities should occur more frequently for continuous improvement.

“It was good to have peer editing often, like trying to adjust continuously.” (Eye)

### **Combined Peer-Teacher Feedback**

Participants recommended that peer feedback should be complemented by teacher feedback to ensure accuracy and effectiveness.

“I wanted the teacher to re-check my draft.” (Eye)

“The teacher should check it out.” (Captain)

## **5. Discussion and Conclusion**

### **5.1 Discussion**

In response to the first research question, “What are students’ attitudes toward peer feedback in second language writing?”, all participants acknowledged that peer feedback was beneficial, particularly in developing their confidence and writing skills. We observed that this confidence boost often translated into greater willingness to take risks in subsequent drafts. Participants explained that receiving feedback from peers encouraged them to write and revise their drafts more confidently. This finding aligns with Rollinson (2005), who noted that giving students opportunities to practice being critical readers simultaneously builds their confidence as writers. Developing such confidence eventually enables learners to self-edit their work effectively. However, while some participants gained more confidence, they still preferred to receive ongoing feedback from peers to ensure continuous improvement.

Furthermore, the study revealed a new insight: as feedback givers, participants experienced growth in assertiveness. We interpreted this as evidence that the act of critiquing others can empower students to claim a more active role in their own writing development. Those who developed assertiveness became more willing to express their opinions, which in turn encouraged their peers to participate actively in the feedback process.

Another major advantage of peer feedback was skill development, as participants reported gaining new ideas and knowledge. As receivers, they noted that peer comments helped them recognize errors and areas for improvement that they might have overlooked. This finding is consistent with Hu (2005), who observed that students benefit from reading each other’s work and receiving multiple suggestions. Similarly, as givers, participants expanded their perspectives by reviewing peers’ drafts, which deepened their understanding of the topic. Moreover, both receivers and givers acquired not only fresh ideas but also specific knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, and general writing skills. These findings support Srichanyachon’s (2012) conclusion that peer feedback enhances learning, knowledge, and motivation.

In addition, peer feedback prompted participants to be more cautious and thoughtful writers. Receivers reviewed their drafts more carefully, keeping in mind the mistakes previously highlighted by peers. Our analysis suggests that this heightened self-monitoring may lead to longer-term gains in writing autonomy. Givers, too, reflected on their own writing

while providing feedback, becoming more accurate and attentive writers themselves. These findings echo Liu and Hansen's (2002, as cited in Nguyen, 2016), who viewed peer feedback as promoting active participation and continuous learning improvement.

Addressing the second research question, "What are the advantages and limitations that affect the effectiveness of peer feedback in second language writing within the Thai context?", participants identified several limitations alongside the advantages previously discussed.

The foremost concern was insufficient knowledge among peers. Participants questioned the reliability of peer comments, recognizing that their classmates, sharing similar levels of proficiency, might not provide fully accurate feedback. This concern aligns with Tsui and Ng (2000), who found that students doubt the quality of feedback provided by non-native English speakers. Additionally, participants noted that limited knowledge led to misunderstandings about the writers' intentions, making some hesitant to comment at all. Srichanyachon (2012) also identified insufficient knowledge and lack of confidence as major challenges in peer feedback practices.

Cultural influence emerged as another significant limitation. Most participants expressed greater trust in teacher feedback, viewing teachers as experts who offer accurate guidance. This reliance reflects the teacher-centered nature of Thai educational culture, where students expect teachers to have the final say. Zhang (1995) similarly noted that teacher-dominated instruction can reduce students' engagement with peer feedback. Moreover, one participant mentioned that teacher authority left little room for argument, even when peer comments differed from the teacher's suggestions. We argue that this cultural deference to authority must be explicitly addressed when designing peer review activities. In contrast, Fithriani (2017) found that while students respect teacher feedback, they are not necessarily afraid to disagree and make independent revisions.

The third identified limitation was emotional influence. Some participants, as givers, felt uncomfortable providing critical feedback to peers, particularly close friends, for fear of offending them. This finding corresponds with Carson and Nelson (1996), who suggested that peer feedback can create tension among students, especially in collectivist cultures. However, receivers generally welcomed constructive criticism, focusing on its usefulness rather than its potential to cause discomfort. Furthermore, some participants believed that poor relationships with peers could affect their willingness to accept feedback, supporting Nelson and Murphy's (1993) observation that interpersonal dynamics influence the effectiveness of peer feedback. We see this as an opportunity to foster clearer norms when pairing students, so that personal feelings do not overshadow academic critique. Nonetheless, others argued that peer feedback should be separated from personal feelings, maintaining a focus on the writing task itself.

In addition to these limitations, participants highlighted several areas for improvement to enhance the effectiveness of peer feedback. Firstly, they pointed out insufficient teacher involvement during peer feedback activities. Some participants felt that teachers allowed students to provide feedback independently without adequate monitoring or guidance. According to Nelson and Murphy (1993), teachers play a critical role in ensuring peer feedback is conducted appropriately and meaningfully. Continuous teacher support helps students who may feel uncertain about providing feedback.

Secondly, the frequency of peer feedback activities was found to be lacking. Participants suggested that peer feedback should be conducted more often to allow students to practice and refine their feedback skills. Min (2005) similarly reported that regular exposure to peer feedback enhances students' positive attitudes toward the process.

Another issue was the lack of opportunity to revise drafts after receiving peer feedback. Some teachers collected drafts without allowing students to apply the feedback to their revisions. This practice undermines the purpose of feedback, which is to foster reflection and improvement (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Participants recommended that teachers allow time for revisions and encourage post-feedback discussions between givers and receivers. Such dialogues would help clarify comments and improve the quality of future feedback.

Additionally, participants emphasized the importance of integrating teacher feedback alongside peer feedback. Given the limitations of peer knowledge and cultural preferences for teacher guidance, combining both forms of feedback would strengthen the process. Teachers can validate or supplement peer comments, increasing students' trust in the feedback received. This combination also addresses teacher workload, as suggested by Srichanyachon (2012), who viewed peer feedback as a useful support tool for teachers.

Finally, the most significant issue highlighted was inadequate peer feedback training. Some participants were instructed only to give scores or focus narrowly on grammar, neglecting global writing issues such as content and organization. Holt (1992, as cited in Demirel & Enginarlar, 2016) stressed that peer feedback should encompass both writing mechanics and the expression of ideas. Our findings confirm that without deliberate training, peer feedback risks becoming a superficial exercise. Compared to Min's (2005) four-step peer feedback training procedure, current training in the study context fell short. Teachers did not systematically guide students to clarify purposes, analyze issues, explain problems, and provide specific comments. As a result, students were often unsure about how to critique drafts effectively.

Proper peer feedback training, following Min's (2005) framework, could help students develop a clearer understanding and provide more relevant feedback. We recommend that future implementations include regular modeling sessions and reflective debriefs to solidify students' feedback skills. With better training, students may overcome concerns about

insufficient knowledge and cultural barriers, leading to more effective peer feedback practices. Teachers should introduce clear objectives for peer feedback, define student roles, monitor activities, and ensure feedback is returned to students for revision. Ideally, teachers could also facilitate post-feedback discussions to deepen understanding and promote meaningful engagement. Moreover, peer feedback activities should be regularly incorporated throughout the writing process, whether after the first or final drafts, to maximize learning opportunities.

## **5.2 Conclusion and Implications**

In conclusion, participants recognized the usefulness of peer feedback in enhancing writing confidence, broadening perspectives, and improving writing skills. However, the study also identified significant challenges, particularly concerning insufficient peer knowledge, cultural influences, emotional sensitivities, and inadequate training. Without proper guidance, students may provide superficial or unclear feedback, which could lead to frustration and negative attitudes toward the activity.

To address these issues, teachers should provide comprehensive peer feedback training and maintain active involvement throughout the process. Clear objectives, systematic training, teacher support, and opportunities for discussion and revision are essential for maximizing the effectiveness of peer feedback. When implemented effectively, peer feedback can become a powerful tool for supporting student learning in second language writing classrooms.

The implications of this study highlight four practical steps for Thai L2 writing courses. First, instructors should provide clear peer-feedback training by introducing straightforward criteria, demonstrating examples, and guiding students through practice sessions before they review each other's drafts. Second, teachers need to guide the review process—circulating among peers during feedback, confirming helpful comments, and holding short discussions afterward to clarify any points. Third, combining peer and teacher feedback gives students multiple perspectives and boosts their confidence when revising. Finally, embedding regular peer-review tasks at multiple stages of each writing assignment lets students practice both giving and receiving comments over time, fostering greater autonomy and steady improvement in their writing.

## **5.3 Suggestions for Further Study**

This study collected data from fifteen third-year English major students at a public university. Future research should include a larger sample to capture a broader range of perspectives and challenges related to peer feedback in second language writing. This expansion could reveal different patterns and insights not found in the current study.

Although the participants had experience with peer feedback, they were taught by different teachers, resulting in varied experiences with peer feedback training. Future research should focus on students who have been trained by the same teacher to narrow down specific

training-related issues. This approach would enable researchers to develop more precise recommendations for improving peer feedback in second language writing classrooms.

## **Authors**

**Intuon Sinlapavijitkarn** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English at Kasetsart University, Nakhon Pathom, Thailand.

**Kanyarat Sriyota** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English at Kasetsart University, Nakhon Pathom, Thailand.

**Napatsorn Thotherdwilai** A fourth-year undergraduate student majoring in English at Kasetsart University, Nakhon Pathom, Thailand.

**Wisut Jarunthawatchai** Assistant Professor at Division of English, Kasetsart University, Nakhon Pathom Thailand.

## **References**

- Archibald, A., & Jeffery, G. C. (2000). Second language acquisition and writing: A multi-disciplinary approach. **Learning and Instruction**, 10(1), 1–11.
- Berg, E. C. (1999). The effects of trained peer response on ESL students' revision types and writing quality. **Journal of Second Language Writing**, 3(3), 215–241.
- Carson, J. G., & Nelson, G. L. (1996). Chinese students' perceptions of ESL peer response group interaction. **Journal of Second Language Writing**, 5(1), 1–19.
- Demirel, E., & Enginarlar, H. (2016). Effects of combined peer–teacher feedback on second language writing development. **Hacettepe University Journal of Education**, 31(4), 657–675. <https://doi.org/10.16986/HUJE.2016015701>
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). **Research methods in applied linguistics** (1st ed.). Oxford University Press.
- Ferris, D. R. (1995). Student reactions to teacher response in multiple-draft composition classrooms. **TESOL Quarterly**, 29(1), 33–53.
- Ferris, D. R., Pezone, S., Tade, C. R., & Tinti, S. (1997). Teacher commentary on student writing: Descriptions and implications. **Journal of Second Language Writing**, 6(2), 155–182.
- Fithriani, R. (2017). **Indonesian students' perceptions of written feedback in second language writing** [Doctoral dissertation, University of New Mexico].
- Fox, R. F. (1980). Treatment of writing apprehension and its effects on composition. **Studies in the Teaching of English**, 14(1), 39–49.
- Hansen, J. G., & Liu, J. (2005). Guiding principles for effective peer response. **ELT Journal**, 59(1), 31–38.
- Hidetoshi, S., & Fujita, T. (2004). Characteristics and user acceptance of peer rating in EFL writing classrooms. **Language Teaching Studies**, 8(1), 31–54.
- Holt, M. (1992). The value of written peer criticism. **College Composition and Communication**, 43(3), 384–392.
- Hu, G. (2005). Using peer review with Chinese ESL student writers. **Language Teaching Studies**, 9(3), 321–342.
- Hyland, K. (2003). **Second language writing**. Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (2006). **Feedback in second language writing**. Cambridge University Press.
- Jarunthawatchai, W. (2010). **A process-genre approach to teaching second language writing: Theoretical perspective and implementation in a Thai university setting** [Doctoral dissertation, University of Southampton].

- Lalande, J. F. (1982). Reducing composition errors: An experiment. **Modern Language Journal**, 66(2), 140–149.
- Lee, I. (2008). Understanding teachers' written feedback practices in Hong Kong secondary classrooms. **Journal of Second Language Writing**, 17(1), 69–85.
- Liu, J., & Hansen, J. G. (2002). **Peer response in second language writing classrooms**. University of Michigan Press.
- Miao, Y., Badger, R., & Zhen, Y. (2006). A comparative study of peer and teacher feedback in a Chinese EFL writing class. **Journal of Second Language Writing**, 15(2), 179–200.
- Min, H. T. (2005). Training students to become successful peer reviewers. **System**, 33(3), 293–308.
- Nelson, G. L., & Murphy, J. M. (1993). Peer response groups: Do L2 writers use peer comments in revising their drafts? **TESOL Quarterly**, 27(1), 135–141.
- Nguyen, H. T. (2016). Peer feedback practice in EFL tertiary writing classes. **English Language Teaching**, 9(6), 76–91.
- Nguyen, T. T. (2017). A case study of combined peer-teacher feedback on paragraph writing at a university in Thailand. **Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics**, 7(2), 253–262.
- Paulus, T. M. (1999). The effect of peer and teacher feedback on student writing. **Journal of Second Language Writing**, 8(3), 265–289.
- Rollinson, P. (2005). Using peer feedback in the ESL writing class. *ELT Journal*, 59(1), 23–30.
- Ruegg, R. (2015). **The effects of peer and teacher feedback: A longitudinal, multi-method study** [Doctoral dissertation, Macquarie University].
- Srichanyachon, N. (2012). An investigation of university EFL students' attitudes toward peer and teacher feedback. **Educational Studies and Reviews**, 7(26), 558–562.
- Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. **Language Learning**, 46(2), 327–369.
- Tsui, A. B., & Ng, M. (2000). Do secondary L2 writers benefit from peer comments? **Journal of Second Language Writing**, 9(2), 147–170.
- Wang, W. (2015). Students' perceptions of rubric-referenced peer feedback on EFL writing: A longitudinal inquiry. **Assessing Writing**, 19, 80–96.
- White, R., & Arndt, V. (1991). **Process writing**. Addison Wesley Longman.
- Zamel, V. (1985). Responding to student writing. **TESOL Quarterly**, 19(1), 79–101.
- Zhang, S. (1995). Reexamining the affective advantage of peer feedback in the ESL writing class. **Journal of Second Language Writing**, 4(3), 209–222.
- Zhao, H. (2010). Investigating learners' use and understanding of peer and teacher feedback on writing: A comparative study in a Chinese English writing classroom. **Assessing Writing**, 15, 3–17.