Research Articles

Representation of Kathoey in Thai Song Discourse: A Comparative Analysis of Self-Representation and External Perceptions
- *Thanawut Sreejak*

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language
- *Salila Prasidya Hidayati, Sompatu Vungthong*

The Relationship between Parental Educational Involvement and Chinese Primary School Students' English Proficiency
- *Yichun Hu, Sumalee Chinokul*

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study
- *Pratabjai Tatsanajamsuk*

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners
- *Romain Benassaya*

Book Review

Pride in Asia: Negotiating Ideologies, Localness, and Alternative Futures
- *Kosin Panyaatisin*

Editorial Board

Administrative Committee

Copyright

Note from the Editor

Sawasdee! Greetings to all readers.

First, on behalf of the editorial board, I would like to extend our sincere gratitude for your unwavering support throughout the years. In the fifth round of TCI evaluation, *NIDAJLC* has been classified in the 2nd Tier of Thai Citation Index (TCI). We have taken the feedback seriously and remain committed to continuously improving the quality of our journal. One of our efforts is the migration from in-house system to the ThaiJO platform for manuscript management, starting in June 2025. This initiative not only enhances and streamlines the manuscript management process but also increases the visibility of papers published with us, thereby boosting citations.

In this issue, we celebrate Pride Month with two articles focusing on non-binary genders. The first research article, by Thanawut Sreejak, investigates the representation of *kathoey*—a Thai term referring to transwomen and feminine gay men—in Thai song discourse. The paper compares the representation of kathoey identity in Thai songs performed by kathoey singers and cisgender singers, aiming to uncover each group's perceptions toward kathoey.

Kosin Panyaatisin reviews the book *Pride in Asia: Negotiating Ideologies, Localness, and Alternative Futures,* one of the *Cambridge Elements Series in Language, Gender and Sexuality.* The book is both timely and highly engaging for this June issue, as it highlights pride movements across several Asian countries, including Thailand.

Salila Prasidya Hidayati and Sompatu Vungthong investigate inaugural speeches of 10 leaders from 10 different countries where English is an official language. Using thematic analysis and speech act theory, the study identifies the themes, ideologies, and values communicated by these leaders. The next research paper, by Yichun Hu and Sumalee Chinokul, explores the relationship between parents and the English language proficiency of primary school children in China. The study reveals an interesting finding: a positive correlation between parental involvement and children's language proficiency.

The fourth paper examines the research article genre. Focusing on the discussion section, Pratabjai Tatsanajamsuk analyzes persuasive metadiscoursal strategies. The study compares discussion sections from two corpora: one consisting of articles from SCOPUS-indexed journals and another is from TCI journals. The results reveal differing writing conventions between the two, offering readers insights into the writing patterns that can help improve alignment with the journal-preferred styles.

The final paper presents action research by Romain Benassaya, which investigates how English as a second language influences Thai students' morphological awareness and reading comprehension of French as a third language. Following the implementing of a pedagogical intervention, the result reveals positive effects in both areas. The paper makes a significant contribution in the field of language teaching and learning.

Happy reading, happy writing, and happy researching to all!

Savitri Gadavanij

Editor

Contents

Representation of *Kathoey* in Thai Song Discourse: A Comparative Analysis of Self-Representation and External Perceptions

Thanawut Sreejak

Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences

Khon Kaen University, Thailand

Abstract

This study examines the representation of *kathoey* identity in Thai song discourse, comparing songs by kathoey and cisgender singers. Using a combination of corpus linguistics and queer linguistics, this study concentrates on linguistic patterns and thematic representations in two sub-corpora of Thai songs from 2004 to 2024. Key findings reveal that while cisgender singers' songs frequently rely on stereotypes and external observations, kathoey-authored songs offer more nuanced portrayals of community dynamics, identity struggles, and lived experiences. This study uncovers novel themes such as intra-group discrimination, hierarchies within the kathoey community, and ageism. Additionally, this study critiques the perpetuation of cisgenderism in Thai song discourse, highlighting how language use can both challenge and reinforce existing power structures. Moreover, the increased use of the term kathoey in kathoey singers' songs suggests an active linguistic reclamation process.

Keywords: Kathoey identity; Thai song discourse; corpus linguistics, queer linguistics; cisgenderism; gender representation

Introduction

Recent Thai studies have directly investigated the representation of *kathoey*, broadly referring to transgender women and feminine gay men (Käng, 2012; Wisuttipat, 2023), in Thai songs across local dialects and genres. These studies highlight a positive shift (e.g., self and social acceptance) and persistent negative images indicative of gender discrimination (e.g., unrequited love in heterosexual relationships; Kothdee et al., 2024; Sakyai, 2022; Thipphana, 2022). However, the unwarranted involvement of heteronormativity in producing kathoey-related meta-narratives has been less emphasized, underscoring critical controversies over sociopolitical apparatuses vis-à-vis cisgender women and men whose gender matches their birth sex (Aultman, 2014)— the non-kathoey (Ocha, 2023) singers. Arguably, cisgender men appear to be the dominant singers of the subject matter, such as the song titled *Sai Lueang* ("Backdoor

Goers"), perpetuating patriarchal concepts in Thai society (Roopsa-ard & Jantarangsee, 2021). Nonetheless, this study contends that the (mis)representation of kathoey individuals in Thai songs also involves female privilege associated with cisgenderism (Lennon & Mistler, 2014) based on the small yet existing number of contributions from female singers.

This study posits that cisgenderism ingrains unhealthy habits of further marginalizing and silencing kathoey individuals, perpetuating a distorted perception through unnecessarily homogenized preconceptions of their identity. This language-based critical study thus aims to scrutinize the potentially dominant singers responsible for perpetuating previous representations by comparing two sub-corpora of Thai songs contributed by kathoey and cisgender male and female singers focusing on divergent language patterns and thematic perceptions of kathoey identity. To explore the intersection of language, gender, and sexuality, this study employs the combination of corpus linguistics and queer linguistics (Moschenbacher, 2018). The research questions are:

RQ1: How do the linguistic patterns and thematic representations of kathoey identity in Thai songs differ between self-identified kathoey and non-kathoey cisgender singers?

RQ2: What do these differences reveal about the perpetuation of cisgenderism in Thai song discourse?

Literature Review

Corpus Linguistics and Queer Linguistics

Baker (2014) defines corpus linguistics as a methodology studying language through large collections of authentic texts, with Baker (2018) noting its suitability for examining discourses of sexuality and revealing subtle prejudices. However, Motschenbacher (2011) argues that quantitative corpus linguistics may reinforce categorization, potentially obscuring problematic cases. This recognition justifies integrating quantitative corpus analyses with qualitative examinations in queer linguistics, which critically examines how language constructs normative notions of gender and sexuality (Leap, 2015; Motschenbacher, 2011). This integration supports a mixed-method analysis to provide complementary perspectives in the examination of discourses (Motschenbacher, 2011, 2018).

While recognizing culturally specific non-heterosexual, gender-diverse identities like kathoey in Thailand (McCann & Monaghan, 2019), it is crucial to understand their interaction with queer theory as the underlying fundament of queer linguistics. Jackson (2011) notes that non-normative kathoey has emerged as the quintessential representation of queer identity in Thailand. While referring to kathoey as non-normative—transcending the male-female binary (Kang, 2012; Saisuwan, 2016), this study acknowledges the complex interaction of normative and non-

Representation of Kathoey in Thai Song Discourse: A Comparative Analysis of Self-Representation and External Perceptions

normative components in kathoey identity performances (Leap & Motschenbacher, 2012).

This study combines queer linguistics with corpus linguistics (Motschenbacher, 2018) to uncover power structures in Thai song discourse about kathoey identity. It conducts collocation analysis and examines co-occurrence patterns, emphasizing unique lexical items to capture minority patterns (Motschenbacher, 2018). This study also analyzes concordance lines to elicit thematic representations without imposing rigid categorizations (e.g., as positive, neutral, or negative), reflecting a commitment to avoiding binary discourses. Despite challenges, this research aims to contribute to both corpus and queer linguistics by demonstrating new ways of identifying and analyzing marginalized discourses in Thai language and culture.

Cisgenderism

Having established this study's methodological approach—a combination of corpus linguistics and queer linguistics—it is worth introducing the concept of cisgenderism as a critical lens through which this study interprets the linguistic patterns and thematic representations found in the analysis of the two sub-corpora of Thai songs related to kathoey identity. Heavily drawing on Lennon and Mistler's (2014) discussion of cisgenderism, this concept encompasses the denial, denigration, or pathologization of gender identities that do not align with those assigned at birth, creating a hierarchy that privileges cisgender identities and expressions. Notably, the concept of cisgenderism appears to interlink with the term heteronormativity used elsewhere in this study. According to Barnett et al. (2021), failing to identify with or be viewed as heteronormative or cisgender may result in encounters with heterosexism or cisgenderism, phenomena that favor conforming heterosexuals while marginalizing LGBTQ+ individuals and those with non-cisgender identities or manifestations.

This study explores how the songs reflect or challenge the rigid beliefs and rules about gender that cisgenderism enforces. By comparing linguistic patterns and themes between the two sub-corpora, this study uncovers subtle or overt ways in which kathoey identity is portrayed as deviant, immoral, or threatening, or conversely, how they are validated and celebrated. In addition, the analysis can shed significant light on how the pervasive nature of cisgenderism in Thai society may influence both kathoey and cisgender singers in their lyrical expressions, potentially revealing internalized biases or acts of resistance against this systemic ideology. This study examines how Thai songs, as a cultural institution, may either enable or challenge prejudice and discrimination against the kathoey community. By including both queer and non-queer—specifically kathoey and non-kathoey (Ocha, 2023)—perspectives, this study aims to provide a deeper understanding of how these songs reflect broader societal attitudes and power structures.

Kathoey Representation in Thai Song Discourse

The following synthesizes interconnected studies to offer a holistic understanding of how kathoey individuals have been represented in Thai song

discourse. Studies by Thippana (2022), Kothdee et al. (2024), and Sakyai (2022) identified common themes: romantic disappointment, comedic roles, contributions to entertainment, especially in the *Morlam* scene, an emphasis on beauty, and professions related to aesthetics (e.g., makeup artists). Sakyai (2022) further explored social alienation, stereotyping, societal negotiation, and hierarchical structures within the kathoey community based upon factors such as age, economic status, and beauty. Sakyai also highlighted regional variations in kathoey representation across Thailand, emphasizing the importance of local cultural contexts—in central regions as oppressed middle-class individuals, in northeastern areas as culturally integrated through *Morlam* traditions, in northern parts combining Buddhist and local influences for spiritual perspectives, and in southern regions where beauty and femininity are emphasized as idealized traits. Moreover, Kothdee et al. (2024) and Sakyai (2022) noted a significant development within the kathoey community: the growing movement to embrace the term with pride, rejecting its historically derogatory connotations (e.g., Jackson, 2016; Ojanen, 2009; Ten Brummelhuis, 2008) and euphemisms. This aligns with this study's political stance to employ the term kathoey as a self-referential label for the non-normative social actor and supports the argument presented in Huang's (2024) recent work.

However, this study observes that cisgenderism plays a significant role in shaping and constraining kathoey's image. The representation of kathoeys is often constructed by cisgender singers rather than by kathoeys themselves, resulting in an external perspective dominating the meta-narrative. Arguably, a notable omission in these studies is the critique of the singers perpetuating marginalization and othering within marginalized discourse. This is evident from the examples of positive song portrayals where certain cisgender singers lobby the authorities for kathoey rights or sensationalize having a kathoey child, failing to consider cisgender positionality. Thus, it can be contended that these previous studies may inadvertently understate the core debate on sociopolitical systems' treatment of cisgender individuals and admittedly support the continuation of such works by cisgender individuals without acknowledging that they may lack a genuine understanding of kathoey experiences.

Despite positive changes, such as family acceptance and advocacy for equal rights, song narratives can sometimes exaggerate or limit kathoey experiences to specific dimensions. Furthermore, given that Northeastern Thai kathoey in song discourse often shares common themes related to going out to flirt with men and drinking white spirits (Sakyai, 2022), such association with *Morlam* performances appears to reinforce overgeneralization. In particular, referencing Phraekhao (2012), Northeastern Thai kathoey choose *Morlam* performances as venues to articulate their identity and sexuality, fostering a subcultural tradition transmitted across generations. However, one should be aware of the homogenized practice wherein the *Morlam* performance space significantly influences kathoey expression, providing greater sexual freedom with men. While this reflects certain aspects of reality, it can be argued that this practice has the potential to create stereotypical perspectives on kathoey identity and experiences for those who do not align with it.

Representation of Kathoey in Thai Song Discourse: A Comparative Analysis of Self-Representation and External Perceptions

In Thai song discourse, the necessity for a more nuanced and diverse representation of kathoey is underscored by this overgeneralization. It emphasizes the need of analyzing the potential contributions of cisgenderism to these simplified representations, as well as the potential for these representations to unintentionally reinforce societal stereotypes or expectations regarding kathoey individuals. In light of this, this study aims to document the diversity of Thai song discourse and to challenge the power of cisgenderism by questioning and resisting the normative authority that cisgender individuals impose, despite never having truly experienced life as kathoey.

Materials and Methods

This study collected data using two Thai key phrases: *phleng kathoey* (songs by kathoey) and *phleng kiao kap kathoey* (songs about *kathoey*) to search on the popular video streaming platform YouTube (Airoldi et al., 2016). The selection criteria included Thai songs with titles featuring the term kathoey within the 2004-2024 timeframe, representing two decades of heightened public attention to kathoey identity across Thai society (Thipphana, 2022; see Table 1). Of note, the varying time ranges in the table, particularly the extended final period, were deliberately chosen to reflect significant social and cultural transformations in the dominant singers of kathoey-related Thai song discourse. However, this study focused on the qualitative aspects of *kathoey* representation rather than the quantitative distribution of music across timeframes; hence, this structure did not significantly impact the research outcomes.

Table 1
Summary of Dataset: Kathoey-Related Thai Songs in the Timeframe of 2004–2024

Year Range	No. of Songs	Top Dialects	Top Genres	Singer Gender Distribution
2004-2007	11	IS: 10, CE: 1	CO: 11	M: 9, F: 2, K: 0
2008-2011	4	IS: 3, CE: 1	CO: 4	M: 3, F: 0, K: 1
2012-2015	25	IS: 10, NO: 12, CE: 3	CO: 24, PO: 1	M: 7, F: 2, K: 15
2016-2019	20	IS: 15, CE: 3, NO: 1, SO: 1	CO: 20	M: 5, F: 3, K: 14
2020-2024	12	IS: 8, CE: 3, NO: 2	CO: 11, PO: 1	M: 1, F: 1, K: 9

Note. Dialects: IS = Isan, CE = Central Thai, NO = Northern Thai, SO = Southern Thai; Genres: CO = Country, PO = Pop; Singer Gender: M = Male, F = Female, K = Kathoey

This study built the final specialized corpus, which consisted of 72 kathoey-related songs, totaling 20,044 words. This study further divided this corpus into two sub-corpora based upon the singer's self-identity: 1) KA (kathoey singers): 39 songs#11,307 words and 2) CIS (cisgender singers—men and women): 33 songs#8,737 words.

Notably, while being aware of the authorship and authorial voice of the kathoey-related songs, this study focused on singers rather than songwriters for several reasons. Information about songwriters is particularly limited for older or less mainstream compositions. Moreover, the roles of singer and songwriter may converge, complicating their distinction. Of paramount importance is the consideration that even when singers are not the original composers, drawing on the historical stance of Frith (1996)

Representation of Kathoey in Thai Song Discourse: A Comparative Analysis of Self-Representation and External Perceptions

regarding singers as song protagonists, their choice to perform and disseminate songs concerning kathoey individuals is a deliberate engagement in the creation and distribution of kathoey-related content to the public. This decision, whether deliberated or not, demonstrates implicit acceptance and involvement in the social representation of kathoey images, which is a crucial element of this approach.

Data Analysis

This study combined quantitative collocation and qualitative concordance analyses to elicit linguistic patterns and thematic representations using the specialist computer program Sketch Engine (Kilgarriff et al., 2014). Despite lacking advanced features, this program provides fundamental Thai language tools such as concordance essential to this study. However, as a result of occasional inconsistencies in contextual conflation, this study had to balance the necessity for comprehensive verification of source texts with the rapidity of concordance analysis to ensure data accuracy.

In the collocation analysis, this study concentrated on verbs and adjectives (e.g., Baker & Levon, 2016; Motschenbacher, 2019), considering the contextual meanings and implications of these forms. Specifically, collocates were required to occur within five words to the left and five to the right of the node kathoey (5L to 5R) to effectively identify related words, provide a sufficient context for analysis and avoid the inclusion of unrelated terms from longer spans or the lack of collocates in shorter spans (Baker et al., 2013). Additionally, collocates should have a logdice score, a statistical measure for identifying typical word combinations independent of a corpus size of 7 or above (Rowson et al., 2023) to make the analysis manageable. Furthermore, this study used the *Thai Dictionary of the Royal Institute 2011* as the reference to verify each word's accurate verbs and adjectives.

After that, this study further expanded the parameters of lexical analysis of collocation by shifting to concordance analysis, focusing on the actual texts and conducting a close examination (Baker, 2006). To elicit the semantic preferences of the node kathoey, this study employed a bottom-up approach to enable the identification of categories within the corpus per se (Gillings et al., 2023).

Despite the significant aim of queer perspectives to deconstruct rigid categories, this study employs thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) to identify unique themes in the data. This study acknowledges this tension and approaches the analysis reflexively, striving to illuminate complex narratives without imposing reductive frameworks. Additionally, this study aimed to balance methodological rigor with a critical awareness of how categorization may impact the interpretation of gender and sexuality expressions in the data.

Results

This section addresses the two research questions posed in this study, summarizing the findings of each substage of corpus linguistic analysis—collocation analysis and concordance analysis—while critiquing the power of cisgenderism in the linguistic and thematic distinctions between KA and CIS.

RQ 1: How do the linguistic patterns and thematic representations of kathoey identity in Thai songs differ between self-identified kathoey and non-kathoey cisgender singers?

Collocation Analysis

Tables 2 and 3 show that verbs significantly outnumber adjectives associated with the node kathoey, with only one adjective, *di* (good), found in KA. This highlighted kathoey's actions, states, or experiences rather than descriptive qualities.

However, the adjective *di* (good) appeared to significantly contribute to *kathoey*'s representation when looking at the semantic environments. Kathoey could be represented as a 'bad person' when the adjective *di* (good) followed the Thai adverbial *mai* (not), as in *thueng cha mi khrai khao cha mong wa phuak rao mai di* (Even if some view us negatively…) and the Northern Thai word *ba* (not), as in *ma saeo wa kathoey ba di* (Teasing kathoey is not good).

Without the negative-indexed elements, *kathoey* could be represented as a 'good person' as in *kathoey di di* (good *kathoey*). These examples might not necessarily refer to *kathoey* as individuals but to people (e.g., *phuak rao*#we)—inevitably reinforcing stereotypical perception of kathoey.

Table 2

Collocates with the Node 'Kathoey' in KA

Node	Collocate: verbs and adjectives *(translation and #LogDice scores shown in the parentheses)*
kathoey	*pen* (to be#12.41), *mi* (to have#12.04), *ma* (to come#11.91), *pen* (*Northern Thai* to be#11.72), *wa* (to say11.57), *koet* (to happen/to be born#11.09), *pai* (to go#10.96), *hai* (to give#10,71), *di* (good#10.48), *kho* (to ask for#9.97)

Table 3

Collocates with the Node Kathoey in CIS

Node	Collocate: verbs and adjectives *(translation and #LogDice scores shown in the parentheses)*
kathoey	*pen* (to be#12.62), *ma* (to come#12.03), *hai* (to give#12.02), *mi* (to have#11.67), *wa* (to say#11.35), *pai* (to go#11.29), *laen* (to run#11.22), *mak* (to like#10.20), *kin* (to eat#11.00), *hae* (to parade#11.00)

The stative verb *pen* (to be), which outnumbered other verbs in both KA and CIS, appeared to contribute to the predictivity of semantic attribution for kathoey identity. Focusing on the collocate alone provided limited insight, making it necessary to include more context, aligning with queer linguistic stance by avoiding oversimplification. While remaining aware of the dominant elements contrary to the de-

[7]

Representation of Kathoey in Thai Song Discourse: A Comparative Analysis of Self-Representation and External Perceptions

essentializing queer perspectives, this study further explored the implied meanings of the verb *pen* (to be) to elucidate the potentially embedded linguistic data in representing kathoey identity across two sub-corpora. The findings showed that the co-occurrence of the verb *pen* (to be) attributed both positive and negative qualities and states to kathoey representation in KA and CIS.

Table 4

Two Dominant Patterns of the Verb 'Pen' (to be) in KA

Pattern of the verb *pen*	Frequency	Example *(translation shown in the parentheses)*
pen kathoey (to be *kathoey*)	39	• *koet pen kathoey mai khoey sabai* (Being born as kathoey is never comfortable.) • *pen kathoey chan ko mai thoy* (Being kathoey won't back down.) • *pen kathoey mi kaanseuksaa* (To be educated kathoey)
kathoey pen (*kathoey* is)	7	• *kathoey (nan) pen mit kap thuk chiwit bon lok bai ni* (Kathoey is friendly to all lives on this planet.) • *kathoey pen tua panha* (Kathoey is a troublemaker.) • *kathoey pen sala phak chai* (Kathoey is a resting place for the heart.)

Table 4 shows that the verb *pen* (to be), categorized into the two distinct patterns in KA, appeared in both positive contexts (e.g., strength and resilience, education, and emotional support) and negative contexts (e.g., challenges and struggles). Aligning with the queer stance of nuanced linguistic interpretation, the presupposition of strict positivity was acknowledged. For instance, *pen kathoey tong satrong* (Being kathoey must be strong) might emphasize the difficulties in cisgenderism society, albeit, contextually dependently, its representation of empowerment and encouragement in the kathoey community.

Similarly, in CIS, Table 5 revealed 'ostensibly' positive contexts (e.g., loyalty in romantic relationships, cultural values—entertaining roles) and negative contexts (e.g., challenges and hardship, and perceived weakness).

Table 5

Two Dominant Patterns of the Verb 'Pen' (to be) in CIS

Pattern of the verb *pen*	Frequency	Example *(translation shown in the parentheses)*
pen kathoey (to be kathoey)	28	• *pen kathoey la ot yak pak mong phu sai bo tok hot* (Being kathoey is difficult, men do not fall for us.) • *koet ma pen kathoey bo dai prueksa phai* (Being born as kathoey, I did not consult anyone.) • *thueng chan pen kathoey mai khoei khit tham rai khrai* (Even though I am kathoey, I have never thought of hurting anyone.)

Representation of Kathoey in Thai Song Discourse: A Comparative Analysis of Self-Representation and External Perceptions

kathoey pen (kathoey is)	6	• *kathoey pen si san farang ma thiao ka pha kin yim poei* (Kathoey is colorful; foreigners come to tour and smile.) • *kathoey pen panha sangkhom* (Kathoey is a social problem.) • *kathoey pen phet on ae* (Kathoey is a weak gender.)

Additionally, some verbs appeared uniquely in each corpus. The verb *koet* (to be born), preceding the verb *pen* (to be) in both KA and CIS, implied an innate quality of *kathoey* characteristics, as seen in *koet pen kathoey mai khoey sabai* and *koet ma pen kathoey bo dai prueksa phai* (Being born as kathoey, I did not consult anyone). This linguistic construction arguably reflected societal generalizations rather than empirical reality, where not every kathoey had to experience only the trials and tribulations of life or unrequited love.

In CIS, the verbs *laen* (to run) and *kin* (to eat), followed by the noun *mai* (literally wood yet metaphorically 'male genital' in *Isan* Thai), suggested a homogenized sexual act of 'seeking out or flirting with men.' Additionally, the verb *hae* (to parade), found only in CIS, may reflect kathoey's association with entertainment. The low-frequency collocate *pen* (to be) in Northern Thai, when examined from a queer perspective, sheds significant light on the predictive nature of semantic attribution concerning specific qualities or stages of kathoey identity (see Table 6).

Table 6

Patterns of the Northern Thai Verb 'Pen' (to be) in KA

Pattern of the verb *pen*	**Examples** *(translation shown in the parentheses)*
pen kathoey (to be kathoey)	• *pen kathoey chan ko phumchai* (I am proud to be kathoey.) • *tangtae pen kathoey bo koei sia khwam borisut* (Since becoming kathoey, never lost my innocence.) • *koet ma pen kathoey bo koei kuet cha chu* (Being born as kathoey never thought of deceiving anyone.) • *koet ma pen kathoey bo koei kuet cha chu* (Being born as kathoey never thought of deceiving anyone.)
pen X kathoey (to be kathoey's X)	*Ma pen phua kathoey man bo choei* (Being kathoey's husband is not outdated.)

The findings captured the identity and self-perception, such as *pen kathoey chan ko phumchai* (I am proud to be kathoey), social experiences and relationships, such as *ma pen phua kathoey man bo choei* (Being kathoey's husband is not outdated), moral and ethical stance, such as *tangtae pen kathoey bo koei sia khwam borisut* (Since becoming kathoey, I have never lost my innocence), and existential reflections, such as *thueng pen kathoey bo chai kathoey bo tai* (Even if kathoey, there are different grades of *kathoey*). Similarly, the Northern Thai verb *pen* (to be), often paired with the verb

Representation of Kathoey in Thai Song Discourse: A Comparative Analysis of Self-Representation and External Perceptions

koet (to be born), as in *koet ma pen kathoey bo koei kuet cha chu* (Being born as kathoey, I never thought of deceiving anyone)*,* strongly suggested an inherent trait based on cultural assumptions.

Taken together, it could be contended that analyzing collocates' linguistic data alongside semantic environments contributed to a nuanced representation of kathoey individuals in KA and CIS. As such, this study required qualitative perspectives, incorporating contextual analysis using concordance lines for a comprehensive understanding (Motschenbacher, 2018). In particular, this approach necessitated further in-depth analysis to uncover potentially emerging themes—the unexplored elements crucial to this study.

Therefore, concordance analysis driven by data prioritized emerging themes from both sub-corpora, combining, as mentioned, thematic analysis. The following section captures the key findings of the second stage of corpus analysis.

Concordance Analysis

In this stage, the term kathoey was used to generate the concordance because it was the focus of this study, the most frequently used term in both sub-corpora, and a culturally specific term in Thai society that encapsulates a unique gender identity concept. This approach enabled a more in-depth contextual analysis, allowing this study to examine how kathoey individuals were represented in both the internal space of kathoey themselves and through the external perception of cisgender individuals.

Comparing Tables 7 (KA) and 8 (CIS), KA provides a more nuanced internal view of kathoey experiences, community dynamics, and identity struggles, whereas CIS tended to rely more on external observations, stereotypes, and assumptions about kathoey experiences. Although some areas of overlap in perceptions were noted, KA often presented a more complex and multifaceted view of kathoey identity and experiences. The following discussion addresses each sub-corpus's contribution to kathoey identity.

Table 7

Thematic Analysis of the Co-text of the Node 'Kathoey' in KA

Theme	Sub-theme	Examples of words and phrases obtained from the concordance *(translation shown in the parentheses)*
Identity and self-perception	Pride in identity	*sum hao kathoey di chai chang loei dai pen kathoey* (We kathoey are so happy to be kathoey.)
	Body dysphoria	• *chai pen ying tae kai pen chai* (Female heart but male body) • *khwam ching kathoey kathoey, bo mi mot luk yang mae ying tha khai dai faen ching ching, ma ao kathoey di kwa* (The truth is, transgender women do not have a uterus like cisgender women. If you

Representation of Kathoey in Thai Song Discourse: A Comparative Analysis of Self-Representation and External Perceptions

		really want a partner, it's better to choose a transgender woman.)
	Self-deprecation	• *mai mi khrai rak phuying plom plom yang chan* (No one loves a fake woman like me.) • *yon su khao bo dai* (Cannot compare to them), chon chat (Vagrant)
Community dynamics	Community empowerment	*bo wa kathoey sam noi sam yai hai kathoey mae du lae kathoey khuen mai sueb thot kathoey thai pen moradok khong chat* (Whether young or elderly kathoey, let the mother kathoey take care of the new kathoey, passing on Thai kathoey culture as national heritage.)
	Hierarchies within marginalized groups	• *hai kathoey mae du lae kathoey khuen mai* (Let the mother kathoey takes care of the new kathoey.) • *si pha khao wong kan ma prueksa run phi kathoey poramachan* (Will bring (you) into the circle to consult the senior kathoey masters.)
	Intra-group discrimination	• *(kathoey) haiso khuet wa ko thae no, phuchai lo lo ko khao ma wao nam* (Upper-class kathoey think they are so cool.) • *(kathoey) mueang nok loet yu laeo kha (Kathoey) Thai-laen koet ma ko pen phu-chai* (Kathoey from abroad are already excellent, while Thai kathoey was born as men.)
Societal Perceptions and Challenges	Destigmatization	• *ya pai khae suai choet na kathoey* (Do not care, be beautiful and confident, kathoey.) • *lai khrang mu hao thuk mong pen tua talok—talok ko ching tae mai talot wela mak len mak muan lang thueak ko mi yu* (Many times, we are seen as comedic figures. It is true that we can be funny, but not all the time. We like to have fun and joke around sometimes, but that is not all there is to us.) • *thueng khrai cha mong kathoey to lae tae kathoey ko khon mi khwam rusuek chep pen muean khon thuapai. Tae chiwit man lueak koet mai dai chan lueak koet mai dai* (Even if some people see transgender women as deceptive, transgender women are also humans who can feel pain just like anyone else. But life does not let us choose how we're born. I could not choose how I was born.) • *bo chai maeng bong bo tong tua kong klua wa don laeo cha khan* (Not a stinging caterpillar, no need to curl up, fearing that touching will cause an itch) • *pai ha kin mai bo ao na ya pai hai khao wao phuen kathoey tha rueang di di choen loei chat loei hao pen kathoey mi kan sueksa loet kha* (Do not go looking for men to have sex with, do not let them talk badly about us. For kathoey, if it is about good things, please go ahead. We are well-educated kathoey, excellent!)

Representation of Kathoey in Thai Song Discourse: A Comparative Analysis of Self-Representation and External Perceptions

	Societal challenges	*yak taek sao pho ka rap bo dai* (Want to be effeminate but father cannot accept it.)
	Powerlessness	*tae chiwit man lueak koet mai dai* (But life does not let us choose how we were born.)
Stereotypes and Expectations	Intra-group homogenization	• *mop khwam sanuk he ha khue nathi kathoey* (Providing fun and laughter is the kathoey's duty.) • *koet pen kathoey tong strong* (Being born as kathoey must be strong.) • *pen mit kap thuk chiwit bon lok bai ni* (Be friendly to all life on this planet) • *tong mi chit chai kraeng kla kwa nak rop bang rachan* (Must have a mind stronger than the warriors of Bang Rachan.) • *mi tae khwam hak thae baep fae fae hai ai thuk thi* (Only true fair love for you every time)
Life stages	Ageism	• *hen jai kathoey sung wai chan mee hua jai rak chai thuk khon lao khao jao sue hai kin* (Have sympathy for the elderly kathoey, I have a heart that loves all men, (I will) buy rice whiskey for you to drink.) • *itcha la kathoey luk ot, phu bao op kot la tae sai khang phon, tut thao hua chai on la* (Envious of the young kathoey, the men embrace and caress them over there, while this elderly kathoey's heart grows weary.)

Table 7 reveals that kathoey singers shared both positive and negative experiences. Positive aspects included pride, community solidarity, and support, albeit scant evidence, as well as the destigmatization of the preconception of kathoey identity as 'struggling,' 'exotic,' and 'uneducated.' On the other hand, negative aspects included body dysphoria, self-deprecation, intra-group discrimination, societal challenges, powerlessness, intra-homogenization, and ageism, especially between elderly and young kathoey.

Intra-discrimination and intra-homogenization, in particular, revealed intricate issues of marginalization within the kathoey community itself. Intra-group discrimination often manifests based upon prevailing beauty standards and educational attainment. Examples like *mop khwam sanuk he ha khue nathi kathoey* (Providing fun and laughter is the kathoey's duty) and *tong mi chit chai kraeng kla kwa nak rop bang rachan* (must have a mind stronger than the warriors of *Bang Rachan*) suggest that kathoey individuals who deviate from normative expectations may encounter further marginalization, perpetuating a complex hierarchy of acceptance and rejection within the group.

Table 8

Thematic Analysis of the Co-text of the Node 'Kathoey' in CIS

Themes	Sub-theme	Examples of words and phrases obtained from the concordance *(translation shown in the parentheses)*
External characterization	Othering and Stigmatization	• *bo than dai phattad dadplaeng yang pen phuchai thang thaeng ni lae kathoey phan antarai* (Have not had surgery to modify yet, still entirely male - this is a dangerous type of kathoey.) • *thai ban oen kathoey khwai hun bo khoi hai tae chai pen sao* (The villagers call me a buffalo(large) (kathoey); my body may not be great, but my heart is a woman's.) • *nuek wa hao maen phi* (Thought we were ghosts) • *yang pai sai ma hao* (Wherever I go, dogs bark) • *si thong kap kathoey* (Will get pregnant with kathoey)
	Physical stereotypes	• *klam pen lam lam* (Muscular) • *bo than dai pha tat dat plaeng* (Have not had surgery to modify yet)
Beliefs about kathoey relationship	Behavioral assumptions	• *khi thuk* (Suffering) • *tong nang sia chai* (Have to sit and be sad) • *mai khoei nok chai* (Never unfaithful) • *tha dai rak khrai laeo chai koen roi* (If they love someone, they give more than 100%.) • *phrom cha du lae ok hak ma thang ni* (Ready to take care of the heartbroken, come this way.)
Societal attitudes	Acceptance	• *mi hua chai* (Have a feeling) • *Muan muan pai loei bo mi panha* (Just have fun, no problem.) • *Rian ka di* (Study well)
Social context	Cultural differences	*Noi chai chang loei koet pen kathoey ban nok bo muean kathoey Baengkok* (Feel so sorry to be born a countryside kathoey, not like Bangkok kathoey.)
	Socioeconomic status	• *Tit ni khao* (In debt) • *Kathoey ban nok klang wen ka ok la het hai het na* (A countryside kathoey in the middle of the day goes out to do farming work.)
Perceptions of kathoey identity and experiences	Attributed Self-perception	• *Man phit mong dai* (What is wrong with being kathoey?) • *Phum chai pho chai* (Proud and content)
	Assumed internal experiences	*Plom khae phiang kai* (Only the body is fake.)

Table 8 offers a view of how kathoey is perceived by the broader cisgender society. While some positive attributes and acceptance are acknowledged, such as *phum chai pho chai* (proud and content), the CIS corpus includes negative aspects, such as explicit stereotyping and othering, as seen in phrases like *kathoey phan antarai phan an-tarai* (a dangerous type of kathoey), and the association of being chronically heartbroken and gender incongruence.

Regarding the aforementioned positive perceptions, they are viewed from a different perspective. Non-kathoey individuals, who never experienced marginalization or oppression due to cisgenderism, cannot authentically represent kathoey experiences or legitimately express their perspectives. Such portrayals occur within an oversimplified framework in a "tolerant-but-unacceptable" heteronormative Thai society, as in *chan phumijai phojai la thi pen kathoey phai si wao yok yoei ka sang thok woei ka sang thok woei pak khon roet sa yang suai baep othon bo khoei son kham khon nintha bo son dok doe* (I am proud and content being who I am. Let others say what they want, I do not care. I am fabulously beautiful and patient. I have never listened to gossip. I really do not care).

In particular, the kathoey-related songs by cisgender singers are seen as reinforcing generalizations, potentially creating intra-discrimination and intra-homogenization among kathoey themselves, as evidenced in KA.

In summary, this study also critiques the implicit power of cisgenderism in the language used in kathoey-related Thai songs by both kathoey and cisgender singers, addressed in the second research question.

RQ 2: What do these differences reveal about the perpetuation of cisgenderism in Thai song discourse?

This study revealed key distinctions between KA and CIS. While CIS relied on external stereotypes, KA navigated homogeneous environments, offering an achieved equilibrium in non-normative stances and an internal perspective on kathoey experiences. Evidence suggested nuanced perspectives on this equilibrium, with texts revealing ongoing struggles against internalized cisgenderism and discrimination. This tension highlighted the complex identity negotiation process within marginalized groups. The study recognized that these textual expressions, while authentic, reflected pervasive societal pressures on kathoey individuals. The duality in KA songs' lyrics—alternating between empowerment and social exclusion—demonstrated both challenges and resilience in creating spaces for self-expression and solidarity.

In this stage, Lennon and Mistler's (2014) discussion of cisgenderism was used to address the second research question. The analysis identified three significant themes that underscore the differences between kathoey self-perception and cisgender external perception within Thai song discourse. Figure 1 illustrates the three emerging themes derived from Tables 7 and 8. Furthermore, the following discussion addresses the interplay of these themes and their contribution to the interpretation of cisgenderism within this context.

[14]

Representation of Kathoey in Thai Song Discourse: A Comparative Analysis of Self-Representation and External Perceptions

Figure 1

Differences of Kathoey's Self-Perception and Cisgender External Perception in Thai Song Discourse
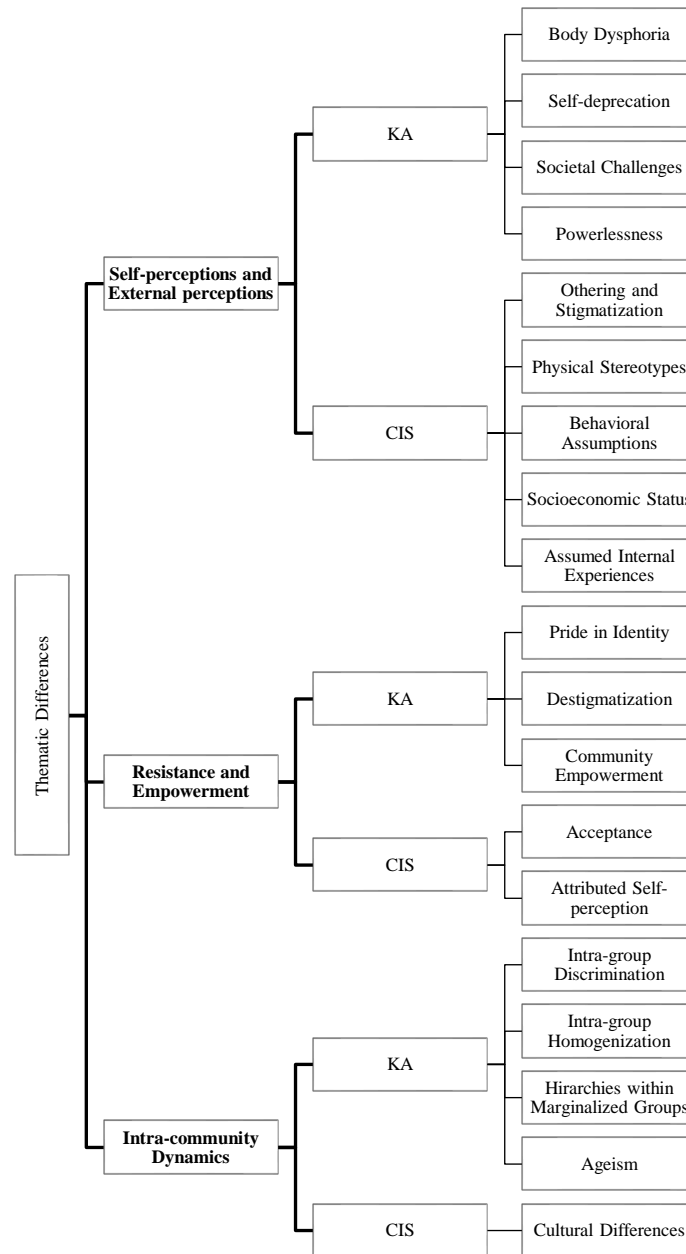
In the first theme, the perpetuation of cisgenderism differed in KA and CIS. KA showed internalized cisgenderism through body dysphoria and self-deprecation, stemming from a heternormative society that privileges cisgender bodies and expressions, leading to the pathologization of kathoey individuals within their community. Significantly, CIS reinforced the deliberate marginalization of non-normative kathoey individuals through othering, stigmatization, and stereotypical ideas about kathoey experiences, such as physical and behavioral expectations and a homogeneous 'underprivileged' socioeconomic status.

The second theme illustrated a conflict in the perpetuation and resistance to cisgenderism. KA expressed pride in identity, destigmatization efforts, and community empowerment as a collective political resistance against cisgenderism. These narratives challenged the pathologization of kathoey identity and affirmed their intrinsic worth and validity. While CIS showed a gradual acknowledgment of kathoey individuals, the 'attributed' perceptions suggested a lingering influence of cisgender perspectives, potentially hindering a full understanding of kathoey experiences.

The third theme exposed how cisgenderism permeates even within the kathoey community. KA revealed profound internalization of cisgenderism, leading to discrimination and homogenization, especially in ageism vis-à-vis elderly and younger kathoey vying for cisgender men's affection. Meanwhile, KA also demonstrated resistance to cisgenderism through mentorship and mutual support networks between elderly and younger kathoey in their community. CIS, on the other hand, accentuated divisions within the kathoey community, illustrated by the differentiation between countryside kathoey and Bangkok kathoey, implying a hierarchy of legitimacy contingent upon geographic location.

Taken together, these themes elucidated the pervasive and multifaceted nature of cisgenderism within Thai song discourse. Kathoey voices presented both resistance and internalized oppression, while cisgender viewpoints often sustained more explicit manifestations of cisgenderism through stereotyping and marginalization, particularly manifesting as instances of homophobia and transphobia within the narrative context.

The distinctions between KA and CIS discourses elucidated the mechanisms of cisgenderism at both individual and societal levels, affecting external perceptions of kathoey identity and shaping the self-perception of kathoey individuals and their community. This is due to the belief that heteronormative society has constructed kathoey individuals in this way and, therefore, must be followed. This empirical evidence of cisgenderist power necessitated changes to expand the narrow perception of kathoey individuals and address internalized feelings of inferiority within their community.

Discussion

The linguistic and thematic analysis demonstrates both empowering narratives and problematic stereotypes shaping kathoey identity. Kathoey singers represent themselves through the themes of community empowerment, internal dynamics, and challenges—including body dysphoria, societal stigma, and resilience. External perceptions by cisgender singers, on the other hand, often rely on stereotypes, oversimplification, emphasizing physical attributes and emotional traits while perpetuating cisgenderist beliefs and occasionally offering 'ostensible' positive representation within a framework of othering.

In particular, while echoing Kothdee et al. (2024), Sakyai (2022), and Thipphana (2022) regarding the emerging themes in the representation of kathoey in Thai song

discourse—such as romantic disappointment, comedic roles and contributions to entertainment, social alienation, and use of stereotypes—this study highlights novel themes that represent tectonic shifts in kathoey narratives: community empowerment, hierarchies, discrimination, homogenization, and ageism.

Furthermore, the emerging themes, such as hierarchies within the kathoey community and ageism, result in a novel paradigm in kathoey narratives, shifting the focus from gender identity representation to a more holistic exploration of lived experiences. This paradigm shift facilitates a more comprehensive understanding of the intersectionality inherent in kathoey lives—encompassing sociocultural hierarchies, temporal factors, and the evolving nature of self-identification within Thai song discourse.

Additionally, this study emphasizes community dynamics, as the findings on intra-group discrimination and intra-homogenization within the kathoey community add a new dimension to understanding kathoey identity formation and community dynamics. This study contends that kathoey individuals navigate heteronormativity while being cognizant of stereotypes and often feeling pressured to prove their worth within binary gender paradigms. This paradoxical struggle to demonstrate value in a heteronormative society persists despite the inherent worth of all humans, regardless of gender identity.

The increased prevalence of the term kathoey in kathoey singers' songs suggests an active linguistic reclamation process, aligning with queer linguistic theory on language's role in constructing gender identities (Motschenbacher, 2018). Collocation analysis revealed KA more frequently associates kathoey with empowerment and self-determination terms compared to CIS. This linguistic difference highlights how kathoey individuals are reshaping the term's meaning, transforming it from a historically pejorative label into a marker of identity and pride (Huang, 2024; Kothdee et al., 2024; Sakyai, 2022).

Taken together, the analysis of collocation and concordance reveals the contrast between self-representation and external perception, underscoring cisgenderism's impact on identity discourse. Findings emphasize the importance of prioritizing kathoey voices while critically examining cisgenderist influence in both external and internal narratives about kathoey experiences. As such, this study advocates for a comparative baseline in the academic investigation of kathoey identity, examining cisgenderism (Lennon & Mistler, 2014) to understand the internal perceptions within the kathoey community. It demonstrates how language can question and uphold power hierarchies—a primary problem in the field of queer linguistics.

Furthermore, it can be contended that concordance analysis elucidates the contextual nuances of each dominant and unique collocate (Motschenbacher, 2018), revealing homogenizing tendencies in both KA and CIS discourses, as well as empowerment and internalized oppression within KA, alongside stereotypical representations in CIS that might be overlooked in a purely quantitative analysis.

Conclusion

This study encapsulates the tension experienced by kathoey individuals between self-empowerment and stereotypical constraints in Thai song discourse. Positive aspects include community solidarity, resilience, increased visibility, and self-representation in Thai, while negative aspects persist, such as stereotyping, othering in kathoey-related songs by cisgender singers, internalized oppression in some lyrical texts by kathoey singers, and the perpetuation of cisgenderist ideologies in the broader discourse. This study thus underscores the value of examining both kathoey insider and cisgender outsider perspectives to fully understand the complex process of kathoey representation.

Of the research avenues, future studies should explore kathoey representation across larger datasets, timeframes, the inclusion of lyrics and music videos, and consider intersectionality (e.g., class and region) for more nuanced, kathoey-centered representations. Accordingly, future research and advocacy should amplify kathoey voices and challenge cisgenderist narratives. This study contributes to corpus and queer linguistics by revealing the linguistic constructions of non-Western kathoey identity. However, challenges in balancing quantitative analysis with queer linguistic goals persist. Future research should expand the analysis of gender-related terms and incorporate more qualitative analysis of Thai song discourse.

Significantly, by addressing systemic biases embedded in marginalized discourse, both queer and non-queer researchers can work towards a more equitable and inclusive society that supports non-normative advocacy and inclusive pedagogy, where all individuals, regardless of gender identity, are afforded human value.

Author

Thanawut Sreejak (thanawut.sre@kkumail.com) (he/him) is a postgraduate student in the English program of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences at Khon Kaen University. He is currently interested in gender and sexuality studies and discourse analysis. In particular, he is studying the discourse of Thai trans women/kathoey.

References

Airoldi, M., Beraldo, D., & Gandini, A. (2016). Follow the algorithm: An exploratory investigation of music on YouTube. *Poetics*, *57*, 1–13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.poetic.2016.05.001

Aultman, B. (2014). "Cisgender." *TSQ: Transgender Studies Quarterly*, *1*(1-2), 61–62.https://doi.org/10.1215/23289252-2399614

Baker, P. (2006). *Using corpora in discourse analysis*. Continuum.

Baker, P. (2014). *Using corpora to analyze gender*. Bloomsbury.

[18]

Representation of Kathoey in Thai Song Discourse: A Comparative Analysis of Self-Representation and External Perceptions

Baker, P. (2018). Language, sexuality and corpus linguistics: Concerns and future directions. *Journal of Language and Sexuality*, *7*(2), 263–279. https://doi.org/10.1075/jls.17018.bak

Baker, P., Gabrielatos, C., & McEnery, T. (2013). *Discourse analysis and media attitudes: The representation of Islam in the British press*. Cambridge University Press.

Baker, P., & Levon, E. (2016). That's what I call a man: Representations of racialised and classed masculinities in the UK print media. *Gender and Language*, *10*(1), 106–139. https://doi.org/10.1558/genl.v10i1.25401

Barnett, M., Fotheringham, F., Hutton, V., O'Loughlin, K. (2021). Heterosexism and cisgenderism. In V. Hutton & S. Sisko (Eds.), *Multicultural responsiveness in counselling and psychology: Working with Australian populations* (pp. 153–178). Springer International Publishing.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, *3*(2), 77–101. https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa

Frith, S. (1996). *Performing rites: On the value of popular music*. Harvard University Press.

Gillings, M., Mautner, G., & Baker, P. (2023). *Corpus-assisted discourse studies*. Cambridge University Press.

Huang, P. I. (2024). Nondualist philosophies and trans literature. In D. A. Vakoch & S. Sharp (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of trans literature* (pp. 83–92). Routledge.

Jackson, P. A. (2011). *Queer Bangkok: Twenty-first-century markets, media, and rights*. Hong Kong University Press.

Jackson, P. A. (2016). *First queer voices from Thailand: Uncle Go's advice columns for gays, lesbians and kathoeys*. Hong Kong University Press.

Käng, D. B. C. (2012). Kathoey "In trend": emergent genderscapes, national anxieties and the re-signification of male-bodied effeminacy in Thailand. *Asian Studies Review*, *36*(4), 475–494. https://doi.org/10.1080/10357823.2012.741043

Kilgarriff, A., Baisa, V., Bušta, J., Jakubíček, M., Kovář, V., Michelfeit, J., Rychlý, P., & Suchomel, V. (2014). The Sketch Engine: Ten years on. *Lexicography*, *1*(1), 7–36. https://doi.org/10.1007/s40607-014-0009-9

Kothdee, T., Wiriyarampa, W., Pamonpon, A., Tuansrikeaw., & Supprasert, P. (2024). *Khwam khongthi lae kan plian pleng phap thaen kathoey nai bot phleng Thai bon YouTube* [Stability and change in representation of kathoey in Thai songs

on YouTube]. *Academic Journal for the Humanities and Social Sciences Dhonburi Rajabhat University*, *7*(1), 30–41. https://so02.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/human_dru/article/view/267372/179975

Leap, W. L. (2015). Queer linguistics as critical discourse analysis. In D. Tannen, H. E. Hamilton & D. Schiffrin (Eds.), *The handbook of discourse analysis* (pp. 661–680). Wiley.

Leap, W., & Motschenbacher, H. (2012). Launching a new phase in language and sexuality studies. *Journal of Language and Sexuality*, 1(1), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1075/jls.1.1.01lea

Lennon, E., & Mistler, B. J. (2014). Cisgenderism. *Transgender Studies Quarterly*, *1*(1–2), 63–64. https://doi.org/10.1215/23289252-2399623

McCann, H., & Monaghan, W. (2019). *Queer theory now: From foundations to futures*. Bloomsbury Publishing.

Motschenbacher, H. (2011). Taking queer linguistics further: Sociolinguistics and critical heteronormativity research. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, *2011*(212), 149–179. https://doi.org/10.1515/ijsl.2011.050

Motschenbacher, H. (2018). Corpus linguistics in language and sexuality studies: Taking stock and looking ahead. *Journal of Language and Sexuality*, *7*(2), 145–174. https://doi.org/10.1075/jls.17019.mot

Motschenbacher, H. (2019). Language and sexual normativity. In R. Barrett & K. Hall (Eds.), *Oxford handbook of language and sexuality*. Oxford University Press.

Ocha, W. (2023). Buddhism, gender, and sexualities: Queer spiritualities in Thailand. *Equality, Diversity and Inclusion: An International Journal*, *42*(5), 685–705. https://doi.org/10.1108/EDI-01-2020-0025

Ojanen, T. T. (2009). Sexual/gender minorities in Thailand: Identities, challenges, and voluntary-sector counseling. *Sexuality Research & Social Policy*, *6*, 4–34. https://doi.org/10.1525/srsp.2009.6.2.4

Phraekhao, P. (2012). *Phet withi kathoey Isan nai phuenthi molam* [Sexuality of Isaan ladyboys in the Mo Lam area]. *SAC's Research Database*. http://sac-research.sac.or.th/research-item-search.php?ob_id=76

Roopsa-ard, S., & Jantarangsee, A. (2021). *Khwam khit hen to phleng yiat phet nai sangkhom online: Pathibatkan tok yam lae totop kan yiat phet nai sangkhom chai pen yai* [Posting opinions about sexist songs on the internet: Practices of enhancing and combatting sexism in a patriarchal society]. *Stance: The Thai Feminist Review*, *8*(1), 88–113. https://wsc.soc.cmu.ac.th/journal/issue_upload/0.85560400-1625046629.pdf

[20]

Representation of Kathoey in Thai Song Discourse: A Comparative Analysis of Self-Representation and External Perceptions

Rowson, T. S., Jaworska, S., & Gibas, I. (2023). Hot topic: Examining discursive representations of menopause and work in the British media. *Gender, Work & Organization*, *30*(6), 1903-1921. https://doi.org/10.1111/gwao.13021

Sakyai, K. (2022). *Phap khong "kathoey" nai wannakam phleng Thai sakon* [Image of "kathoey" in Thai songs] [Master's thesis, Silpakorn University]. DSpace at Silpakorn University. http://ithesis-ir.su.ac.th/dspace/handle/123456789/4391

Saisuwan, P. (2016). Kathoey and the linguistic construction of gender identity in Thailand. In E. Levon & R. B. Mendes (Eds.), *Language, sexuality, and power: Studies in intersectional sociolinguistics, studies in language gender and sexuality* (pp. 189–214). Oxford Academic. https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780190210366.003.0010

Ten Brummelhuis, H. (2008). Transformations of transgender: The case of the Thai kathoey. *Journal of Homosexuality*, *9*(2–3), 121–139. https://doi.org/10.1300/J041v09n02_06

Thipphana, S. (2022). *Phap lak thi sam thi prakot nai wannakam phleng luk thung Isan tangtae phutthasakkarat 2540–2565* [Third gender image appeared in the Isaan ballet literature from 1997–2022]. *SSKRU Research and Development Journal*, *9*(2), 1–18. https://so01.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/sskru-resarch/article/view/257267

Wisuttipat, N. (2024). "Keeping Condition": Gender ambiguity and sexual citizenship of queer male Thai classical musicians. *TRaNS: Trans-Regional and-National Studies of Southeast Asia*, *12*(1), 60–77. https://doi.org/10.1017/trn.2023.12

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

Salila Prasidya Hidayati*

Sompatu Vungthong

School of Liberal Arts

King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi (KMUTT), Thailand

Abstract

Inaugural speeches mark the beginning of a new leadership period and serve as powerful tools for leaders to convey their vision, goals, and aspirations to the public. Analyzing these speeches can reveal how leaders use language to communicate their political agendas, values, and visions. Focusing on recent inaugural speeches delivered by leaders of countries where English is an official language, this paper analyzed their predominant themes using the by Braun and Clarke's (2006) framework and Searle's (1979) speech act theory. The data comprised 10 inaugural speeches from 10 countries, divided into five geographic groups: (1) North America, (2) Europe, (3) Africa, (4) Australia, and (5) Asia. To ensure inter-coder reliability, a second coder analyzed 20% of the data using Cohen's Kappa statistics. The results revealed prominent themes found in the top five themes in each speech, as well as ideologies and values embedded in these speeches. Additionally, the analysis uncovered associations between specific types of speech acts and themes, such as the common association between *future plans* and *commissive* and *assertive* speech acts and the less common association between *future plans* and *directives*. The findings provide insights into the strategies employed in modern public speaking, shedding light on leaders' use of themes, speech acts, and their underlying motivations.

Keywords: country leaders; ideology; inaugural speeches; speech acts; themes

Introduction

Inaugural speeches hold a significant place in a nation's political landscape, serving as a platform for leaders to articulate their vision, priorities, and goals upon assuming office (Ericson, 1997; Vassileva, 2021). These speeches can be defined as formal addresses delivered by individuals assuming prominent political positions, such as presidents, prime ministers, or heads of state, to mark the beginning of their tenure

* Corresponding Author

(Ayeomoni & Akinkuolere, 2012; Ericson, 1997; Liu, 2012). The significance of inaugural speeches in shaping public opinion and national discourse cannot be overstated. Inaugural speeches are crucial in transitioning leaders' positions, symbolizing the start of a new tenure and providing a stage to communicate their aims, purposes, and aspirations to the public (Ayeomoni & Akinkuolere, 2012). Through these speeches, country leaders have the opportunity to inspire hope, foster a sense of national identity, and outline their vision for a better future (Mehltretter, 2009; West, 2014).

Inaugural speeches possess distinct characteristics that set them apart from other forms of political oratory. They often involve a blend of rhetoric, persuasion, and political ideology, allowing leaders to establish their credibility, gain public support, and set the tone for their administration (Biria & Mohammadi, 2012; Hoffman et al., 2017). Among the distinctive features of an inaugural speech are its rhetorical use and symbolic meaning, marking a new beginning for a leader and denoting the assumption of office. Such speeches are frequently designed to promise, convince, and powerfully persuade audiences (Neustadt, 1990). These speeches often express gratitude toward citizens and others, address the nation's vital issues and challenges, emphasize the need for unity and collective action, and propose policies and initiatives to address societal concerns (Altikriti, 2016; Sameer, 2017; Velez, 2022).

Understanding the themes and speech acts conveyed in inaugural speeches is essential, as it helps the audience grasp the hidden meanings and identify the leaders' ideologies. This study aimed to explore the predominant themes and speech acts in the most recent inaugural speeches delivered by leaders of countries where English is an official language through thematic analysis and speech act analysis. This study provides insights into leaders' underlying motivations, objectives, and political agendas. It can facilitate a more informed analysis of political discourse and aid in deciphering the broader implications of leaders' chosen themes and speech acts.

Several studies have examined inaugural speeches in English through different analytical lenses. The first approach involved the use of thematic analysis to explore the underlying themes and messages conveyed in the speeches. A notable study by Bani-Khaled and Azzam (2021) analyzed the theme of unity in Joe Biden's 2021 inaugural speech. They used thematic analysis to identify themes of unity and highlighted the effectiveness of language in revealing this theme, exemplified by the recurrent use of the phrase "my fellow," which emphasized solidarity and collegiality. Another relevant study by Martin-Harewood (2024) analyzed speeches by former UK Prime Ministers (Theresa May, Boris Johnson, Liz Truss, and Rishi Sunak) from 2016 to 2022. This study employed thematic content analysis to identify and categorize themes, while critical discourse analysis (CDA) was used to uncover and interpret the underlying and implicit meanings within language as used in particular social contexts and situations. This study revealed 29 themes, with nine recurring themes such as *Brexit* and the *EU, challenges* and *difficulties, economy, education, employment, family, healthcare, unity,* and *future plans.* These themes emerged regularly due to the high expectations placed

on the UK Prime Minister. Themes like *education, employment, family,* and *healthcare* are particularly relevant in inaugural speeches as they address fundamental aspects of society and the needs of citizens. The theme of *Brexit* and the *EU* is directly related to the specific temporal context of the speeches. Another prevalent theme is *challenges* and *difficulties*, which address both current issues and anticipated future challenges.

The second approach involves the application of speech act theory using Searle's classification framework to analyze inaugural speeches, with a focus on the performative function of language. For example, Mufiah and Rahman (2018) and Ayeomoni and Akinkuolere (2012) revealed that the inaugural speeches of Donald Trump and Umaru Musa Yar'Adua predominantly employed *assertive* acts, with each accounting for 46% and 60% of their speeches, respectively. Trump's *assertive* actions aimed to persuade audiences to act, while Yar'Adua emphasized and exercised his presidential power. Ahmed and Amir (2021) found that 34.965% of Joe Biden's speech acts were *directives*, showcasing his influence and superiority and convincing the audience to follow his lead. Moreover, Piscesco and Ambalegin (2023) analyzed the *commissive* acts in Joe Biden's inaugural speech, revealing a dominance of promising acts.

Based on previous studies, thematic analysis, and speech act analysis have been used to analyze inaugural speeches, but these studies have often been limited to a small number of speeches or leaders. This study expands the scope by examining the inaugural speeches of 10 country leaders from 10 different countries where English is an official language. It employs thematic analysis to identify main themes and sub-themes and speech act analysis to explore the associations in the speeches. Specifically, this study addresses the following research questions:

1. What themes are represented in the inaugural speeches by country leaders from countries where English is an official language?
2. What types of speech acts are revealed for each theme in the inaugural speeches by country leaders from countries where English is an official language?

Methodology

The research design of this study employed a descriptive qualitative approach to analyze themes and speech acts in the most recent inaugural speeches delivered by country leaders from countries where English is an official language. The research aimed to gain insights into the themes and types of speech acts utilized in these speeches.

Data Collection

This study examined the themes and types of speech acts utilized in the most recent inaugural speeches of 10 leaders from 10 different countries where English is an

official language. Focusing only on English inaugural speeches allows for comparisons among countries where English is the official language. In addition, English is accessible to international scholars; the research reaches a wider audience and contributes to a global understanding of political and rhetorical practices.

The selection criteria for this research are as follows:

1. The speeches were delivered in English and represent the first public address given by each country's leader upon assuming the position of prime minister or president.
2. The inaugural speech must be given by the current leader of each country.

   (In the case of Canada, the Prime Minister has been in office since 2015, and no new inaugural speech has been delivered since then, ensuring that the data used remains accurate and up to date.)

3. A video recording of the inaugural speeches must be available online.
4. The speeches were grouped into five geographic regions representing the five continents of the world ((1) Asia, (2) Australia, (3) Africa, (4) Europe, and (5) North America), with each region represented by two countries, based on the demographic distribution of English-speaking populations (World Data, 2024). Selecting inaugural speeches from five continents enables a comprehensive analysis of diverse political, cultural, and socio-economic contexts. By limiting the selection to two countries per region, the analysis remains focused and preserves depth, while still accounting for regional nuances. This method strikes a balance between inclusivity and practicality, ensuring that political and cultural diversity is reflected without overwhelming the scope of the study.

The inaugural speeches that meet the above criteria range from 7 to 26 minutes, with differences in duration attributed to the leader's style and delivery, as well as the cultural or institutional norms of each country. Despite these variations in length, the speeches consistently share the same core elements identified in previous studies, including a clear vision, purpose, commitment, and responsibility (Garifullina et al., 2021). These elements are essential in setting the tone for leadership and outlining the goals for the future, regardless of the speech's length or context.

Table 1

Data Source

Geographic Location	Country Leaders	Country	Year	Source	Time Length
Asia	Bongbong Marcos	Philippines	2022	*https://youtu.be/wyXg1 OgFQbk?si=OKlgVCB_ Aily4Dss*	25 minutes 29 seconds

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

Geographic Location	Country Leaders	Country	Year	Source	Time Length
	Tharman Shanmugaratnam	Singapore	2023	*https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=FlyP12rhIso*	12 minutes
Australia	Anthony Albanese	Australia	2022	*https://youtu.be/tuJeVZDr0YM?si=MReahaw5PqeiHcdf*	19 minutes 55 seconds
	Chris Hipkins	New Zealand	2023	*https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=58f-F7OhzwY*	9 minutes 4 seconds
Africa	Cyril Ramaphosa	South Africa	2018	*https://youtu.be/q11UYKrFy1Y?si=C9dl16vpG9w_fDo2*	15 minutes 33 seconds
	Hakainde Hichilema	Zambia	2021	*https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-6zHevhX-7w&t=557s*	19 minutes 51 seconds
Europe	Leo Varadka	Ireland	2022	*https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=7B2M349UAy8*	8 minutes 17 seconds
	Rishi Sunak	United Kingdom	2023	*https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=C42NkLdSjyY*	7 minutes 35 seconds
North America	Justin Trudeau	Canada	2015	*https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xKWyk86yWsQ*	24 minutes 7 seconds
	Joe Biden	United States	2020	*https://youtu.be/1AfNYztas2c?si=CsI85e53dRbc9wlK*	15 minutes 19 seconds

Data Analysis

The data were transcribed into written form, with the T-unit serving as the unit of analysis. The transcription process was done manually to ensure the accuracy and proper arrangement of the data. Various dictionaries and thesauruses were used to study the meanings of specific lexical items and examine sentence or phrase structures and verb behaviors. Each unit of analysis first underwent thematic analysis to identify themes within each sentence, followed by speech act analysis of each theme in the inaugural speeches.

Figure 1

Steps of Data Analysis

Identifying a unit of analysis	⇨	Thematic Analysis	⇨	Speech Acts Analysis

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language
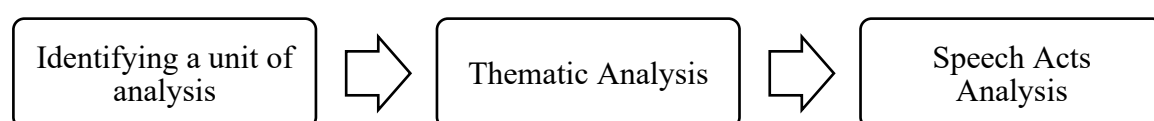
The first step is identifying a unit of analysis, which is the T-unit. A T-unit is defined as one main clause along with any subordinate clause or non-clausal structure embedded in it (Hunt, 1965; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). An example of a T-unit is *"I want an economy that works for people, not the other way around"* (Inaugural speech of Prime Minister of Australia, Anthony Albanese, 2022).

The second step is analyzing a unit of analysis using thematic analysis. Thematic analysis can be defined as a method for systematically identifying, classifying, and gaining insights into patterns of meaning or themes across datasets (Braun & Clarke, 2006). According to King and Brooks (2018), thematic analysis is a flexible approach that allows researchers to focus on both the tangible and implied content of the data, making it suitable for a wide range of research problems and theoretical frameworks. This study used the thematic analysis by Braun and Clarke (2006) as the guideline to analyze inaugural speeches, which has six steps to analyze the theme and the framework.

Figure 2

Steps of Thematic Analysis (Adopted from Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 87)

Familiarizing the data	⇨	Generating initial codes	⇨	Generating the theme code	⇨	Reviewing Themes	⇨	Defining and Naming themes	⇨	Interpreting and reporting the results
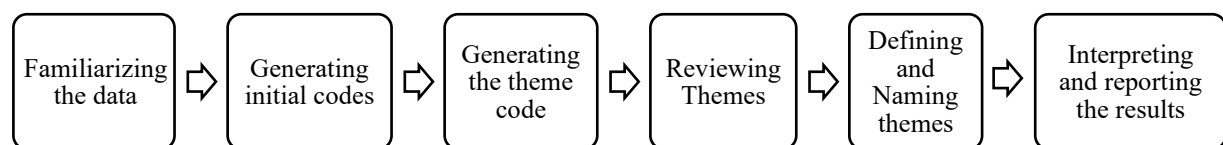
In thematic analysis, the first step is familiarizing the data, including data transcription accurately from the spoken data in video recording and re-reading the transcription to familiarize with the content. Secondly, generating the initial code process is proposed to code the appealing structures or ideas of the data and arrange data relevant to each code. After initial coding, the theme codes are generated by examining the connection between themes and codes and labeling them, including both main themes and sub-themes. Then, after reviewing themes, related codes are integrated into more extended thematic categories. The identified themes are then reviewed to ensure their accuracy in reflecting the content of the speech data. Then, themes are named and defined with specific topics (main themes and sub-themes). The naming process helped provide an understandable and brief overview of each theme's main components.

Table 2

An Example of One of the Main Themes, Descriptions, and Sub-Themes

	Themes	Descriptions	Sub-themes
1	Future plan	The strategy of planning something in the future is	Leader's good performance
			Solving the national problem
			Unity

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

		Themes	Descriptions	Sub-themes
			conveyed by the leaders to develop their country.	Working with other individuals
				National economy
				Serving citizens
				Being a leader in the next period
				Respecting each other
				Meeting other individuals
				Making a good cabinet
				Defending the country
				Listening to other individuals
				International alliances
				Forgiveness
				Defending constitution
				Defending democracy
				Celebrating a holiday
				Leader's compassion
				Leader's discussion of the topic

Finally, the findings are reported, and the themes, interpretations, and supporting evidence are presented to narrate the results effectively. An example of thematic analysis for a T-unit is, *"Right now, our country is facing a profound economic crisis."* The Prime Minister of the United Kingdom would like to state that the United Kingdom was facing an economic crisis. This is coded as having a theme of *current national issues or problems*. This step aims to reveal the country leaders' frequently used themes and communication schemes in speeches. In this study, 21 main themes are identified. The full list of these main themes, sub-themes, and descriptions can be accessed through the *Figshare* website: *https://figshare.com/s/557047c44ff1b1dcd490.* In this paper, the analysis primarily focused on the top five themes, which allowed for a clearer understanding of the emerging patterns.

Then, after conducting a thematic analysis of the inaugural speeches, the data were examined through the lens of speech act theory. The speech acts are actions expressed through speech (Grundy, 2000; Mey, 2001). Searle's classification of speech acts provides a comprehensive framework for understanding various types of speech acts and their functions in communication. By categorizing speech acts based on their intention and effect, this classification system offers valuable insights into the complexities of language use and the underlying intentions of speakers. Searle (1979) categorizes speech acts into five main types: (1) *assertive* (making a statement or expressing their belief about something), (2) *directive* (giving a direct command to other people), (3) *commissive* (committing to doing something in the future), (4) *expressive* (expressing their attitudes, feelings, and emotions), and (5) *declarative* (intentionally speaking somethings that can affect immediate change). Each category has various sub-types: *assertive (starting, claiming,* and *describing), directive (commanding, suggesting, allowing, prohibiting,* and *questioning), commissive (promising, refusing, vowing, offering,* and *threatening), expressive (congratulating, excusing, thanking,*

wishing, attitude/gratitude, and *greetings),* and *declarative (resigning, appointing,* and *declaring).*

After analyzing themes and speech acts in the inaugural speeches delivered by country leaders, the results are interpreted using the socio-cultural and political context, highlighting the ideologies and values embedded within the speeches. This analysis provides a deeper understanding of how these leaders communicate and reinforce national priorities and ideologies.

For the final step, to enhance inter-rater reliability in this study, 20% of the data (approximately 219 T-units) were coded by a second coder who held a master's degree in applied linguistics, near-native proficiency, and expertise in content analysis. The coded data followed the minimum requirement for data percentage as specified by Cohen's Kappa reliability metrics. A Kappa reliability value approaching or exceeding 0.80 indicates a high level of reliability (Widhiarso, 2010). The inter-rater reliability analysis resulted in a Cohen's Kappa statistic of 0.851, indicating a very high level of agreement between the two coders.

Results and Discussion

This analysis examined the content themes and speech acts of inaugural speeches from country leaders who use English as an official language across five distinct geographical regions. The complete list detailing the percentages of all main themes and sub-themes is available through the *Figshare* website: *https://figshare.com/s/557047c44ff1b1dcd490*. However, focusing on the top five themes provides a clearer insight into patterns employed by country leaders in their inaugural speeches. This approach effectively captures the unique priorities and communication strategies of each country's leaders, providing a nuanced understanding of how inaugural speeches serve as a platform for articulating values within cultural and geopolitical contexts.

Table 3 presents the results of the thematic analysis of inaugural speeches delivered by leaders from 10 countries where English is an official language. The table highlights the five most prominent themes and their associated sub-themes. The number indicates the distribution of sub-themes within each main theme for each respective country. For instance, for the Philippines, the sub-theme of *solving the national problem* represents the largest share within the main theme of the *future plan*, comprising 31 out of the 83 units under this category. Additionally, there are other main themes present in the Philippines that do not fall within the five most prominent themes. These additional themes comprise 70 units, contributing to the total of 217 units identified in the Philippines' inaugural speech.

Table 3

Dominant Themes of Each Inaugural Speech across 10 Countries

No	Theme	Sub-theme	Philippines (2022)	Singapore (2023)	Australia (2022)	New Zealand (2023)	South Africa (2018)	Zambia (2021)	Ireland (2022)	United Kingdom (2023)	Canada (2015)	United States (2020)
1	Future Plan	Solving the national problem	31	8	3	4	4	29	6	1	2	14
		Unity	15	6	8	-	2	3	3	2	-	16
		Leader's good performance	10	1	5	-	1	2	-	6	6	5
		National Economy	10	3	6	6	-	-	2	3	2	-
		Working with other individuals	7	12	3	-	2	-	1	-	5	10
		Serving citizens	4	1	1	-	3	5	-	1	1	1
		Listening to other individuals	3	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
		Making a good cabinet	2	1	1	2	1	4	-	-	1	-
		International alliances	1	2	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	1
		Being a leader in the next period	-	5	2	2	4	-	-	1	1	-
		Defending country	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
		Respecting each other	-	2	1	1	8	-	-	-	-	2
		Defending the constitution	-	3	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
		Meeting other individuals	-	-	1	5	1	-	-	-	-	-
		Forgiveness	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-
		Celebrating a holiday	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-
		Leader's discussion of the topic	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	2
		Leader's compassion	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
		Defending democracy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
		Total	**83**	**45**	**34**	**20**	**26**	**47**	**16**	**15**	**18**	**60**

[30]

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

No	Theme	Sub-theme	Philippines (2022)	Singapore (2023)	Australia (2022)	New Zealand (2023)	South Africa (2018)	Zambia (2021)	Ireland (2022)	United Kingdom (2023)	Canada (2015)	United States (2020)
2	Current national issue/problem	Climate crisis	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		National economic problems	7	2	-	9	-	-	1	1	-	-
		Pandemic problem	3	-	-	1	-	-	-	4	-	5
		Citizens' basic needs problem	3	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
		War	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
		Cultural diversity problem	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
		Solving current national issue/problem	-	-	-	5	1	-	1	-	-	4
		Poverty problem	-	-	-	2	-	-	3	-	-	-
		Disagreement among country leaders	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-
		Corruption problem	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-
		Special need education problem	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
		Differences in political views problem	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6
		A lack of unity problem	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3
		Racism problem	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
		Total	**21**	**5**	**-**	**18**	**4**	**-**	**6**	**6**	**-**	**24**
3	(Personal) past actions	Having certain moments or performing certain actions with other individuals	9	-	4	-	11	-	-	1	8	-
		Action during the campaign	6	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	2	-

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

No	Theme	Sub-theme	Philippines (2022)	Singapore (2023)	Australia (2022)	New Zealand (2023)	South Africa (2018)	Zambia (2021)	Ireland (2022)	United Kingdom (2023)	Canada (2015)	United States (2020)
		Meeting/talking to (former leader; officers; individual citizens)	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	-
		Being a hard-working person	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-
		Attending an invitation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-
		Total	**17**	**-**	**5**	**-**	**11**	**-**	**-**	**3**	**18**	**-**
4	Past action of other individuals	Past action of former leader	5	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	1	-
		Past action of citizens/voters	5	-	4	-	-	21	-	-	24	-
		Past action of nurses	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Past action of government	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
		Past action of the leader's party members	-	-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Past action of the members of parliament	-	-	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Past action of the leader's mother	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Past action of opposition	-	-	-	-	-	3	-	-	-	-
		Past action of media	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
		Total	**13**	**-**	**10**	**5**	**-**	**27**	**-**	**-**	**25**	**-**
5	Past national issue/problem	Pandemic	6	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	3
		National economic problems	3	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	2

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

No	Theme	Sub-theme	Philippines (2022)	Singapore (2023)	Australia (2022)	New Zealand (2023)	South Africa (2018)	Zambia (2021)	Ireland (2022)	United Kingdom (2023)	Canada (2015)	United States (2020)
		Democracy	3	-	-	-	-	-	7	-	-	3
		Neglected labor	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
		Total	**13**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**10**	**-**	**-**	**8**
6	Expressing gratitude	Citizens	-	2	9	1	9	9	6	1	7	5
		A Former Leader	-	1	-	4	-	2	1	4	3	2
		Officers	-	1	3	-	1	-	-	-	1	-
		All parties	-	-	3	-	3	2	-	-	-	-
		Ancestors	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		The members of parliament	-	-	2	-	3	-	1	-	-	-
		Media	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
		God	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
		Heroes	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
		Total	**-**	**4**	**19**	**5**	**16**	**16**	**8**	**5**	**11**	**8**
7	Current international issue/problem	International economic problem	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Total	**-**	**4**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
8	Future problem	National economic problems	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Pandemic problem	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Threat to future generations	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Total	**-**	**3**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
9	A new start of the work/being a new leader	Assuming a new leader position (Readiness)	-	-	5	4	-	13	2	4	-	6
		Assuming a new leader position (Being proud)	-	-	3	3	-	-	1	-	-	-
		Assuming a new leader position (Reasons to be here)	-	-	1	1	3	3	1	1	-	1

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

No	Theme	Sub-theme	Philippines (2022)	Singapore (2023)	Australia (2022)	New Zealand (2023)	South Africa (2018)	Zambia (2021)	Ireland (2022)	United Kingdom (2023)	Canada (2015)	United States (2020)
		Assuming a new leader position (Feeling humbled)	-	-	1	1	2	-	-	-	-	1
		Assuming a new leader position (Serving)	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-
		Total	**-**	**-**	**10**	**9**	**5**	**18**	**4**	**5**	**-**	**8**
10	Introducing other members of the government	Introducing the officials	-	-	-	5	-	-	-	-	-	-
		Total	**-**	**-**	**-**	**5**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**
11	Citizens' desires/attributes	Citizens' desires/attributes (Having power toward the country)	-	-	-	-	-	15	-	-	7	-
		Citizens' desires/attributes (Living longer)	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
		Citizens' desires/attributes (Youth's role)	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
		Citizens' desires/attributes (Being disappointed)	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
		Citizens' desires/attributes (Being open-minded and optimistic)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-
		Total	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**18**	**-**	**-**	**8**	**-**
12	The country's victory and progress	The country's victory	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15
		Total	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**15**
13	Asking the audience to do something or perform certain actions	Asking the audiences to work together	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4
		Asking the audiences to join silent prayer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
		Asking the audiences to look around	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

No	Theme	Sub-theme	Philippines (2022)	Singapore (2023)	Australia (2022)	New Zealand (2023)	South Africa (2018)	Zambia (2021)	Ireland (2022)	United Kingdom (2023)	Canada (2015)	United States (2020)
		Asking the audiences to mark the leader's words	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
		Asking the audiences to stop talking	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
	Total	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	**11**
14	**Other themes**	-	70	6	15	9	12	34	8	6	23	33
	Total		217	67	93	71	74	160	52	40	103	167

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

Future Plan and *Expressing Gratitude* as the Common Themes in the Inaugural Speeches

The common themes found in the inaugural speeches analyzed in this study are *future plans* and *expressing gratitude*. The theme of *future plans* appears as one of the top five themes in all 10 inaugural speeches, while expressing gratitude was found as one of the top five themes in nine of the speeches, excluding the Philippines. It is common for the *future plan* theme to dominate inaugural speeches since these speeches typically include leaders' purposes and aims for the future, directing audiences to take future actions, committing to pledges for a better nation, and outlining improvements for the country. Similarly, Martin-Harewood (2024) conveys that future plans are crucial themes in inaugural speeches detailing plans for addressing challenges and difficulties. An example of a *future plan* with a sub-theme of *working with other individuals* is *"As President, with a strong mandate you have given me, I intend to work with the government, community groups, and other voluntary organizations, and the entire nation to strengthen our multi-racialism and nurture a more inclusive society."* (Inaugural speech of Singapore's President, Tharman Shanmugaratnam, 2023); it means that the president, empowered by strong public support, plans to collaborate with the government, community groups, voluntary organizations, and the entire nation to promote racial unity and foster a more inclusive society.

Meanwhile, expressing gratitude is also a pivotal topic in inaugural speeches, as leaders often wish to show appreciation for the audience's dedication and respect (Liu, 2012). The findings of this study revealed that leaders convey gratitude towards citizens, former leaders, officers, members of parliament, various parties, ancestors, the media, God, heroes, teachers, and nurses. An example of *expressing gratitude towards citizens* is *"To my fellow Singaporeans, once again, I thank you for your strong endorsement."* (Inaugural speech of Singapore's President, Tharman Shanmugaratnam, 2023); this reflects the leader's gratitude towards the citizens.

Ideologies and Values Revealed Through the Thematic Analysis of the Inaugural Speeches

Based on the thematic analysis, various aspects of ideologies and values embedded in the inaugural speeches are revealed. Firstly, the speeches of Canada and Zambia focused on addressing citizens. Four key themes highlighted in these two countries' inaugural speeches are *the past actions of individuals*, who are mainly citizens or voters, *future plans* that focus on *serving citizens*, *expressing gratitude towards citizens*, and *citizens' desires/attributes* reflecting their power and influence over the country. In Canada, after almost a decade of Conservative leadership under Stephen Harper, Canadians were eager for change towards advanced policies and inclusive governance. Justin Trudeau's inaugural speech underscored the importance of citizens' participation and engagement, reaffirming Canada's democratic principles and supporting political active involvement to effect meaningful change; for example, *"Over 80 thousand Canadians got involved in the core of this campaign."* (Inaugural

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

speech of Canada' Prime Minister, Justin Trudeau, 2015); this reflects the leader's discussion of the past actions of the citizens. Similarly, Zambia's leader, Hakainde Hichilema, emphasized the significance and role of every Zambian citizen in establishing the nation's future. He highlighted Zambia's resilience and the collective passion and contributions of its people.

Secondly, Australia and New Zealand focused on the national economy within the *future plan* theme. Recent leadership under Prime Ministers Anthony Albanese and Chris Hipkins has strongly emphasized future national economic planning. Australia's need for robust economic strategies is highlighted by its natural resources, diverse economy, and role in international trade, aiming to encourage growth, manage environmental support, and address social inequalities. Australia's economic recovery post-COVID has seen significant growth and increased employment (Liberal.org.au, 2022). Similarly, New Zealand, known for its agricultural exports, tourism, and sustainability commitment, requires progressive economic policies to boost international competitiveness, foster innovation, and ensure social justice. Notably, New Zealand's highest export growth in 2022 was in milk powder, butter, and cheese, comprising 28% of total exports (Stats NZ, 2023). An example for the *national economy* in the *future plan* is *"We will continue to grow an economy that creates well-paying jobs that lift incomes and creates opportunities for current and future generations."* (Inaugural speech of New Zealand Prime Minister Chris Hipkins, 2023); it can be interpreted that the plan of the country's leader is about the national economy.

Thirdly, in the United States, the theme of *victory and progress* is uniquely prominent. President Joe Biden's speech commemorated the resilience and power of American democracy, emphasizing the importance of Election Day as a reaffirmation of democratic principles; for example, *"Today, we celebrate the triumph not of a candidate, but of a cause, the cause of democracy."* This means that the leader emphasized that the celebration is not just about one person winning but about something bigger: the triumph of democracy itself.

Fourthly, in Singapore, the themes of *future problems* and *current national* and *international issues/problems* are uniquely significant. President Tharman Shanmugaratnam's inaugural speech highlighted these themes due to ongoing issues like the Ukraine conflict and the impacts of climate change. The Ukraine war, affecting global energy supplies and market prices, and climate change are critical future problems addressed by Singapore's leadership (Kilfoyle, 2023; Business Standard, 2023). An example of a *future problem* is *"Climate change will be a defining challenge for the world, especially for a low-lying island,"* which means that climate change will be a major global issue. It will be particularly challenging for low-lying islands, which are vulnerable to its impacts, such as rising sea levels and extreme weather.

Finally, in New Zealand, *the introduction of government members* is a unique theme in Chris Hipkins' speech, emphasizing transparency and accountability in governance (Mate, 2023); for example, *"I am delighted to announce that I intend to*

[37]

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

appoint Carmel Cipolloni to that role"; it means that Chris Hipkins introduces Carmel Cipolloni as the Deputy Prime Minister.

Table 4 presents the findings on speech acts and their subcategories, as identified within the five most prominent themes employed by the leaders from 10 countries where English is an official language, based on their inaugural speeches. For instance, in the Philippines, two speech acts reveal a *future plan* theme: *assertive* (56.62%) and *commissive* (43.38%). Across a broader analysis of the *future plan* theme in 10 countries, the distribution of speech acts is categorized into three main sub-types: *assertive* (40.39%), *commissive* (53.57%), and *directive* (6.04%).

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

Table 4

Theme-Speech Act Associations in the Inaugural Speeches across 10 Countries

No	Theme	Speech acts	Philippines (2022)	Singapore (2023)	Australia (2022)	New Zealand (2023)	South Africa (2018)	Zambia (2021)	Ireland (2022)	United Kingdom (2023)	Canada (2015)	United States (2020)	Total
1	Future Plan	Assertive	47 (56.62%)	21 (46.67%)	10 (29.41%)	4 (20%)	5 (65.38%)	13 (27.66%)	7 (43.75%)	5 (33.33%)	8 (44.44%)	27 (45%)	147 (40.39%)
		Commissive	36 (43.38 %)	17 (37.78%)	24 (70.59 %)	16 (80%)	17 (19.24%)	30 (63.83%)	9 (56.25 %)	10 (66.67%)	10 (55.56%)	26 (43.33%)	195 (53.57%)
		Directive	-	7 (15.55%)	-	-	4 (15.38%)	4 (8.51%)	-	-	-	7 (11.67%)	22 (6.04%)
			83 (100%)	**45 (100%)**	**34 (100%)**	**20 (100%)**	**26 (100%)**	**47 (100%)**	**16 (100%)**	**15 (100%)**	**18 (100%)**	**60 (100%)**	**364 (100%)**
2	Current national issue/problem	Assertive	16 (76.20 %)	5 (100%)	-	15 (83.33%)	4 (100%)	-	6 (100%)	6 (100%)	-	16 (66.67%)	68 (80.95%)
		Commissive	5 (23.80 %)	-	-	3 (16.57%)	-	-	-	-	-	5 (20.83 %)	13 (15.48%)
		Declarative	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3 (12.5%)	3 (3.57%)
			21 (100%)	**5 (100%)**	**-**	**18 (100%)**	**4 (100%)**	**-**	**6 (100%)**	**6 (100%)**	**-**	**24 (100%)**	**84 (100%)**
3	(Personal) past actions	Assertive	17 (100%)	-	5 (100%)	-	11 (100%)	-	-	3 (100%)	18 (100%)	-	54 (100%)
			17 (100%)	**-**	**5 (100%)**	**-**	**11 (100%)**	**-**	**-**	**3 (100%)**	**18 (100%)**	**-**	**54 (100%)**
4	Past action of other individuals	Assertive	13 (100%)	-	10 (100%)	5 (100%)	-	27 (100%)	-	-	25 (100%)	-	80 (100%)
			13 (100%)	**-**	**10 (100%)**	**5 (100%)**	**-**	**27 (100%)**	**-**	**-**	**25 (100%)**	**-**	**80 (100%)**
5	Past national issue/problem	Assertive	13 (100%)	-	-	-	-	-	10 (100%)	-	-	8 (100%)	31 (100%)
			13 (100%)	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**10 (100%)**	**-**	**-**	**8 (100%)**	**31 (100%)**
6	Expressing gratitude	Expressive	-	4 (100%)	19 (100%)	5 (100%)	16 (100%)	16 (100%)	8 (100%)	5 (100%)	11 (100%)	8 (100%)	92 (100%)
			-	**4 (100%)**	**19 (100%)**	**5 (100%)**	**16 (100%)**	**16 (100%)**	**8 (100%)**	**5 (100%)**	**11 (100%)**	**8 (100%)**	**92 (100%)**
7	Current International issue/problem	Assertive	-	4 (100%)	-	-	-	-	-	-		-	4 (100%)
			-	**4 (100%)**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**4 (100%)**
8	Future problem	Assertive	-	3 (100%)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3 (100%)
			-	**3 (100%)**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**-**	**3 (100%)**
9		Assertive	-	-	10 (100%)	9 (100%)	5 (100%)	17 (94.44%)	4 (100%)	4 (80%)	-	7 (87.5%)	56 (94.91%)

[39]

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

No	Theme	Speech acts	Philippines (2022)	Singapore (2023)	Australia (2022)	New Zealand (2023)	South Africa (2018)	Zambia (2021)	Ireland (2022)	United Kingdom (2023)	Canada (2015)	United States (2020)	Total
	A new start of the work/being a new leader	Declarative	-	-	-	-	-	1 (5.56%)	-	1 (20%)	-	1 (12.5%)	3 (5.09%)
			-	-	10 (100%)	9 (100%)	5 (100%)	18 (100%)	4 (100%)	5 (100%)	-	8 (100%)	59 (100%)
10	Introducing other members of the government	Assertive	-	-	-	3 (60%)	-	-	-	-	-	-	3 (60%)
		Declarative	-	-	-	2 (40%)	-	-	-	-	-	-	2 (40%)
			-	-	-	5 (100%)	-	-	-	-	-	-	5 (100%)
11	Citizens' desires/attributes	Assertive	-	-	-	-	-	18 (100%)	-	-	8 (100%)	-	26 (100%)
			-	-	-	-	-	18 (100%)	-	-	8 (100%)	-	26 (100%)
12	The country's victory and progress	Assertive	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15 (100%)	15 (100%)
			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15 (100%)	15 (100%)
13	Asking the audience to do something or perform certain actions	Directive	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11 (100%)	11 (100%)
			-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11	11 (100%)
14	**Others**		**70**	**6**	**15**	**9**	**12**	**34**	**8**	**6**	**23**	**33**	**216**
			217	**67**	**93**	**71**	**74**	**160**	**52**	**40**	**103**	**167**	**1044**

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

Theme and Speech Act Associations in the Inaugural Speeches

This section discusses the associations between speech acts and themes in inaugural speeches. Some themes are common and frequently addressed, while others are less common.

Common Theme and Speech Act Associations

The common theme and speech act associations include (1) *Past* themes with *assertive*, (2) *Issue/problem* themes with *assertive*, (3) *Future plans* with *commissive* and *assertive*, and (4) *Expressing gratitude* with *expressive*.

Past Themes with *Assertive* Speech Acts

Three themes associated with assertive speech acts are *personal past actions*, *past actions of other individuals*, and *past national issues/problems*, each occurring at 100%. Expressing *past national issues* through *assertive* speech acts allows leaders to present a clear narrative about the country's history, emphasizing lessons learned and progress made. Boakye (2014) found similar results in the inaugural speeches of Ghanaian presidents from 1993 to 2009, where assertive acts were used to describe the past of Ghana, often expressed in the form of statements. An example of the use of *assertive* in *claiming* sub-type in *past actions of other individuals* is *"The global village media was there"* (Inaugural speech of Zambia's President, Hakainde Hichilema, 2021).

Issue/Problem Themes with *Assertive* Speech Acts

Themes under this category include *current national issues/problems* (80.95%), *current international issues/problems* (100%), and *future problems* (100%). Leaders frequently use *assertive* speech acts to discuss these themes, as they serve to provide factual statements and establish the leaders' reliability and authority by demonstrating their awareness of crucial issues. Widiatmoko (2017) found that leaders often used *assertive* acts to reveal national issues such as liberty, freedom, cultural diversity, political parties, religions, and racism. An example of the use of *assertive* with *claiming* sub-type in *current national issues/problems* is *"The aftermath of COVID still lingers"* (Inaugural speech of the United Kingdom's Prime Minister, Rishi Sunak, 2023).

Future Plans with *Commissive* and *Assertive* Speech Acts

Future plans are associated with *commissive* (40.39%) and *assertive* (53.57%) speech acts. *Commissive* acts involve the leader's pledges regarding future policies, aligning with studies by Lodhi et al. (2018) and Kyei et al. (2020), which found that promises (*commissive* acts) are a primary component of inaugural speeches. *Assertive* acts are used to persuade audiences of the leader's judgment and future achievements, as seen in the research by Nurkhamidah et al. (2021) and Mufiah and Rahman (2018) regarding Donald Trump's inaugural speech. These speech acts serve to set the tone for

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

the administration and establish a clear vision for the nation's trajectory, with *assertive* acts presenting the leader's beliefs and goals and *commissive* acts serving as promises and commitments. An example of a *commissive* with a *promising* sub-type is *"I want to seek our common purpose and promote unity and optimism, not fear and division."* (Inaugural speech of Australia's Prime Minister, Anthony Albanese, 2022).

Expressing Gratitude with Expressive Speech Acts

Expressive speech acts (100%) are used to congratulate, excuse, thank, give wishes, show attitude, and greet. Griffin (2006)) found that a speaker's expression of understanding, belief, emphasis, and responsibility can shape the audience's belief. Leaders expressing gratitude in inaugural speeches perform a strategic act of communication that strengthens unity and goodwill among audiences, acknowledging collective efforts and sacrifices. An example of *expressive* with a *thanking* sub-type is *"I want to thank all those who've worked so hard for this victory."* (Inaugural speech of Australia's Prime Minister, Anthony Albanese, 2022).

Less Common Theme and Speech Act Associations

Association of *Future Plans* with *Directive*

Future plans are typically associated with *commissive* and *assertive* speech acts (Yang & Wang, 2020). However, this study found that leaders in four countries, Singapore, South Africa, Zambia, and the United States, use *directives* for this theme (6.04%). Inaugural speeches are traditionally intended to motivate, unify, and shape a sense of collective aim among citizens rather than issuing immediate orders. Using *directive* acts can be perceived as authoritarian, potentially alienating segments of the population who might view such commands as arrogant or presumptive. Despite this general trend, leaders in Singapore, South Africa, Zambia, and the United States sometimes use *directive* speech acts in their inaugural addresses. The unique political, social, and historical contexts play essential roles in these examples; for instance, Singapore's pragmatic and direct communication style reflects its culture of efficiency and transparency in governance. In South Africa and Zambia, leaders use *directive* acts to address urgent socio-economic problems and rally the population towards national development goals, reflecting the need for immediate and coordinated action in post-apartheid and developing contexts. Similarly, in the United States, *directive* acts in inaugural speeches are often used during crises or significant national transformations. An example of a *directive* with a *commanding* sub-type is *"And, we must meet this moment as the United States of America."* (Inaugural speech of the United States President, Joe Biden, 2020).

Association of *a New Start of the Work/Being a New Leader* with *Declarative*

The association of *a new start of the work/being a new leader* with *declarative* speech acts (5.09%) is less common because this theme is typically associated with *assertive* acts (Mufiah & Rahman, 2018). This study found this association in the

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

speeches of leaders from Zambia, the United Kingdom, and the United States. Inaugural addresses include themes of *a new start of the work/being a new leader, which* often pledges new leadership but seldom employs *declarative* acts, which are straightforward statements of fact or goals.

Declarative statements, which highlight certain actions or outcomes, can risk alienating population segments, particularly in politically and culturally diverse nations. Furthermore, *declarative* statements can become pledges that may later prove infeasible due to unforeseen circumstances, thus jeopardizing credibility. However, there are important exceptions where leaders have used *declarative* speech acts effectively in inaugural speeches; for instance, in Zambia, a leader may use *declarative* statements to express a commitment to new leadership and articulate a clear purpose for change in response to significant socio-political challenges. In the United Kingdom and the United States, *declarative* speech acts in inaugural addresses can highlight new leaders' commitments to democracy, freedom, and continued leadership during national transition crises. An example of *declarative* with *declaring* sub-type is *"Today, we mark the swearing-in of the first woman in American history elected to national office - Vice President Kamala Harris."* (Inaugural speech of the United States President, Joe Biden, 2020).

Conclusion and Recommendation

This study revealed common themes in inaugural speeches, ideologies, and values embedded in the speeches through thematic analysis, as well as common and less common theme-speech act associations. For the common themes, inaugural speeches tend to include the themes of *future plans* and *expressing gratitude*. Ideologies and values are also revealed through the thematic analysis of the inaugural speeches. For Canada and Zambia, their speeches place specific emphasis on *citizens* through various themes, reflecting the importance of citizen engagement and participation. Australia and New Zealand's speeches focus on the national economy in the *future plan*, portraying the main policy and priority of these countries. For the United States, the theme of *victory and progress* is associated with the concept of democracy, which is the ideal value prioritized in this country. For Singapore, the speech concentrates on discussing *future and current national and international issues* due to geopolitical conditions, such as the ongoing Ukraine conflict and upcoming challenges brought by climate change. For New Zealand, the speech emphasizes *introducing members of the government*, highlighting the prime minister's desire for transparency. For the Philippines, *expressing gratitude* is not as frequent due to the leader's strategic aim of establishing an image of firm and decisive leadership. As for the common theme and speech act associations, they include *past themes* with *assertive* speech acts, *issue/problem* themes with *assertive* speech acts, *future plans* with *commissive* and *assertive* speech acts, and *expressing gratitude* with *expressive* speech acts. The less common associations include *future plans* with *directive* speech acts and *new start of work,* such as *being a new leader* with *declarative* speech acts. The study provided insights into modern public speaking

[43]

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

strategies and the linguistic choices of country leaders, revealing their motivations and the ideologies and values they seek to communicate.

This research focused solely on the inaugural speeches of 10 country leaders from English-speaking countries. While these addresses provided valuable insights, the findings may not be applicable to all leaders or countries. Future studies should examine the analysis of inaugural speeches from various countries, allowing for a more comprehensive understanding of rhetoric and discourse on a global scale. Additionally, it would be valuable to explore the specific connections between these language patterns and social theories, such as neoliberalism, Marxism, and globalization, to provide deeper insights into the ideological frameworks that shape political communication.

Acknowledgments

Authors

Salila Prasidya Hidayati is a master's student in Applied English Studies at the School of Liberal Arts, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi (KMUTT) in Bangkok, Thailand. Her research focuses on the critical analysis of inaugural speeches, particularly examining the relationship between language and ideology. Salila is passionate about communication and cultural studies, and her work explores how language both shapes and reflects societal structures and cultural identities.
Email:salila.prasidya@gmail.com
ORCID: 0009-0007-9184-8566

Sompatu Vungthong, Ph.D. is an associate professor at the Department of Language Studies, School of Liberal Arts, King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi (KMUTT), Bangkok, Thailand. Her expertise spans English Language Teaching (ELT), Critical Discourse Analysis, Semiotics, and Postmodern Literature. She is recognized for her work in these areas and has contributed significantly to both academic research and teaching.
Email: sompatu.vun@kmutt.ac.th

References

Ahmed, H. R., & Amir, S. (2021). Speech act analysis of Joseph R. Biden Jr.'s inaugural address on January 20, 2021, as the 46th President of the USA. *Electronic Research Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, *3(1)*, 43–55. https://ssrn.com/abstract=3780457

Altikriti, S. (2016). Persuasive speech acts in Barack Obama's inaugural speeches (2009, 2013) and the last State of the Union address (2016). *International Journal of Linguistics*, *8*(2), 47–66. https://doi.org/10.5296/ijl.v8i2.9274

Ayeomoni, O. M., & Akinkuolere, O. S. (2012). A pragmatic analysis of victory and inaugural speeches of President Umaru Musa Yar'Adua. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *2*(3), 461–468. https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.3.461-468

Bani-Khaled, T., & Azzam, S. (2021). The theme of unity in political discourse: The case of President Joe Biden's inauguration speech on January 20, 2021. *Arab World English Journal*, *12*(3), 36–50. https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol12no3.3

Biria, R., & Mohammadi, A. (2012). The socio pragmatic functions of inaugural speech: A critical discourse analysis approach. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *44*(10), 1290–1302. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2012.05.013

Boakye, S. J. (2014). "Our democracy has been tested to the utmost limit": An exploration of the use of assertives in Ghanaian presidential inaugural addresses. *Language Discourse & Society*, *3*(1), 68–87.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, *3*(2), 77–101. https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa

Business Standard. (2023, August 15). Climate change is Singapore's biggest challenge: Tharman Shanmugaratnam. *Business Standard*. https://www.business-standard.com/world-news/climate-change-is-singapore-s-biggest-challenge-tharman-shanmugaratnam-123081500182_1.html

Ericson, D. F. (1997). Presidential inaugural addresses and American political culture. *Presidential Studies Quarterly*, *27*(4), 727–744.

Garifullina, D. B., Khismatullina, L. G., Giniyatullina, A. Y., Garaeva, M. R., & Gimadeeva, A. A. (2021). Inaugural speech as a tool of forming speech portrait of the president. *Linguistics and Culture Review*, *5*(S1), 413–421. https://doi.org/10.37028/lingcure.v5nS1.1429

Griffin, E. (2006)). *A first look at communication theory* (6th ed.). LSPR Library. https://psycnet.apa.org/record/2005-12493-000

Grundy, P. (2000). *Doing pragmatics*. Hodder Arnold.

Hoffman, D. C., Lewis, T., & Waisanen, D. (2017). The language of political genres: Inaugural and state speeches of New York City mayors and US presidents.

An Analysis of the Themes and Speech Acts in the Recent Inaugural Speeches by Leaders of the Countries with English as an Official Language

Proceedings of the New York State Communication Association, *2017*(9), 1-21. https://docs.rwu.edu/nyscaproceedings/vol2017/iss1/9

Hunt, K. W. (1965). *Grammatical structures written at three grade levels*. National Council of Teachers of English.

Kilfoyle, M. (2023, October 24). Ukraine: What's the global economic impact of Russia's invasion? *Economics Observatory*. https://www.economicsobservatory.com/ukraine-whats-the-global-economic-impact-of-russias-invasion#:~:text=Russia's%20attack%20on%20Ukraine%20placed,that%20far%20outpace%20wage%20growth

King, N., & Brooks, J. (2018). Thematic analysis in organisational research. In C. Cassell, A. L. Cunliffe, & G. Grandy (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of qualitative business and management research methods: Methods and challenges* (pp. 219–236). SAGE. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781526430236.n13

Kyei, E., Donkor, N., & Appiah, M. K. (2020). Move analysis of President Nana Addo Dankwa Akufo-Addo's 2017 presidential inaugural speech (PIS). *The International Journal of Humanities & Social Studies*, *8*(3), 176–185. https://doi.org/10.24940/theijhss/2020/v8/i3/HS2003-058

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Long, M. H. (1991). *An introduction to second language acquisition research*. Longman.

Liberal.org.au. (2022, May). Australia's economy recovery. https://www.liberal.org.au/our-plan/economy

Liu, F. (2012). Genre analysis of American presidential inaugural speech. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *2*(11), 2407–2411. https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.11.2407-2411

Lodhi, M. A., Mansoor, R., Shahzad, W., Robab, I., & Zafar, Z. (2018). Comparative study of linguistic features used in the inaugural speeches of American presidents. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, *8*(6), 265–280. https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v8n6p265

Martin-Harewood, L. (2024). "I will unite our country, not with words, but with action": Linguistic choices by British Prime Ministers: A comparative thematic analysis of the inaugural speeches by Theresa May, Boris Johnson, Liz Truss, and Rishi Sunak. https://www.doria.fi/handle/10024/188900

Mate, C. (2023, April 3). Watch: PM Chris Hipkins speaks after Cabinet meeting. *RNZ*. https://www.rnz.co.nz/news/political/487260/watch-pm-chris-hipkins-speaks-after-cabinet-meeting

Mehltretter, S. A. (2009). John F. Kennedy, 'Inaugural Address' (20 January 1961). *Voices of Democracy*, *4*, 41–59.

Mey, J. L. (2001). *Pragmatics: An introduction* (2nd ed.). Blackwell.

Mufiah, N. S., & Rahman, M. Y. N. (2018). Speech acts analysis of Donald Trump's speech. *Professional Journal of English Education*, *1*(2), 125–132. https://doi.org/10.22460/project.v1i2.p125-132

Neustadt, R. E. (1990). *Presidential power and the modern president: The politics of leadership from Roosevelt to Reagan* (1st ed.). The Free Press. (Original work published 1960)

Nurkhamidah, N., Fahira, R. Z., & Ningtyas, A. R. (2021). Rhetorical analysis of Joe Biden's inauguration address. *JL3T (Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Language Teaching)*, *7*(2), 73–82. https://doi.org/10.32505/jl3t.v7i2.3371

Piscesco, P. O., & Ambalegin, A. (2023). The commissive acts in Joe Biden's inauguration speech. *eScience Humanity Journal*, *4*(1), 55–62. https://doi.org/10.37296/esci.v4i1.66

Sameer, I. H. (2017). Rhetorical and linguistic analysis of Bush's second inaugural speech. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, *8*(1), 44–50. https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.alls.v.8n.1p.44

Searle, J. R. (1979). *Studies in the theory of speech acts*. Cambridge University Press.

Stats NZ. (2023) January 30). Food exports increase in 2022. https://www.stats.govt.nz/news/food-exports-increase-in-2022/#:~:text=Dairy%2C%20meat%2C%20and%20other%20animal,total%20exports%20over%20the%20year

Vassileva, M. (2021). A political communication model of the inaugural address speech of President-Elect Joseph R. Biden. *Rhetoric and Communications*, *48*, 51–63.

Velez, K. M. (2022). *Inaugural addresses, framing theory, and the impact on American perceptions of the presidency* [Master's thesis, University of South Florida].

West, V. (2014). A style of his own: A rhetorical analysis of President Barack Obama's inaugural addresses. *Undergraduate Research Awards*, *21*, 1–22. Hollins University Digital Commons.

Widhiarso, W. (2010). *Melibatkan rater dalam pengembangan alat ukur* [Involve raters in the development of assessment tools]. Gadjah Mada University.

Widiatmoko, P. (2017). Analysis of presidential inaugural addresses using Searle's taxonomy of speech acts. *English Review: Journal of English Education*, *5*(2), 275–282. https://doi.org/10.25134/erjee.v5i2.542

World Data. (2024). Countries where English is spoken. *World data*. https://www.worlddata.info/languages/english.php

Yang, Y., & Wang, J. (2020). An analysis of the inaugural address of President Rodrigo Duterte's speech act. In N. Samat, J. Sulong, M. Pourya Asl, P. Keikhosrokiani, Y. Azam, & S. T. K. Leng (Eds.), *Innovation and transformation in humanities for a sustainable tomorrow* (vol. 89, pp. 606–614). European Publisher. https://doi.org/10.15405/epsbs.2020.10.02.55

Appendix

Available accessed on *Figshare* website:
https://figshare.com/s/557047c44ff1b1dcd490

Table 1 *All Main Themes, Sub-Themes and Their Description*

Table 2 *All Main Themes, Sub-Themes, and Their Percentage across 10 Countries*

The Relationship between Parental Educational Involvement and Chinese Primary School Students' English Proficiency

Yichun Hu

Sumalee Chinokul*

Suryadhep Teachers College

Rangsit University, Thailand

Abstract

At present, the influence of Chinese parental involvement on children's English proficiency cannot be ignored; however, the relationship between Chinese parental involvement and their children's English language proficiency remains underexplored. This topic is relevant and urgent, not merely for China but also in any context where children are learning English as a foreign language. This study explored two research questions: (1) What is the relationship between parental educational involvement— further divided into sub-categories of Home Literacy Environment (HLE) and school-based participation—and students' English proficiency? (2) What kinds of parental educational involvement do Chinese parents engage in with their children, and how can these practices be improved? The data were collected from a questionnaire about the current state of parental educational involvement, distributed to 200 sixth-grade students and their parents, along with semi-structured interviews conducted with 12 students, their parents, and three English teachers from a primary school in Chenghua District, Chengdu City. The results showed a positive correlation between parental educational involvement and students' English proficiency, with a correlation coefficient value of 0.489, $p < 0.05$. Based on the interview data, five types of parental educational involvement were identified. These were categorized, and suggestions for future research are provided.

Keywords: parental involvement education, home literacy environment, school-based parental participation, children's English proficiency

Introduction

Chinese students start learning English in the third grade around the age of eight. According to the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China (2001a), students must reach Level 2 of the national English proficiency levels by the end of the sixth grade, equivalent to Cambridge Young Learners' English Level 2. However, there

* Corresponding Author

are many issues with English learning in Chinese primary schools. Primary school students often lack interest and initiative in learning English (Ma, 2023; Yong, 2023). Long (2023) pointed out that the English listening and speaking training for primary school students lacks sufficient engagement opportunities. Lin (2023) mentions that some primary school students have poor English learning habits, and vocabulary and grammar are also significant challenges they face. As a result, many primary school students struggle to achieve Level 2 proficiency in English at the national level.

Whether or not their children's English proficiency is ideal, Chinese parents often enroll their children in English tutoring classes to improve their English proficiency (Ma, 2013; Peng & Shen, 2016; You, 2018). Since the beginning of the 21st century, extracurricular tutoring has rapidly spread in both urban and rural areas of China (Zhang, 2024), and tutoring classes have become the primary after-school destination for many children. The *China Youth Daily* (2020b) reported in its *Irregular Extracurricular Classes* that many elementary school students not only have to do a great deal of homework but also must attend tutoring classes, which can be very expensive. This has created significant pressure on both students and parents. Lin (2022) noted that by the end of 2021, there were 124,000 offline and 263 online subject-based extracurricular training institutions in China.

To reduce the stress on students and parents, the General Office of the Communist Party of China Central Committee and the General Office of the State Council issued the *Opinions on Further Reducing the Homework Burden and off Campus Training Burden of Students in Compulsory Education,* abbreviated as the Double Reduction Policy, on July 24, 2021. On March 2, 2022, the China Institute of Education and Social Development revealed at Beijing Normal University that 83.5% of students did not attend off-campus remedial classes, and 63.3% did not attend non-subject training, indicating the Double Reduction Policy had a positive effect on reducing student stress. The challenging questions from the parents remain: What can they do to improve their children's English proficiency under the Double Reduction Policy?

There are conflicting beliefs among Chinese parents regarding their role in children's English education. The traditional view is that teachers are responsible for the children's English proficiency (Chi & Rao, 2003). However, a competing idea, supported by Gao's study (2006), encourages parents to find strategies to help improve their children's English skills.

Consequently, this study explores the relationship between parental involvement and primary school students' English proficiency, examining the methods of parental involvement in primary school English education. It is expected that this research will contribute to addressing gaps in the Double Reduction Policy in China. In addition, it may provide practical strategies and recommendations for parents from non-English-speaking countries to support and participate in their children's English education.

Literature Review

With the rapid development of Chinese society and the new curriculum reform, parental involvement in education has become a popular topic both domestically and internationally. For example, parental education involvement can benefit children's reading skills, psychological well-being, and the development good study habits (Fu, 2023; Kang, 2022; Wang & Guo, 2023).

In terms of dimension division, the most common are two-dimensional structures based on geography and three-dimensional structures based on educational psychology. In geographical terms, many scholars divide educational involvement into family involvement and school involvement (Driessen et al., 2005; Epstein & Dauber, 1991; Zellman & Waterman, 1998). Family involvement chiefly refers to parents helping and supervising their children's study and life at home, while school involvement generally includes interacting with teachers, participating in school volunteer activities and so on.

From the perspective of educational psychology, Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994) divide parental involvement into cognitive, emotional, and behavioral dimensions. Many scholars in China commonly use this three-dimensional structure when studying educational involvement (Mei et al., 2019; Song, 2010). In addition, some scholars classify educational involvement into direct participation, self-directed support, and exclusion of interference based on specific methods of involvement in education (Cooper et al., 2000). Others have divided education involvement into five dimensions: home supervision, academic counseling, parent-child interaction, participate activities, and home-school interaction (Wu et al., 2013).

This article focuses on domestic primary school students as research participants and combines existing research results with the purpose of this study. It defines educational involvement as the efforts parents make to improve their children's English proficiency during a specific educational stage, dividing it into two dimensions: home learning environment (HLE)-based involvement and school-based involvement. The following literature review is grouped into three parts.

Research on the Importance of Parental Educational Involvement in Primary School Students' English Learning

After the renowned Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) was proposed by Lenneberg in 1967, suggesting that individuals can easily and quickly learn language without external intervention during a specific stage of life, Johnson and Newport (1989) proved that there is an intimate relationship between age and language proficiency in the acquiring grammar. Specifically, a person's level of English acquisition declines with an increase in the initial age of second-language acquisition. Robinson (1994) and Kim et al. (1997) also demonstrated, through experiments, the impact of critical periods on second-language acquisition. Thus, the Ministry of Education of the People's

The Relationship between Parental Educational Involvement and Chinese Primary School Students' English Proficiency

Republic of China (2001b) stipulated that Chinese students should begin learning English from the third grade, which further illustrates the importance of foreign language learning during the critical period. After various studies, Fu (2006), Liu (2012), Lei (2014), and Wu (2016) summarized the advantages of the critical period: the earlier the start of learning the language, the longer the time of contact with the language, leading to a higher the level of language mastery.

During the critical period, when children are between 2 to 13 years old, many Chinese parents overly rely on schools and tutoring classes, neglecting the role that parents can play in children's English learning process. Many parents believe that English teaching is mainly the responsibility of the schools and extracurricular tutoring classes, overlooking the responsibilities of family and society (Cao, 2020; Zhang & Hua, 2019). Since the Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China (2021b) published the Double Reduction Policy, while homework has decreased, tutoring classes are no longer attended, resulting in more time spent at home with parents. In such a situation, how students improve their English proficiency largely depends on parental involvement in their English learning (Huang, 2023; Peng & Shi, 2023; Song & Jiang, 2023). For example, parents might take their children on study tours to increase their interest in learning.

Research on the Forms of Parental Educational Involvement in Primary School Students' English Learning

The Home Literacy Environment (HLE) is a form of parental educational involvement that cannot be ignored. HLE is generally conceived of as a multi-faceted structure and refers to all the resources and activities in the family that can affect the children's reading and writing abilities. This includes not only reading and writing resources but also includes a motivational atmosphere and reading and writing activities (Burgess et al., 2002; Liu & Li, 2022; Puglisi et al., 2017).

Mason (1980) and Weinberger (1996) pointed out that visiting the library and becoming a library member affect children's reading skills in later life. Hewison and Tizard (1980) and Swinson (1985) mentioned separately the positive impact on children's listening and reading abilities of differing the various home literacy activities. Parent-child shared reading can improve children's expression ability, increase average sentence length, expand vocabulary, and enrich and deepen vocabulary use (Evans et al., 2000; Sénéchal, 1997; Whitehurst et al.,1988). Parents' expectations must match the children's demonstrated ability (Peng, 2019); otherwise, this can cause significant psychological pressure.

In the context of English, a good home literacy environment is crucial for stimulating primary school students' habit of learning English. The family environment plays an essential role in children's English learning (Yang, 2014; Zou, 2013). However, many problems exist with the current English literacy environment, and many parents

are unaware how to create one. Scholars have pointed out that most students lack a home English learning atmosphere; parents either do not prioritize English learning or place excessive emphasis on it (Lu, 2013; Zou, 2013). Jia (2016) found that many parents believe that there is little they can do to improve their children's English proficiency. From existing research, it is clear that the home English literacy environment is an urgent issue that needs improvement.

Parental involvement in school activities is another part of parental educational involvement. The traditional form of parental involvement in school activities is mainly institutionalized, with non-institutionalization as a supplement (Yang, 2020). Institutionalized involvement typically includes parent-teacher conferences, parent reception days, and similar events.

Research on parental involvement in school activities by Huang (2008), Gao (2019), and Su and Wei (2019) has identified the key issues, such as discrepancies between family and school educational concepts, limited content and form of parental participation in activities, and ambiguous educational boundaries between parents and schools. Feng (2012) and Hu (2020) found that most parents are relatively passive in engaging with their children's English education, merely checking homework or enrolling them in tutoring classes—which is considered low-level involvement. Feng (2016) proposed that to increase the frequency of parental participation in school activities, parents' roles as primary stakeholders should be strengthened.

Research on Parental Educational Involvement under the Double Reduction Policy

The Double Reduction Policy has reduced the homework burden on students while increasing parental supervisory responsibilities. The *China Youth Daily* (2020a) reported that Chinese parents often lack sufficient time to be involved in children's learning. Many parents still have limited awareness of participating in children's English learning. Shi (2023) found that, under the Double Reduction Policy, some parents' educational concepts and behaviors did not adjust promptly, increasing parental anxiety.

Some parents advocate the "free learning and happy growth" concept, resulting in reduced supervision of their children. Liu et al. (2024) argue that parents should not use the Double Reduction Policy as an excuse to relax supervision of their children's learning or evade their responsibilities. On the other hand, some parents' anxiety has not diminished with the introduction of the policies but has instead intensified in some aspects (Yang, 2021, 2023; Zhang et al., 2021). How to increase parental educational involvement under the Double Reduction Policy is a worthy research topic.

The Relationship between Parental Educational Involvement and Chinese Primary School Students'
English Proficiency

Based on the literature above, specific studies on parental educational involvement in primary school English are limited. Therefore, this field requires more in-depth research.

Research Objectives

1. To examine the relationship between parental educational involvement (in terms of home literacy environment and school-based parental participation) and students' English proficiency.

2. To explore the types of involvement that Chinese parents engage in with their children and the resulting improvements.

Given the inconclusive results of previous studies, the null hypothesis (H0) and alternative hypothesis (H1) were formulated for research question 1:

H0: There is no positive relationship between parental educational involvement and students' English proficiency.

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between parental educational involvement and students' English proficiency.

Research Methodology

Through the literature review and systematic analysis, a mixed-methods approach combining a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews was chosen for this study. A questionnaire survey was distributed to verify the relationship between parental educational involvement and the English proficiency of primary school students. Then, interviews were conducted to identify types of parental educational involvement and areas for improvement.

Participants

The study population comprised 200 sixth graders, aged 11-12, and their parents. The sample size was calculated based on Yamane's (1973) formula:

$$n = \frac{N}{1+Ne^2} = \frac{200}{1+200 \times 0.05^2} \approx 138$$

where *n* is the sample size, *N* is the population, and *e* (degree of error expected) was set to 0.05. Based on Yamane's Sample Size Table, 13 or 14 participants (10% of 138) would typically interviewed. However, as participants were categorized into the four levels A/B/C/D, four parents were randomly selected from each level, resulting in

The Relationship between Parental Educational Involvement and Chinese Primary School Students' English Proficiency

a sample size of 12. To ensure the authenticity of the parental interviews, 12 corresponding students and 3 teachers were also interviewed.

Research Instruments

English Language Proficiency Test

This study used the sixth-grade English test designed by the Education Bureau of Chengdu City in 2023 to assess the participants' English proficiency. The test contained reading, vocabulary, writing, listening, and grammar, had a maximum of 100 points. The students completed the test under classroom examination conditions, with a duration of 50 minutes, supervised by an English teacher. Scores were recorded in Excel and classified into levels A/B/C/D, as per the Double Reduction Policy. The division criteria are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Education Department Standard for Level Classification

Scores	100 - 85	84.5 - 70	69.5 - 60	Below 60	Mean
Level	A	B	C	D	
Number	24 (17.39%)	55 (39.86%)	39 (28.26%)	20 (14.49%)	71.64

Parental Educational Involvement Questionnaire

Because this study divided parental education into the two sub-categories of home literacy environment and school-based parental participation, the quantitative data was elicited through a survey questionnaire that combined and adapted Xiang's (2020) home literacy environment questionnaire and Song's (2019) parental educational involvement questionnaire.

To form the survey questionnaire, Xiang (2020) referred to the DeBaryshe (1995) Parental Reading Attitude Scale and the discussion of the Family Reading and Writing Activities from Weigel et al. (2006). Song (2019) was adapted based on the China Education Panel Survey (CEPS) and relevant questionnaires collected from a questionnaire website, which served as a significant reference.

The questionnaire consisted of three parts. The first part was basic details (7 items), including basic family information such as parents' education background, parents' occupation, and family economy. The second part covered information on the English home literacy environment (37 items). The goal of this part was to examine the

extent to which the home literacy environment, as a sub-category of parental educational involvement, related to the students' English proficiency. The third part addressed information on school-based parental educational involvement (13 items). The section mainly included interaction between parents and teachers, different parents' interaction, and parents' participation in school activities. The items aimed to examine the extent to which school-based parental participation, as a sub-category of parental educational involvement, related to the students' English proficiency.

This questionnaire scale adopted the scoring method of a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 point meaning strongly disagree, 2 points meaning disagree, 3 points meaning unsure, 4 points meaning agree, and 5 points meaning strongly agree.

Table 2

Dimensions of HLE-Based Parental Educational Involvement Questionnaire

	Dimension	Number of Questions	Distribution of Questionnaire Questions
I	English Learning Environment e.g. English books, English corner	3	1-3
II	Family Reading Atmosphere e.g. Parents' reading habits and frequency	2	4-5
III	Parents' Cognition of English Learning e.g. whether parents approve of children learning English	8	6-13
IV	Family English Literacy Activities e.g. English conversation, English games	5	14-18
V	Learning Supervision e.g. English homework supervision	6	19-24
VI	Parent-Child Companionship e.g. parent-child reading	6	25-30
VII	Parent-Child Outdoor Activities e.g. Go to the bookstore, go to the library	2	31-32
VIII	Parents' Expectations for their Children e.g. Expectations for children's English proficiency	5	33-37

Table 3

Dimensions of School-Based Parental Educational Involvement

Dimension	Number of Questions	Distribution of Questionnaire Questions
Contact and Communication with Teachers e.g. Proactively contact the teacher by phone or WeChat	5	1-5
Exchanging Parenting Experiences with Other Parents e.g. Proactively communicate parenting experience with other parents	3	6-8
Participation in School Activities e.g. Join parent-teacher meetings, school activities	5	9-13

Semi-Structured Interviews

The qualitative data were elicited through semi-structured interviews, adapting Song's (2019) method to interview 3 teachers, 12 students, and 12 parents, all come a primary school in Chengdu city. The semi-structured interview questions were divided into two forms: (1) student and parent interviews and (2) teacher interviews. Each part included seven questions to investigate the types of parental educational involvement and possible methods for improvement. The interview was intended to facilitate more specific communication with different participants, allowing for a deeper analysis and explanation of the questionnaire results. This approach was expected to yield findings that were more specialized, scientific, and credible.

Reliability and Validity

Cronbach's alpha was used as the reliability index, yielding a coefficient value of 0.968. For validity, KMO and Bartlett's test were employed, with the KMO value of 0.922, which is greater than 0.8. The results indicate that the overall reliability and validity of the questionnaire meet the research requirements. Two Chinese experts and one Thai expert were evaluated the content validity of the questionnaire, resulting in the final IOC scores of 0.92. The content validity of the semi-structured interview was also verified by the same three experts, with a level of 0.9. These results confirm that the overall reliability and validity of the questionnaire meets the research requirements.

Data Collection and Data Analysis

The electronic version of the questionnaire was distributed to 138 parents with a 100% completion rate. After data analysis and collation, the mean and standard deviation were calculated based on the predetermined criteria: Lowest 1.00-1.49; Low 1.50 -2.49; Moderate 2.50 -3.49; High 3.50-4. 49; and Highest 4.50-5.00. An independent-sample t-test was conducted for the binary question items, while the Test of Homogeneity of Variances and Welch's ANOVA were employed to analyze and compare demographic factors. The Pearson product moment correlation with two-tailed test was used to examine the relationship between parental educational involvement and primary school students' English proficiency. Finally, regression analysis was conducted to explore the influence of parental involvement on English proficiency.

Interviews were conducted with 12 corresponding parents, 12 students, and 3 teachers to verify the content through face-to-face conversations. After analyzing the interview transcripts, five categories were identified: （1）parents' attention to their children, (2) the frequency of parents-teacher communication, (3) the frequency of parents' participation in school activities, (4) the frequency of parental involvement in children's English learning, and (5) the frequency of parent-child interactions. Content analysis was coded and analyzed using Lichtman's 3 Cs Model (2013), which consists of three major steps: Codes, Categories, and Concepts.

Results

Research Result 1: The Relationship between Parental Educational Involvement and Students' English Proficiency

Research Result 1.1: Descriptive Statistical Analysis of HLE-Based vs. School-Based Parental Educational Involvement

To understand the current state of HLE-based parental educational involvement, this study calculated the mean value of the 37 items in each sample as the overall involvement level, based on the structure of HLE-based parental educational involvement. Similarly, the mean value of the items in each dimension was taken as the involvement level for that dimension. Parental educational involvement was evaluated based on these scores, with higher scores indicating higher levels of involvement. The total score and the scores for each dimension are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistical Analysis of HLE-Based Parental Educational Involvement

	N	Mean	SD
English Learning Environment	138	1.85	1.20
Family Reading Atmosphere	138	1.95	1.16
Parents' Cognition of English Learning	138	4.06	0.85
Family English Literacy Activities	138	2.29	1.12
Learning Supervision	138	2.50	1.28
Parent-Child Companionship	138	3.15	1.21
Parent-Child Outdoor Activities	138	2.53	1.31
Parents' Expectations for their Children	138	3.90	1.08
Overall Involvement Level	138	2.93	1.12

As shown in Table 4, the overall mean value of HLE-based parental educational involvement was 2.93, with a standard deviation of 1.12, indicating a moderate level. Among the various dimensions, parents' cognition of English learning (M=4.06，SD=0.85), parent-child companionship (M=3.15, SD=1.21), and parents' expectations for their children (M=3.90, SD=1.08) were higher than average. The remaining dimensions were below average, with the English learning environment (M=1.85, SD=1.20) showing the lowest mean score.

The analysis suggests that when parents participate in children's English learning, their awareness of English learning is relatively high. Most parents can provide their children with meaningful parent-child companionship and have high expectations for their children. However, there appears to be a lack of intellectual support, as there are fewer materials or activities related to English learning provided to children.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistical Analysis of School-Based Parental Educational Involvement

	N	Mean	SD
Contact and Communication with Teachers	138	3.89	0.95
Exchanging Parenting Experiences with Other Parents	138	2.66	1.04

The Relationship between Parental Educational Involvement and Chinese Primary School Students' English Proficiency

Participation in School Activities	138	2.88	1.02
Overall Involvement Level	138	3.27	1.05

As shown in Table 5, the overall mean value of school-based parental educational involvement was 3.27, with a standard deviation of 1.05, indicating a moderate level. Among the various dimensions, contact and communication with teachers (*M*=3.89, *SD*=0.95) was higher than average, while exchanging parenting experiences with other parents (*M*=2.66, *SD*=1.04) and participation in school activities (*M*=2.88, *SD*=1.02) were both lower than average.

Most of the parents seem likely to maintain good communication with schoolteachers when participating in children's English education. However, many parents do not seem to be very enthusiastic about participating in school activities or communicating with other parents, suggesting that these two areas still need improvement.

To investigate whether there are significant differences in parental involvement in education across different background variables, this study used an independent-sample t-test, Test of Homogeneity of Variances, and Welch analysis of variance to analyze demographic factors, such as whether the child is an only child, and the parents' education level and occupation.

The independent-sample t-test indicated that families with only one child showed a higher degree of parental educational involvement in the dimension of communication with teachers, at a p-value of 0.0076. After testing for homogeneity of variances (Sig.=.099>.05), Welch's ANOVA was used to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference in parental educational background and occupation. The results showed that Welch's F =16.984 and sig. value was 0.019 <0.05 when parents of different educational levels are involved in students' English learning. Similarly, the difference in parental occupation with Welch's F=8.904 and sig. = 0.015 <0.05 indicate that occupation is a significant factor. These results indicate that the parents' educational level and occupation significantly influence parental involvement in children's English learning.

Research Result 1.2: Correlation Analysis between Parental Educational Involvement and Primary School Students' English Proficiency

The researcher used the Pearson product moment correlation with two-tailed test to investigate the relationship between parental involvement in education and primary school students' English proficiency. The findings of the analysis are shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Bivariate Correlation Analysis between Parental Involvement in Education and Primary School Students' English Proficiency (N=138)

		Parental educational involvement	Students' English Proficiency
Parental educational involvement	Pearson Correlation	1	.489**
	Sig. (1-tailed)		.001
Students' English Proficiency	Pearson Correlation	.489**	1
	Sig. (1-tailed)	.001	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

As shown in Table 6, the correlation between parental involvement in education and primary school students' English proficiency was statistically and positively correlated at the 0.01 level, with a correlation coefficient of 0.489. Therefore, it can be concluded that the students with a higher level of parental educational involvement had a higher level of English proficiency.

To further investigate the influence of parental involvement on English proficiency, after examining correlation, a regression analysis was conducted using parental educational involvement and various dimensions as predictor variables, with English proficiency as the dependent variable.

Table 7

Regression Analysis of Parental educational involvement and Primary School Students' English Proficiency

Table 7A Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.854[a]	0.728	0.572	0.554

a. Predictors: Parental educational involvement

Table 7B ANOVAᵃ

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	71.688	50	1.434	4.669	<.001ᵇ
1	Residual	26.718	87	0.307		
	Total	98.406	137			

a. Dependent Variable: Students' English Proficiency
b. Predictors: Parental educational involvement

Table 7C   Coefficientsᵃ

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	0.4	0.646		0.62	0.005
	Parental educational involvement	0.015	0.117	0.019	0.130	0.000

Table 7B shows that there was a statistically significant result of p<0.001, consistent with the findings from the correlation analysis. The F-value was 4.669, indicating that the model from this regression analysis is statistically significant. The results in Table 7C show that b=0.015, with a constant of 0.4. Thus, the regression equation from this model analysis is:

[*Students' English Proficiency*] = 0.4 + 0.015* [*Parental educational involvement*].

The adjusted R-squared value, which represents the coefficient of determination in the regression analysis shown in Table 7A, was 0.572. This value, although not close to 1, indicates that parental educational involvement does have an affect students' English proficiency, though it is not a decisive factor.

Based on the results in Table 6 and 7, the null hypothesis H0: There is no positive relationship between parental educational involvement and students' English proficiency, was rejected. The alternative hypothesis H1: There is a significant positive relationship between parental educational involvement and students' English proficiency, was accepted.

Research Result 2 Types of Parental Educational Involvement that Chinese Parents Engage in with Their Children

This research question is mainly based on the results obtained from the interviews with the parents. The interviews with the students and teachers were conducted to verify the authenticity of the parents' responses; however, no analysis of student or teacher interviews is presented here.

Analysis of Parental Interviews

Based on the semi-structured interview, several forms of educational involvement were identified, such as reading with children, creating an English learning environment for children, and encouraging children to converse in English.

Of the seven interview questions for parents, five (Q2-Q6) were designed to elicit information on the kinds of parental educational involvement. A detailed analysis was conducted of these five questions, and the frequency of keyword occurrences in the responses was summarized.

Q2. *Do you usually tutor your child's English homework?*

Out of 12 parents, only four provided daily or regular tutoring of their children's English homework. Three of the children of these four parents had an English proficiency level of A, and one had a level of B. The remaining parents said they do not tutor children's homework.

Q3. *What parent-child activities do you usually engage in at home to improve your child's English proficiency?*

Among students with English proficiency levels of A or B, only one parent reported not engaging in parent-child activities to improve English proficiency. Parents of students with English proficiency levels of C and D did not engage in such activities.

The activities mentioned by those parents included: (1) helping children preview English text, (2) reading English books together, (3) cultivating a sense of the English language, (4) practicing speaking English, (5) watching English animations, (6) learning English alongside children, (7) practicing dialogues, (8) helping to memorize new words, (9) cultivating an interest in English, (10) role-playing, (11) playing word-guessing games, and (12) playing with English homophonic joke memes.

Q4. *Where do you usually take your child to expand their knowledge or broaden their horizons?*

All 12 parents affirmed that they take their children out to broaden their horizons or arrange tours and activities during their free time. Parents whose children with English proficiency levels of A and B preferred visiting libraries, science and technology museums, and exhibitions, watching plays and operas, doing handicrafts, exploring different cultures, or visiting university campuses to inspire future educational aspirations.

Q5. *Do you usually discuss educational methods with other parents?*

Among the 12 parents, only three in Group D reported not having time to communicate with other parents, while the parents in the other groups expressed a willingness to communicate with other parents.

Q6. *Do you often communicate with your child?*

Among the 12 parents, three in Group D reported limited communication with their children due to work commitments. Other parents said they communicated frequently, although some expressed difficulty in doing so effectively. Some parents noted that their children sometimes exhibited impatience, resulting in poor communication effectiveness.

Keyword Analysis

The responses to these five questions were analyzed and summarized based on the frequency of keywords using Lichtman's 3 Cs Model (2013), which consists of three major steps: Codes, Categories, Concepts. As illustrated in Table 8, there were five categories.

Table 8

<u>Concepts</u>: *Types of Parental Involvement from Parents' Perspective*

Codes / Keywords	Categories	Concepts
1) Tutoring English homework 2) Previewing the English text 3) Answering questions that were not understood in class	Tutoring English Homework 4 (or 12%)	Educational involvement based on the Home Literacy Environment (HLE)

1) Read English books together 2) Cultivate English language sense 3) Practice English speaking with the child 4) Watch English animations 5) Learn English with children 6) Practice dialogues in the texts 7) Help to remember new words 8) Cultivate learning interest in English 9) Play role-playing 10) Word guessing games 11) Playing some English homo-phonic memes.	Involvement in Children's English Learning Activities at Home 5 (or 15%)	
1) Communication on learning status 2) Communication about daily life	Communication 9 (or 27%)	
1) Contact the teachers 2) Participate in school events e.g. parent meetings, sports events, and school opening ceremonies 3) Communicate with other parents of students	Educational Involvement based on School Activities 9 (or 27%)	Educational involvement based on outdoor activities
1) Take children to libraries 2) Take children to science and technology museums, 3) Take children to exhibitions 4) Watch some plays and operas 5) Do handicrafts 6) Take children to travel 7) Take children to visit different university campuses	Educational Involvement Parent-Child Outdoor Activities 6 (or 19%)	
Total	33 (100%)	

The Relationship between Parental Educational Involvement and Chinese Primary School Students' English Proficiency

Discussion

The findings of this study reveal the challenges associated with parental educational involvement under the Double Reduction Policy. This policy shift has prompted many parents to rely less on schools and tutoring centers, becoming more actively involved in their children's education. The family serves as the primary learning environment, and parents play a crucial role in student education. This study's findings identified a positive correlation between parental educational involvement and students' English proficiency.

At present, although Chinese parents understand the importance of educational involvement, there remains areas for improvement due to factors such as cultural level, occupation, family economic foundation, and social influences. To increase the parents' education involvement, cooperation among schools, society, and families is essential.

Limitations of the Study

1. <u>Limited sample size</u>: Due to the strict regulations on student privacy, only one school was selected for this study, which limits the generalizability of the findings.

2. <u>Lack of cooperation</u>: Privacy concerns, such as students' family backgrounds (e.g., single-parent status), impacted the willingness of some parents to participate fully in the research.

3. <u>The research conclusion is relatively weak</u>: Since there is no previous study examining the impact of parental involvement on English proficiency prior to the Double Reduction Policy, there is no similar study to compare it with. Had such a study been previously undertaken, the problem analysis and strategy proposals of the current study could have been more targeted.

Recommendations

1) Innovate parental involvement in school management

Schools should help parents understand the school's current needs and organize regular parent-teacher meetings. Encourage parents to join family committees and recognize those who actively participate. By including parents in significant decisions impacting students, schools can foster a sense of shared responsibility and increase parents' future involvement in school activities.

2) Increase parental engagement and proactive communication with teachers

Parents should view themselves not only as their children's educators but also as active participants in school activities and decision-making processes. Instead of taking

a passive role, parents can engage in democratic participation by actively reaching out to teachers. This collaboration allows parents to understand their roles and responsibilities in their children's English learning, including how to supervise and support their progress. Parents should also participate in school activities, improve their own English skills, reflect on their teaching methods, and make adjustments as needed.

3) Enhance parental engagement

Parents should continuously strive to improve their educational approaches. Participating in educational and training activities organized by schools, communities, social education institutions, can provide valuable insights from experts. Reading materials on adolescent development, family-based English teaching, and other relevant topics can enhance their educational and language skills. Parents may also use online channels to connect with other parents, form support groups, and exchange strategies for addressing challenges in English learning. This effort can build a supportive network for both parents and students.

Authors

Yichun Hu is a student in the M.Ed. Program in Bilingual Education and English Language Teaching, Suryadhep Teachers College, Rangsit University.

Sumalee Chinokul, **Ph.D.** is Associate Professor at Suryadhep Teachers College, Rangsit University, and also serves as Vice-chairman of the IRB2 of Chulalongkorn University. Her research focuses on English language teacher education, English for Specific Purposes, Classroom-based assessment and research in English language Instruction.

References

Burgess, S. R., Hecht, S. A., & Lonigan, C. J. (2002). Relations of the home literacy environment (HLE) to the development of reading-related abilities: A one-year longitudinal study. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *37*(4), 408–426. https://doi.org/10.1598/rrq.37.4.4

Cao, L. Q. (2020). *Jiātíng huánjìng duì xiǎoxuéshēng Yīngyǔ xuéxí xiàoguǒ de yǐngxiǎng fēnxī jí duìcè* [Analysis and countermeasures of the impact of family environment on English learning effectiveness of primary school students]. *Dāngdài Jiātíng Jiàoyù* [Contemporary Family Education], *2020*(21), 14.

Chi, J., & Rao, N. (2003). Parental beliefs about school learning and children's educational attainment: Evidence from rural China. *Ethos*, *31*(3), 330–356. https://doi.org/10.1525/eth.2003.31.3.330

China Institute of Education and Social Development. (2022, March 2). *Běijīng Shīfàn Dàxué Zhōngguó Jiàoyù yǔ Shèhuì Fāzhǎn Yánjiūyuàn zhàokāi "shuāng jiǎn" chéngxiào diàochá zuòtán huì* [Beijing Normal University China Institute of Education and Social Development held a symposium on the effectiveness of "Double Reduction" policy]. https://news.bnu.edu.cn/zx/zhxw/126713.htm

China Youth Daily. (2020a, May 31). *2020 Értóng guānchá bàogào: "Wǒ xīwàng bà mā xiàbān bù chídào"* [2020 Children's observation report: "I hope my parents won't be late for work"]. https://baijiahao.baidu.com/s?id=1668196162037325458&wfr=spider&for=pc

China Youth Daily. (2020b, August 31). *Bǎituō bù liǎo de kèwài bān* [Irregular extracurricular classes]. https://baijiahao.baidu.com/s?id=1676486711141080394&wfr=spider&for=pc

Cooper, H., Lindsay, J. J., & Nye, B. (2000). Homework in the home: How student, family, and parenting-style differences relate to the homework process. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, *25*(4), 464–487. https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.1999.1036

DeBaryshe, B. D. (1995). Maternal belief systems: Linchpin in the home reading process. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, *16*(1), 1–20. https://doi.org/10.1016/0193-3973(95)90013-6

Driessen, G., Smit, F., & Sleegers, P. (2005). Parental involvement and educational achievement. *British Educational Research Journal*, *31*(4), 509–532. https://doi.org/10.1080/01411920500148713

Epstein, J. L., & Dauber, S. L. (1991). School programs and teacher practices of parent involvement in inner-city elementary and middle schools. *The Elementary School Journal*, *91*(3), 289–305. https://doi.org/10.1086/461656

Evans, M. A., Shaw, D., & Bell, M. (2000). Home literacy activities and their influence on early literacy skills. *Canadian Journal of Experimental Psychology*, *54*(2), 65–75. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0087330

Feng, G. (2012). *Jiāzhǎng cānyù értóng Yīngyǔ jiàoyù de shíjiàn yánjiū* [Practical research on parental participation in children's English education]. *Xuéshēng zhī yǒu (xiǎoxué bǎn)* [Friends of Students (Primary School Edition)], *2012*(09), 49.

Feng, Y. H. (2016). *Péiyăng wényì nénglì, tígāo shùxué sùyăng* [Cultivate questioning ability and improve mathematical literacy]. *Survey of Education*, *2016*(11), 64–75. https://doi.org/10.16070/j.cnki.cn45-1388/g4zx.2016.22.030

Fu, J. J. (2023). *Dāngqián jiātíng jiàoyù de zhòngyàoxìng jí fùmŭ juānrù duìcè* [The importance of current family education and countermeasures for parental involvement]. *Industrial & Science Tribune*, *2023*(18), 107–108.

Fu, Y. (2006). *Értóng yŭ chéngrén xí de dì-èr yŭyán de chāyì fēnxī* [An analysis of the differences between children and adults in second language acquisition]. *Journal of Panzhihua University*, *23*(5), 75–77. https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1672-0563.2006.05.022

Gao, X. N. (2019). *Jiāxiào gòngyù: biāozhŭn kùnjìng yŭ túpò lùjìng* [Family and school joint education: Standards, challenges, and breakthrough paths]. *Jīchŭ Jiàoyù Yánjiū* [Basic Education Research], *2019*(12), 86–87. https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1002-3275.2019.12.049

Gao, X. S. (2006). Strategies used by Chinese parents to support English language learning: Voices of 'elite' university students. *RELC Journal*, *37*(3), 285–298. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688206071302

General Office of the Communist Party of China Central Committee and the General Office of the State Council. (2021). *Zhōng gòng zhōng yāng bàn gōng tīng guó wù yuàn bàn gōng tīng yìn fā guān yú jìn yī bù jiăn qīng yì wù jiào yù jiē duàn xué shēng zuò yè fù dān hé xiào wài péi xùn fù dān de yì jiàn* [The opinions on further reducing the homework burden and off campus training burden of students in compulsory education]. https://www.gov.cn/zhengce/2021-07/24/content_5627132.htm

Grolnick, W. S., & Slowiaczek, M. L. (1994). Parents' involvement in children's schooling: A multidimensional conceptualization and motivational model. *Child Development*, *65*(1), 237–252. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8624.1994.tb00747.x

Hewison, J., & Tizard, J. (1980). Parental involvement and reading attainment. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *50*(3), 209–215. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8279.1980.tb00803.x

Hu, Q. H. (2020). *Jiā xiào hé zuò duì tí gāo chū zhōng shēng sī zhèng jiào yù de shí xiào xìng tàn jiū* [Exploring the effectiveness of home school cooperation in improving ideological and political education for junior high school students]. [Master's thesis, Hunan University].

Huang, H. Q. (2008). *Jiā xiào hé zuò dǎo lùn* [Introduction to home-school cooperation]. East China Normal University Press.

Huang, X. Y. (2023). *"Shuāng jiǎn" bèi jǐng xià xiǎo xué jiā xiào hé zuò de cè lǜ yán jiū* [Research on the strategy of primary school home school cooperation under the background of "Double Reduction"]. [Master's thesis, Southwest University].

Jia, H. M. (2016). *Qián tàn chū zhōng shēng jiā cháng rú hé yìng zào jiā tíng yīng yǔ xué xí huán jìng* [How to create a home English learning environment for middle school students' parents]. *Ji lin jiao yu* [Jilin Education], *2016*(30), 101.

Johnson, J. S., & Newport, E. L. (1989). Critical period effects in second language learning: The influence of maturational state on the acquisition of English as a second language. *Cognitive Psychology*, *21*(1), 60–99. https://doi.org/10.1016/0010-0285(89)90003-0

Kang, S. H. (2022). *Fu mu jiao yu juan ru hang wei dui xiao xue sheng yue du su yang de guan xi yan jiu* [Research on the relationship between parental education involvement behavior and primary school students' reading literacy]. [Master's thesis, Northeast Normal University].

Kim, K. H. S., Relkin, N. R., Lee, K. M., & Hirsch, J. (1997). Distinct cortical areas associated with native and second languages. *Nature*, *388*(6638), 171–174. https://doi.org/10.1038/40623

Lei, C. H. (2014). *Èr yǔ (wài yǔ) xī de guān jiàn qī nèi wài de yǔ yán xué xí cè lǜ shǐ yòng xìng* [Applicability of language learning strategies during and outside the critical period of second language (foreign language) acquisition]. *Overseas English*, *2014*(20), 32–34.

Lenneberg, E. H. (1967). The biological foundations of language. *Hospital Practice*, *2*(12), 59–67. https://doi.org/10.1080/21548331.1967.11707799

Lichtman, M. (2013). *Qualitative research in education: A user's guide* (3rd ed.). SAGE Publications.

Lin, H. X. (2022). *Xiào wài péi xùn zhì lǐ mài chū jiàn shì yī bù* [A solid step has been taken in the governance of off campus training]. *China Education Daily*. https://baijiahao.baidu.com/s?id=1726080895209218400&wfr=spider&for=pc

Lin, S. (2023). *Rú hé tí shēng xiǎo xué shēng yīng yǔ xué xí néng lì* [How to improve the English learning ability of primary school students]. *Dú xiě suàn* [Reading, Writing, and Calculating], *2023*(27), 149–151.

The Relationship between Parental Educational Involvement and Chinese Primary School Students' English Proficiency

Liu, H. D., & Li, M. Y. (2022). *Jiā tíng dú xiě huán jìng yǔ ér tóng jiē shòu xìng cí huì fā zhǎn guān xì de yuán fēn xī* [Associations between home literacy environment and children's receptive vocabulary: A meta-analysis]. *Advances in Psychological Science*, *30*(3), 556–579. https://doi.org/10.3724/SP.J.1042.2022.00556

Liu, M. (2012). *Qián yì èr yǔ xī de líng yù yǔ yán xué xí guān jiàn qī* [A brief discussion on the key period of language learning in the field of second language acquisition]. *Kē jì xīn xī* [Science and Technology Information], *2012*(22), 150.

Liu, Y. J., Zhang, J. S., & Li, L. Q. (2024) *"Shuāng jiǎn" bèi jǐng xià jiā xiào shè xié tóng gòng yǔ yán jiū cè lüè* [Research strategies for collaborative education between families, schools, and communities under the background of "Double Reduction" policy]. *Intelligence*, *2024*(9), 105–108.

Long, X. Z. (2023). *Xìn xī jì shù kāi qǐ xiǎo xué yīng yǔ tīng shuō jiào xué xīn jú miàn* [Information technology opens a new situation in primary school English listening and speaking teaching]. *Dú xiě suàn* [Reading, Writing, and Calculating], *2023*(24), 30–32.

Lu, S. H. (2013). *Yīng yǔ xué kùn shēng de jiā tíng jiào yù chéng yīn fēn xī jí yìng duì cè lüè* [Analysis of the causes and countermeasures of family education for English learning difficulties students]. *Xīn kè chéng* [New Curriculum], *2013*(3), 8–9.

Ma, K. (2023). *Xiǎo xué shēng yīng yǔ xué xí xìng qù péi yǎng cè lüè* [Strategies for cultivating interest in English learning for primary school students]. *English on Campus*, *2023*(49), 166–168.

Ma, W. (2013). *Yīng yǔ kè wài fǔ dǎo bān duì xiǎo xué shēng yīng yǔ xué xí yǐng xiǎng de yán jiū* [Research on the impact of English extracurricular counseling classes on primary school students' English learning]. *Overseas English*, *2013*(12), 26–27.

Mason, J. M. (1980). When do children begin to read: An exploration of four year old children's letter and word reading competencies. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *15*(2), 203–227. https://doi.org/10.2307/747325

Mei, H., Wang, X., & Si, R. Y. (2019). *Xī bù nóng cūn jiā tíng fù mǔ jiào yù juàn rù xiàn zhuàng jí chéng xiào: Jī yú Shǎn xī shěng Níng qiāng xiàn 4643 fēn shù jù de shí zhèng yán jiū* [The current situation and effectiveness of parental education involvement in western rural families: An empirical study based on 4643 data from Ningqiang County, Shanxi Province]. *Journal of Northwest*

The Relationship between Parental Educational Involvement and Chinese Primary School Students' English Proficiency

A&F University (Social Sciences Edition), *19*(2), 65–73. https://doi.org/10.13968/j.cnki.1009-9107.2019.02.08

Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China. (2001a, January 18). *Jiào yù bù guān yú jī jí tuī jìn xiǎo xué kāi shè yīng yǔ kè chéng de zhǐ dǎo yì jiàn* [Guiding opinions of the Ministry of Education on actively promoting the offering of English curriculum in primary schools]. https://www.gov.cn/govweb/gongbao/content/2001/content_61196.htm

Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China. (2001b, November 19). *Jiào yù bù guān yú yìn fā yì wù jiào yù kè chéng shè zhì shí yàn fāng àn de tōng zhī* [Experimental plan for compulsory education curriculum setting]. http://www.moe.gov.cn/srcsite/A26/s7054/200111/t20011119_88602.html

Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China. (2021, July 24). *Zhōng gòng zhōng yāng bàn gōng tīng guó wù yuàn bàn gōng tīng yìn fā guān yú jìn yī bù jiǎn qīng yì wù jiào yù jiē duàn xué shēng zuò yè fù dān hé xiào wài péi xùn fù dān de yì jiàn* [Opinions on further reducing the homework burden and extracurricular training burden of students in compulsory education stage]. http://www.moe.gov.cn/jyb_xxgk/moe_1777/moe_1778/202107/t20210724_546576.html

Peng, J. F. (2019). *Fù mǔ qī wàng zhì duì yòu ér xìng gé fā zhǎn de yán jiū* [A study on the influence of parental expectations on the personality development of preschoolers]. *Prose Hundred*, *2019*(04),142.

Peng, R. H., & Shi, S. S. (2023). *Shuāng jiǎn zhèng cè qū dòng xià jiā cháng duì yán xué lǚ yóu gòu mǎi yì yuán de yǐng xiǎng yīn sù yán jiū* [Research on the influencing factors of parents' willingness to purchase graduate school tourism under the Double Reduction Policy]. *Jingchu Academic Journal*, *24*(5), 62–70+89. https://doi.org/10.14151/j.cnki.jcxk.2023.05.018

Peng, X., & Shen, X. Y. (2016). *Xiǎo xué shēng yīng yǔ kè wài fǔ dǎo de gè àn yán jiū: Jī yú yī wèi xiǎo xué shēng de kǒu shù* [A case study on extracurricular English counseling for primary school students: Based on an oral statement from a primary school student]. *Time Education*, *2016*(18), 12.

Puglisi, M. L., Hulme, C., Hamilton, L. G., & Snowling, M. J. (2017). The home literacy environment is a correlate, but perhaps not a cause, of variations in children's language and literacy development. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *21*(6), 498–514. https://doi.org/10.1080/10888438.2017.1346660

Robinson, P. (1994). Comments on Rod Ellis's "The Structural Syllabus and Second Language Acquisition". Implicit Knowledge, Second Language Learning, and

Syllabus Construction. *TESOL Quarterly*, *28*(1), 161–166. https://doi.org/10.2307/3587205

Sénéchal, M. (1997). The differential effect of storybook reading on preschoolers' acquisition of expressive and receptive vocabulary. *Journal of Child Language*, *24*(1), 123–138. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0305000996003005

Shi, X. M. (2023). *"Shuāng jiǎn" zhèng cè xià xiǎo xué zhōng gāo nián jí xué shēng jiā tíng qīn zǐ guān xì xiàn zhuàng yán jiū* [A study on the current situation of parent-child relations in families of middle and senior primary school students under the "Double Reduction" policy]. [Master's thesis, Tianjin Normal University].

Song, B. (2010). *Chū zhōng shēng fù mǔ juān rù yǔ chéng jiù mù biāo dìng xiàng kǎo shì jiāo lǜ xué yè chéng jī de guān xì* [The relationship between parental involvement of junior high school students and achievement goal orientation, exam anxiety, and academic achievement]. [Master's thesis, Hebei Normal University].

Song, L. Q. (2019). *Xiǎo xué fù mǔ jiào yù juān rù lèi xíng jí duì cè yán jiū* [Research on the types and countermeasures of primary school parental education involvement]. [Master's thesis, Qufu Normal University].

Song, M., & Jiang, X. Y. (2023). *"Shuāng jiǎn" zhèng cè xià jiā zhǎng yōu xiào xiàn jiě jiào yù jiāo lǜ xiàn xiàng de shū jiě yǔ zhì cuò* [Understanding and control of parents' anxiety phenomena in the education of the transition from kindergartens to primary schools under the "Double Reduction" policy]. *Basic Education Research*, *2023*(15), 81–85.

Su, X. L., & Wei, W. X. (2019). *Jiā xiào hé zuò de zhòng yào xìng jí cè lüè* [The importance and strategies of home school cooperation]. *Gansu Education*, *2019*(10), 42.

Swinson, J. (1985). A parental involvement project in nursery school. *Educational Psychology in Practice*, *1*(1), 19–22. https://doi.org/10.1080/0266736850010105

Wang, J. X., & Guo, C. (2023). *Fù mǔ jiào yù juàn rù yǔ qīng shào nián xīn lǐ fā zhǎn de guān xì jí jiàn yì* [The relationship and suggestions between parental education involvement and adolescent psychological development]. *Mental Health Education in Primary and Secondary School*, *2023*(32), 4–7. https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1671-2684.2023.32.003

The Relationship between Parental Educational Involvement and Chinese Primary School Students' English Proficiency

Weigel, D. J., Martin, S. S., & Bennett, K. K. (2006). Contributions of the home literacy environment to preschool-aged children's emerging literacy and language skills. *Early Child Development and Care*, *176*(3–4), 357–378. https://doi.org/10.1080/03004430500063747

Weinberger, J. (1996). A longitudinal study of children's early literacy experiences at home and later literacy development at home and school. *Journal of research in Reading*, *19*(1), 14–24. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9817.1996.tb00083.x

Whitehurst, G. J., Falco, F. L., Lonigan, C. J., Fischel, J. E., DeBaryshe, B. D., Valdez-Menchaca, M. C., & Caulfield, M. (1988). Accelerating language development through picture book reading. *Developmental psychology*, *24*(4), 552. https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.24.4.552

Wu, B. Q. (2016). *Guān jiàn shí qī jiā shuō duì ér tóng yǔ yán jiào yù de qǐ shì* [The enlightenment of critical period hypothesis on children's language education]. *Journal of Lanzhou Institute of Education*, *2016*(11), 173–174. https://doi.org/10.3969/j.issn.1008-5823.2016.11.072

Wu, Y. F., Han, X. H., Wei, W., & Luo, L. (2013). *Xiǎo xué shēng fù mǔ jiào yù juàn rù xíng wéi lǐ lùn mó xíng de jiàn gòu yǔ yán zhèng* [Construction and verification of the theory model of parental education involvement in primary school students]. *Journal of Beijing Normal University (Social Sciences)*, *2013*(1), 61–69.

Xiang, S. T. (2020). *Jiā tíng dú xiě huán jìng yǔ dà bàn yòu ér wén zì yì shí fā zhǎn de guān xì* [The relationship between family reading and writing environment and the development of writing awareness in preschool children]. [Master's thesis, Chongqing Normal University].

Yamane, T. (1973). *Statistics: an introductory analysis* (3rd ed.). Harper & Row, New York, Evanston & London and John Weatherhill, Inc., Tokyo.

Yang, G. X. (2014). *Yíng zào zhōng xiǎo xué shēng jiā tíng yīng yǔ xué xí liáng hǎo huán jìng* [Create a family English learning environment of primary and middle school students]. *Journal of Jiamusi Education Institute*, *2014*(2), 283.

Yang, Q. (2021) *"Shuāng jiǎn" bèi jǐng xià zhōng xiǎo xué zuò yè gǎi jìn yán jiū* [Research on homework improvement in primary and secondary schools under the background of "Double Reduction" policy]. *Journal of The Chinese Society of Education*, *2021*(12), 6–10.

Yang, Q. (2023). *Bèi chuān qiāng zú zì zhì xiàn nóng cūn xiǎo xué "Shuāng Jiǎn" zhèng cè zhí xíng kùn jìng jí duì cè yán jiū* [Research on the implementation

The Relationship between Parental Educational Involvement and Chinese Primary School Students' English Proficiency

challenges and countermeasures of the "Double Reduction" policy in rural primary schools in Beichuan Qiang Autonomous County]. [Master's thesis, Sichuan Normal University].

Yang, T. (2020). *Jiā xiào hé zuò xiàn dài huà de yōu huà lù jìng tàn suǒ* [Exploration of optimization path for modernization of home school cooperation]. *Survey of Education*, *9*(47), 75–77. https://doi.org/10.16070/j.cnki.cn45-1388/g4s.2020.47.026

Yong, G. (2023). *Xiǎo xué shēng yīng yǔ xué xí xìng qù péi yǎng cè lüè tàn xī* [Analysis of strategies for cultivating interest in English learning for primary school students]. *Journal of Seeking Knowledge Guide*, *2023*(29), 8–10. https://doi.org/10.14161/j.cnki.qzdk.2023.29.004

You, H. Q. (2018). *Qiān xī nóng cūn dì qū xiǎo xué shēng yīng yǔ kè wài fǔ dǎo de xiàn zhuàng* [Analysis of the current situation of English extracurricular counseling for primary school students in rural areas]. *The Farmers Consultant*, *2018*(01), 161.

Zellman, G. L., & Waterman, J. M. (1998). Understanding the impact of parent school involvement on children's educational outcomes. *The Journal of Educational Research*, *91*(6), 370–380. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220679809597566

Zhang, J. M., & Hua, D. S. (2019). *Jiā tíng shè huì huán jìng duì xiǎo xué shēng yīng yǔ xué xí de yǐng xiǎng* [The influence of family and social environment on English learning of primary school students]. *Gansu Education*, *2019*(19), 123.

Zhang, L. J. (2024). *Kè wài bǔ xì néng tí gāo xué shēng de xué yè chéng jì ma?: Jī yú 21 xiàng shí zhèng yán jiū de yuán fèn xī* [Can extracurricular tutoring improve students' academic performance: Meta analysis based on 21 empirical studies]. *Journal of China Examination*, *2024*(4), 91–102. https://doi.org/10.19360/j.cnki.11-3303/g4.2024.04.010

Zhang, Y., Zhang, X., & Liu, W. Q. (2021). *Yì wù jiào yù jiē duàn xué shēng jiǎn fù bèi hòu de gōng xū kùn jìng yǔ huà jiě* [The supply-demand dilemma and resolution behind reducing the burden on students in compulsory education]. *Journal of The Chinese Society of Education*, *2021*(9), 27–32.

Zou, X. T. (2013). *Nóng cūn chū zhōng yīng yǔ jiā tíng xué xí huán jìng yōu huà cè lüè yán jiū* [Research on optimization strategies for rural junior high school English family learning environment]. *English Journal for Middle School Students*, *2013*(31), 61–63.

The Relationship between Parental Educational Involvement and Chinese Primary School Students' English Proficiency

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

Pratabjai Tatsanajamsuk

English Department

Kamphaeng Phet Rajabhat University, Thailand.

Abstract

This study investigates the frequency and patterns of persuasive metadiscourse in the discussion sections of 107 research articles indexed by Scopus and the Thai-Journal Citation Index (TCI). Using an adapted version of Hyland's (2005a) metadiscoursal markers, the study examined their roles in enhancing persuasiveness. The results show that Scopus journals use more persuasive metadiscoursal markers than TCI journals, especially in interactive markers (code glosses, transitions, frames, and endophoric markers) except evidentials. Scopus journals feature more hedges, self-mentions, attitude markers, and boosters in interactional markers, while TCI journals favor engagement markers. Persuasive patterns differ between the two corpora. Scopus journals prioritize concise references and empirical evidence, adhering to international standards and theoretical exploration. TCI journals, however, emphasize authors' roles and explanatory content, reflecting regional standards. The study highlights disparities in audience expectations and academic traditions using ethos, pathos, and logos, revealing distinct academic conventions and standards and enriching the understanding of international research practices.

Keywords: Persuasive metadiscoursal markers; audience expectations; academic traditions; Scopus journals; TCI journals

Introduction

Using persuasive techniques in research articles (RAs) can enhance their chances of acceptance in academic publications. Previous studies (Dogan-Ucar & Akbas, 2022; Šandová, 2021) focused on persuasive writing in research abstracts and introductions. However, this study shifts to the discussion section for several reasons. First, argumentation in academic journal publications remains under investigation (Arizavi et al., 2023). Second, the discussion is key to convincing readers of the research's validity and suitability for publication (Flowerdew, 1999). Lastly, discussion writing is often

more difficult, especially for English-published journals (Moreno, 2022). Therefore, the discussion should be persuasive rather than merely objective.

Persuasion is increasingly studied across human science disciplines, primarily from a pragmatic linguistic perspective (Rohr, 2018). All language forms are inherently persuasive (Miller, 2015). Establishing a close relationship between writer and reader is key when achieving a specific rhetorical objective (Izquierdo & Blanco, 2023). Metadiscourse is used to enhance the persuasiveness of text (Hyland, 2017). Given the importance of persuasion, it is essential to explore how it is achieved.

Writing RAs should relate to the "marketization of academic discourse and the promotional nature of research" (Jiang & Hyland, 2023, p. 26), a trend researchers should critically examine. This study utilizes Hyland's (2005a) metadiscoursal markers to understand persuasiveness in RA discussions, highlighting their role in reflecting academic conventions and community expectations within English academic discourse. Hyland's (2005a) model was chosen due to its extensive use in academic writing (Deng et al., 2021) and established categories (Thompson, 2008).

The comparison between Scopus and the Thai-Journal Citation Index (TCI) highlights significant differences in citation frequency and impact. Scopus articles receive an average of 10.4 citations per publication, while TCI articles receive only one, ten times fewer (Kitjaroonchai & Maywald, 2023). This large gap emphasizes the importance of comparing these two corpora. Scopus journals have gained popularity in Thailand, with a 12%–15% annual increase in international publications between 2020 and 2022 (Nguyen & Tuamsuk, 2024). In the era of academic metrics, citation counts directly affect university rankings, making high-quality journal publishing crucial (Paphawasit & Wudhikarn, 2022). This study recommends how TCI can meet Scopus standards by examining the frequency and variation of persuasive metadiscoursal devices across both corpora. Understanding these patterns may reveal how persuasive language in RA discussions works. Comparing the corpora may show whether adopting Scopus-published strategies could enhance the international visibility of regional research. The investigation addresses two research questions:

1. What is the frequency of metadiscoursal markers used in the discussion sections of Scopus and TCI articles?

2. What metadiscoursal patterns appear in the discussion sections of Scopus and TCI articles?

Literature Review

This study applied three theoretical frameworks: metadiacourse, persuasion theory, and contrastive analyses of Scopus and TCI journals.

Metadiscourse

Hyland (1998) clarified that metadiscourse is a textual feature that helps writers guide readers and project professionalism, which is essential for persuasive writing. Hyland and Tse (2004) noted that a text's meaning stems from how it discusses and represents real-world experiences, making it relatable and persuasive to a specific audience. This study adopted Hyland's (2005a) metadiscoursal framework (see Table 1). A literature review revealed missing items in Hyland's (2005a) list, leading to the inclusion of word lists from Amnuai et al. (2023), Hyland and Jiang (2022), Sirijanchuen (2017), and Cao and Hu (2014). This framework comprises two categories: interactive (transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials, code glosses) and interactional (hedges, boosters, attitude markers, engagement markers, self-mentions).

Table 1

Taxonomy of Metadiscourse in Academic Texts

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive resources guide the reader's interpretations.		
Transitions	- Show logical connections: addition, contrast, consequence.	in addition/and/moreover/ furthermore/additionally/also/by the way/but/ however/in contrast/on the contrary/on the other hand/ thus/therefore/ consequently/so that/in order to/ similarly/likewise /equally/in the same way/ admittedly/nevertheless/ correspondingly
Frame markers	- Organize structure: sequence, goals, topic shifts.	first/second/then/next/at the same time/finally/to conclude/ my purpose is/the paper purposes/I argue here/I hope to persuade/to sum up/to summarize/in sum/
Endophoric markers	- Reference earlier materials for clarification.	noted above/see Fig/in section X/earlier/as demonstrated in Excerpt 3
Evidentials	- Cite external sources to strengthen arguments.	according to X/Z states/based on/as Y argued /in Z's study/"..." (X, 2013)/...previous research [1, 2, 3]

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

Category	Function	Examples
Code glosses	- Clarify meaning by restating or elaborating.	namely/e.g./such as/in other words/for instance/ i.e./for example/called/ specifically/that means/ indeed/that is/this can be defined as

Interactional resources interact with the reader and reflect the writer's stance.

Category	Function	Examples
Hedges	- Show uncertainty or plausible reasoning.	might/perhaps/possible/ about/ may/ quite/rather/ appear/could be/likely/ tend to/seem to be/ unclear/ expect
Boosters	- Emphasize certainty to strengthen claims.	in fact/definitely/it is clear that/ confirm/clearly/ obviously/ reveal/ evident/ undoubtedly/prove/ sure/ truly
Attitude markers	- Express the writer's view: surprise, agreement, importance, obligation, frustration, etc.	unfortunately/I agree/ prefer/ surprisingly/ hopefully/logical/good/ appropriate/remarkable/ interesting/ amazing/ crucial/critical/useful/ significantly/important/ necessary/ effective/strong/essential/ meaningful/ significant
Engagement markers	- Engage the reader using direct address or imperatives.	consider/note/you can see that/ you/your/you may notice
Self-mentions	- Refer to the author explicitly using first-person pronouns.	I/we /my /me/our/ours/ the researcher

Note. Adapted from Hyland (2005a), Amnuai et al. (2023), Hyland and Jiang (2022), Sirijanchuen (2017), and Cao and Hu (2014).

Persuasion Theory

Metadiscoursal research emphasizes persuasion, aiming to influence others' actions, emotions, intentions, or perspectives through linguistic communication (Lakoff, 1982). A persuasive argument involves language choices, argument structures, and persuasive techniques (Hyland, 2005a). Language choices reflect linguistic styles and themes; argument structures pertain to genre organization; and persuasive techniques—ethos, pathos, and logos—originate from Aristotle.

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

Ethos

Ethos appeals to the writer's credibility and trustworthiness (Shen, 2014), persuading the reader of the writer's expertise. Writers establish *ethos* by showcasing credentials, aligning with audience values, or presenting an admirable persona. In metadiscourse, *ethos* involves constructing credibility and authority within the text (Hyland, 2005a). Hedges, boosters, and self-mentions strengthen the writer's authority in discourse (Giordano & Marongiu, 2020).

Pathos

Pathos engages emotions to elicit desired reactions (Aristotle, 1954). It aims to stir readers' emotions to achieve persuasion (Varpio, 2018). Attitude and engagement markers decrease the psychological distance between the writer and the reader, enhancing emotional appeal (AlJazrawi & AlJazrawi, 2021). In metadiscourse, *pathos* strategically evokes emotions to make an argument more persuasive.

Logos

Logos appeals to logic and reason by using rational arguments (Miller & Charney, 2007). It employs logical reasoning and common sense, requiring less formal evidence to persuade (Higgins & Walker, 2012). In metadiscourse, *logos* employs clear, logical arguments, cites data, and follows a coherent structure. Writers employ frame markers and transitions to enhance flow and clarity, helping readers navigate the text (Hyland, 1998, 2005a). Techniques such as signposting and evidence support *logos*, ensuring logical relationships (Hyland & Jiang, 2022).

Contrastive Analyses of Scopus- and TCI-Indexed Journals

Scopus is a globally recognized abstract and citation database curated by independent experts through a continuous review process that evaluates the global impact of journals that are recognized leaders in their fields (Elsevier, n.d.). In contrast, TCI focuses on national journals to assess Thailand's research performance and guide policy and research directions within the country (Thai-Journal Citation Index, n.d.). Although both are qualified platforms, they differ in audience expectations and academic traditions.

In this study, audience expectations refer to readers' anticipations regarding the content. Scopus targets a global audience seeking high-quality, scientifically sound research applicable across international contexts (Pranckutė, 2021). TCI caters to a national audience, focusing on practical, locally relevant research that addresses specific regional issues pertinent to Thailand's academic and policy needs (Jaroongkhongdach et al., 2011). These differing readerships reflect distinct academic traditions.

[80]

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

Academic traditions in this study refer to established conventions that influence scholarly activities within a specific academic community. Scopus journals aim to advance international scientific knowledge, focusing strongly on theoretical contributions (Baas et al., 2020). "Impact" is a key concept in international publications (Aksnes et al., 2019). Scopus journals are selected based on their contribution to global academic discourse and potential to attract a worldwide audience, which Wang (2024) refers to as "discourse influence ability," characterized by the h-index in the Scopus database. TCI journals, however, prioritize practical research for local issues (Jaroongkhongdach et al., 2011), aligning with regional academic concerns (Narongrit et al., 2012). Despite these differences, TCI aims to elevate Thai journals to international standards (Thai-Journal Citation Index, n.d.).

Therefore, understanding the metadiscoursal strategies used in Scopus and TCI journals is crucial for effective RA writing. Writers must align linguistic tools with audience expectations (Deng et al., 2021). Within the same discourse community, writers frequently employ similar attitude markers (Nayernia & Ashouri, 2019). TCI writers tend to use fewer hedges, reflecting less reader engagement (Loan, 2018). Code glosses like "such as" present propositions, followed by supporting details (Worathumrong, 2021), while frame markers in international journals are more theory-driven (Jaroongkhongdach et al., 2011). Scopus journals use boosters to strengthen claims (Yotimart & Abd Aziz, 2017), with native speakers favoring engagement markers in imperatives to emphasize opinions (Çapar & Turan, 2020). Argumentation skills may pose challenges for non-native speakers (Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013), leading TCI journals to use endophoric markers to downplay personal identity, whereas Scopus journals emphasize authority through self-mentions (Hyland, 2002). Transition markers enhance logical flow in both contexts (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2022).

Methodology

Corpus Collection

The specialized corpora for this study consist of discussion sections from RAs in Scopus and TCI, focusing on English language-related fields from 2020 to 2024. Metadiscoursal markers are prevalent in academic writing (Yea et al., 2020), particularly in the humanities and social sciences (Hyland & Tse, 2004). Analyzing the markers in these fields provides rich data sources for studying rhetorical strategies and how they guide reader interpretation.

Scopus journals selected were open-access with a CC BY license, emphasizing free and open knowledge sharing. Quartile 1 journals with high H-indexes were chosen for their productivity and citation impact. The TCI database is divided into three tiers: Tier 1, under review for inclusion in the ASEAN Citation Index (ACI); Tier 2, regarded as secondary options; and Tier 3, comprising non-indexed journals excluded from the

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

database (Thai-Journal Citation Index, n.d.). Some TCI Tier 1 journals are under review for Scopus inclusion (Thai-Journal Citation Index, 2023), and their status may change. Therefore, Tier 2 journals were selected for the analysis to ensure accessible and stable publication practices.

Discussion sections from both databases were isolated, and 107 RAs were randomly selected (34 from Scopus, 55,384 words, and 73 from TCI, 52,637 words). Token-based analysis, which considers word frequency in a corpus, was used to study—vocabulary distribution and textual patterns (Levshina, 2019). Specialized research often requires smaller corpora to focus on domain-specific vocabulary (Weisser, 2015), with tens of thousands of words sufficient for analyzing key terms in special-language corpora (Ahmad & Rogers, 2001). The data were saved in *.txt* format, excluding tables and figures, and converted to a machine-readable format using AntConc 4.2.4 (Anthony, 2024). Table 2 shows wordform tokens from both corpora.

Table 2

Description of the Corpus

Corpus	Number of Articles	Wordform Tokens
Scopus	34	55,384
TCI	73	52,637
TOTAL	**107**	**108,021**

Corpus Analysis

Hyland's (2005a) adapted metadiscoursal taxonomy was applied, with enhanced reliability assessed through inter-rater agreement. Mackey and Gass (2016) proposed that coding 10% of the data ensures rater reliability; therefore, 25% of texts from Scopus and TCI journals were randomly selected and coded by two raters: the researcher and an assistant professor specializing in English language studies. Reliability was measured in two ways: taxonomy and concordance reliability. Rater training included discussions on the study's objectives, theories, and methodology, focusing on the ten markers and their functions.

To assess taxonomy reliability, 25% of the markers and their functions were randomly selected (excluding examples) and presented in table form. The second rater was provided texts from the two corpora containing these markers. Both raters independently coded the texts based on the markers' functions, yielding an inter-rater reliability coefficient of 0.94, which is acceptable (Graham et al., 2012).

According to Hyland's (2005a) adapted taxonomy, words must serve specific roles. After using AntConc to search for markers, the researcher manually verified the

results. For example, transition markers were included if they related to reasoning (e.g., adding, comparing, drawing conclusions, countering arguments). Markers with external roles were excluded from concordance lines. To assess concordance reliability, 25% of the markers were printed as concordance lines and independently coded by both raters, yielding a reliability coefficient of 0.93, considered acceptable (Graham et al., 2012).

Next, qualitative and quantitative analyses were conducted using Hyland's (2005a) adapted taxonomy. All markers were categorized with AntConc and analyzed according to the taxonomy.

Quantitative Analysis

To address RQ 1, AntConc 4.2.4 was utilized to measure the frequency of metadiscoursal markers in the discussion sections of RAs from Scopus and TCI journals. The analysis followed these steps:

First, the discussion sections were divided into two corpora and imported into AntConc. Word counts for each corpus were calculated to account for varying lengths.

Next, based on Hyland's (2005a) adapted taxonomy, the metadiscourse markers were manually entered into AntConc's search function. Concordance lines for each marker were retrieved to show their usage in context. The raw frequency counts of these markers that occurred were recorded.

Finally, Biber et al.'s (1998) formula was used to normalize the counts [(raw frequency count/total words)*1,000]. The three most frequent markers were highlighted to reveal patterns and differences between Scopus and TCI journals.

Qualitative Analysis

Discourse analysis uncovers language patterns (Canning & Walker, 2024) and examines the persuasive use of metadiscoursal markers in both journal types. The following steps were taken.

Step 1: Each marker's concordance lines were extracted and saved in *.xls* format.

Step 2: The surrounding text was reviewed to understand each marker's broader context.

Step 3: Each marker was categorized by function: pathos (emotional), ethos (credibility), or logos (logical).

Step 4: Markers were analyzed in context to determine their roles in the text's metadiscoursal strategies.

Step 5: Differences in marker use between Scopus and TCI journals were identified.

Step 6: Variations in metadiscoursal strategies were discussed.

Step 7: Findings were reported with examples, showing how metadiscourse enhances persuasiveness in academic writing.

Results

RQ 1: What is the frequency of metadiscoursal markers used in the discussion sections of Scopus and TCI articles?

Table 3 shows that Scopus journals exhibited a higher frequency of metadiscoursal markers, averaging 40.10 items per 1,000 words, compared to 28.32 items per 1,000 words in TCI journals. This suggests that metadiscoursal markers were more prevalent in Scopus journals.

Regarding **interactive markers**, Scopus journals had 23.24 items (57.96%), whereas TCI journals had 18.37 items (64.87%). For **interactional markers**, Scopus journals had 16.86 items (42.04%), and TCI journals had 9.95 items (35.13%).

Within the **interactive markers** sub-categories, Scopus journals exceeded TCI journals in all areas except for **evidentials** (9.86 vs. 10.89). Specifically, **code glosses** were used at a frequency of 5.53 in Scopus journals compared to 3.17 in TCI; **transition markers** were 4.73 in Scopus and 2.41 in TCI; **frame markers** were 1.97 in Scopus and 1.03 in TCI; and **endophoric markers** were 1.15 in Scopus and 0.87 in TCI.

For **interactional markers**, Scopus journals generally had higher frequencies except for **engagement markers** (0.09 vs. 0.15). Specifically, **hedges** appeared 6.12 times in Scopus and 3.15 in TCI; **self-mentions** were used 5.23 in Scopus compared to 1.33 in TCI; **attitude markers** were 4.98 in Scopus and 4.94 in TCI; and **boosters** were 0.44 times in Scopus and 0.38 in TCI.

Table 3

Metadiscoursal Markers in Scopus and TCI Corpora

Category	Scopus Journals			TCI Journals		
	Total items	**Items per 1,000 words**	**% of total**	**Total items**	**Items per 1,000 words**	**% of total**
Interactive Markers	**1,286**	**23.24**	**57.96**	**966**	**18.37**	**64.87**
Interactional Markers	**933**	**16.86**	**42.04**	**523**	**9.95**	**35.13**
Sub-category *Interactive Markers*						
Evidentials	546	9.86	24.59	573	10.89	38.45
Code glosses	307	5.53	13.79	167	3.17	11.20
Transition markers	262	4.73	11.80	127	2.41	8.51
Frame markers	108	1.97	4.91	53	1.03	3.64

Category	Scopus Journals			TCI Journals		
	Total items	Items per 1,000 words	% of total	Total items	Items per 1,000 words	% of total
Endophoric markers	63	1.15	2.87	46	0.87	3.07
Interactional Markers						
Hedges	339	6.12	15.26	165	3.15	11.12
Self-mentions	289	5.23	13.04	70	1.33	4.70
Attitude Markers	276	4.98	12.42	260	4.94	17.44
Boosters	24	0.44	1.10	20	0.38	1.34
Engagement Markers	5	0.09	0.22	8	0.15	0.53
Grand Totals	**2,219**	**40.10**	**100**	**1,489**	**28.32**	**100**

RQ 2: What metadiscoursal patterns appear in the discussion sections of Scopus and TCI articles?

The analysis revealed that evidentials were the most frequent, followed by code glosses, transition markers, frame markers, and endophoric markers.

Evidentials

Evidentials were more prevalent in TCI journals than in Scopus journals. According to Table 4, "(author+year)" in Example 1 was predominantly found in Scopus journals (4.33 items), while the verbal realization (a verb that structures) in Example 2 frequently appeared in TCI journals (4.98). For example:

(1) *"The current study also supports the findings of corpus-based research that academic speech consists of a reasonable number of frequently occurring sequences of words (Biber et al., 2004; Chon & Shin, 2013; Coxhead et al., 2017; Dang, 2018; Simpson-Vlach & Ellis, 2010) and may be a useful resource for incidental vocabulary learning."*
        (SA29)

(2) *"With regard to the results of the pretest and posttest, Amer (2014), Nalliveettil and Alenazi (2016), and Zhang (2016) stated that students could improve their listening comprehension because they had an opportunity to practice English listening exercises and activities both inside and outside the classroom."* (TA68)

[85]

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

Table 4

Rank of Evidential Frequencies in Scopus and TCI Journals

Scopus Journals				TCI Journals			
Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (Scopus)	Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (TCI)
1	... (X, 2013)	240	4.33	1	X (2013)	262	4.98
2	X (2013)	122	2.20	2	... (X, 2013)	146	2.77
3	In X's (2013) study	45	0.81	3	In X's (2013) study	83	1.58

Code Glosses

Code glosses were more common in Scopus journals than in TCI journals. According to Table 5, "e.g." was the most frequently used code gloss, appearing in 1.97 items. Scopus journals often used "e.g." in conjunction with evidential (author+year) (Example 3), while TCI journals preferred using "such as" with 1.12 instances to introduce representative examples.

(3) *"For the captions group, longer time spent on the L2 target words led to higher meaning recognition scores, which also supported findings of reading studies (**e.g.,** Godfroid et al., 2018; Mohamed, 2017; Pellicer-Sánchez, Conklin, & Vilkaitė-Lozdienė, 2020)."*
(SA18)

(4) *"Therefore, it is recommended that additional factors **such as** gender, English proficiency, and motivation be explored in future investigations."*
(TA1)

Table 5

Rank of Code Gloss Frequencies in Scopus and TCI Journals

Scopus Journals				TCI Journals			
Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (Scopus)	Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (TCI)
1	e.g.,	109	1.97	1	such as	59	1.12
2	such as	45	0.81	2	For example	29	0.55
3	For example	41	0.74	3	That is	21	0.40

Transition Markers

Transition markers were more prevalent in Scopus than in TCI journals. Table 6 shows that "also" was the most frequently used transition marker in Scopus journals, appearing in 1.57 items. In TCI journals, "also" similarly led but with 0.84 items.

(5) *"The results of the present study paint a different picture not only with regard to the effect of L2 use with NNS contacts on L2 proficiency improvement, but **also** the ability of intermediate-level sojourners to develop meaningful social relationships—indeed, networks of relationships—using majority L2 use."* (SA23)

(6) *"Not only is irony a rhetorical device, it is **also** a subtle communication strategy used by the speaker to draw attention from the hearer."* (TA5)

Table 6

Rank of Transition Marker Frequencies in Scopus and TCI Journals

Scopus Journals				TCI Journals			
Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (Scopus)	Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (TCI)
1	Also	87	1.57	1	Also	44	0.84
2	However	74	1.34	2	And	26	0.49
3	But	38	0.69	3	Moreover	15	0.28
					Thus	15	0.28

Frame Markers

Table 7 shows that frame markers were used almost twice as frequently in Scopus journals compared to TCI journals. The markers "first," "second," and "finally" were the most commonly found in both corpora.

The analysis identified two distinct rhetorical patterns in the use of "first" and "second" across both corpora: (1) using ordinal numbers before research questions, objectives, findings, methods, and theories (Examples 7-8) and (2) using adverbs at the beginning of a sentence (Examples 9-11). "Finally" was also found to be an adverb used primarily at the beginning of a sentence to introduce the last point or idea (Examples 9 and 12). Instead of "finally," Scopus journals and TCI journals signified the final idea using "Third" or "Fourth" (Examples 10-11). In TCI journals, "finally" was not used with other frame markers. Instead, it was used independently to represent the last idea (Example 12).

(7) *"The **first** RQ investigated whether interleaved practice is more effective in increasing EFL learners' pragmatic accuracy and fluency than blocked practice."*

(SA26)

(8) *"To answer the **first** research question, TP was featured the most, followed by CP and SP."*
(TA45)

[87]

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

(9) *"**First**, the sample in our study consists of L2 students that represent only Spanish-speaking L2 students from one school district in California. ... **Second**, our manual analysis of syntactic features focused on sentence boundary issues and clause-level features. ... **Finally**, in this study, we analyzed student texts that were produced in an on-demand writing situation."*   (SA4)

(10) *"**First**, to allow a direct comparison of the findings across studies, this study adopted Nation's (2014) suggestions ... **Second**, this study aims to investigate the potential of reading online news for incidental learning of items in core vocabulary lists. ... **Third**, the corpora representing smaller amounts of reading were split from corpora representing the reading amounts in 2.5 and 3.5 years. ... **Fourth**, like previous studies (e.g., Hsu,2019; Nation,2014), this study drew on evidence from the corpus-driven analysis."*   (SA6)

(11) *"**First**, students tended to agree with statements that involved using language learning strategies when communicating with teachers and peers ... **Second**, no difference was found by gender either for language learning strategies or for academic motivation. **Third**, there was a strong positive relationship between language learning strategies and academic motivation."*   (TA50)

(12) *"With regard to the impact of COCA on autonomous learning, the results reveal that it could be a material resource for learning writing, and the students could choose and implement appropriate learning strategies after learning to write via this concordance tool. ... **Finally**, the results showed that the students could examine their own writing weaknesses by themselves after they practiced writing through COCA."*
                    (TA2)

Table 7

Rank of Frame Marker Frequencies in Scopus and TCI Journals

Scopus Journals				TCI Journals			
Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (Scopus)	Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (TCI)
1	First	37	0.67	1	First	14	0.27
2	Second	29	0.52	2	Second	14	0.27
3	Finally	15	0.27	3	Finally	9	0.17

Endophoric Markers

Scopus journals exhibited a higher frequency of endophoric markers compared to TCI journals (1.15 vs. 0.87) (see Table 3). When examining each endophoric marker in Table 8, the "as-structure" markers were most common in Scopus journals (0.23

items) and TCI journals (0.32). These "as-structure" markers usually appeared accompanied by the term "previously" (Examples 13 and 14).

(13) ***"As we mentioned previously***, *the hierarchical system predicts that, as soon as the parser discovers lexical similarity between the L3 and one of the previously acquired languages, the lexical level will be chosen as the sole determiner of the source of influence."*
(SA16)

(14) ***"As previously mentioned***, *the transfer from L1 may play a critical role."*
(TA51)

Table 8

Rank of Endophoric Marker Frequencies in Scopus and TCI Journals

Scopus Journals				TCI Journals			
Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (Scopus)	Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (TCI)
1	As mentioned in/As discussed/ As can be seen/ As seen in the X/ As Examples/ As demonstrated in Excerpt X	13	0.23	1	As mentioned in /As discussed/ As can be seen/ As seen in the X /As Examples/ As demonstrated in Excerpt X	17	0.32
2	See (Fig/ Table/Also/ Appendix)	12	0.22	2	Table X	11	0.21
3	Section X (In this section /In Section X/In the previous section/This section/In the X Section/In the preceding section)	12	0.22	3	Section X (In this section/In Section X/In the previous section/This section/In the X Section/In the preceding section)	6	0.11

Scopus prioritized hedges, self-mentions, attitude markers, boosters, and engagement markers, whereas TCI journals prioritized attitude markers, hedges, self-mentions, boosters, and engagement markers.

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

Hedges

Hedges occurred more frequently in Scopus journals than in TCI journals. According to Table 9, the most commonly used hedge in both corpora was "may" (2.51 in Scopus journals and 1.27 in TCI journals).

Both corpora employed "may" to introduce possibility. In Scopus journals, "may" was used twice in a single sentence to hedge implications and conclusions (Example 15), while in TCI journals, "may" was used once to suggest a potential outcome (Example 16). In Scopus, "may" focused on implications for further validation, while in TCI journals, it highlighted potential teaching concerns and speculative consequences related to changes in the teaching plan.

(15) *"Observing the only significant results in the L1 English group **may imply** that in English, the speed of delivery—in this case, in complaint—**may** be related to achieving a better pragmatic impact."*
(SA31)

(16) *"The researcher normally teaches two hours per week, but because the teaching plan is three hours per week, the discontinuity in each content **may cause** the students to lose interest and forget the previous lesson."*
(TA57)

Table 9

Rank of Hedge Frequencies in Scopus and TCI Journals

Scopus Journals				TCI Journals			
Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (Scopus)	Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (TCI)
1	May	139	2.51	1	May	67	1.27
2	Might	81	1.46	2	Could be	34	0.65
3	Likely	48	0.87	3	Might	29	0.55

Self-Mentions

In Table 10, self-mentions were significantly more prevalent in Scopus journals than TCI journals. "We" was the most frequently used in Scopus journals, appearing 2.70 times. In TCI journals, "the researcher/researchers" appeared often with 0.76 mentions.

In Scopus journals, "we" often indicated actions taken by researchers, such as "We found that...," "We observed...," or "We have interpreted that...". Both inclusive and exclusive uses of "we" were found in both Scopus journals (Examples 17-18) and TCI journals (Examples 19-20), but the exclusive "we" was more common in Scopus journals, with 2.29 mentions compared to 0.39 for inclusive "we." In TCI journals, inclusive "we" appeared more frequently than exclusive "we" (0.24 vs. 0.07).

In TCI journals, "the researcher" and "the researchers" were common self-mentions, unlike in Scopus journals. "The researcher" emphasizes individual responsibility (Example 21), while "the researchers" highlights teamwork and broader studies (Example 22).

(17) *"With this question in mind, **we** <exclusive we> carried out a correlation analysis trying to identify a possible relationship between CoV and the motivational factors."*
(SA5)

(18) *"These findings show that **we** <inclusive we> cannot disregard the influence of ideological forces that social actors carry into multilingual settings."*   (SA8)

(19) *"Through the pre-service teachers' reflective journals and focus group interviews, **we** <exclusive we> could see that various technologies were used to assist in different tasks."*
(TA49)

(20) *"As **we** <inclusive we>know, natives have more places in oral communication teaching in Thailand because the local English teachers have inadequate creativity to make a deal."*
(TA21)

(21) *"In this study, **the researcher** found that English self-efficacy was positively, moderately strong, and significantly correlated with mathematics academic achievement for Grades 3-4 students, and the same correlation among Grades 5-6 students at Pan-Asia International School, Bangkok, Thailand, was weaker."*

(TA9)

(22) *"**The researchers** found that a great deal of participants perceived speaking English when teaching as an essential issue, and they should speak English as often as possible although it is not a university requirement."*   (TA36)

Table 10

Rank of Self-Mention Frequencies in Scopus and TCI Journals

Scopus Journals				TCI Journals			
Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (Scopus)	Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (TCI)
1	We	149	2.70	1	The researcher /researchers	40	0.76
2	Our	134	2.42	2	We	17	0.32
3	I	4	0.07	3	Our	12	0.23

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

Attitude Markers

According to Table 11, "important" was used more frequently in Scopus journals (0.67) than in TCI journals (0.46). In both corpora, "important" emphasized crucial elements. Scopus journals used it in complex sentences with detailed research findings, beginning with "however" for contrast (Example 23). TCI journals employed "important" twice in a single sentence, once in the superlative "the most important elements" and once in the comparative "rated as highly important" (Example 24).

(23) *"However, the fact that linear word order was both significant and the most **important** predictor in all three analyses signals that ADJ+N and N+ADJ combinations had different usage properties in this corpus, raising the question as to whether they should be considered to be different collocations entirely."*

(SA17)

(24) *"These results indicated that the four English skills, especially listening and speaking, are the most **important** elements for communication in hospitality and tourism and reading and writing emails were also rated as highly **important** for tourism employees."*
(TA33)

Table 11

Rank of Attitude Marker Frequencies in Scopus and TCI Journals

Scopus Journals				TCI Journals			
Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (Scopus)	Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (TCI)
1	Important	37	0.67	1	Effective	29	0.55
2	Strong	20	0.36	2	Important	24	0.46
3	Good	13	0.23	3	Good	18	0.34

Boosters

Boosters appeared slightly more frequently in Scopus journals. "Clearly" was the most frequent marker in both types of journals (0.23 vs. 0.22). In both examples, "clearly" functioned as an adverb with a positive connotation. In Example 25, "understanding more clearly" implied sophisticated analysis and deeper insights. In Example 26, "clearly" emphasized direct and evident observation, as in "We can clearly see."

(25) *"Employing this profiling approach opens options for understanding more **clearly** how and where policy intervention would be best targeted by fully*

engaging with the distinguishing features of the learners in each group."
(SA28)

(26) "*From the results, we can **clearly** see that the strategy of student-generated questioning and its instruction considerably improves both the comprehension of English and English tense usage among undergraduate students of English.*"

(TA39)

Table 12

Rank of Booster Frequencies in Scopus and TCI Journals

Scopus Journals				TCI Journals			
Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (Scopus)	Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (TCI)
1	Clearly	13	0.23	1	Clearly	12	0.22
2	In fact	7	0.13	2	Evident	4	0.08
3	It is clear that	2	0.04	3	Confirm	1	0.02
					Undoubtedly	1	0.02
					Obviously	1	0.02
					Truly	1	0.02

Engagement Markers

Engagement markers were infrequent in both corpora. In Scopus journals, "note" was most frequently used, with 0.07 occurrences. In TCI journals, "your" was most commonly used, with 0.07 occurrences, but it was not reported in Scopus journals. Scopus authors used the indirect marker "note" at the beginning to immediately draw attention to specific points or observations (Example 27). In TCI journals, the direct marker "your" appeared in the middle of the text, engaging the reader and personalizing the message (Example 28).

(27) "***Note** that the regression coefficients of Maze Word RT were clearly higher than those of Picture Naming RT (β=.436–.453).*"
(SA30)

(28) "*Knowing English increases **your** chances of getting a good job in a multinational company within our home countries or for finding work abroad.*"   (TA20)

Table 13

Rank of Engagement Marker Frequencies in Scopus and TCI Journals

	Scopus Journals				TCI Journals		
Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (Scopus)	Rank No	Examples	Total items	Items per 1,000 words (TCI)
1	Note	4	0.07	1	Your	4	0.07
2	Consider	1	0.02	2	You	3	0.06
3	Your	-	-	3	Note	1	0.02
4	You	-	-	4	Consider	-	-

Discussion

Scopus and TCI journals primarily used **interactive** metadiscoursal over **interactional** markers, with academic norms prioritizing clarity of argument and structure over reader engagement (Geng & Wei, 2023).

In Scopus journals, **evidentials** were employed to enhance **ethos** through (author+year) citations, demonstrating a solid foundation supported by authoritative endorsements through concise references. In native academic English, the responsibility for clarity and understanding rests more with the writer than the reader (Hyland, 2005a). Conversely, TCI journals used **verb realization,** favoring active voice to establish **ethos** by emphasizing authors' roles in narrative arguments (Amnuai et al., 2020). Published context is one factor that influences RA writing (Amnuai & Wannaruk, 2013). Scopus's parenthetical citations reflect a community that values authority, using evidentials with minimal authorship and trusting cited studies to speak for themselves, while TCI's narrative-driven evidentials invite readers into the argument. TCI writers employ evidentials that emphasize a more inclusive and conversational tone, inviting readers to view the cited sources as part of the argument's development. TCI journals utilize narrative-driven evidentials, fostering a scholarly conversation, whereas Scopus journals adopt an economical evidential style, enhancing academic rigor and professionalism.

Scopus journals used **code glosses** to enhance **ethos** for credibility. "E.g.," and citing respected studies demonstrate credibility through association with recognized research. Furthermore, employing code glosses in Scopus journals illustrates the writer's comprehensive understanding of the subject matter, establishing their authority (Hyland, 1998). "E.g.," is preferred in Scopus because it may save space for more in-text citations and aligns with the structured, efficiency-driven style expected in international publications. TCI journals employed **code glosses** to enhance **logos** by providing concrete examples, using "such as" to clarify and support their arguments logically. Code glosses use logos to offer additional explanations (AlJazrawi &

AlJazrawi, 2021). "Such as" was primarily employed in the Thai context to express multiple aspects of a topic, where the main proposition was presented first, followed by related information (Worathumrong, 2021). The frequent use of "such as" in TCI journals might stem from a preference for a more conversational and narrative-focused style, making the writing more approachable and relatable. "Such as" may create a more seamless narrative when writers offer multiple examples.

Transition markers in Scopus and TCI journals are crucial in enhancing **logos**. Using "also" contributes to logical arguments by providing additional information that clarifies connections between ideas in educational contexts (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2022). "Also" is favored by New Zealand and Thai students for its conciseness and versatility, helping establish both intra-clausal and inter-clausal relationships in discourse (Prommas, 2020). Furthermore, "also" is a standard transition marker used to convey knowledge in academic settings, forming an integral part of the typical linguistic repertoire (Doiz & Lasagabaster, 2022). Therefore, transition markers, particularly "also" in Scopus and TCI journals, underscore their significant role in academic communication by strengthening logical arguments, connecting ideas, and serving as a vital component of the linguistic toolkit in scholarly contexts.

Frame markers enhance **logos** by structuring the text in both corpora. Frame markers are commonly used in RAs to make the text more sequential, elaborate, and discursive (Hyland & Zou, 2020). In Scopus journals, frame markers detail methodologies, while those in TCI journals summarize findings and address research questions, emphasizing clarity and practical implications. Scopus writers aim to contribute to global academic discourse, prioritizing methodological robustness and generalizable research. In this context, frame markers emphasize steps and procedures. Baas et al. (2020) explained that Scopus prioritizes specific scientific quality standards and rigor. Articles by academics in Thailand prioritize practical, experience-based insights, while international publications tend to focus more on theoretical or literature-based research (Jaroongkhongdach et al., 2011). Consequently, submissions to TCI journals typically focus on regional issues, prompting writers to use frame markers that highlight findings and implications most relevant to local stakeholders.

Endophoric markers in both corpora enhance **logos** to support the logical argument (Hyland, 2005a). Scopus and TCI journals primarily employed the "*as-structure*" endophoric marker; however, Scopus frequently included "*we,*" creating a more engaging tone. The higher use of person markers, such as "*we,*" indicates that the writer explicitly refers to themselves and aims to establish relationships with the reader (Gholami et al., 2014). Scopus journals enhance rational arguments by incorporating endophoric markers and the self-mention "*we*." In TCI journals, the lack of "*we*" and the preference for an impersonal tone, such as "*as previously mentioned,*" reflect a professional distance. This style aligns with traditional expectations of academic writing, with Devlin (2016, p. 34) stating that "killing the pronouns can also strangle the individual voice." Scopus authors also employed complex sentences for detailed

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

logical explanations that engage readers, while TCI authors prioritize simplicity and clarity with concise statements. Sarwar et al. (2020) asserted that non-native speakers often produce shorter, more straightforward sentences with less variation in language use.

Hedges in both corpora enhance **ethos**, showing credibility and caution. Scopus journals emphasize the theoretical implications of research, while TCI journals address practical concerns. In Scopus journals, **hedges** are primarily used to discuss broader impacts (see Example 15). This **hedging** type presents more generalized findings, leaving room for future research to support or challenge these conclusions. This reflects Scopus's global role, where international authors take a more analytical approach than Thai journals, which focus on reporting findings (Phongjit & Gampper, 2023). Thus, **hedging** in TCI journals focuses more on practical, localized outcomes (see Example 16), while Scopus journals require more nuanced results and discourage definitive statements. As in Loan (2018), **hedges** were less frequent in TCI journals, revealing less awareness of using **hedging** to evaluate findings and soften claims.

Self-mention, notably "we," appeared more frequently in Scopus journals. The exclusive use of "*we*" highlighted the collective effort of research teams, enhancing **ethos** by showcasing combined expertise and rigorous methodology. Using first-person pronouns *("I," "We")* establishes authority in successful academic writing (Hyland, 2002). As a global platform, Scopus may encourage a more engaging tone, where researchers actively position themselves by using "*we*" to create a sense of shared inquiry, allowing for more explicit **self-mention** through first-person pronouns. **Self-mentions** occur more frequently in international than national articles (Jaroenchaiwat, 2022). TCI journals, conversely, used a mix of "*we*," "the researcher," and "*the researchers*" to present a more nuanced approach to **ethos**. TCI writers used fewer **self-mentions**, preferring formal terms like "*the researcher(s)*" to align with academic norms that avoid first-person pronouns (Yoon, 2021). TCI journals may prioritize formality, making articles less subjective and more aligned with traditions emphasizing objectivity.

Scopus journals employed slightly more **attitude markers** than TCI journals. Scopus journals use "important" to enhance **pathos** by underscoring the significance of predictors in influencing analysis outcomes (see Example 23). In TCI journals, "important" supports **pathos** by emphasizing relevant skills in professional contexts, appealing to readers aiming to enter the industry (see Example 24). **Pathos** in Scopus journals engages intellectual curiosity, while TCI journals directly appeal to readers' emotions. In Example 23, Scopus journals used "important" within subtle argumentation to spark intellectual curiosity, which can emotionally connect with readers who appreciate deep analysis. However, in Example 24, TCI journals used "important" more directly and practically, appealing to relevance and applicability. **Attitude markers** are a key writer-oriented strategy for conveying emotion and establishing a distinct authorial voice in professional communication (Hyland, 2005b).

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

Writers often utilize similar **attitude markers** within the same discourse community (Nayernia & Ashouri, 2019). This phenomenon indicates that community members (e.g., in Scopus and TCI) adhere to standard norms when expressing their attitudes, regardless of the genre in which they write.

"Clearly" was primarily used as a **booster** to assert **ethos**, signifying confidence in assumptions, with a slightly higher frequency in Scopus. Scopus journals employed boosters in **theoretical and strategic analyses (see** Example 25), while TCI journals emphasized measurable and observable outcomes (see Example 26). Scopus journals' international academic standards promote the confident use of boosters to highlight theoretical contributions, while TCI journals use them to emphasize **practical and data-driven results**. This pattern aligns with generic conventions (Gotti, 2012) across different cultures and levels of professional expertise (Thabet, 2018). In Scopus and TCI journals, "clearly" functions as an adverb, modifying verbs similarly. The higher use of boosters in international articles results from the greater validity of claims (Yotimart & Abd Aziz, 2017). Boosters are tied to the discourse community, with international articles persuading audiences to accept evidential or implicit truth (Peacock, 2006).

Scopus journals utilized slightly fewer **engagement markers** than TCI. Scopus journals favored the indirect marker "note that," appealing to **pathos** by aiding understanding, while TCI journals used the direct marker "your" to engage **pathos**, strengthening emotional appeal and personal connection. Scopus engagement markers evoked **pathos** through reasoning and evidence, whereas TCI journals leveraged them to enhance the emotional impact. Çapar and Turan (2020) suggest this reflects stylistic differences, with native speakers often using directive structures, such as the imperatives, to emphasize the importance of opinions and facts. Indirect engagement markers in Scopus journals support theory-focused writing for a diverse international audience, while direct engagement markers in TCI journals foster dialogue with readers, reflecting local academic norms.

Conclusion

The metadiscoursal strategies of Scopus and TCI journals reflect different uses of persuasive markers. Scopus journals use concise evidentials, while TCI journals adopt a narrative style. Scopus journals favor code glosses for efficiency, whereas TCI journals create a conversational tone. Both use transition markers to clarify ideas. Frame markers in Scopus journals emphasize methodology, while TCI journals highlight practical implications. Scopus journals prefer logical endophoric markers; TCI journals use impersonal structures. Scopus journals apply hedges to theory, while TCI journals focus on practical outcomes. Scopus journals use "we" to assert author presence; TCI journals mix "we" and "the researcher" to depersonalize. Attitude markers in Scopus journals evoke curiosity, while TCI journals stress practicality. Scopus journals use boosters for theoretical arguments, and TCI journals emphasize practical results.

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

Finally, Scopus journals use indirect engagement markers for appeal, and TCI journals use direct ones for personal connection.

Implications

Scopus journals emphasize methodological and theoretical discussions through persuasive metadiscourse. Writers need to adapt to audience expectations and academic traditions. Citing multiple credible studies aligns with Scopus's rigorous standards, while strategic transition and frame markers organize arguments and clarify methodology. Directing readers to detailed references aids comprehension. Despite avoiding first-person pronouns, academics should build credibility and use hedges to convey nuance. "We" emphasizes collective research efforts, and boosters like "clearly" assert authority. Indirect markers like "note that" enhance comprehension. TCI editors might consider extended discussions to support the broader use of metadiscourse, similar to Scopus.

Limitations

This study focuses on academic disciplines related to English and compares metadiscoursal strategies in Scopus and TCI journals. Future studies could explore these strategies across fields such as applied sciences, social sciences, and medicine. Lastly, this study does not suggest that TCI journals are inferior to Scopus. TCI authors present well-developed concepts, but those for high-index global journals should refine their writing by understanding metadiscourse.

Author

Pratabjai Tatsanajamsuk is a lecturer in the English Department at Kamphaeng Phet Rajabhat University, Thailand. She holds a PhD in Language and Communication. Her research interests include second language writing and reading, English language teaching, and technology integration in EFL teaching and learning.

References

Ahmad, K., & Rogers, M. (2001). Corpus linguistics and terminology extraction. In S. E. Wright & G. Budin (Eds.), *Handbook of terminology management* (pp. 725–760). John Benjamins.

Aksnes, D. W., Langfeldt, L., & Wouters, P. (2019). Citations, citation indicators, and research quality: An overview of basic concepts and theories. *Sage Open*, *9*(1), 1-17. https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244019829575

AlJazrawi, D., & AlJazrawi, Z. (2021). Metadiscourse as a way of achieving persuasion in literary criticism texts. *GEMA Online Journal of Language Studies*, *21*(3), 245–263. http://doi.org/10.17576/gema-2021-2103-14

Amnuai, W., Kotuta, P., & Duangprasertchai, M. (2020). Textual and linguistic characteristics of research article abstracts. *LLT Journal: A Journal on Language and Language Teaching*, *23*(1), 168–181. https//:doi.org/10.24071/llt.2020.230113

Amnuai, W., & Wannaruk, A. (2013). An analysis of moves in introductions in international and Thai journal research articles. *PASAA*, *45*(1), 61–90.

Amnuai, W., Wimuttisuksuntorn, W., & Wuttikanokkarn, T. (2023). Rhetorical moves and metadiscourse in English abstracts of research articles and masters' theses. *Journal of English Language and Linguistics*, *4*(2), 29–46.

Anthony, L. (2024). AntConc (Version 4.2.4) [Computer Software]. Tokyo, Japan: Waseda University. https://www.laurenceanthony.net/software

Aristotle. (1954). *The rhetoric and the poetics of Aristotle* (W. Rhys Roberts & I. Bywater, Trans.; E. P. J. Corbett, Introduction). Modern Library.

Arizavi, S., Jalilifar, A., & Riazi, A. M. (2023). Analysis of argumentation in the discussion sections of published articles in ESP journal: A diachronic corpus-based approach. *Argumentation*, *37*(1), 119-146.

Baas, J., Schotten, M., Plume, A., Côté, G., & Karimi, R. (2020). Scopus as a curated, high-quality bibliometric data source for academic research in quantitative science studies. *Quantitative Science Studies*, *1*(1), 377–386. https://doi.org/10.1162/qss_a_00019

Biber, D., Conrad, S., & Reppen, R. (1998). *Corpus linguistics: Investigating language structure and use.* Cambridge University Press.

Canning, P., & Walker, B. (2024). *Discourse analysis: A practical introduction.* Taylor & Francis.

Cao, F., & Hu, G. (2014). Interactive metadiscourse in research articles: A comparative study of paradigmatic and disciplinary influences. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *66*, 15–31. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2014.02.007

Çapar, M., & Turan, Ü. D. (2020). Interactional metadiscourse in research articles written by Turkish and native speakers. *Anadolu Journal of Educational Sciences International*, *10*(1), 324–358. https://10.18039/ajesi.682042

Deng, L., Fatemeh, B., & Gao, X. (2021). Exploring the interactive and interactional metadiscourse in doctoral dissertation writing: A diachronic study. *Scientometrics*, *126*(8), 7223–7250. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11192-021-04064-0

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

Devlin, K. (2016). Is the academic essay becoming a fossil through lack of authorial voice? The case for more stylish and exploratory writing. *Spark: UAL Creative Teaching and Learning Journal*, *1*(1), 34–40.

Dogan-Ucar, A. & Akbas, E.(2022). A corpus-driven cross-disciplinary study of inclusive and exclusive we in research article abstracts. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, *15*(1), 180–204.

Doiz, A., & Lasagabaster, D. (2022). Looking into English-medium instruction teachers' metadiscourse: An ELF perspective. *System*, *105*, 102730. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2022.102730.

Elsevier. (n.d.). *Scopus: Content coverage guide*. https://assets.ctfassets.net/o78em1y1w4i4/ EX1iy8 VxBeQKf8aN2XzOp/c36f79db25484cb38a5972 ad9a5472ec/ Scopus_ ContentCoverageGuide_WEB.pdf

Flowerdew, J. (1999). Problems in writing for scholarly publication in English: The case of Hong Kong. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *8*(3), 243–264.

Geng, H., & Wei, H. (2023). Metadiscourse markers in abstracts of linguistics and literature research articles from Scopus-indexed journals. *Journal of Modern Languages*, *33*(1), 29–49. https://doi.org/10.22452/jml.vol33no1.2

Gholami, J., Nejad, S. R., & Pour, J. L. (2014). Metadiscourse markers misuses; a study of EFL learners' Argumentative Essays. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *98*, 580–589. https//:doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.454

Giordano, M., & Marongiu, M. A. (2020). 'And as I said at the beginning, this is a journey in which we are embarking': Metadiscourse as a rhetorical strategy in online teaching methodology courses. *CERLIS SERIES, 9*, 131–161.

Gotti, M. (2012). Cross-cultural aspects of academic discourse. *Brno Studies in English*, *38*(2), 59–78. https://doi.org/10.5817/BSE2012-2-4

Graham, M., Milanowski, A., & Miller, J. (2012). *Measuring and promoting inter-rater agreement of teacher and principal performance ratings.* Center for Educator Compensation Reform, U.S. Department of Education. Retrieved from ERIC database. (ED532068)

Higgins, C., & Walker, R. (2012). Ethos, logos, pathos: Strategies of persuasion in social/environmental reports. *Accounting Forum*, *36*(3), 194–208. https//:doi.org/10.1016/j.accfor.2012.02.003

Hyland, K. (1998). Persuasion and context: The pragmatics of academic metadiscourse. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *30*(4), 437–455. https//:doi.org/10.1016/S0378-2166(98)00009-5

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

Hyland, K. (2002). Authority and invisibility: Authorial identity in academic writing. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *34*(8), 1091–1112.

Hyland, K. (2005a). *Metadiscourse: Exploring interactions in writing.* Continuum.

Hyland, K. (2005b). Stance and engagement: A model of interaction in academic discourse. *Discourse Studies*, *7*(2), 173–192. https//:doi.org/10.1177/1461445605050365

Hyland, K. (2017). Metadiscourse: What is it and where is it going? *Journal of Pragmatics*, *113*, 16–29. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2017.03.007

Hyland, K., & Jiang, K. (2022). Metadiscourse choices in EAP: An intra-journal study of JEAP. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *60,* 101165. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2022.101165

Hyland, K., & Tse, P. (2004). Metadiscourse in academic writing: A reappraisal. *Applied Linguistics*, *25*(2), 156–177. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/25.2.156

Hyland, K., & Zou, J. (2020). In the frame: Signalling structure in academic articles and blogs. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *165*, 31–44. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2020.05.002

Izquierdo, M., & Blanco, M. P. (2023). Interactional metadiscourse: Building rapport and solidarity in informational-persuasive discourse. An English-Spanish case study. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *216*, 106–120. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2023.08.005

Jaroongkhongdach, W., Watson Todd, R., Hall, D., & Keyuravong, S. (2011). Current research topics and methods in Thai and international research articles in ELT. *Expanding horizons in English language and literary studies*.

Jaroenchaiwat, P. (2022). *Authorial stance and rhetorical structure in English research articles in tourism: A comparative study of international and national Thai journals*. [Doctoral dissertation, University of Exeter].

Jiang, F., & Hyland, K. (2023). Changes in research abstracts: Past tense, third person, passive, and negatives. *Written Communication*, *40*(1), 210–237. https://doi.org/10.1177/07410883221128876

Kitjaroonchai, N., & Maywald, S. (2023). Publications of Asia-Pacific International University from 2017 to 2022 in international conference proceedings, TCI, and SCOPUS databases. *Human Behavior, Development & Society*, *24*(2), 8–17.

Lakoff, R. (1982). Persuasive discourse and ordinary conversation, with examples from advertising. In D. Tannen (Ed.), *Analyzing discourse: Text and talk* (pp. 25–42). Georgetown University Press.

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

Levshina, N. (2019). Token-based typology and word order entropy: A study based on Universal Dependencies. *Linguistic Typology*, *23*(3), 533–572. https://doi.org/10.1515/lingty-2019-0025

Loan, N. T. T. (2018). Rhetorical structures and linguistic features of English abstracts in Thai Rajabhat university journals. *3L: Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, *24*(4), 71–84. http://doi.org/10.17576/3L-2018-2404-06

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2016). *Second language research: Methodology and design* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

Miller, C. R., & Charney, D. (2007). Persuasion, audience, and argument. In C. Bazerman (Ed.), *Handbook of research on writing: History, society, school, individual, text* (pp. 715–734). Routledge.

Miller, C. H. (2015). Persuasion and psychological reactance: The effects of explicit, high-controlling language. In R. Schulze & H. Pishwa (Eds.), *The exercise of power in communication* (pp. 465–501). Palgrave Macmillan.

Moreno, A. I. (2022). To be or, not to be, self-critical? Writing discussion and/or closing sections in English and Spanish social science research articles. *ESP Today*, *10*(2), 221–244.

Nayernia, A., & Ashouri, F. (2019). Attitude markers in book reviews: The case of applied linguistics discourse community. *The Linguistics Journal*, *13*(1), 126–146.

Nguyen, L. T., & Tuamsuk, K. (2024). Factors influencing researchers' scientific integrity in scholarly publishing: A path analysis approach. *Research Ethics*, 1–24. https://doi.org/10.1177/17470161241257445

Paphawasit, B., & Wudhikarn, R. (2022). Investigating patterns of research collaboration and citations in science and technology: A case of Chiang Mai University. *Administrative Sciences*, *12*(2), 71. https://doi.org/10.3390/admsci12020071

Peacock, M. (2006). A cross-disciplinary comparison of boosting in research articles. *Corpora*, *1*(1), 61–84.

Phongjit, W., & Gampper, C. (2023). That-stance found in discussion sections in applied linguistics research articles. *Arab World English Journals*, *14*(2), 268–280. http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.4497561

Pranckutė, R. (2021). Web of Science (WoS) and Scopus: The titans of bibliographic information in today's academic world. *Publications*, *9*(1), 12. https://doi.org/10.3390/publications9010012

Prommas, P. (2020). *Metadiscourse in postgraduate writing* [Doctoral dissertation, Victoria University of Wellington].

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

Rohr, M.-T. R. (2018). *Persuasion in smoking cessation online: An interpersonal pragmatics perspective* [Doctoral dissertation, University of Basel].

Šandová, J. K. (2021). Interpersonality in research article abstracts: A diachronic case study. *Discourse and Interaction*, *14*(1), 77–99.

Sarwar, R., Rutherford, A. T., Hassan, S.-U., Rakthanmanon, T., & Nutanong, S. (2020). Native language identification of fluent and advanced non-native writers. *ACM Transactions on Asian and Low-Resource Language Information Processing (TALLIP)*, *19*(4), 1–19. https://doi.org/10.1145/3383202

Shen, Y. (2014). On establishing the writer's credibility in persuasive writing. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *4*(7), 1511–1515. http//:doi.org/10.4304/tpls.4.7.1511-1515

Sirijanchuen, M. (2017). *A comparative analysis of macro-textual organization and metadiscourse features in ELT research article introductions written by Thai and international academicians* [Master's thesis, Thammasat University].

Sombatsompop, N., Chancheewa, S., Markpin, T., Premkamolnetr, N., Ittiritmeechai, S., Wongkaew, C., Yochai, W., Ratchatahirun, P. (2012). Thai-Journal Citation Index (TCI) centre: 10 years of experiences, lessons learned, and ongoing development. *Malaysian Journal of Library and Information Science*, *17*(3), 17–33.

Thabet, R. A. (2018). A cross-cultural corpus study of the use of hedging markers and dogmatism in postgraduate writing of native and non-native speakers of English. In K. Shaalan, A. E. Hassanien, & F. Tolba (Eds.), *Intelligent natural language processing: Trends and applications* (pp. 677–710). Springer.

Thai Citation Index. (n.d.). *TCI mission*. https://tci-thailand.org/view?slug=tci_mission

Thai Journal Citation Index Centre. (n.d.). *TCI: Thai Journal Citation Index*. https://library.nida.ac.th/th/online_database/tci-thai-journal-citation-index-centre/

Thai-Journal Citation Index. (2023). List of Thai journals to be submitted for consideration for inclusion in Scopus 2023–2026. Thai-Journal Citation Index Centre. https://tci-thailand.org/eng/?page_id=1541

Thompson, G. (2008). Ken Hyland, Metadiscourse: Exploring interaction in writing. *Language in Society*, *37*(1), 138–141.

Varpio, L. (2018). Using rhetorical appeals to credibility, logic, and emotions to increase your persuasiveness. *Perspectives on Medical Education*, *7*, 207–210.

Wang, X. (2024). Research on the discourse power evaluation of academic journals from the perspective of multiple fusion: Taking medicine, general and internal

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

journals as an example. *Journal of Information Science*, *50*(4), 811–830. https://doi.org/10.1177/01655515221107334

Weisser, M. (2015). *Practical corpus linguistics: An introduction to corpus-based language analysis*. John Wiley & Sons.

Worathumrong, S. (2021). "How the Furby coming is…": Interference of first language and culture in Thai EFL learners' paragraph writing. *English Language Teaching*, *14*(10), 92–104.

Yea, L. Y., Othman, J., & Wei, L. J. (2020). The use of metadiscourse in academic writing by Malaysian first-year ESL doctoral students. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *10*(1), 271–282. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v10i1.25069

Yoon, J.-H. (2021). Semantic inflation and pronoun avoidance. *Linguistic Research*, *38*(3), 469–490. https://doi.org/10.17250/khisli.38.3.202112.003

Yotimart, D., & Abd Aziz, N. H. (2017). Authorial identity and linguistic features of native English and Thai writers in research articles. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, *25*(3), 1319–1334.

Appendix

List of All Research Articles for the Analysis

Scopus-Index Journals

SA4	Maamuujav, U., Olson, C. B., & Chung, H. (2021, 2021/09/01/). Syntactic and lexical features of adolescent L2 students' academic writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 53*, 100822.
SA5	Huang, T., Steinkrauss, R., & Verspoor, M. (2021, 2021/06/01/). Variability as a predictor in L2 writing proficiency. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 52*, 100787.
SA6	Dang, T. N. Y., & Long, X. (2024). Online news as a resource for incidental learning of core academic words, academic formulas, and general formulas. *TESOL Quarterly, 58*(1), 32–62.
SA8	Martinez Negrette, G. (2024). Don't take our space": Strategies, agency, and resistance in the white space of a dual language program. *TESOL Quarterly, 58*(1), 91–113.
SA16	Jensen, I. N., & Westergaard, M. (2023). Syntax matters: Exploring the effect of linguistic similarity in third language acquisition. *Language Learning, 73*(2), 374–402.
SA17	Edmonds, A., & Gudmestad, A. (2023). Phraseological use and development during a stay abroad: Exploring sensitivity to frequency and cue contingency. *Language Learning, 73*(2), 475–507.
SA18	Wang, A., & Pellicer-Sánchez, A. (2022, 2022/09/01). Incidental vocabulary learning from bilingual subtitled viewing: An eye-tracking study. *Language Learning, 72*(3), 765–805.
SA23	Strawbridge, T. (2023). The relationship between social network typology, L2 proficiency growth, and curriculum design in university study abroad. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 45*(5), 1131–1161.
SA26	Zhang, Y. (2023). The effects of interleaved and blocked corpus-based practice on L2 pragmatic development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 45*(4), 812–837.
SA28	Dunn, K., & Iwaniec, J. (2022). Exploring the relationship between second language learning motivation and proficiency: A latent profiling approach. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 44*(4), 967–997.
SA29	Dang, T. N. Y., Lu, C., & Webb, S. (2022). Incidental learning of single words and collocations through viewing an academic lecture. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 44*(3), 708–736.
SA30	Suzuki, S., & Kormos, J. (2021, 11/13). The multidimensionality of second language oral fluency: Interfacing cognitive fluency and utterance fluency. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 45*.
SA31	Morrison, A., & Tavakoli, P. (2023). Task communicative function and oral fluency of L1 and L2 speakers. *The Modern Language Journal, 107*(4), 896–921.

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

TCI-Indexed Journals

TA1	Tuengkun, S., & Cedar, P. (2023). Judgments of EFL students on English stress placement. *Journal of English Language and Linguistics*, *4*(2), 100–116.
TA2	Inpanich, P. (2023). The use of COCA to promote Thai EFL public university students' autonomous learning. *Journal of English Language and Linguistics*, *4*(2), 17–28.
TA5	Sae-aia, W. (2021). An analysis of particularized conversational implicatures in Breaking Dawn 1 Movie. *Journal of English Language and Linguistics*, *2*(1), 115–136.
TA9	Balci, M., & Lynch, R. (2022). The relationship of English language usage skills, English reading proficiency and English self-efficacy with mathematics academic achievement of grades 3-4 and grades 5-6 students at Pan-Asia International School, Bangkok, Thailand. *Scholar: Human Sciences*, *14*(2), 42–42.
TA20	Hongwilai, A. (2022, 04/20). English reading development using computer assisted instruction on COVID-19 prevention for grade 10 students of Ummaoprachasan School. *Journal of Asian Language Teaching and Learning*, *3*(1), 53–70.
TA21	Wongsuwan, N., & In-Lom, P. S. (2020). A study of development of English speaking of the second year bachelor of education Myanmar students at Education Faculty, Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya University. *Journal of Teaching English*, *1*(1), 9–28.
TA33	Chumphong, O., & Chuai-in, P. (2020). The use of English language in tourism workplaces in Pakmeng Beach Area, Trang Province. *ABAC ODI Journal Vision. Action. Outcome*, *7*(1), 132.
TA36	Ruengwatthakee, P., & Haas, L. (2022). An investigation of Thai pre-service English teachers' perceptions towards using English as the medium of instruction in teaching practicum. *Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences Thepsatri Rajabhat University Journal*, *13*(1), 165–186.
TA39	Jittisukpong, P. (2023). Developing English reading comprehension ability and use of English tenses through question generating strategy instruction of EFL undergraduate students at Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology, Bangkok. *Journal of Roi Et Rajabhat University*, *17*(3), 3–11.
TA45	Kuan, W.-L. (2022). Students' perception of the CoI-based online flipped approach: Learning Mandarin as a foreign language. *Human Behavior, Development & Society*, *23*(3), 98–107.
TA49	Jantori, P. (2020). Examining digital practices of Thai pre-service EFL teachers through reflective journals. *Human Behavior, Development & Society*, *21*(4), 47–56.
TA50	Valenzuela, R. O., & Thomas, D. (2020). The development of academic English language learning strategies and academic motivation among international university students in Thailand. *Human Behavior, Development & Society*, *21*(3), 98–107.

Investigating Persuasive Metadiscoursal Strategies in the Discussion Sections of Research Articles: A Contrastive Corpus Study

TA51	Le, H. T., & Boonmoh, A. (2020). Thai students' production of English Coda clusters: An experiment on sonority with Thai university students taking an English fundamental course. *Human Behavior, Development & Society*, *21*(2), 17–29.
TA57	Kradniam, W., & Yuh Anchunda, H. (2023, 10/30). An enhancement of second year vocational certificate students' reading comprehension ability through KWL, Nakhonsawan Technical college. *Journal of Modern Learning Development*, *8*(10), 521–535.
TA68	Duangin, K., Samarng, C., & Paopukha, E. (2020). Integrating mobile devices with an English listening comprehension class. *Rangsit Journal of Educational Studies*, *7*(2), 40–49.

Note. In adherence to ethical and copyright considerations, the researcher obtained permission from all journals indexed in TCI.

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

Romain Benassaya

Theodore Maria, School of Art

Department of Business French, Assumption University, Thailand

Abstract

This action research examines the potential of leveraging Thai learners' proficiency in L2 English to enhance their morphological awareness and reading comprehension in L3 French. A total of 27 Thai learners with an intermediate level of English and a pre-intermediate level of French participated in the study. The research involved a pedagogical intervention aimed at increasing their awareness of morphological correspondences between French and English. It incorporated activities that highlighted crosslinguistic morphological patterns and utilized their English skills to facilitate the acquisition of French morphology. The intervention included a combination of guided observation techniques, such as input flood and textual enhancement, to emphasize morphological patterns common to both languages. A morphological awareness test comprising 48 items and a reading comprehension assessment consisting of 10 questions were administered before and after the intervention to measure its impact. The results revealed an improvement in both morphological awareness and reading comprehension in French and suggest that pedagogical interventions emphasizing morphological similarities between L2 English and L3 French have the potential to enhance morphological awareness and improve reading comprehension in L3 French.

Keywords: morphological awareness; crosslinguistic transfer; bilingual pedagogy; French language acquisition; reading comprehension

Introduction

This action research focuses on enhancing morphological awareness in French as a third language (L3) among Thai students who have at least an intermediate level of proficiency in English as their second language (L2). The study originates from the observation that Thai learners of French, regardless of their proficiency level, often struggle to identify cognates and infer meanings from lexical and morphological similarities between French and English, which in turn impedes their reading comprehension in French. This difficulty has been observed in both beginner and intermediate classes.

These difficulties may be attributed to a lack of morphological awareness, which was defined as "the ability to reflect upon and manipulate morphemes and employ word formation rules" (Kuo & Anderson, 2006, p. 161). Morphemes are the smallest units that convey semantic and syntactic information. These units include root words that can stand alone as words and affixes (prefixes and suffixes) that modify the meaning and grammatical status of the root word. For example, the word *unequal* is formed by adding the prefix *un-* to the root word *equal*.

Morphological awareness is recognized as a key factor influencing reading proficiency in both first and second languages (Carlisle, 2003; Lee et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2024). Research indicates that instruction aimed at enhancing morphological awareness can improve reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition (Goodwin & Ahn, 2013; Nation & Bauer, 2023; Wardana, 2023). Additionally, there is growing evidence that drawing connections between languages promotes crosslinguistic morphological transfers and supports metalinguistic awareness (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; Ke et al., 2023; Woll & Paquet, 2021).

This study hypothesizes that activating prior morphological knowledge in English and emphasizing crosslinguistic morphological correspondences between French and English can enhance learners' morphological awareness in French, thereby improving their reading proficiency. Given the significant lexical and morphological similarities between English and French, morphological instruction focused on these correspondences is particularly relevant. Both languages use affixes to form words with different meanings or grammatical functions. For example, a morphological correspondence can be seen in the addition of the suffix *-ly* in English and *-ment* in French to adjectives to form adverbs, such as *rarely* in English (*rare + ly*) and *rarement* in French (*rare + ment*).

Although research on Thai learners' morphological awareness has been conducted, particularly in relation to English, limited attention has been given to this topic in the context of learning French. This action research aims to help fill this gap by addressing the following research question: To what extent does a pedagogical intervention that activates students' morphological knowledge in L2 English positively influence their awareness of morphological correspondences between L2 English and L3 French, as well as their reading comprehension in L3 French?

Literature Review

Morphological Awareness and Reading Skills

Research studies suggest that morphological awareness is a key factor influencing various aspects of reading proficiency in both first and second languages. Carlisle (2003) emphasized the importance of developing awareness of the morphemic structure of words to improve reading, spelling, and understanding of complex words,

highlighting the importance of integrating a focus on both form and meaning when teaching vocabulary to young learners. Ke and Xiao (2015) documented the connection between morphological awareness and the development of various components of reading proficiency, including word identification, decoding, orthography, and word meaning deduction. Lee et al. (2023) found that morphological awareness is linked to literacy skills, including vocabulary expansion, word reading, orthography, and reading comprehension. Additionally, Liu et al. (2024) demonstrated a significant association between morphological awareness, particularly derivational morphological awareness, and reading comprehension.

Research also suggests that instruction aimed at enhancing morphological awareness not only expands vocabulary but also improves reading comprehension. In a meta-analysis of morphological interventions in English, Goodwin and Ahn (2013) found that such instruction has a moderate overall effect on language and literacy outcomes, including vocabulary, decoding, and spelling, when compared to control groups. Similarly, an experimental study by Thanh and Yen (2023) demonstrated that morphological instruction positively influences the lexical complexity and quality of Vietnamese high school students' academic essays, with students expressing positive attitudes toward incorporating morphology into their writing lessons. Additionally, Chen and Nordin (2024) reported that a morphological intervention they conducted among Chinese university students had a direct, significant effect on both vocabulary depth and range, as well as an indirect effect on listening comprehension. These studies suggest that as students develop morphological awareness and learn strategies for analyzing unknown words, they become more likely to apply these strategies in reading, thereby enhancing their reading skills.

Assessing Morphological Awareness

A variety of tests have been developed to assess morphological awareness (e.g., Carlisle, 2003; Chapleau et al., 2016; Kuo & Anderson, 2006; Lyster et al., 2013), with a broad range of task types used in research to measure its different dimensions. One of the most used tasks in the literature is the derivation task, in which participants are required to produce a derived form of a root word to complete a sentence. For example, participants might be presented with: *A person who is not patient is ...*, and they must respond with *impatient*. This task has been shown to assess participants' awareness of morphological structure, their ability to recognize the syntactic category of the target word, and their capacity to derive the appropriate form (Jeon, 2011).

Another commonly used task is the decomposition task, which requires participants to extract the base morpheme from a morphologically complex word. For example, they may be presented with the word *happiness* and asked to complete the sentence: *She felt very ...* They are expected to fill in the blank with the word *happy*. This task has been linked to the evaluation of participants' relational knowledge (Choi, 2015), which refers to the ability to understand how morphemes relate to one another within words and how these relationships affect meaning and form. Relational

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

knowledge involves recognizing morphological patterns that connect different forms of a word (e.g., *equal*, *unequal*, *inequality*).

Other tasks include the relational judgment task, in which participants are asked to determine whether two words share a morphological relationship. For example, they may be presented with pairs such as *teach* and *teacher* or *hat* and *hate* and asked to identify whether these words are morphologically related. This task assesses participants' sensitivity to relational morphology, as well as their ability to process the semantic and syntactic information encoded in morphemes (Kuo & Anderson, 2006).

In the affix choice task, participants must select the most appropriate morphologically complex word from a list to complete a sentence. For example, they may be presented with the following sentence and options: *The teacher was very … about her students' progress in class. A. encourage B. encouraged C. encouraging D. encouragement*. Participants are expected to select option C. This task assesses participants' knowledge of the syntactic properties of affixes (Kuo & Anderson, 2006).

Additionally, several other tasks evaluate how well participants can use the semantic and syntactic information conveyed by affixes to identify grammatical relationships. These tasks include the definition task, odd-one-out task, and word analogy task.

Plurilingual Pedagogies and Morphological Awareness

Research has shown that facilitating connections between languages enhances the acquisition of second and additional languages, as multilingual learners possess a more extensive linguistic toolkit than monolingual learners (Fleming et al., 2023; Ringbom, 2006). This broader linguistic repertoire allows them to draw on their knowledge of morphology and syntax across languages, particularly when the languages share typological similarities. The use of crosslinguistic similarities to develop morphological awareness in a second language has been widely documented (De Togni, 2024; Ke et al., 2023).

Crosslinguistic similarities in orthography, morphology, syntax, and phonology serve as bridges to unfamiliar languages and facilitate crosslinguistic transfers, which can be defined as the use of knowledge from one language to enhance the acquisition of another. Cenoz and Gorter (2017) described various crosslinguistic pedagogical strategies that positively impact learners' morphological awareness. These strategies include the simultaneous use of different languages, leveraging lexical similarities and cognates, translation, and the comparison and contrast of language structures and morphology. Teng and Fang (2022) found that Japanese learners of Chinese who received translanguaging instruction achieved significantly higher morphological awareness scores compared to those taught using a monolingual approach. The learners also reported a positive perception of the translanguaging strategies used for morphology learning, mentioning cognitive and affective benefits. Zrig (2024) found that Tunisian students' knowledge of word structure in French significantly transferred

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

to English, improving their understanding of both similar and dissimilar English words. However, he did not identify a significant transfer of morphological knowledge from Arabic to English, emphasizing the importance of language proximity.

Other studies suggest that crosslinguistic interaction at the morphological level is possible even when dealing with typologically distinct languages. For example, Zhang (2016) conducted an intervention in Singapore aimed at developing morphological awareness and found that teaching English derivation positively affected morphological awareness in both English and Malay, as well as performance on word reading tasks.

Morphological Correspondences between English and French

Given the lexical and morphological similarities between English and French, instruction that emphasizes crosslinguistic resemblances and correspondences between the two languages appears highly relevant. Despite their typological differences, English and French share a significant vocabulary derived from Latin and Greek roots, having enriched each other through continuous exchanges over the past millennia (Sergiivna et al., 2020). The affixation processes in both languages are often similar and transparent, facilitating the identification of morphological correspondences (Paillard, 2011; Romero-Barranco, 2020). Derivational affixes are combined with base morphemes to create words with different meanings or to change their grammatical categories.

Prefixes typically convey semantic information. French and English share a significant number of similar or identical prefixes inherited from Greek and Latin. Examples include *bi-*, *ex-*, *inter-*, *kilo-*, *mega-* (*méga-* in French), *mini-*, *mono-*, *multi-*, *poly-*, *post-*, *super-*, and *trans-* (Lefer, 2010). Table 1 provides examples of prefixes and derivatives that are similar in both languages.

Table 1

English and French Similar Prefixes (Examples)

English			French		
Prefix	**Meaning**	**Derivative**	**Prefix**	**Meaning**	**Derivative**
Dis-	Opposite	*Disinfect*	*Dé-/Dés-*	Opposite	*Désinfecter*
In-/Im-	Not	*Impossible*	*In-/Im-*	Not	*Impossible*
Mi- /Mid-	Middle	*Midway*	*Mi-*	Middle	*Mi-chemin*
Pre-	Before	*Prehistory*	*Pré-*	Before	*Préhistoire*
Re-	Again	*Return*	*Re-*	Again	*Retour*

Note. Source Lefer, M. A. (2010). Word-formation in English-French bilingual dictionaries: the contribution of bilingual corpora. In *Proceedings of the XIV Euralex International Congress*. Fryske Akademy, 810-823.

The suffixes in French and English typically convey syntactic information (Menut et al., 2024). Several suffixation processes, such as nominalization, adjectival

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

conversion, and adverbialization, are similar in both languages. Table 2 provides examples of the corresponding suffixation processes in French and English, which are numerous and cannot be exhaustively listed here.

Table 2

English and French Correspondences in Affixation Processes (Examples)

English			French		
Suffix	**Root**	**Noun**	**Suffix**	**Root**	**Noun**
Nominalization					
-ation	*Organize*	*Organization*	*-ation*	*Organiser*	*Organisation*
-al	*Accident*	*Accidental*	*-el*	*Accident*	*Accidentel*
Conversion to adjective					
-ary	*Imagine*	*Imaginary*	*-aire*	*Imaginer*	*Imaginaire*
-able	*Reason*	*Reasonable*	*-able*	*Raison*	*Raisonnable*
Adverbialization					
-ly	*Rare*	*Rarely*	*-ment*	*Rare*	*Rarement*

Note. Source Menut, A., Brysbaert, M., & Casalis, S. (2024). Do French speakers have an advantage in learning English vocabulary thanks to familiar suffixes? *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*.

Studies have documented the role that proficiency in English can play in facilitating the acquisition of French. In a qualitative study, Imsil (2021) demonstrated that students learning French at a Thai university are aware of their English proficiency and leverage it to enhance their French writing development. Lam et al. (2019) also investigated the impact of English learners' awareness of crosslinguistic suffix correspondences on French reading comprehension. They found that both English and French morphological awareness were related to reading comprehension and that awareness of crosslinguistic suffix correspondences was associated with individual differences in French reading comprehension. These findings highlight the importance of recognizing crosslinguistic similarities in affixation processes for developing reading comprehension skills.

Approaches for Enhancing Learners' Awareness of Morphological Correspondences

Several studies (e.g., Hassanzadeh & Shahbazi, 2021; Woll & Paquet, 2021) have documented the effectiveness of consciousness-raising instruction techniques, which utilize an inductive teaching approach in plurilingual education. These techniques allow learners to observe and identify crosslinguistic similarities, formulate hypotheses about the target language, and make inferences, thereby facilitating positive transfer between languages.

The PACE model is an example of consciousness-raising instruction that was originally designed for teaching grammar (Donato & Adair-Hauck, 2016). The acronym PACE stands for Presentation, Attention, Co-construction, and Extension. Presentation involves introducing the learning objective through a text, whether oral or written. Attention guides learners to focus on the learning objective using guided observation techniques. Co-construction occurs when learners and the teacher collaboratively formulate explanations or infer grammatical rules. Finally, Extension provides learners with opportunities to apply the inferred rules and use the targeted forms and structures in meaningful contexts.

This model has been documented as an effective method for teaching second language grammar and morphology across various educational contexts (Li & Tuo, 2023; Okine & Zapata, 2023).

Input flood and textual enhancement, two guided observation techniques designed to draw learners' attention to specific features of the target language (White & Wong, 2024), can be effectively integrated with the PACE model. Input flood increases the frequency of targeted forms and structures in a text to facilitate their detection, while textual enhancement highlights these forms to make them more noticeable. The underlying hypothesis is that learners will more easily perceive the targeted forms due to their increased frequency and emphasis, making it easier for them to integrate these forms into the learning process. Studies have shown that these techniques improve learners' ability to identify the targeted forms (Woll & Paquet, 2021).

Together with these guided observation techniques, the PACE model provides a framework for developing activities that help learners recognize and leverage crosslinguistic morphological similarities.

Methodology

Description of the Research Context

The data for this study were collected in 2024 at an international university in Bangkok, Thailand, where English serves as both the medium of instruction and communication. The participants consisted of 27 students enrolled in a Bachelor of Arts program.

The participants were native Thai speakers with English as their L2 and French as their L3. At the time of the study, all participants had achieved at least a B1 (Intermediate) level in English, according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR, Council of Europe, 2001). Their English proficiency was verified either through the course level they had completed or their IELTS scores, which were at least 5. They had also completed a minimum of 90 class hours of French and had reached an A2 (pre-intermediate) level in this language. Several challenges related to morphological awareness were observed, including difficulties recognizing crosslinguistic morphological patterns (e.g., shared affixes between English and

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading
Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

French), identifying cognates, and decomposing unfamiliar multimorphemic words into morphemes. These challenges affected their ability to process new vocabulary, infer meaning, and hinder their reading comprehension.

Prior to the study, participants were informed about its objectives and assured that the data collected would be anonymized and used only for research purposes. Their consent was obtained, and they were told that they could withdraw from the study at any time.

Research Design and Process

The study employed a pre-experimental design. While it follows the basic features of an experimental research design, randomization was not applied in the selection of participants, and there was no control group. This design was chosen because it was part of an action research project conducted by the researcher with their own students, aimed at gaining insights into the students' identified weaknesses and developing a remediation plan.

The research followed four steps:

1. At the beginning of the semester, participants completed a pretest assessing their morphological awareness in French, their awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between French and English, and their reading comprehension skills.
2. Over the next two weeks, a pedagogical intervention was implemented to activate participants' L2 English knowledge and skills to enhance their reading comprehension in French. The intervention was conducted over three classes, totaling four and a half hours.
3. In the following week, participants completed a post-test.

Instruments

The pretest and post-test included a test of French morphological awareness and awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between French and English, and two reading comprehension tests (one for the pretest and the other for the post-test).

Test of French Morphological Awareness and Awareness of Crosslinguistic Affixation Correspondences between French and English

The Morphological Awareness Test in French used in this study was adapted from the tests proposed by Chapleau et al. (2016) and Lyster et al. (2013). These tests were selected because they were developed in the context of research examining crosslinguistic morphological influence between English and French. Additionally, both tests have been validated through empirical research, ensuring that they reliably measure morphological awareness and provide consistent results across different studies.

[115]

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

The test comprised four tasks focused on morphological awareness in French and two additional tasks specifically assessing awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between French and English.

The four tasks focusing on morphological awareness in French were:

1. A derivation task, in which participants were asked to provide a derivative word by adding a prefix or suffix to a root word (e.g., *dangereux* from *danger*, *portable* from *port*) to complete a sentence.
2. A decomposition task in which participants were given a list of words made of at least two morphemes (e.g., *préhistoire*, *rarement*) and asked to decompose them into their root word and morphemes.
3. A relational judgement task in which participants were asked to determine whether two words with similar lexical frequency were morphologically related (e.g., *fille* and *fillette*, *dent* and *dentiste*, *très* and *trésor*, *table* and *portable*).
4. An affix choice task, in which participants were asked to select the morphologically complex word that best completed a sentence.

The two tasks assessing awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between French and English were:

1. A crosslinguistic affix correspondence identification task, where participants were given a list of multimorphemic English words along with their French translations and were asked to identify the corresponding affixes (e.g., *un-* and *in-* in the words *unequal* and *inégal*).
2. An inference task on morphological structures, where students were asked to determine the French translation of multimorphemic English words based on the affixation correspondences they identified in the previous task.

Each task was scored out of 8 points, for a total possible score of 48 points.

Reading Test

The reading comprehension test followed the same format as the DELF A2 (*Diplôme d'Études en Langue Française*) examination, which is the official qualifications conferred by the French Ministry of Education to certify the competency of candidates from outside France in the French language, at the A2 level of the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001). The test comprised a set of two written documents accompanied by 10 comprehension questions, aiming to evaluate the participants' ability to understand written French texts. The DELF provides a reliable and standardized method for evaluating reading proficiency, ensuring consistency with recognized language assessment criteria. The test was scored out of 25 points.

The participants were given a maximum time of 15 minutes to complete the morphological and crosslinguistic correspondences awareness test and were instructed to attempt every question, whether they were sure about the answer or not. It was

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading
Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

completed during class time. The reading test was completed the following class as a part of learning activities. Participants were given 25 minutes to complete it.

Intervention

The pedagogical intervention aimed to enhance participants' awareness of affixation correspondences between French and English, equipping them with the knowledge necessary to identify the functions and statuses of French words based on their morphology and similarities with their English equivalent. The intervention was planned for three sessions, each lasting one hour and twenty minutes.

The intervention centered around three 220-word texts in French, aligned with the A2 level of the CEFR. The texts were modified using input flood and textual enhancement techniques. They were revised to include multiple instances of nominalization, adjectival conversion, and adverbialization processes that are similar in both French and English. These occurrences were underlined to make them easier to detect. Two language instructors were invited to validate the texts and provide suggestions for improvement before implementation.

Each session was centered on the analysis of one text. Participants were tasked with inferring the meaning and grammatical status of twenty underlined words within the text, such as *positivement*, *portable*, or *globalisation*. During the intervention, participants were expected to use their knowledge of English morphology to make educated guesses about the corresponding French forms, then to explicitly identify the morphological correspondences between the two languages. This process was designed to stimulate their ability to recognize morphological similarities and establish crosslinguistic correspondences.

The first session focused on cognate identification and nominalization. Participants were expected to identify that the suffixes *-tion* or *-ation*, in both English and French, are added to a verb base to form a noun. For example, the French noun *organisation* is derived from the verb *organiser*.

The second session focused on the processes of converting words into adjectives. Participants were expected to identify correspondences between the use of prefixes and suffixes; for example, the suffix *-eux* added to a noun in French corresponds to the suffix *-ous* in English, as can be seen in the adjectives *dangereux* and *dangerous*.

The third session focused on adverbialization processes. Participants were expected to identify correspondences between the use of prefixes and suffixes; for example, the suffix *-ment* added to an adjective in French, is similar to the suffix *-ly* in English, as seen in the adverbs *rarement* and *rarely*.

Each session included five phases, derived from the PACE model (Donato & Adair-Hauck, 2016) as follows:

1. Global comprehension: In this phase, participants individually answered a series of questions about the text. The objective was to familiarize them with both the meaning and form, with an emphasis on meaning. This step was followed by a group discussion to verify comprehension.

2. Guided observation: This phase aimed to help participants identify the targeted forms in the text and recognize the morphological correspondences between French and English. The focus was on form and reading for noticing. Participants were divided into groups of three. This step was followed by a group discussion in which students were asked to make guesses regarding the meaning and grammatical status of the words. By focusing on the form, participants were to notice similarities and differences between French and English and formulate hypotheses.

3. Co-construction: This phase aimed to guide groups of participants in identifying differences in word formation processes between French and English and refining their hypotheses.

4. Validation: In this phase, participants shared their conclusions regarding their hypotheses. The objective was to validate the hypotheses, reformulate the rules, provide additional examples, and address any questions.

5. Extension and evaluation: This phase provided participants with opportunities to apply the word formation rules through exercises.

Table 3 summarizes the intervention process for each session.

Table 3

Intervention Process for each Session

Phase	Objectives/ Expected Outcomes	Input and Method	Characteristics
1. Global comprehension	Introduction the learning object	Modified text; focus on meaning	Individual work; 15 minutes
2. Guided observation	Identification of correspondences	Modified text; focus on form	Collaborative work; 15 minutes
3. Co-construction	Formulation of hypotheses	Modified text; focus on form	Collaborative work; 20 minutes
4. Validation	Validation of hypotheses	Modified text; focus on form	Collaborative work; 15 minutes
5. Extension	Reuse of targeted forms	Exercises	Individual work; 15 minutes

It is important to note that British English was used both in the intervention and the research instruments. The rationale behind this choice was that British orthography aligns more closely with French than American English. For example, the British English word *globalisation* shares the same spelling as the French *globalisation*, whereas the American English equivalent is *globalization*. This similarity was intended

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

to help participants more easily recognize the morphological patterns between the two languages and facilitate task completion.

Data Analysis

The data analysis process involved three major steps to assess the impact of the intervention on participants' morphological awareness, awareness of crosslinguistic correspondences, and reading comprehension. First, descriptive statistics were calculated for both the pretest and post-test scores, including means and standard deviations. These measures provided insights into participants' initial awareness and reading proficiency levels, as well as any changes following the intervention.

The grid in Table 4 was used to interpret the results of the morphological and crosslinguistic correspondences awareness assessments. For the reading test results, the interpretation grid is also provided in Table 4 and is based on the A2 level descriptors from the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001) for reading comprehension.

Table 4

Interpretation Grid for Morphological and Crosslinguistic Correspondences Awareness

Score Range	Awareness Level	Interpretation
85 - 100	Advanced Awareness	Demonstrates a deep and comprehensive morphological awareness
70 - 84	Upper-Intermediate Awareness	Shows a strong morphological awareness with only minor gaps.
55 - 69	Intermediate Awareness	Demonstrates morphological awareness but with some noticeable gaps or limitations.
40 - 54	Basic Awareness	Displays limited morphological awareness
Below 39	Minimal Awareness	Demonstrates little to no morphological awareness.

Table 5

Interpretation Grid for A2 Reading Comprehension Results

Score Range	Reading Comprehension Level	Interpretation
19 - 25	Strong (A2+ reader)	Demonstrates strong comprehension of texts at the A2 level. Can understand main ideas and specific details in familiar topics.
14 - 18	Good (A2 reader)	Shows good comprehension of texts at the A2 level. Can grasp main ideas and some specific details but may struggle with less familiar vocabulary or structures.

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

Score Range	Reading Comprehension Level	Interpretation
9 - 13	Partial (A2- reader)	Demonstrates partial comprehension of A2-level texts. Can identify some main ideas but may miss specific details.
0 - 8	Limited (Under the level A2)	Shows limited comprehension of A2-level texts. Struggles with understanding the main ideas and specific details.

In the second step, paired-samples *t*-tests were conducted to test the hypothesis that the intervention led to significant improvements in participants' morphological awareness, their ability to recognize crosslinguistic correspondences between the two languages, and their A2-level reading comprehension in French.

Findings

Pretest Measures

The first step of this action research was to assess the participants' morphological awareness in L3 French, their awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between L3 French and L2 English, and their reading proficiency before the intervention.

Regarding morphological awareness in L3 French and their awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between L3 French and L2 English, test scores (out of 48 points) ranged from 17 (35.42% correct answers, minimal awareness) to 44 (91.67% correct answers, high awareness), with a mean score of 30.04 (62.58% correct answers, SD = 18.68, intermediate awareness). This significant variability among participants suggests that while some had a relatively strong grasp of French morphological structures, others were still developing these skills. This variability was also evident in scores for both morphological awareness and awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between French and English.

Scores for morphological awareness in L3 French (out of 32 points) ranged from 11 (34.37% correct answers) to 28 (87.5% correct answers), with a mean score of 19.92 (62.27% correct answers, SD = 16.67). The overall level of morphological awareness in French among the participants at this time of the study was intermediate.

Scores were the lowest on the derivation task (M = 4.09). In this task, participants were asked to provide a derived word by adding a prefix or suffix to a root word (e.g., *dangereux* from *danger*) to complete a sentence. The most frequent error occurred in the item: *Ce n'est pas réel. C'est …* (*It is not real, it is …*). The expected answer was *irréel* (unreal), and it was provided by 25.9% of participants. One possible explanation for this difficulty is that the French prefix differs from the English equivalent,

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

preventing participants from relying on their knowledge of English. Common incorrect responses included *unréel* or *inréel*, suggesting that participants understood the semantic function of prefixes but applied them inaccurately in this context. This is further supported by the fact that the item *Il n'est pas patient, il est …* (*He is not patient, he is …*), where the correct answer was *impatient*, identical in both French and English, had the highest rate of correct responses (85.19%).

Scores for awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between French and English (out of 16 points) ranged from 4 (25% correct answers) to 16 (100% correct answers), with a mean score of 10.11 (63.19% correct answers, SD = 24.35). The overall level of awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences was also intermediate, consistent with the participants' pre-intermediate level in French. These results suggest that, at this stage of the study, participants could recognize some morphological similarities between the two languages, though further development was necessary.

In the inference task on morphological structures, where students were asked to determine the French translation of multimorphemic English words, several types of errors were observed. A common error involved the use of negative prefixes. For instance, the word *dissatisfaction* was frequently translated directly as *dissatisfaction* instead of the correct French term *insatisfaction* (48.15% of responses). This reflects an overgeneralization of affix usage across languages. Additionally, some participants (33.33% of responses) mistakenly combined a French root word with an English affix: they chose *un-* instead of *in-*, producing the incorrect form *unégal*. This direct transfer of English affixation patterns into French suggests, as seen in the derivation task errors, that participants perceived correspondences in affixation processes at this stage.

Table 6 presents the results for each dimension of morphological awareness and awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between French and English in the pretest.

Table 6

Levels of Morphological Awareness and Crosslinguistic Affixation Correspondences between French and English in Pretest (N=27)

	Range	Means	SD
Derivation Task	0-8	4.09	2.41
Decomposition Task	0-8	5.85	2.09
Relational Judgement Task	2-7	5.18	1.26
Affix Choice Task	2-8	4.81	1.53
Total (out of 32)	11-28	19.94	5.33

	Range	Means	SD
Crosslinguistic Affix Correspondence Identification Task	0-8	5.85	2.58
Inference Task on Morphological Structures	0-8	4.26	2.23
Total (out of 16)	4-16	10.11	3.9
Grand Total (out of 48)	17-44	30.04	8.97

Regarding the participants' reading comprehension level in L3 French, test scores out of a maximum of 25 points ranged from 12 (48%) to 20 (80%), with a mean score of 15.96 (63.85%, SD = 11.71). These results indicate a generally good level of reading comprehension in French, corresponding to the A2 level. However, the significant variability in scores reflects differences in reading abilities among the participants. While some demonstrated a strong understanding of French texts, achieving scores as high as 80%, others scored as low as 48%, suggesting that they may not yet have fully reached the A2 level.

Post-Test Measures

The second step of this action research was to assess the participants' morphological awareness in L3 French, their awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between L3 French and L2 English, and their reading proficiency after the intervention.

Post-test scores (out of 48 points) ranged from 20 (41.67% correct answers) to 45 (93.75% correct answers), with a mean of 33.62 (70.06% correct answers, SD = 14.63), indicating an upper-intermediate level of awareness. Compared to the pretest results, there was an overall increase of 3.58 points. This suggests that the overall level of awareness had reached the threshold of upper-intermediate by this stage of the study. Although variability among participants decreased, it remained significant, with all participants demonstrating at least a basic level of awareness after the intervention.

In the post-test, scores for morphological awareness in French (out of 32 points) ranged from 14 (43.75% correct answers) to 29 (90.62% correct answers), with a mean of 22.63 (70.72% correct answers, SD = 12.89). This reflects an overall increase of 2.69 points compared to the pretest results. At this stage, the participants' overall level of morphological awareness in French was also at the threshold of upper-intermediate.

In the derivation task, there was an improvement in participants' ability to provide derived forms. Notably, the number of students who answered correctly increased from 25.9% to 51.85% for the word *irréel* (unreal) and from 85.19% to 100% for the word *important*. This suggests that the intervention had a positive effect on participants' understanding of French derivational morphology.

Post-test scores for awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between French and English (out of 16 points) ranged from 6 (37.5% correct answers)

[122]
*Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading
Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners*

to 16 (100% correct answers), with a mean of 11 (68.75% correct answers, SD = 20.21). This reflects an overall increase of 0.89 points compared to the pretest results. The participants' overall level of awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences remained at an intermediate level.

The inference task on morphological structures showed improvement (from M = 4.26, SD = 2.23 to M = 4.78, SD = 2.08 in the post-test); however, overgeneralization errors persisted, with 40.74% of incorrect answers for the item *dissatisfaction* in the post-test, compared to 48.15% in the pre-test. Incorrect affix substitution also remained an issue. This persistence in errors could be attributed to the difficulty of unlearning established L2 morphological patterns when learning L3 structures, but it suggests that participants perceive the similarities between the two languages and correspondences in affixation processes.

Table 7 presents the post-test results for each dimension of morphological awareness and awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between French and English.

Table 7

Levels of Morphological Awareness and Crosslinguistic Affixation Correspondences between French and English in Post-Test (N=27)

	Range	Means	SD
Derivation Task	1-8	5.03	2.14
Decomposition Task	3-8	6.3	1.3
Relational Judgement Task	3-7	5.3	1.23
Affix Choice Task	3-8	6	1.33
Total (out of 32)	14-29	22.63	4.12
Crosslinguistic Affix Correspondence Identification Task	2-8	6.22	1.74
Inference Task on Morphological Structures	1-8	4.78	2.08
Total (out of 16)	6-16	11	3.23
Total (out of 48)	20-45	33.62	7.02

Post-test reading comprehension scores, out of 25 points, ranged from 13 (52%) to 22 (88%), with a mean score of 16.59 (66.37%, SD = 11.27), reflecting an increase of 0.63 points compared to the pretest. The variability in scores remained stable both before and after the intervention.

Comparison of Pretest and Post-test

Paired-samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare the pretest and post-test measures of morphological awareness and awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between French and English.

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

Overall, the results indicated that the post-test scores (M = 70.06, SD = 14.63) were significantly higher than the pretest scores (M = 62.58, SD = 18.58), with a strong effect size, t(26) = 6.93, p < .001. This suggests that the intervention led to a significant improvement in the participants' morphological awareness and their ability to recognize crosslinguistic correspondences between the two languages.

To gain a more nuanced understanding, separate paired-samples *t*-tests were conducted for each dimension of the test.

For morphological awareness in French (tasks 1 to 4), the post-test scores (M = 22.63, SD = 4.12) were significantly higher than the pretest scores (M = 19.94, SD = 5.33), t(26) = -7.32, p < .001. This result indicates a notable improvement in the participants' ability to analyze and manipulate morphological structures within French.

Similarly, for awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between French and English, the post-test scores (M = 11, SD = 3.23) were significantly higher than the pretest scores (M = 10.11, SD = 3.90), t(26) = -3.89, p < .001. Although the gain in this dimension was smaller, the improvement was still statistically significant, indicating enhanced recognition of morphological similarities between the two languages.

These findings collectively suggest that the intervention had a positive impact on both the participants' morphological awareness in French and their ability to draw crosslinguistic connections between French and English.

A comparison for each task in the test was also conducted. Participants achieved higher scores in all six post-test tasks, as shown in Table 8. The increase was particularly statistically significant for the derivation task (t(26) = −4.35, p < .001), the affix choice task (t(26) = −4.2, p < .001), and the inference task on morphological structures (t(26) = −3.32, p < .001). However, the increase was not statistically significant for the relational judgment task (t(26) = −1.54, p = .07), highlighting an area where further intervention may be needed.

Table 8

Differences between Pretest and Post-Test Scores for Morphological Awareness and Awareness of Affixation Crosslinguistic Morphological Correspondences (N = 27)

	Pretest M(SD)	Post-test M(SD)	T	*p*
Derivation Task	4.11(2.34)	5.04(2.14)	-4.35	.001
Decomposition Task	5.78(2.27)	6.3(1.29)	-2.21	.02

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

	Pretest M(SD)	Post-test M(SD)	T	*p*
Relational Judgement Task	5.11(1.28)	5.3(1.14)	-1.54	.07
Affix Choice Task	4.92(1.61)	6(1.33)	-4.2	.001
Crosslinguistic Affix Correspondence Identification Task	5.85(2.58)	6.22(1.74)	-1.67	.05
Inference Task on Morphological Structures	4.26(2.23)	4.78(2.08)	-3.32	.001

Finally, a paired-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the reading comprehension scores from the pretest and post-test. The results indicated that post-test scores (M = 66.37, SD = 11.27) were significantly higher than pretest scores (M = 63.85, SD = 11.71), t(26) = 5.2, p < .001.

These findings suggest that the intervention had a positive effect on both morphological awareness in French and awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between French and English, as well as on reading comprehension at the A2 level of the CEFR among the participants. The results also indicate that the intervention had a greater impact on morphological awareness, particularly in the derivation task, the affix choice task, and the inference task on morphological structures, compared to reading comprehension, where the improvement, while significant, was less pronounced.

Figure 1. Pre- and Post-Test Means
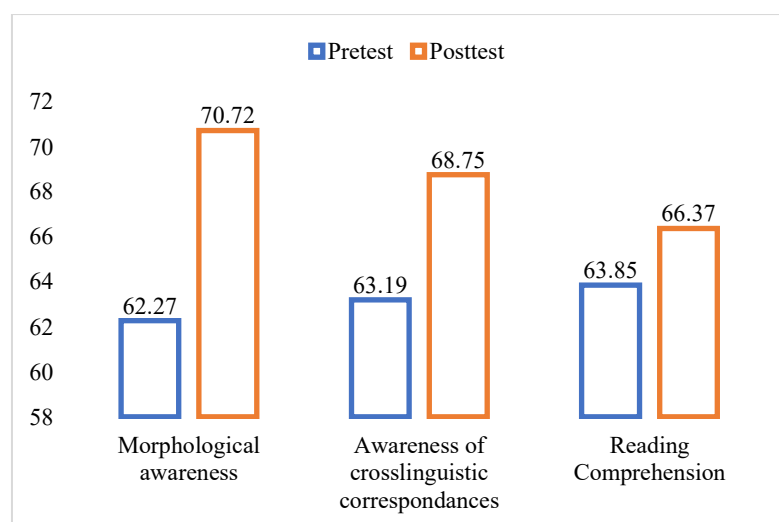
Discussion

This study aimed to explore the impact of a pedagogical intervention designed to activate students' morphological knowledge in L2 English on their morphological awareness and reading comprehension in L3 French. Specifically, it sought to determine the extent to which this intervention could enhance students' awareness of affixation

correspondences between L2 English and L3 French and improve their reading comprehension in L3 French.

The results suggest that the intervention positively impacted students' morphological awareness in L3 French, their awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences between L2 English and L3 French, and their reading comprehension in L3 French. The significant improvements observed in post-test scores across all measured dimensions indicate that the intervention was effective in promoting the activation and transfer of morphological knowledge from English to French. These findings align with previous research that highlights the benefits of crosslinguistic transfer and bilingual pedagogy in developing morphological awareness and reading comprehension (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; Lam et al., 2019; Teng & Fang, 2022; Zhang, 2016; Zrig, 2024), which reported higher scores in morphological awareness tests for students who participated in interventions leveraging crosslinguistic resources.

The lack of significant pretest-post-test differences in the Relational Judgement task of the morphological awareness test could be due to limitations in the intervention, which may have been more effective in enhancing awareness and skills related to other tasks (Derivation and Affix choice) rather than this one. The Relational Judgement task, which assesses participants' sensitivity to relational morphological knowledge, requires a more extensive vocabulary range and depth than the other tasks. Additionally, the skills involved were not specifically targeted by the intervention, highlighting an area for improvement in future cycles of this action research.

The limited improvement in the inference task on morphological structure could be attributed to the task's complexity, as it involved higher cognitive demands and required a deeper understanding of morphological rules and structures than the other tasks.

The improvement in students' reading comprehension scores suggests that the intervention not only strengthened their morphological awareness but also enhanced their ability to understand French texts. This finding highlights the importance of morphological awareness as a component of reading comprehension and the role of crosslinguistic morphological transfer, particularly between languages with shared morphological features (Ke et al., 2023; Lee et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2024). The results further confirm that explicitly drawing attention to the morphological similarities between English and French enables students to leverage their L2 knowledge to support L3 learning. This aligns with Lam et al. (2019), who found that morphological awareness in both English and French facilitates reading comprehension.

The more significant difference between the morphological awareness tests compared to the reading comprehension tests may result from the intervention being primarily focused on improving awareness of crosslinguistic affixation correspondences. The improvement in French reading comprehension, although it did occur, was only hypothesized at the time the intervention was designed.

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

Overall, the quantitative data suggest that, within the specific context of the study, the intervention focusing on form and on crosslinguistic morphological correspondences between English and French was effective in improving both morphological awareness and reading proficiency in French.

Limitations and Recommendations

This study has several limitations that must be considered. First, as an action research project, it was confined to a specific context with a limited number of participants, making the findings most relevant to this setting. Although the paired-samples *t*-tests provided an objective measure of the change in participants' performance after the pretest, an experimental study with additional objective measures, such as a control group of students with English proficiency below the B1 level, could be conducted to achieve more generalizable results. This approach would enable a comparison of the research outcomes and further validate the significance of the pedagogical intervention. Additionally, gathering qualitative data to support the intervention's impact could add depth to the findings and strengthen the case for its effectiveness.

However, despite these limitations, the findings align with those of other studies. In this regard, this action research contributes to the body of work on morphological awareness instruction by demonstrating, within the context of the study, the potential of utilizing Thai students' prior linguistic knowledge in L2 English to enhance and facilitate the acquisition of L3 French. The findings further suggest that instructors should capitalize on the proximity, similarities, and correspondences between English and French to support language acquisition. By creating connections between languages and recognizing the value of students' prior linguistic knowledge through crosslinguistic pedagogies, instructors can positively influence learning outcomes.

In a next cycle, this action research could expand the intervention to include not only reading but also writing, listening, and speaking tasks that activate L2 English morphological knowledge. This approach would allow researchers to observe the transfer of skills across different linguistic competencies. Future studies could also investigate the learning styles or patterns that enhance French morphological awareness and reading comprehension through pedagogical intervention. This could contribute to the development of more inclusive and effective language teaching methodologies.

Author

Romain Benassaya is an Assistant Professor at Assumption University, Bangkok, Thailand, with over 15 years' experience teaching French as a foreign language. He holds a Ph.D. in Educational Leadership from Assumption University and a Master of

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

Arts in Language Teaching from Sorbonne Nouvelle University, Paris, France. His research interests include the didactics of French and foreign languages, multilingual language acquisition, and psycholinguistic processes involved in L2 and L3 acquisition.

References

Carlisle, J. F. (2003). Morphology matters in learning to read: A commentary. *Reading Psychology*, *24*(3–4), 291–322. https://doi.org/10.1080/02702710390227369

Cenoz, J., & Gorter, D. (2017). Translanguaging as a pedagogical tool in multilingual education. In J. Cenoz, D. Gorter, & S. May (Eds.), *Language Awareness and Multilingualism. Encyclopaedia of language and education* (3rd ed.) (pp. 309–321). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-02240-6_20

Chapleau, N., Beaupré-Boivin, K., Saidane, R., & Fejzo, A. (2016). *Portrait des connaissances et des capacités de conscience morphologique d'élèves présentant des difficultés d'apprentissage en orthographe lexicale* [Portrait of the knowledge and the capacities of morphological awareness of pupils presenting difficulties of learning in lexical spelling]. *La nouvelle revue de l'adaptation et de la scolarisation*, 85–99. https://doi.org/10.3917/nras.076.0085

Chen, S., & Nordin, N. R. M. (2024). Effectiveness of morphological intervention on two measures of vocabulary knowledge and listening comprehension. *World Journal of English Language*, *14*(4), 336–349. https://doi.org/10.5430/wjel.v14n4p336

Choi, Y. H. (2015). Roles of L1 and L2 derivational morphological awareness in L2 reading through the mediation of L2 vocabulary knowledge. *Journal of Asia TEFL*, *12*(3), 81–114. https://doi.org/10.18823/asiatefl.2015.12.3.4.81

Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge University Press.

De Togni, L. (2024). Morphological awareness and vocabulary acquisition: The contribution of explicit morphological instruction in the acquisition of L2 vocabulary. *International Journal of Multilingual Education*, *24*, 37–52.

Donato, R., & Adair-Hauck, B. (2016). PACE: A story-based approach for dialogic inquiry about form and meaning. In J. Shrum & E. Glisan (Eds.), *Teacher's handbook: Contextualized foreign language instruction* (5th ed.) (pp. 206–230). Cengage Learning.

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

Fleming, D., Mbida, L., Bangou, F., Fleuret, C., Masson, M.-E., Thibeault, J., & Arnott, S. (2023). Plurilingualism: A review of theory and current practice. *TESL Canada Journal*, *40*(2), 63–76. https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v40i2/1394

Goodwin, A. P., & Ahn, S. (2013). A meta-analysis of morphological interventions in English: Effects on literacy outcomes for school-age children. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, *17*(4), 257–285. https://doi.org/10.1080/ 10888438.2012.689791

Hassanzadeh, M., & Shahbazi, F. (2021). Explicit instruction of English articles: An appraisal of consciousness-raising instruction and processing instruction frameworks. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, *18*(4), 1211–1233. https://doi.org/10.18823/asiatefl.2021.18.4.9.1211

Imsil, N. (2021*) Utilisation de l'anglais dans l'apprentissage du français chez les étudiants de français de l'université Naresuan* [English use in French learning of French students, Faculty of humanities, Naresuan University]. *Bulletin de l'ATPF*, *44*(142), 23–40.

Jeon, E. H. (2011). Contribution of morphological awareness to L2 reading comprehension. *Modern Language Journal*, *95*(2), 217–235. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01179.x

Ke, S. E., & Xiao, F. (2015). Cross-linguistic transfer of morphological awareness between Chinese and English. *Language Awareness*, *24*(4), 355–380. https://doi.org/10.1080/09658416.2015.1114624

Ke, S. E., Zhang, D., & Koda, K. (2023). *Metalinguistic awareness in second language reading development*. Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/9781108979801

Kuo, L. J., & Anderson, R. C. (2006). Morphological awareness and learning to read: A cross-language perspective. *Educational Psychologist*, *41*(3), 161–180. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep4103_3

Lam, K., Chen, X., & Deacon, S. H. (2019). The role of awareness of cross-language suffix correspondences in second-language reading comprehension. *Reading Research Quarterly*, *55*(1), 29–43. https://doi.org/10.1002/rrq.257

Lee, J., W., Wolters, A., & Grace Kim, Y.-S. (2023). The relations of morphological awareness with language and literacy skills vary depending on orthographic depth and nature of morphological awareness. *Review of Educational Research*, *93*(4), 528–558. https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543221123816

Lefer, M. A. (2010). Word-formation in English-French bilingual dictionaries: The contribution of bilingual corpora. In A. Dykstra & T. Schoonheim

Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners

(Eds.), *Proceedings of the XIV Euralex International Congress*. (pp. 810–823). Fryske Akademy

Li, S., & Tuo, H. (2023). The application of PACE model on teaching English grammar in middle school: A case study of present progressive tense. *The Educational Review, USA*, *7*(4), 426–436. https://dx.doi.org/10.26855/er.2023.04.007

Liu, Y., Groen, M. A., & Cain, K. (2024). The association between morphological awareness and reading comprehension in children: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review*, *42*, 100571. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2023.100571

Lyster, R., Quiroga, J., & Ballinger, S. (2013). The effects of biliteracy instruction on morphological awareness. *Journal of Immersion and Content-Based Language Education*, *1*(2), 169–197. https://doi.org/10.1075/jicb.1.2.02lys

Menut, A., Brysbaert, M., & Casalis, S. (2024). Do French speakers have an advantage in learning English vocabulary thanks to familiar suffixes? *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*. https://doi.org/10.1177/17470218241245685

Nation, P., & Bauer, L. (2023). What is morphological awareness and how can you develop it? *Language Teaching Research Quarterly*, *33*, 80–98. https://doi.org/10.32038/ltrq.2023.33.04

Okine, E., & Zapata, G. C. (2023). Grammar as concept: The implementation of the PACE model in beginning Spanish classes. *Applied Language Learning*, *33*(1), 58–70.

Paillard, M. (2011). English-French contrasts in word-formation: Morphological patterns and stylistic effects. *Poznań Studies in Contemporary Linguistics*, *47*(4), 913–927. https://doi.org/10.2478/psicl-2011-0043

Ringbom, H. (2006). *Cross-linguistic Similarity in Foreign Language Learning*. Bristol, Blue Ridge Summit: Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781853599361

Romero-Barranco, J. (2020). A comparison of some French and English nominal suffixes in early English correspondence (1420-1681). In L. Wright (Ed.), *The Multilingual Origins of Standard English* (pp. 467–486). De Gruyter Mouton. https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110687545-017

Sergiivna, B. I., Volodymyrivna, B. I., & Yakivna, M. S. (2020). Linguistic essence of the process of borrowing: French and English language in contact. *Arab World*

[130]
*Leveraging L2 English Proficiency to Enhance Morphological Awareness and Reading
Comprehension in L3 French: An Action Research Study with Thai Learners*

English Journal: *Special Issue on English in Ukrainian Context*. 294–306. https://doi.org/10.24093/awej/elt3.24

Teng, M., & Fang, F. (2022). Translanguaging pedagogies in developing morphological awareness: The case of Japanese students learning Chinese in China. *Applied Linguistics Review*, *15*(4), 1477–1506. https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2022-0138

Thanh, T. H., & Yen, P. H. (2023). The impacts of morphological knowledge on the degree of lexical complexity and the quality of academic essays of EFL intermediate students. *European Journal of Education and Pedagogy*, *4*(4), 80–89. https://doi.org/10.24018/ejedu.2023.4.4.723

Wardana, I. K. (2023). The impact of English morphological awareness on vocabulary enrichment: A causal-affect relationship research. *Journal of Research and Innovation in Language*, *5*(1), 1–16. https://doi.org/10.31849/reila.v5i1.11200

White, J. P., Wong, W. (2024). Lexical Preference in Input Processing. In J. Barcroft & W. Wong (Eds), *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and input processing*. (pp. 182–197). Routledge.

Woll, N., & Paquet, P.-L. (2021). Developing crosslinguistic awareness through plurilingual consciousness-raising tasks. *Language Teaching Research*, 1–25. https://doi.org/10.177/13621688211056544

Zhang, D. (2016). Morphology in Malay-English biliteracy acquisition: An intervention study. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, *19*(5), 546–562. https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050.2015.1026873

Zrig, A. (2024). Morphological awareness and cross-language transfer. *International Journal of Linguistics and Translation Studies*, *5*(2), 73–92. https://doi.org/10.36892/ijlts.v5i2.435
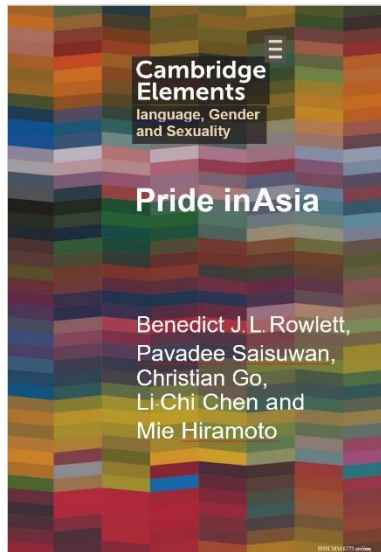
Book review

By *Kosin Panyaatisin*

Graduate School of Language and Communication, National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA), Thailand

The *Cambridge Elements* special series on *Language, Gender, and Sexuality* makes a significant contribution to the study of queer theory and LGBTQIA+ discourse in Asia. This volume is notable for its balanced integration of in-depth case studies with rigorous academic analysis. The editor creates a cohesive thematic thread throughout the chapters, although the case studies differ in context and analytical focus. The volume offers a nuanced understanding of queer identities and insightful perspectives on how global LGBTQIA+ discourses are reinterpreted and localized.

The book highlights Pride Month as a platform for engaging with social issues and promoting rights-based activism. Although many Pride celebrations take inspiration from Western movements, particularly the Stonewall Riots in the United States and similar events in Western countries, the authors argue that Pride movements in Asia have distinct characteristics shaped by local socio-political conditions and cultural values. The chapters demonstrate that these movements express emancipatory potential and foster dynamic activism, showing unique local manifestations while advancing shared values such as diversity, inclusivity, and equity.

Methodologically, the volume applies analytical frameworks, including *Linguistic Landscape (LL)* and *Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)*, to examine how LGBTQIA+ communities use language, symbols, and public space to articulate identity, resistance, and solidarity in countries such as Thailand, the Philippines, Taiwan, and Hong Kong. These contributions reveal the intricate relationship between gender, sexuality, and identity. The introduction invites readers to understand Pride not as a fixed or monolithic celebration but as a fluid, localized, and adaptive phenomenon.

In Chapter 1, Professor Saisuwan, a linguist at Chulalongkorn University in Thailand, explores "Male femininity, citizenship, and democracy in the linguistic landscape of a 'Pride' protest in Bangkok." In response to Thailand's political climate following the rise of the junta, transgender women, known locally as *kathoey*, emerged as outspoken critics of the regime. Through flamboyant linguistic performances, drawing from LU language, humor, and Thai pop culture, this group creatively challenged state authority. By applying the semiotic processes of iconization, fractal recursion, and erasure (Irvine & Gal, 2000), the chapter shows how queer expression became a vital element of democratic discourse in Thailand. The analysis suggests that these non-normative voices are crucial for fostering social critiques and civic accountability.

Chapter 2, authored by Go from the University of the Philippines, examines "Spatializing the interactions of sexuality and class in the Metro Manila Pride march." Using Du Bois's (2017) concept of stance, the chapter investigates how LGBTQIA+ activism intersects with labor rights and social justice. Through a critical discourse analysis of placards, signs, and spatial arrangements, Go demonstrates how Pride in the Philippines has transformed from a festive celebration into a political platform that addresses class inequality, marginalization, and resistance. The chapter positions Pride within broader narratives of activism, illustrating its potential to challenge cultural norms and entrenched economic hierarchies.

In Chapter 3, Chen, from Kazimierz Wielki University, offers a diachronic study titled "Challenging heteronormativity and reifying Tai-ness: the linguistic landscape of Taiwan LGBT+ pride." The chapter focuses on Taiwan's Pride events between 2010 and 2020 and explores how participants negotiate both sexual and national identities. Emphasizing a dual narrative of resisting heteronormativity while reinforcing a distinctive Taiwanese identity, Chen shows how local symbols, Confucian values, and progressive politics are incorporated into the parades. The findings illustrate that LGBTQIA+ identities are globally recognizable and deeply embedded in local political discourse.

Chapter 4, authored by Hiramoto from the National University of Singapore, investigates the 2023 Hong Kong Gay Games in a chapter titled "Asia's world city as homotopia? Surveying tensions in the linguistic landscape of the Hong Kong Gay Games." This chapter critically analyzes media portrayals and public discourse related to the event. While the Games were intended to promote inclusivity and global unity, they also exposed tensions between LGBTQIA+ visibility and nationalist sentiment. The chapter argues that geopolitical factors shape queer expressions in Hong Kong, and even celebratory events may become contested arenas involving debates over identity, sovereignty, and state power.

The chapters affirm that Pride movements in Asia should not be interpreted as replicas of Western traditions. Instead, they emerge from distinct local, cultural, social, and political

Pride in Asia: Negotiating ideologies, localness, and alternative futures

conditions, resulting in diverse and context-specific expressions of LGBTQIA+ identity and activism.

By employing interdisciplinary methods from linguistic landscape studies, sociolinguistics, and critical discourse analysis, the volume offers a compelling and timely examination of the socio-semiotic dimensions of queer life in Asia. Notably, its use of linguistic landscape analysis offers an innovative and nuanced perspective on how language and space shape LGBTQIA+ visibility. As a result, this volume represents a significant scholarly contribution to the fields of language, gender studies, and queer theory.

About the Reviewer

Asst. Prof. Dr. Kosin Panyaatisin is a lecturer at the School of Language and Communication, National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA), Thailand. He teaches and supervises postgraduate students in the areas of sociophonetics, ethnolinguistics, corpus linguistics, as well as health communication and festival management. His interdisciplinary research explores how language and culture shape public understanding and participation in health and celebratory events.

Ethical Guidelines on Journal Publication

- Authors must ensure that their submission is original, fully referenced, and that all authors are represented accurately.
- Authors must openly disclose the source of all data and third party material, including previously unpublished work by the authors themselves. Anything that could compromise the originality of the submission should be expressly avoided.
- Authors must identify any third party material that they intend to include in their article, and obtain written permission for reuse in each instance from the relevant copyright holders.
- Authors failing to comply with the above suggestions risk accusations of plagiarism and can result in retraction of published articles.