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มหาวิทยาลัยแม่ฟ้าหลวง
Mae Fah Luang University



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Mae Fah Luang University

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“MFU CONNEXION”

MAE FAH LUANG UNIVERSITY

มหาวิทยาลัยแม่ฟ้าหลวงจัดเป็นมหาวิทยาลัยขนาดกลางที่มีคุณภาพและมาตรฐานการศึกษาในระดับสากล อีกทั้งเป็นสถานศึกษาที่ตั้งอยู่บนพื้นที่ที่เรียกว่า “ประตูสู่อินโดจีน” ซึ่งถือเป็นจุดเชื่อมต่อที่สำคัญกับประเทศต่าง ๆ ในอนุภูมิภาคกลุ่มแม่น้ำโขง ทำให้มีการติดต่อสื่อสารและแลกเปลี่ยนเรียนรู้ด้านสังคมและวัฒนธรรมในระดับภูมิภาคอย่างต่อเนื่อง ถือเป็นพื้นที่หนึ่งที่มีความน่าสนใจในด้านศิลปะและวิทยาการสาขาต่าง ๆ

จากความสำคัญข้างต้น มหาวิทยาลัยแม่ฟ้าหลวงได้เล็งเห็นถึงการส่งเสริมและเผยแพร่ความรู้ ความคิดเห็นทางวิชาการ ตลอดจนสหวิทยาการในเขตอนุภูมิภาคกลุ่มแม่น้ำโขง ดังนั้นจึงได้จัดทำวารสาร MFU-CONNEXION ขึ้น เสมือนหนึ่งเป็นเวทีเผยแพร่ผลงานการศึกษาค้นคว้าและวิจัยด้านมนุษยศาสตร์ สังคมศาสตร์ และนิติศาสตร์ เพื่อประสานความเป็นเลิศทางด้านวิชาการ พัฒนางองค์ความรู้ในด้านต่าง ๆ และสรรสร้างวิทยาการให้เป็นที่ประจักษ์แก่สังคม

วารสาร MFU-CONNEXION เกิดจากความร่วมมือของสามหน่วยงานในมหาวิทยาลัยแม่ฟ้าหลวง ได้แก่ สำนักวิชาศิลปศาสตร์ สำนักวิชาการจัดการ และสำนักวิชานิติศาสตร์ โดยจัดทำตั้งแต่ปี 2555 เป็นต้นมา มีกำหนดออกปีละ 2 ฉบับ

วัตถุประสงค์

1. เพื่อเผยแพร่ผลงานวิจัยและผลงานทางวิชาการของมหาวิทยาลัยต่อสาธารณชน
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บทความทุกเรื่องจะได้รับการอ่าน และประเมินโดยผู้ทรงคุณวุฒิในสาขาวิชานั้น ๆ โดยไม่ปรากฏชื่อผู้เขียน และกองบรรณาธิการขอสงวนสิทธิ์ในการบรรณาธิกรรรวมถึงลำดับการตีพิมพ์ก่อน-หลัง ทั้งนี้ ทัศนะ ข้อคิดเห็น หรือข้อสรุปในบทความทุกเรื่องถือเป็นผลงานทางวิชาการของผู้เขียน โดยกองบรรณาธิการไม่จำเป็นต้องเห็นด้วย



"MFU CONNEXION"

MAE FAH LUANG UNIVERSITY

Mae Fah Luang University, a medium-size university, is renowned for its internationally recognised educational quality and standards. Located at what may be called 'a portal to the Indo-Chinese region', the university is connected to several countries of the Greater Mekhong Sub-region (GMS). It is through this connection that ongoing communication and exchange of sociocultural knowledge amongst the countries in the region are maintained and facilitated. This location's appeal to researchers from various disciplines is, therefore, without question.

Fully aware of the above-stated significance and hence the need to promote interdisciplinary research in the GMS countries, Mae Fah Luang University has decided to publish a journal called 'MFU: CONNEXION'. This journal, we hope, will serve two-fold purposes, firstly, as an academic platform from which research in Humanities, Social Sciences and even Jurisprudence can be disseminated, and secondly, as a channel through which academic collaboration and excellence can be established for the creation of new bodies of knowledge in response to social needs.

MFU: CONNEXION, whose publishing process started in early 2012, is a triannual journal. This journal has come into existence thanks to cooperation between three Schools of Mae Fah Luang University: the School of Liberal Arts, the School of Management and the School of Law.

Objectives

1. To publicise the university's research and academic works; and
2. To encourage an exchange and discussion of research experiences and findings amongst fellow scholars and with the general public.

Interested scholars are invited to submit Social Sciences and/ or Humanities articles in Thai or English to MFU: CONNEXION. Each article must not exceed 20 pages (A4 size) in length and must be accompanied with an abstract in both Thai and English. Further guidelines for article submission to MFU: CONNEXION are available at <http://connexion.mfu.ac.th>

Each article submitted will be reviewed and assessed by experts in the relevant field on an anonymous basis. The Editorial Staff reserves all rights to edit articles and determine the order of publication. All views, comments or conclusions presented in the article belong solely to the author(s) and do not necessarily imply the Editorial Staff's concurrence.

บทบรรณาธิการ

วารสาร MFU : CONNEXION ปีที่ 1 ฉบับที่ 1 เป็นฉบับปฐมฤกษ์ของวารสารสาขาสังคมศาสตร์และมนุษยศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยแม่ฟ้าหลวง บทความในวารสารมีจำนวน 4 บทความ มีความเข้มข้นของบทความในสายสังคมศาสตร์ ภาษาศาสตร์ และวัฒนธรรม นอกจากนั้น ยังมีบทความปกิณกะ และ บทความวิจารณ์หนังสือ หรือ Book review ด้วย

ทุกบทความได้รับการอ่าน ตรวจสอบ และแก้ไขโดยผู้ทรงคุณวุฒิ ในขณะที่ผู้เขียนบทความล้วนแล้วแต่เป็นผู้เชี่ยวชาญในศาสตร์นั้น ๆ จึงอาจกล่าวได้ว่า วารสาร MFU: CONNEXION ฉบับปฐมฤกษ์นี้ แสดงให้เห็นถึงศักยภาพของนักวิชาการไทย ด้านสังคม ภาษา และวัฒนธรรมได้อย่างดี

ผณินทรา ธีรานนท์

EDITORIAL

This is the maiden volume of Mae Fah Luang University's journal 'MFU: CONNEXION', whose main objective is to disseminate research findings in the fields of Social Sciences and Humanities. Each volume presents a selection of six articles pertaining to studies in Social Sciences, Linguistics and Culture, along with a book review and an article on miscellaneous issues.

Every article published herein has been thoroughly read, reviewed and revised by experts in the relevant fields. We are confident that, starting with this maiden volume, our journal MFU: CONNEXION will continue to feature the potential of Thai researchers in Social Sciences, Linguistics and Culture fields.

Phanintra Teeranon

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Thailand's Policy towards Irregular Migration: Situation Analysis of Burmese Migrant Workers under Thailand's Migration Policy

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Abstract

The huge economic disparities within the GMS countries will cause labor migration to Thailand to be increased rapidly over the next decade. This paper focuses on the impact of the migration policy toward human rights situation of migrant labors in particular from Myanmar, as these migrants are the largest cheap-labor supply in Thailand. They have the highest potential to be adversely affected by the latest approach of labor migration in the restrictive form. The causes found as influential factors are push and pull factors: push factors are related with economic, social, and political situation in Myanmar while pull factors are the growth of Thailand's economy, and the labor shortage in low-skilled sector in Thailand. The results show that Thailand's labor migration policy should aim to obtain maximum benefits for both registered and non-registered migrant workers by enforcing coherent migration policy which meets the need of current situation and dynamics of labor migration.

Background

Over the past few decades, Thailand has become the most developed country in the Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS), having relatively higher employment opportunities and higher wages than any neighboring countries (IOM, 2007). Significant economic disparity can be demonstrated by comparing Thailand's per capita gross domestic product (GDP) to that of Cambodia, Lao PDR and Myanmar. In 2010, Thailand's per capita GDP was \$9,180, compared to Cambodia's of US\$ 2,470, Lao PDR's of US\$ 2,435 and Myanmar's of US\$ 1,250. Hence, due to its economic boom and other factors including widening income gaps and slowing growth of work force, Thailand has become a destination country for most of the labors from neighboring countries, particularly from Myanmar, Cambodia and Lao that choose migration as their livelihood strategy.

Labor migration to Thailand would be increased rapidly over the next decade due to huge economic disparities within the GMS countries. Cross-border migration of unskilled migrants into Thailand has been prominent while the majority of workers have no legal status. Thailand's policies towards irregular migration are still ambivalent and controversial (ILO, 2009). Thailand, being one of the largest labor receiving GMS countries, cannot avoid hiring low-skilled labor migrants. Despite Thailand's frequent policy changes made to best tackle, the irregular migration remains challenging issues over the periods of "numbers".

The most recent registration policy changed which Thailand claimed as the last round is still a controversial issue for migrants and human rights activists due to its complicated policy implication which required Burmese migrants to undergo a national verification (NV) process in their own country. And it was an obstacle to a large number of migrants. As a bigger portion of the migrant population had not gone through the process before the NV deadline, they will be subjected to immediate deportation, according to the policy. Since the Burmese migrant workers, who are basically the largest cheap-labor supply in Thailand, come here due to the intolerable economic and

political turmoil in Myanmar, they are most likely to be affected by the deportation process. It is conceivable that the new policy triggering mass deportation of migrant workers could impregnate with high potential of human rights violations, especially to Burmese migrants as the deported migrants have high risks of abuses between the Thai-Myanmar borders. A recent research by KHRC (2009) described how deported migrants were exploited at checkpoints under the control of DKBA, saying *“even workers who do not face abuse upon return face abuse at the checkpoints to which Thai authorities transfer them during deportation procedures. These abuses include taxation, forced labour, beatings, killing and rape.”*

With the continued supply of labor migrants and extreme scarcity of local labor, Thai Ministry of Labor acknowledged the need to employ 1.2 million low-skilled migrant workers in 2008 (Boot, 2008). It is estimated that migrant workers contribute 370 billion THB, or about 6.2 per cent of Thailand's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) (CPPCR, 2009). Though Thailand's economy is largely dependent on the labor contribution of the migrant workers, the immigration policies towards them are largely biased, for the sake of Thailand's national security concerns, with little consideration upon their protection. Furthermore, in the international migration pattern, the tight border control has many potential to fertile the brokers and agents services where human trafficking and exploitations are most likely to occur instead of combating the irregular migration. This paper focuses on the impact of the immigration policy toward human rights situation of migrant labors in particular from Myanmar: Thailand's largest migrant labors supply which has the highest potential to be adversely affected by the latest approach of labor migration in the restrictive form.

1. Brief history of labor migration in Thailand

The migrant population movement to settle and to work in Thailand is not a new phenomenon. Since in the early period of Rattanakosin (Bangkok), migration of a considerable number of Chinese had filled up the labor shortage in rapidly growing urban areas of Thailand, especially Bangkok. As a consequence, the population

of Thailand (Siam by then) recorded as rising to 45,000 within the period between 1882 and 1917, and Chinese migrants population was estimated around 600,000 by 1898 (Pitayanon, 2001).

In the wave of globalization, Thailand entered economic acceleration with particular focus on export-led industrial development and the promotion of private sector investment in the early 1970's which was followed by rapid expansion of labor-intensive industrial sectors. Large number of rural Thais migrated to urban areas to meet the demand of both skilled and unskilled workers (Pitayanon, 2001). The official deployment of foreign workers was recorded as 112, 443 in 1986 alone in response to Thailand's economic boom (as cited by Sussangkarn and Chalamwong, 1992). In response to a serious labor shortage in Thailand's economy in the 1990s, both skilled and unskilled migrant workers were legally allowed to work while a considerable number were illegal migrants. Until that time, there was no clear mechanism to handle the illegal migrants issue as Huguet (2007) mentioned in the citation: "No clear policy at present exists, mainly because the magnitudes are small and any problems associated with this group of workers have yet to manifest themselves" (Sussangkarn and Chalamwong, 1992).

2. Influential factors of Burmese labor migration to Thailand

The main push and pull factors influencing Burmese labor migrations to Thailand lie under the huge disparities in economic, political and social development which increases Burmese irregular migration to Thailand.

2.1 Push factors

In the contemporary of migration from Myanmar, there are at least 3.5 million individuals, approximately 7% of the country's total population, who are not currently at their home country (KHRG, 2010).

The migration of Burmese to Thailand is mainly related with economic, social and political situation in their country. Economically, Myanmar faces a deteriorating economy, rampant inflation rate, limited

employment and educational opportunities, and heavy taxations imposed by authorities which make lives of ordinary people unbearable to survive economically (ILO, 2007, p. 26). On top of that, the escalating commodity prices for basic necessities cause people usually caught up in a cycle of debt for their daily expenses and the limited job opportunities could not lift the people up from poverty (Awatsaya, Khaing, Therese & Sureeporn, 2008, p. 307).

Rural people from ethnic groups are often reported as being prone to forced migration, forced relocation due to development projects such as building dams, gas pipe-lines, large-scale agricultural projects. People residing in areas where there are still ethnic oppositions to the regime are often found to be violated in various forms of human rights abuses: rape, torture, extrajudicial killings, forced labor both in military use and infrastructure building. Furthermore, heavy taxations imposed by the local officials and military authorities have compelled local people especially farmers to sell the crops far below the market prices and even to give simply to the local authorities in some cases. Armed conflict-related threats, landmines and military attacks against villages are prevalent in ethnic states (KHRG, 2009, p. 29, 32).

International response to Burmese government's political oppression against opposition groups: ethnic organizations, political activists as well as repeated house arrest of Nobel price laureate Aung San Su Kyi has contributed into economic isolation of the country together with international pressure. Intensification of economic sanctions has deepened the difficulties of people in struggling for economic survival (ILO, 2006, p. 27). Hence, economics and politics are closely intertwined in Myanmar which push many people to migrate to foreign countries especially to Thailand not merely for a political reason for economic opportunity but also as a security concern in response to the exploitative and violent abuse which cause vast majority of Burmese intolerable to survive.

2.2 Pull factors

The rapid growth of Thailand's economy over the past decades has attracted the workers from neighboring countries to enter Thailand in search of better employment opportunities and higher wages as it is the most developed country in the Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS). In 2005, Thailand's per capita GDP was the highest with US\$ 8,300 while the GDPs of its neighboring countries were left behind with US\$ 2,200 in Cambodia, US\$ 1,900 in Laos and US\$ 1,700 in Myanmar. (IOM, 2007, p. 5). With the rapid economic growth, Thai workers managed to attain better working positions than before that labour shortage in the low-skilled sectors create demand for foreign workers from less developed surrounding countries in the substitute positions (Chantavanich, Vungsiriphisal & Laodumrongchai, 2007, p. 1).

ILO (2006) states that "Since the mid-1990, Thailand has actively promoted the decentralization of both foreign and domestic industrial investment to rural , largely non- industrialized provinces, and away from Bangkok and its heavily industrialized suburbs (p. 28)." The three zone system, set up by Thai Board of Investment (BOI), is to promote border economic trade with neighboring countries and the uneven development which accompanies such industrial concentration in central. On November 12, 2003, Prime Ministers of Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar and Thailand signed an agreement of "Bagan Declaration" whose objective is to increase competitiveness and generate greater economic growth along the borders (MOFA (Myanmar), 2003).

Aiming at attracting labour-intensive industry, the government promoted Mae Sot as "Special Investment Promotion Zone" and plans have been developed with the Asian Development Bank, as part of its Greater Mekong Sub-region "Flagship Initiative" on the planned East-West Economic Corridor, to put in place the necessary infrastructure to establish a special border zone (ILO, 2006, p. 28)." As Thailand is becoming one of the most developed countries in the Greater Mekong Sub-region in recent years, offering more employment opportunities and higher wages than any of its neighbours and the high demand

of low-skilled workers for the labour-intensive industries attract the migrant workers especially from Myanmar due to their poverty-stricken situation and limited options for gainful employment at home (IOM, 2007).

3. Why do Burmese migrant workers become illegal?

In fact, a lot of migrant workers attempt to seek legal status as no one wants the risk of constant arrest, deportation and exploitation. However, legal channel for labor migration in Thailand is inaccessible to most of the migrants. Rukumnuaykit (2009) mentioned that “many migrants wished to enter Thailand legally, but current institutional settings in both the labor sending and receiving countries made legal admission to Thailand difficult for most of them. Therefore, these workers become “irregular” migrants, as they enter and stay in Thailand illegally”. Lom (2008) also highlighted the complicate and expensive process of registration which enforces many Burmese workers and Thai employers to avoid legal registration.

According to a research conducted in Samut Sakorn on brokers and labor migration from Myanmar by Sakaew and Tangprapakoon (2009), migrant labors who arrived to Thailand after 2004 become technically illegal when the Thai cabinet resolution barred them from applying for work permit. And 90% of migrants wished to get registered and looked for information regarding the labor registration. However, due to several constraints: language barrier, complex procedure of labor registration and limited knowledge about the immigration policy and regularization process, migrants are often exploited in search of assistance from agents/brokers services. Service fees were charged around 3,000-8,000 baht but ended up with nothing in many cases, leaving the migrants in the illegal status.

In many cases, the fundamental policy itself remains constraints for regularizing the migrant workers and even sustaining the irregular migration indirectly and increasing migrants vulnerability.

4. Regularization of irregular migration

4.1 Overview of immigration policy: Registration process

Thailand's immigration policy is based on two acts: Immigration Act 1979 and the Foreign Employment Act 1978. According to the 1979 Immigration Act, an immigrant who enters the country without visa and /or acts in breach of the immigration law becomes illegal and is subject to deportation and /or penalty by other sanctions. Nevertheless, under the implication of Section 17, an illegal migrant worker can be exempted from deportation if the registration process is undertaken. Article has been the basis for the registrations that define Thailand's immigration policy. Migrants must obtain work permit and be eligible to work only under designated sectors while prohibiting activities such as general labor, farming, weaving and construction under the Foreign Employment Act 1978. However, Section 12 provides the authorities to allow migrants to work temporarily in some sectors as conditioned by cabinet decisions (Chantavanich et al., 2007 as cited in Muntarbhorn, 2005).

A key concern in the policy is to prevent irregular migration and to encourage migrants to return home upon the end of their temporary work permit which was clearly stated in "The Bangkok Declaration on Irregular Migration" from International Symposium hosted in 1999. (Huguet, 2007)

Migrant workers registration began in 1992, when employers from nine Thai-Myanmar border provinces were allowed to register Burmese migrant workers during which only 706 Burmese migrants were registered due to the extremely high registration bail (5000-baht bond and registration fee of 1000-baht) imposed on the employers. It had prompted negative consequences in expanding the number of irregular migrant workers in the following years. Hence, in 1996, Thai Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare imposed another migrant labor policy with much lower registration fees expanding to cover Laos and Cambodian workers from 39 (later 43) provinces in which 239,652 out of 323,123 migrants were granted for two-year work permit. (Chantavanich et al., 2007, p. 45)

Following the economic crisis in 1997, in an attempt to open up more jobs for local, Thai government planned to remove 300,000 migrants each in the two consecutive years (1997- 98) by denying the renewal of work permits. However, due to the insufficient number of Thai workers to replace deportees, a new registration was in 1998 imposed again during which 90,911 workers were granted for work permit (Chantavanich et al., 2007, p. 52). During the period between 1996 and 2000, the number of registered migrants dropped from 372,000 to 99,650 migrants or 33% per year due to rigid and inconsistent policy.

In 2001, migrant registration was expanded to all 76 provinces and all industries under Thaksin Shinawatra's administration. The National Committee on Illegal Worker Administration (NCIWA) was formed by the Cabinet with the objectives to regularize irregular migrants: to reduce irregular migration and to allow more migrants legally. In 2001 alone, 568,000 migrants were registered but the number decreased to 350,000 in 2002 when only registered migrants were eligible to extend their work permit under the same employer (Rukumnuaykit, 2009). Thailand's Labor Protection Act, updated in 2008, does not discriminate between Thais and foreigners in terms of labor rights protection and just wages. According to current Ministry of Labor official statistics, minimum wage in Thailand varies from 203 baht per day in Bangkok to 104 baht per day in the rural provinces. Thailand has signed off on a number of international conventions and there are a range of laws in place which theoretically protect the rights of all migrants but, so many times, it does not translate into practice, even for those migrants who are legally registered with work permits. (Fox, 2009)

The most significant migrant worker registration process took place in 2004, as all irregular migrants including family members of the migrant workers could get registered without a fee with the Ministry of Interior until July 2004 that there were 1,280,000 migrants registered. The registered migrants were eligible to reside till the end of June 2005 but were not allowed to work nor to seek employment, and could not travel apart from within the area of registration. A total of 814,000 migrants were registered for work permit which is twice the number of

migrant workers registered in 2001 and 2002. The registered migrants were covered with Health Insurance issued by the Ministry of Physical Health with a fee (ILO, 2005).

4.2 Implementation of MOUs

To support the management of regularizing labor migration, Thailand signed MOUs with Laos (October 2002), Cambodia (May 2003) and Myanmar (June 2003). However, the actual undertaking of MOUs seems to focus on regularizing the migrants registered in 2004 by having their nationality verified before the granting of a stay and work permit. The scope and objectives of the MOUs are very similar among these three countries under which nationals of these countries are allowed to enter and work legally in Thailand as contract labor for up to two terms for a total of four years. These countries are obliged to process nationality verification and issue formal identification such as passports or other documents to irregular migrants, which also covers procedures for recruitment and employment of workers, protection of the rights of migrant workers, conditions of repatriation of workers and to combat illegal recruitment (Vasuprasat, 2009).

Provisions on the rights of migrant workers in MOUs include the rights to temporary return to their country of origin; entitlement to legal protection; non-discriminatory treatment with respect to gender, race and religion, especially on wages and other benefits; and settlement of disputes based on laws and regulations in the receiving country (Vasuprasat, 2009). On the contrary, the implementation of rights protection is lenient and a lot of studies found that migrants are often found to be working under exploitative conditions and vulnerable to labor and human rights violations especially in terms of wages, working hours and working conditions.

Table 1 Comparison of Contents of MOUs on Employment Cooperation between Thailand and Cambodia, Lao PDR and Myanmar

Components Countries	Cambodia	Lao PDR	Myanmar	Notes Variations
Reference to the Bangkok Declaration on Illegal Migration in 1999	✓	✓	-	
Objectives/Scope				
Employment/recruitment procedure	✓	✓	✓	
Conditions for repatriation of workers	✓	✓	✓	
Protection of rights of workers	✓	✓	✓	
Prevention and combating illegal recruitment, border-crossing and employment of workers	✓	✓	✓	
Administrative Procedures and Consultative Mechanism				
Meeting of senior officials level at least once year	✓	✓	✓	
Establish procedures to integrate irregular migrants, prior to enter into force of MOU	✓	-	✓	
Recruitment and placement of migrants requires prior permission of authorities in both countries; Revocation of work permit	✓	✓	✓	Recruitment and placement have to be approved by authorities. Revocation of work permit is applicable by authority
Provision of information job opportunities, qualifications, working conditions and wages offered by prospective employers	✓	✓	✓	Information about job vacancies in migrant receiving country

Components Countries	Cambodia	Lao PDR	Myanmar	Notes Variations
Provision of information about the particulars of prospective/ recruited migrants as to their age, education, work experience, address	✓	✓	✓	
Fulfillment of specific administrative requirements with respect to: visa, work permit, health insurance, taxes, employment contract, contribution to saving fund Myanmar- Employment contract between worker & employer	✓	✓	✓	Cambodia & Myanmar – Compulsory contribution to saving funds has not yet been enforced. Lao – Compulsory contribution to deportation funds, instead of saving funds Myanmar – Requirement for employment contract signed by workers and employer with copy submit authorities
Maintaining database/list of workers recruited to under the MOU and ensure that they return to the place of origin in sending country upon expiration of work contract- four years	✓	✓	✓	Lao – Deportation not applicable to workers whose employment contract terminated, not as a result of their faults.

Source: ILO Asian Regional Programme on Governance of Labor Migration, 2009

4.3 What is significant about nationality verification?

Under MOUs between Thailand and Myanmar, previously registered Burmese migrant workers are entitled to legally stay and work in the country for up to four years upon the verification of their nationality, followed by temporary passport issued by Burmese authorities and visa by Thailand (IOM, 2010). While 72,098 Cambodian and Laos migrants had had their nationality verified by the respective authorities within Thailand by 2007, nationality verification (NV) with Burmese government could only be established in 2009 due to ethnic conflicts in the country of origin (Rukumnuaykit, 2009). This time, Thai government announced the seventh round short-term worker registration process as the last round and migrants who do not submit a complete NV paperwork by 31st March 2010 (before it was 28th February) will be deported. Only registered migrants with valid work permit are eligible to apply for NV by the extended deadline on the condition that they submit a consent form (whereby they agreed to submit the completed NV on 31st March) by 2nd March (28th February deadline, previously). Migrants are also requested to apply for work permit extension by the extended deadline, 2nd March.

4.4 Why was NV a controversial issue for Burmese migrants?

NV is apparently required for Burmese migrants as they left their country without permission and entered Thailand illegally. Being in the illegal status, Burmese migrants are literally lack of legal protection and are often prone to immediate arrest and deportation; various deprivation of migrants' right protection and remain vulnerable to exploitation and extortion from employers, brokers and local police. By entering NV process, migrants' illegal status will be formalized and they will be granted to stay and work legally.

Nevertheless, complicated and costly NV process which includes 13 steps, involving at least dealing with 3 Thai ministries, Burmese embassy in Bangkok and some Burmese ministries remained constraint to migrant workers without hiring the broker services which

could often charge much more legal fees along with high potential exploitation. Furthermore, many migrants were reluctant to enter NV as it seems to associate with their security risk: especially the ethnic migrants who felt uncomfortable and suspected the relationship between NV and 2010 Burmese election when NV process required their biography to be sent to Burmese government and legalization process carried out in Myanmar across the border. (AHRC-FAT, 2010).

The IOM (2010) updated statistics shows that a number of registered migrants were only 1,079,991 and out of which only 822,093 have entered NV while 71,390 migrants have received legal status to stay and work in Thailand. Regardless of the repetitive extension, the number of Burmese migrants who entered NV is relatively quite low comparing to the estimated number of over 2 million Burmese migrant workers residing and working in Thailand which means that a vast majority of migrants who did not enter NV will be subjected to immediate arrest and deportation with high potential human rights violation upon their return.

Table 2 Updated Statistics*: Number of Registered Migrants and Nationality Verification Statistics

Number of migrants		Nationality Verification		
Nationality	Number of registered migrants	Number of migrants who have not entered the NV process	Number of migrants who have entered the NV process	
			Already submitted NV forms or NV intention forms	Already received passport/Certificate of Identity/ Temporary Passport
Cambodia	124,902	31,120	93,782	70,790
Lao PDR	111,039	9,454	101,585	58,430
Myanmar/Burma	1,079,991	257,898	822,093	71,390
Total	1,315,932	298,472	1,017,460	200,610

* Table updated as of 27 April 2010, Office of Foreign Workers Administration, Ministry of Labour.

Source: Migrant Information Note, Issue# 5, IOM (2010)

5. Impact of restrictive approach migration policy on safety and security of Burmese migrants

In Thailand's restrictive approach to irregular migration policy upon this last round, migrant workers registration has triggered the mass deportation of Burmese migrants as a vast majority failed to enter the NV due to several constraints which involved security concern in their home country unlike any other Thailand's neighboring countries. Most of them left Myanmar without permission and entered Thailand illegally not merely for economic survival but often as a protection strategy in response to their deprivation of human rights and constant exploitation which drives their home areas into poverty. In the recent report from KHRG (2010), as cited from its previous report: Abuse, Poverty and Migration: Investigating migrants' motivation to leave home in Myanmar concluded that *"most people traditionally understood as 'economic migrants' flee Myanmar to avoid the life-threatening poverty that results from persistent exploitative abuse; roughly 78% of Burmese workers interviewed by KHRG cited exploitative abuse as a factor that negatively affected their own, and their communities' economic situations in Myanmar."* The similar case was found in a study undertaken by the International Rescue Committee and Tufts University to assess the degree to which Burmese workers in Thailand merit international protection as refugees in 2006 came up with conclusion that *"as many as fifty percent of Burmese working in Thailand merit further investigation as to their refugee status."* (KHRG, 2010)

Currently, a vast majority of migrants are at risk of being deported and becoming more vulnerable upon their return to Myanmar. On the one hand, these migrants were subject to detention by the Burmese government in breach of Myanmar Immigration (Emergency Provisions) Act of 1947 when leaving the country without valid documentation. As cited from Huguet and Punpuing (2005) it is interesting to note that Burmese migrants who are apprehended for illegal entry are usually released unofficially without prosecution from the Thai authorities if they volunteer to be deported. The deportees are taken to an unofficial border area crossing and permitted to walk across the border back to Myanmar (IOM, 2007).

On the contrary, KHRG (2010) has highlighted the violent and exploitative abuse by the Thai authorities which include taxation, forced labor, beating and rape followed by the deportation of Burmese migrants. The report also pointed out the case of abuse and exploitation that many deported migrants faced at the DKBA checkpoints along the Moei River in the immediate area of the Thailand-Myanmar Friendship Bridge between Myawaddy and Mae Sot. Burmese deportees are transferred by Thai authorities to Myanmar through DKBA checkpoints where migrants face money extortion of between 1000 to 2000 baht in order to get released to Myanmar or to simply return to Thailand. Those who could not afford are subject to forced labour in place of demanded payment. The report demonstrated how DKBA have earned from deportation procedures facilitated by the Thai authorities. Hence, in any cases either in the case of arrest or deportation by the Thai authorities or in the checkpoints of DKBA, migrant workers are prone to exploitation and violation following the mass deportation.

6. Conclusion

Burmese migrant workers in Thailand are undeniably a vulnerable population which is comprised of 80 percent of labor migrants who contribute an estimated 5-6% of Thailand's GDP and make up around 5% of the nation's workforce by working in Thailand's most dangerous, demeaning and dirtiest jobs (3D jobs). These migrant workers are often subject to abuses by human traffickers, unscrupulous employers, police and government officials due to their irregular status.

Realizing the plight of irregular migrants' vulnerable situation, Mr. Abhisit expressed the objective of national migration policy by saying *"We realize that the most effective way to protect these migrants is to legalize their status and bring them into the formal labor market and migration is simply an expression of the freedom and desire of each individual to seek better opportunities in life."* (Winn, 2009)

Nevertheless, many studies mentioned that the registered migrants are also deprived of their worker rights in many cases as Thailand's labor laws do not really give full protection. Though entering NV could formalize their irregular status, many Burmese migrants were unable to

get access to undertake NV process due to several factors. As a result, those migrants would be deported to their home country from where they had originally left for Thailand due to intolerable economic and political turmoil along with the high risk of being abused at the checkpoints to which Thai authorities transfer them during deportation procedures.

The UN special rapporteur Bustamante urged the Thai Government to reconsider its plan to deport unregistered by saying: "Mass expulsion will result in unprecedented human suffering and will definitely breach fundamental human rights obligations" and also mentioned that "Among the groups who may potentially be deported, there may be some who may be in need of international protection and should not be returned to the country of origin".

The effectiveness of Thailand's restrictive border tight control to tackle the irregular migration is highly questionable while the cabinet decision to deport the vast majority of migrants who failed to apply for NV has increased the vulnerability of migrant workers which in turn adversely has got impact on the safety and security of migrants who are subject to deportation. In addition, throughout the period, there were many cases that deported migrants often return to Thailand with the assistance of agents and brokers during which migrants are taking the risk of exploitation by agents during the process of their journey in search of protection and economic survival strategy. Furthermore, Thailand's economy has still got high demanding for cheap labor migrants, irregular migration flow would be still challenging to tackle with the existing huge migrant labors supply who would anyway desire to migrate to Thailand. Placing the restrictive barriers between high demand and supply would rather create a potential lucrative market for agents and brokers which most Burmese migrant labors often approach throughout the period. Finally, the labor migration policy should aim to obtain maximum benefits for both migrant workers and Thailand's economy while ensuring the rights of migrant workers, both registered and unregistered (for instance, in the case of deportation procedures), by enforcing coherent migration policy which meets the need of current situation and dynamics of labor migration.

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Cognitive Corpus Studies: A New Qualitative & Quantitative Agenda for Contrasting Languages

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Abstract

This paper is an attempt to find a place for contrastive studies in the present-day linguistics. It focuses on some philosophical and linguistic assumptions of Cognitive Grammar, which are relevant to studying structural and semantic contrasts between languages. Two of the fundamentally important concepts discussed in the paper are those of equivalence and its philosophical 'anchoring point' tertium comparationis. The first part of the paper presents a debate on their definitions and interpretation, and a new, evolving perspective in terms of a cognitive corpus linguistic paradigm. Introduced here is the concept of a communicative shift in meaning, or reconceptualization, in terms of the speaker's and addressee's approximation to their universes of thought. What is proposed in this paper is a new look at and a research agenda for the concept of equivalence in contrasting languages, based on two sets of criteria. The first set is qualitative and mental in nature, serving as a crucial function for the entity of Event, while the second is quantitative, capturing distributional and frequency facts, which help to identify the (proto) typical and increasingly peripheral semantic construal-types in the contrasted languages. The discussion is exemplified with English and Polish corpus data of participial modification.

Keywords: approximation, cognitive linguistics, construal, contrastive studies, equivalence, frequency of use, language corpora, participial modification, reconceptualization, tertium comparationis, translation

1. Introduction

Since the 1960s, similarities and differences across languages have been subject to close scrutiny, first in the framework of transformational-generative grammar and its further developments, and later, with the change of the paradigm towards more cognitively-oriented studies, in terms of varieties of cognitive grammar.

The perennial problems in linguistic comparisons since their early attempts have been, first, the question of a point of reference, or an anchoring entity, which would ensure the comparability between the structures juxtaposed, and, secondly, the problem of purported equivalence between them.

This paper is yet another attempt to look at language contrasting and to provide an answer to these queries through an approach that makes use of the relevant concepts of Cognitive Linguistics as put forward in the works of George Lakoff (1987) and Ronald Langacker (1987, 1991), and enriched by the ideas developed by Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk (2008, 2009). This study posits and illuminates the notion of *Event* on the one hand and the concepts of communicative and translational *reconceptualization* and *approximation* on the other.

Parallel to these linguistic qualities considered the basis for contrastive studies, recourse to quantitative properties underlying linguistic structures across different systems has been considered indispensable if a fuller account of cross-linguistic comparison is to be presented. The quantitative factors comprise frequencies of occurrence of language items and distributional facts related to them from which to draw conclusions about the nature and structure of linguistic meanings.

The reference points in contrasting languages are, therefore, both qualitative and quantitative in nature (cf. Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk and Dziwirek, 2009). The starting point in such studies is identified in the form of prototypical Event Scenarios and their conceptualizations as constructed by language users in a given cultural community. Such contrasts will be discussed here on the example of participial modifiers in English and, moreover, with reference to authentic language data from two languages, English and Polish, as used in widely referenced

corpora. In conclusion, an integrated research agenda for contrasting languages will be presented and described.

2. Qualitative dimensions in comparing languages: Commensurability Criteria

In his seminal publication *Women, Fire and Dangerous Things*, Lakoff (1987) proposes four types of what he calls *Commensurability Criteria*:

- (1) truth-conditional criteria (classical translatability);
- (2) criteria of use;
- (3) framing criteria; and
- (4) conceptual organization criteria.

An attempt to decompress the criteria into smaller principles leads to a conclusion that the Commensurability Criteria make it possible to contrast languages according to particular frames of reference. The first criterion involves the truth-condition principle. According to this criterion, the language user should be able to provide systematic rules for computing the truth conditions of a sentence by assigning a reference and a truth value to elements of the sentence in L1 and state whether they are identical to a construction considered equivalent in L2. In other words, one has to know the conditions under which the sentence in L1 and the sentence in L2 are true and be able to state whether they are identical or different.

The criterion of use involves a distributional range of language elements. The extent to which such lexical elements in English as to put down and to lie down can be considered synonymous is weakened when the distributional criteria are taken into consideration. The former refers in most cases to a physical action, while the latter is predominantly used in a metaphorical sense. Furthermore, the former has a higher frequency of occurrence in more varied contexts. A similar procedure and criteria are used to contrast interlingual synonymy, i.e. so-called equivalence.

The framing criterion combines the linguistic knowledge with the knowledge of the outside world and imposes on particular language units object or event schemata, which regulate a top-down perspective on individual meanings. The difference between the FRUIT schema and the VEGETABLE schema with respect to tomatoes is the case in point.

And, finally, the conceptual organizational criterion regulates the perspective of an object within a given category. The most interesting cases here will be cases of polysemy, which may be differently organized in one language than in another, due to a distinct conceptual organization of the relevant senses they comprise (e.g. the polysemous nature of the form chest or bright in English is not necessarily present in their equivalents in other languages; cf. Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2007). Numerous instances of conceptual gaps, as, for instance, in culture-specific terms (such as Christmas pudding, whose concept is absent in many cultures, or annoyance, which is common in English and not identically conceptualized in many other systems), can exemplify this phenomenon. So would referential descriptions of the concepts which are considered L1 – L2 dictionary equivalents, such as the division of a 24-hour unit into the phases of day and night, and its subdivision into smaller parts like noon, afternoon, twilight or dawn, which do not find exact correspondences in other language/culture systems.

A theoretical possibility connected with the above criteria would require that the languages in question be equal in all aspects—that is, they would need to be totally identical, or the *same* language. Another extreme theoretical option will be the languages which would satisfy none of the above criteria, such as the languages of the Quinean *gavagai* type, with no common platform to refer to. In reality, the language systems turn out to be partly “calibrated”, which represents a typical cross-linguistic situation with what can be called *equivalents* not of an *identity* but rather of an *approximate* type.

The approximation alluded to above (cf. Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2012) has its expression not only in the *content of a linguistic unit* but is also captured by its *constructional properties*.

It is precisely the viewing arrangement of the scene, i.e. the *construal relations*, which appear to be crucial in contrasting the semantics of *Events* in one or more linguistic system. The difference between the semantics conveyed by a complete sentence, e.g. *Peter swallowed the candy*, and that of a corresponding nominalization, which imposes a more reified frame on the content—*Peter's swallowing of the candy*—is a difference in one of the possible construals of a scene. Crucial to the notion of cross-linguistic comparison is also the concept of *profiling*, in which a profile of an expression is, to quote Langacker (1991, p. 551), “the entity that the expression designates, a substructure within its base that is obligatorily accessed, accorded special prominence, and functions as the focal point within the immediate scope of predication”. Thus, profiling is an aspect of construal, in terms of which semantic differences can be accounted for in the same language or in the comparison with other linguistic systems.

Yet another type of comparison involves figurative usages, i.e. mapping operations of one domain onto another domain, or part of a domain onto the whole domain, etc. Fear relations, for instance, in a fear-event can be accounted for in many cultures by resorting to the concept of *force dynamics*. Force dynamics (cf. Talmy, 1988) describes the ways entities interact in an event where one of them is trying to exert power over the other using a physical (prototypically) or a mental force. Fear is conceptualized by assuming a scenario in which fear is perceived as an agonist (“doer”) and the experiencer as an antagonist (“affected”). The outcome of the force dynamics depends on the balance of forces: either the agonist wins and fear overcomes the experiencer, or the experiencer succeeds and fear is conquered (cf. Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2010; Wilson, 2010). And yet, even though a large number of basic metaphors are common across languages, the figurative frames (Source Domains) are not always identical in different cultures and languages. In the Indonesian *kepala* “front (lit. ‘head’)” can be used (e.g., as a part of car(s)) and *pantat* “back (lit. ‘buttocks’)”, while in Slavic languages (see the Polish *czoło*) the concept of the forehead might be used in the function of the front, while in English the body

part back, an extension itself, will stand for the back. Nevertheless, the process of metaphorization will invariably be a universal human cognitive ability which can serve as a legitimate frame of reference in looking at language contrasts.

3. Quantitative parameters in language comparison

Apart from the qualitative dimensions discussed above, a second large group of parameters, *quantitative* linguistic criteria, consists of the following:

- (1) frequencies: (i) in general language, (ii) in a context-specific language variety;
- (2) quantitative distributional facts;
- (3) sentence length;
- (4) type/token ratio;
- (5) lexical density (low frequency-high frequency); and
- (6) naturalness (frequency and contextual preferences).

Frequencies in general language use are quantitative data usually obtained by looking at the frequency ranks in large language corpora. For instance, the infinitive *be* in English has the frequency of 581,623 occurrences in the British Corpus of English (BNC) in the 100-million-unit data, while the corresponding French *être* is found 18,402 times in close to 14-million-unit-long French data (IntUne French corpus). Taken at the normalized values, the British data will give slightly over 58,000 occurrences for every 10 million units; in the French data, on the other hand, the infinitive will occur approximately 13,500 times in a similar corpus of 10 million samples. In other words, the French infinitive is almost 4 and a half times less frequent than its English counterpart (*to be*). Another question to be asked concerns the reasons for such a huge difference. And here we come to the qualitative functional and distributional analysis of the verbs in question, which will illuminate the relevant areas of differences. One of the reasons is the fact that the Future Tense in English is also formed using an

infinitive *be* (*I will be here at three o'clock tomorrow*), whereas the French equivalent employs a separate form for the Future Tense (*Je serai ici demain à 11 heures*).

Quantitative distributional facts related to contextual factors can provide new insights into contrastive language studies. First of all, context disambiguates the senses; for example, the form *cream* is disambiguated into *coffee cream* and *facial cream*, or the form *rabbit* activates a different image in a *rabbit in the bush* and *rabbit in wine and garlic sauce*. However, what matters additionally is the frequency values of such cases, both in one language and cross-linguistically.

The frequency characteristics will also illuminate a qualitative factor with respect to the examined data, namely, the degree of naturalness associated with individual constructions. The non-attested English structure ?*my having painted the house a very special shade of yellow was hard work*, juxtaposed to the semantically close but more probable *I painted the house a very special shade of yellow and it was hard work*, tells us nothing about the usage-based parameter of either form. More revealing in this case is the concept of naturalness, understood as a system of the speaker's/writer's preferences of the use of a language unit, which is expressed via the frequency of its occurrence in a well-defined context (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2001, p. 178; Dziwirek & Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2010, p. 128). A more natural unit/structure then will be the one used more frequently in a given context, i.e. the and-conjoined construction in the above example.

The research task involving a *cross-linguistic comparison* is thus built around identifying a similarity as a *dynamic notion*, represented as a cline exhibiting a gradual increase in diversification. *The degree of equivalence* between L1 and L2 structures can thus be measured in terms of the reference categories mentioned above such as the typology of the category of *naturalness*, as well as categorization levels, prototypicality, image-schemata and their extensions, profiling and construal relations of various types.

What expresses an asymmetry between languages is a *displacement of senses* (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 1987). The

displacement of senses originates from the presence of *referential*, *conceptual* or *lexical gaps* in one language and accounts for the semantic/syntactic mismatches, such as the absence of the superordinate category GO in the case of the Polish verbs of movement and the syntactic structures it introduces, or the absence of a lexicalised distinction between “striking with a foot” and “striking with a fist” in French, compared with the forms *kick* and *punch* in English, as illustrated below.

Eng. kick	Fr. <i>donner un coup de pied</i> ‘strike with a foot’
Eng. strike {	Fr. <i>donner un coup</i>
Eng. punch	Fr. <i>donner un coup de poing</i> ‘strike with a fist’

The approach to contrastive analysis advocated in this study is usage-based. Each verbal event can be described by means of a conventionalized set of schemata (i.e. a set of common properties abstracted from a number of such events), characteristic of this particular act (cf. Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 1987). Meanings of individual lexical items involve various types of (lexical and/or technical) *instructions of discourse incrementation* (cf. Seuren, 1985), which direct the items to their positions in discourse or outside the discourse domain.

Looking at an individual lexical item from the perspective of a system, one can identify its meaning in terms of its *multidimensional networks of meanings*, which reflect its distributional characteristics and position in the system, e.g. synonymy and oppositeness, or polysemic links. From the usage perspective, some of these dimensions are more salient than others. Discourse is an active factor in meaning construction. It can reinforce some and weaken other dimensions. By employing such contrasts, what is obtained in context is a higher monosemy of the sign. The multidimensional entities, which express linguistic meanings, are only partially equivalent in different languages. They uniquely activate further dimensions, not necessarily overlapping in different linguistic systems, e.g. the polysemy of the English *chair*, ranging from “a piece

of furniture/a seat”; “an official position”; “a person holding such a position”; to “professorship”, as opposed to its counterparts in many languages, in which *chair* (e.g. Pol. *krzesło*) refers predominantly to “a piece of furniture/a seat”.

Language units, words, phrases, and sentences repeatedly used in discourses are eventually abstracted from their use and considered conventional constructions (cf. Langacker, 1988). The framework I have been employing in my work is both cognition- and construction-based in this sense. All the data come from authentic language use, corpus materials in both languages. The interpretation is cognitive as it assumes conceptualization principles, which underlie linguistic activities, and interactional to the extent that meanings in languages, immersed in large knowledge and culture frames, together with discourse context, can be overlapping, but never identical.

Different degrees of contrastive correspondences in the languages also represent what can be conjectured to be “approximations”, as I call them (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk in press), or in some acute cases “mismatches” (cf. Dziwirek & Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2010). They signal not only the differences in cultural and discursive contextualization in the systems contrasted, but also express and symbolize the language-specific senses and individual variation.

4. Universal Tertia Comparationis

The search for the properties which would anchor down a cross-linguistic comparison is curbed by the fact that there is less to be found in the world languages that could be considered substantially identical. Rather, what is observed is a contrastive skeleton, or frame, in which certain properties are a constant. What can be predominantly identified are *cognitive tertia* on the one hand and *universal procedural* and *structural universals* of different types on the other.

4.1 Cognitive tertia

Cognitive Tertia Comparationis in comparing languages cover a number of human cognitive abilities and involve analogy, abstraction,

metaphorization, as well as combinatorial powers, expressed in terms of Chomsky's *recursion* properties (cf. Hauser, Chomsky, & Fitch, 2002).

The basic cognitive parameter subsumed under the human capacity of analogy and abstraction belongs to the ability of *categorizing* objects and phenomena and its main attributes, such as the representation in terms of basic image schemas, schematic category structures, comprising prototypical and peripheral category members, combined into larger Idealised Cognitive Models, culturally and contextually bound (Lakoff, 1987). The criterial feature of these structures is their partial compositionality and the presence of on-line meaning building mechanisms in terms of *emerging structures* (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2010).

I propose that the *universal processes* in cross-linguistic tasks such as cross linguistic comparison, transcultural communication, or translation, are comprised of two inseparable elements. Firstly, they involve *reconceptualization of the incoming material*, which invariably leads to the second element, *conceptual approximation* of the output material. These elements function both with respect to the outside world, as no representation, be it linguistic or non-linguistic, would cover *all* parameters and details of the reality, and with reference to *L1* in relation to *L2* (where *L* designates any language or linguistic variety used by Speaker 1 to communicate with Speaker 2, and in reply, Speaker 2 addresses Speaker 1). In other words, no linguistic or any other semiotic representation will be the *only full mirror of the outside world*. A linguistic structure is an outcome of a number of cognitive operations starting with the parameters of construal, focusing, perspectivizing, etc. (cf. Langacker 1987, 1991).

Cultural impact, where culture is understood as conventional (i.e. shared) imagery and practices, cannot be ignored (cf. Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk & Wilson, 2011). Neither can we ignore linguistic typological frames of reference, which give rise to language-specific constructional and semantic frames with a range of distinct analysability criteria and construal principles, including degrees of prominence of a scene, action parameters, figure/ground relations, degrees of schematicity (cf. the coarse- vs. fine-grained picture), scope

of predication, and force-dynamic relations. Typologically distinct linguistic construal types are an outcome of a comparison of two or more linguistic systems.

Last but not least in the present inventory are *pragmatic* and *interactional effects*, both of which are part of contrastive discourse analysis, whose outcomes complete the picture of a cross-linguistic analysis of two or more systems.

4.2 Reconceptualization cycles, approximation and tolerance spaces

Communication involves a number of *cycles* of reconceptualization of an original message (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2010). These reconceptualization cycles lead the communicator to set up an *approximative portrayal* of a compared scene within a certain *tolerance space*. Such a linguistic phenomenon as polysemy, as well as what I generally refer to as *a cubist portrayal of the outside world in language*, supports the claim that meanings must be networked within a certain *tolerance space*. In communication, in translation, and in contrasting languages, tolerance spaces are dynamically construed up to a (context-specific) *tolerance threshold*, beyond which a miscommunication or a communicative boycott occurs in actual communication and in contrastive studies, and beyond which *no* cross-linguistic *similarity* or *resemblance* can be posited. As also proposed by Peter Gardenförs (2004), semantic representation of a concept within a given *conceptual space*—which may be understood, as a set of quality dimensions, or separable, as in *shape*, or integral, as in *colour and shape*—is curbed by a set of certain constraints on sense divergence, that is, their tolerance thresholds which represent the boundaries in communicative interactions and which are limited by the intra- or inter-systemic variety of particular linguistic signs used in communication. The tolerance measures imply resemblance, which is either conventional culture- and context-specific, or else unique to a given speaker.

5. Event

What I want to propose in this paper is that one of the few substantive *tertia comparationis* in cross-linguistic comparisons be posited in terms of the mental entity of *EVENT*. The first question to be asked, namely whether events constitute a coherent metaphysical category (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2011), cannot be unambiguously answered. However, a number of dispositions, which can be considered regulative for the ontological category of events (cf. Zacks et al., 2001), can still be identified. They include perceptual criteria for infants' perception, discrimination and counting of events, action-based observations in animates' planning and executing of actions in contexts, linguistic factors related to the devices dedicated to describing events, as well as the mental layer—as thinking about many aspects of the world, its properties and actants in terms of places, time, causes, consequences, etc. requires framing in the form of an event structure.

Classification of events into different types can be considered a structural skeleton of cross-linguistic descriptions. Vendler's first typology (1957) into *activities* (defined as *a homogenous event with no natural finishing*), *accomplishments* (defined as *a non-homogenous event with a culmination*), *achievements* (defined as *a culminating event*), and *states* (defined as *a homogenous event which may extend over time*) is only the beginning of a debate on this issue. Von Wright (1965) considered it necessary for an event to have a begin-point and end-point, and everything that happens between a negative value of a unit $[-\phi]$ and its positive counterpart $[\phi]$ with a transition operator underlying the logic of change. Donald Davidson, particularly in his seminal work on action and events (1960), proposed obligatory criteria of spatiotemporal unity and causality for events in terms of his linguistic semantics of action. Davidson's approach has reigned supreme for many decades now and has given rise to a number of subtle typologies of events. A more holistic picture can treat event as subsumed in terms of chains of subevents, which start from a Stative phase > change into Inchoative > Processual > Terminative > and transform into Stative again. In other words, it represents a Change of phases, where either the whole event or any of the fragments can be conceptualized in different language systems and by communities of language users.

5.1 Conceptualization of events

Events understood as *phenomena that happen* can be prototypically conceptualized as one unfolding and gradual entity having its beginning and ending. More heterogeneous events can be perceived as a gradual durative *sequence of sub-events*. However, an important question whether sequential subevents, for instance, in Kalam, a language of the highlands of the Papua New Guinea, or Thai serial verbs, for that matter, constitute separate conceptual entities subsumed as one *meta-event* or the series of subcomponents or else are only structural and have no impact on the holistic or elemental perception of an event in question, is still not resolved and requires further research (Givón, 1990; Pawley, 2011). There are, however, other conceptualization frames possible for events as well. Events can be conceived as *things*, and hence can be reified to different degrees and eventually perceived also as an *attribute* in different phases of inception, duration, completion or iteration (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2011).

Events can thus be perceived similarly to objects; they are patronymic—having their parts—but, unlike objects, they have a temporal dimension. Even when forced into object frames (as gerunds are in English), they can retain their aspectual properties. They can also be attributivized to a different extent (as participial modification in English) with the degree of their adjective-like properties more or less transparent. In English, the attributive, stative properties of (verbal) participial senses are marked with their fully adjectival prenominal position, or, when used postnominally, as a more occasional property, participial modifiers frequently indicate contemporality with the time of an utterance. Languages differ in the ways of conceptualizing events and ways in which they segment the world of events into smaller units as well as in the accessibility of the morphological and syntactic resources to signal these cognitive operations.

6. Prototypical events & asymmetric events

A prototypical event is usually an action performed by an agent. The question of whether intransitive events with no objects present or transitive ones are more prototypical remains to be seen. Langacker (1991) opts for the prototypicality of an action in which an agent is using some force to act on an object, i.e. clearly a transitive action with a display of a full causality scenario, which is for some the gist of an event characterization. However, if accessibility of different structure types in language evolution could be considered part of the prototypicality criteria, it is intransitive, no-direct object addressed action such as movements that can rather be considered to be the primary, evolutionally basic frame of reference, at least in some language evolutionary models (e.g. Provoçac, 2010)¹.

A Transitive Action Event is an event which portrays a transmission of force, or energy, among the event participants (cf. Talmy, 1985; Langacker, 1991) and involves a temporal dimension then. The same event can be perceived as a series of subevents, frequently involving a more homogeneous sequence, such as *I read a book*. Processes, however, represent a less prototypical type (e.g. *withering*)—they lack bounding of different sorts, even though they can also lead to a change of state, similarly to temporally bounded events as in the verb *break*. An interesting point is that, both before and after the bounding, what can be presupposed is the presence of *states*, which can curb a process and transform it into an event. Events then bear in themselves a potential for any type of activity, action, or eventuality, as some refer to them, not necessarily a prototypical form of transitive or intransitive action chain. Taken from this perspective, *States* can be considered contextual frames of events while *Accomplishments* and *Achievements* refer to the final phase of events. Properties which can be designated in an event structure can be referred primarily to a type of event as well as to its part profiled in the linguistic unit, which expresses a given phase. Furthermore, the type of an action involved as

¹ Compare: “Transitive clauses involve additional layers of structure, and can be hypothesized to have been a later evolutionary innovation” (p. 238).

well as its temporal frame, expressed cross-linguistically by a variety of markers, are the criterial factors in the analysis. As English does not have the grammatical tools to mark all the phases (e.g. inchoative), so the schema below only illustrates approximate structures in English.

Stative phase

Change

Change of state (punctual) *break*

Gradual

Homogenous (*grow*)

Heterogenous (*eat*)

Frequencies:

Single acts [bounded] *He kicked the ball*

Frequentative [bounded] *Tom used to visit us*

Durative [unbounded] *He is reading*

Construal types:

Sequential scanning *Olivia is walking to the garden*

Summary scanning

Substantive (nominal, gerund) *her walk,*
her walking

Attributive (adjectival) *reading students*

Attributized gerund *a walking stick*

Event phases:

Inchoative (inceptive) phase *launch, going pale*

Durative phase *Mark is riding his bike*

Terminative phase (telic or atelic)

Jeremy pushed the door open; Peter read an email

6.1 Symmetry and asymmetry in perception and expression

Events, in perception and linguistic expression, can be treated as symmetrical entities, when two or more events or their parts are perceived as two or more parallel units or appear in a sequential order (*symmetric* events). Alternatively, they can be perceived and linguistically expressed as what I call *asymmetric* events (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 2008). Asymmetric events can be considered a substantial universal and cover the material referring to two or more events of unequal statuses in an utterance, for example, the forms used in sentential complementation and nominalization, in relative, adverbial, and modifying constructions, or, in some languages, in *semantic asymmetries* in what looks like fully balanced coordinate constructions. The idea behind the asymmetry is that in different world languages, such system differences occur between fully elaborated events and those which are desententialized and lose or lack their assertive force (Cristofaro, 2008). Languages of the world display different construals of the asymmetry and involve various morpho-syntactic means to express it even though the concept of asymmetry seems to be present in all of them.

The asymmetries, then, can involve a perceptual (and linguistic) transformation of a sequential (process or action) into a construct reified to different degrees, i.e. a thing, which can be then perspectivized as an attribute of varying degrees of strength expressed in terms of participial and adjectival constructions, as in the majority of European languages. However, some Asian languages, such as Chinese, have no participles or participle-like constructions in their systems. But even in such languages some other (lexical or contextual) markers are used to substantiate asymmetry functions. It is usually adverbial phrases added or contextualizing information that can generate an interpretation similar to the English participial constructions*. The aspectual system in Thai, on the other hand, is quite complex—the durative and progressive aspects involve two aspect markers, which can co-occur in some contexts and are not used in some others. For some phrases which would involve postnominal modification in English, such as *a man drinking*,

the structure used in Thai is that of a noun followed by a relative clause with the aspect marker *kamlaŋ*. However, for the English lexicalized passive participle *drunk*, as in *a drunk man*, Thai either uses a different lexical form *maw* or, if the word for *drink*, i.e., *du̐tum* is employed, followed by the completive aspect marker, *léew*, which can function as an equivalent of the English *already*. The phrase *du̐tum léew* then means literally *has already drunk*, and not *be drunk* as in English**. On the other hand, a comparison between English and Polish, one of the Slavic languages in Central/Eastern Europe, with reference to similar asymmetries characterized by a different construal, will be presented in the section to follow.

The grounding of asymmetry markers understood as categorizing temporal, spatial, etc. dimensions can be either weak, as in the English verbal noun (*proposal, construal*) or more transparent or stronger, as in the English gerund *John's having submitted his thesis too late*, in which the perfective completion of the act is syntactically marked. When put in a finite sentence e.g. *John's having submitted his thesis too late is a problem* the desententialized construction displays its asymmetric status, vis-a-vis the fully finite sentential part *is a problem*.

7. A sample of English and Polish contrasts

Our short analysis of the similarities and contrasts between English and Polish will be exemplified by reference to present participles, gerunds and participial modifiers. The English samples are been acquired from the 100-million-word British National Corpus and a smaller 15-million Longman and Microconcord Sampler for English. The Polish samples are obtained from the National Corpus of Polish (www.nkjp.pl), which covers over one and a half billion segments at present, and from two smaller (10-million and 20-million) PELCRA corpora. In other works on English-Polish contrasts (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk in press), I also resort to *bilingual parallel (translation) corpora* as another important source of cross-linguistic data.

7.1 Present participle

The ambiguous sentence (1) in English has to be disambiguated in Polish as (1a), while the English (1b) would require the change of the modifier position from the prenominal to postnominal one in Polish.

- (1) A boy looked at a girl **reading** a book
 [noun complement present participle
 (present participial clause)] [a. *I-I*, b. *I-Mary*]
- (2)
- (a) Chłopiec spojrział na dziewczynę **czytając**
 boy looked at girl reading
 [**adv**, coreferential with main subject] książkę – adverbial
 participle
- (b) Chłopiec spojrział na ?**czytającą dziewczynę książkę**
 boy looked at reading girl book
 /**dziewczynę czytającą książkę**
 girl reading book
 [**adj** Acc Sg], non-coreferential with main subject]
 attributive participle

Co-temporal prenominal modification in the form of a participial/attributive (or some cases gerundive) construct in English (3) has a symmetric parallel in Polish (4). However, if an object of the construct is used as in (5) the sentence will be ungrammatical in English but remains grammatical in Polish (6). The construal of the English and Polish events in (3) and (4) is more attributive than in (5) and (6), with a more sequential verbal scanning profile, not used in English but a regular formation in Polish.

- (3) This was a frightening scream
- (4) To był przerażający krzyk (more attributive/property)
- (5) This was a frightening * us all scream
- (6) To był przerażający nas wszystkich krzyk (more verbal/sequential)

Presented below are the frequency data of a number of conceptual profiles of the English modifying form *drinking* identified in the English samplers.

(7) *drinking* Conceptual Profiles²
 [15million units/569 occurrences/161 occurrences in modifying functions]

- (i) Pre-modification (69)
 - (a) Non-co-temporal/summary/attributive/habitual (6):
He isn't a drinking man
Indeed their condemnations of drinking mothers are particularly sharp
 - (b) Summary/reification/stative (63)
The size of a drinking straw
I shrug my shoulder and walk to the drinking fountain
- (ii) Postmodification (91)
 - (a) Co-temporal, processual [single] (61)
Jeweled women, drinking Turkish coffee
 - (b) Non-co-temporal (generalized), processual/repetitive/bounded (22)
Only sitting up at night and forever drinking
 - (c) Unbounded (2) /repetitive construction
when I used to be drinking good ale.
 - (d) Modified attribute (6)
heavily drinking

² Numbers given in parantheses indicate the frequency of occurrence of the form in the English or Polish corpus samplers.

(iii) Causative (3)

(a) Cognates

pit-dirt, dinnerless, some mile away from home, across the darkness, drinking himself drunk Paul stood in the doorway.

(b) metaphoric into

is the unfaithful, deceitful {friend} who leads Leonardo astray into drinking, gambling and having romantic affairs.

With the use of the WordSmith Tools, patterns involving the form *drinking* can be generated from the English sampler concordances (8) as well as relevant clusters (9), which indicate the most frequent objects of drinking in the English corpus texts in the descending order: *water, coffee, beer, tea, wine, champagne, whisky*, as well as co-temporal activities performed such as *eating* and *smoking*.

(8) Patterns of *drinking*

N	L2	L1	CentreR1	R2
1	AND	DRINKING		AND
2	EATING			BEEN
3	HE WAS			A
4	OF OF			IN
5	HAD	THE		IT
6	AND	FOR		WATER
7	I WERE	WITH		
8	TO IS			HE
9	SS			FROM
10	AH IS			TEA
11	YOU	COFFEE		OUT
12	WE	WITH I		BEER
13	IN A			TEA
14	THEY	HEAVY		SO
15	WAS	STOP HIS		WINE
16	SMOKING		OUT	BUT
17	HIS	IN		SMOKING

18	HIM	SAT	CHAMPAGNE
19	BY	WITHOUT	WHISKY
20	SHE	FROM	WINE

(9) Clusters *drinking*

N	Cluster	Freq.	Length
1	EATING AND DRINKING	21	3
2	HAD BEEN DRINKING	13	3
3	HE WAS DRINKING	12	3
4	DRINKING IN THE	10	3
5	HE S DRINKING	8	3
6	HE HAD BEEN	6	3
7	THE DRINKING OF	6	3
8	WE WERE DRINKING	6	3
9	OF EATING AND	5	3
10	OF HIS DRINKING	3	3
11	SHE WAS DRINKING	5	3
12	OF DRINKING AND	5	3
13	DRINKING FROM THE	5	3
14	DRINKING TOO MUCH	5	3
15	DRINKING AND SMOKING	5	3
16	I VE BEEN	5	3
17	AND DRINKsING AND	5	3

For contrastive purposes, the data on the passive participles are also presented. The passive participle *drunk* has two basic grammatical functions. Firstly, it is used as a part of the Perfect aspect of the verb (*he has drunk three glasses of beer*) and secondly, it is part of the more lexicalized passive construction in the sense of *excessive drinking*. The table below (10) presents the *drunk* clusters, where the more lexicalized sense is clearly prevailing. This observation seems confirmed in the data in table (9), where the clusters of the form *drinking* show a more frequent (lexicalized) gerundive variant than the corresponding participial form.

(10) *Drunk* Clusters

N	Cluster	Freq.	Length
1	HE WAS DRUNK	22	3
2	TOO DRUNK TO	16	3
3	HE HAD DRUNK	11	3
4	DRUNK IN THE	11	3
5	TO BE DRUNK	11	3
6	I WAS DRUNK	10	3
7	GOT DRUNK AND	10	3
8	A LITTLE DRUNK	8	3
9	TO GET DRUNK	8	3
10	DRUNK AND I	7	3
11	WAS DRUNK AND	7	3
12	YOU RE DRUNK	7	3
13	DRUNK TO REMEMBER	6	3
14	ARE YOU DRUNK	6	3
15	AS DRUNK AS	6	3
16	WHEN HE WAS	6	3

The patterns generated from the concordances can give the researcher additional information, concerning the (direct) objects used with the Verb *drink* in English and the corresponding *pić* in Polish (11). The contrastive task is to compare (11) with a similar table of patterns generated for English (8).

(11) *pić* patterns in Polish [translated into English are content words]

N	L2	L1	Centre	R1	R2	
1	NIE	JEŚĆ	PIĆ	I	I	'eat'
2	Z			NIE	SIE	
4	SIE	JEŚĆ		ALKOHOL		'eat'/'alcohol'
5	Z	ZACZAŁ		WÓDKĘ		'begin'/'vodka'
6	Z	DO	TO			
8	BY	WOLNO		PIWO PALI		'beer'/'smoke'

9	CZY MAM	ALKOHOLU	'alcohol'
10	JA BĘDZIEMY	Z GDY	
11	ŻEBY BY	W ALE	
12	WOLNO MU	NA TYLKO	
13	PO MU JU	A ZACZAŁEM	'begin'
14	MOGĘ POCZ	WINO JEŚĆ	'wine'
15	TRZEBA BĘDZIE	WODĘ	'water'
16	CHCIAŁO CO	WODY [...]	'water'
19	PRZESTAĆ	KREW	'blood'

The frequencies of the Polish present participial *pijac** types (12) are different from those in the corresponding data in English, as presented in (8). Polish as an inflectional language allows a more flexible word order of sentence units than English does, so Polish grammar identifies constructions in (12i) and (12ii) as equally acceptable, although the left-branching of modification turns out to be less frequent, most probably for language processing reasons. The result is that the Polish frequencies of prenominal and postnominal modification are not the same (values given in brackets):

(12) *pijac* Polish construction patters

Source NKJP

(i) Prenominal *pijac** NP. [4]

pijące gromady 'drinking groups'

Nalógowo pijące wyrostki 'compulsively drinking teenagers'

(ii) Postnominal NP. *pijac** Obj NP. [75]

Osoby pijące alkohol 'persons drinking alcohol'

Osoby nadmiernie pijące 'persons drinking excessively'

7.2 EVENT

Event phases constitute yet another case where an event in a language-specific construal and its profiling play an important role. For instance, in English the action of *opening* can capture the following phases of opening:

(13)

(i) *Cordelia was opening the room slowly. She opened the door and went in.*

(ii) *Cordelia rummaged in the fridge and brought out an opened package of store doughnuts.*

(iii) *She looked through an open window of the building*

The Event Structure presented in (13) involves the act (process) of opening and its terminative phase in (i), the resultative phase with the negative presupposition in (ii) and the final state in (iii). The frequencies of the particular uses are as follows:

(14)

EVENT of opening [literal and metaphorical]

BNC -100 mln

Y closed [initial state] // X is opening Y [Y opening; opening Y] →

X opened Y [event] → [28,562]

Y is opened [terminative phase] →

Y opened [90, (Mod)] → opened Y [120, (Mod)] [terminative attribute] →

open Y [final state] - [10,822], (NP. open [1,700], open NP. [1,900])

The terminative phase can also be marked in a causative construction such as *he ripped his collar open*.

Examples of particular sentential positions are given below:

(15)

opened

(i) Postnominal

New lines opened and re-opened

The museum, opened 20 years ago

(ii) Prenominal

A newly opened sex-shop

The opened flowers

Three opened letters in her hand open

(iii) Postnominal

The choices open to everybody

(iv) Prenominal

Open account/admiration/air// open door/drawer/

magazine

The Polish data are exemplified in the following constructions:

(16)

Podobne otwierane szafki lit. 'similar openable/being opened cupboards' (Mod) Prt (Mod) N

Szlabany otwierane kartą 'bars opened with a card'

NPrtMod

Otworzone gwałtownie drzwi 'a violently opened door'

Prt Mod N

Drzwi otworzone zamaszyście 'door opened vigorously'

NPrtMod

Otwarte linie kredytowe 'opened/open credit lines' Prt

N Mod/ModN

Jej otwarte, jakby niewidzące oczy 'her open, as if blind, eyes' Prt Mod N

Notatki otwarte na niewłaściwej stronie 'notes opened on a wrong page' NPrt Mod

Tzw. *pytania otwarte* 'so-called open questions' NPrt
[generic]

otwarty atak 'open attack'; *otwarte auta* 'open
(convertible) cars'/*paleniska* 'open fire' PrtN [lexicalization]
[attribute/state]

otwarte okna i drzwi Prt N [attribute/state] 'opened/
open windows and doors'

When contrasted with the English (15), the Polish data (16) uncover the following patterns of the opening action phases:

(17)

Pol. (i) *otwierane* – (ia) *otwierające się* - (ii) *otworzone* - (iii) *otwarte*

Polish presents three past participial forms (i), (ii), (iii) and one present participial form (ia) as in (17) above:

(i) *otwierane* lit. 'being opened' conveys a sequential, processual conceptualization [not present in English in attributive position]; *Patient* reading (ia) present participial form (*otwierające się* – Medio-Passive, *otwierające* – Agentive reading);

(ii) *otworzone* lit. 'having been opened' - sequential, terminative; and

(iii) *otwarte-a* 'opened, open' designates a state (change) with the final state profiled.

Ambiguity exists between (1) the participial sense {*drzwi zostały otwarte przez Tomka* 'the door was opened by Tom'} and (2) the adjectival sense {*drzwi są otwarte* 'the door is open'}.

Sense (1) presents a (participial, dynamic) profile with the terminative phase of the state change designated, whereas sense (2) profiles a stative, adjectival phase i.e., the final state alone.

The base Verbal form *otwierać* contains all the successive phases of the process [including the initial negative state $-p$ of the beginning of an action]; it can also denote an iterative (repetitive) action of opening. The base Verbal form *otworzyć* profiles the perfective action of opening with the terminative phase of opening in focus.

The Event Structure frequencies in Polish are as follows:

(18)

EVENT [literal & metaphorical]

NKJP 300 mln

Y zamknięte 'closed' [state] //

X otwiera Y 'X is opening Y' [6,065]* – Y otwierane Z 'Y is being opened with Z' [202] [event procesual] à otwierane Y lit. 'being opened Y' [100]

Y [jest] otworzone 'Y opened' [terminative phase, frequently postmodifier] [68] → otworzone (modifier) Y [terminative attribute] 'opened Y' → [33]

Y otwarte 'Y open' [4,700] / otwarte Y 'open Y' [4,200] [final state]

As the consulted National Corpus of Polish (NKJP) is three times as big as the BNC, for the sake of a comparison the frequencies acquired for the Polish data should be normalized and divided into 3. The frequency of *otwarł/l**, *otworzył/l** as identified in the NKJP is 14,771, which, when normalized to 100 million, gives ca 4,900 occurrences. Compared to the English *opened* with 28,502 occurrences in BNC, the frequency in English is over 5 times higher than in Polish. A language typological profile shows that the *modifiers* are more frequent and *metaphoric extensions* more numerous in English than in Polish.

7.3 Acceptability of prenominal past participle modifiers

While the Past (Passive) Participial modifier is acceptable in the prenominal position in Polish, in English the situation is more complex:

(19)

Oddaj zrobiony produkt lit. 'Return the made product' –
'Return the product you (or somebody else) made'.

The Polish NKJP corpus of 300 million units generates 400

Modifiers *zrobion** 'made', 50 in the postnominal position and 21 in the prenominal position. Here too the reason for the preference of the postnominal rather than the left-branching prenominal position may involve processing rather than syntactic considerations, as Polish is a relatively free-word-order language.

A range of acceptable, semi-acceptable and acceptable structures in English, involving the attributive, past participle nominal modification position, cover the following cases:

(20)

? *an eaten soup*

? *a drunk beer* _

? *a seen accident*

? *a heard song*

? *a made/done product*

versus

a half-made/partly made product (moth-eaten fur coat, half-drunk beer, etc.)

a well-done job

hot-spiced dish

and

a broken arm

a written statement

The prenominalization in English can be attributed to the status of (semantic) perfectivity of a given action, its completeness and boundedness. Therefore, *the change of state verbs* and verbs with additional *perfectivising modification* will be used as (attributive) prenominal participial modifiers. The reasons for this state of affairs are related to the perfectivity status of the verb and a corresponding participle. The perfective aspect is either *semantically inherent in the verbs*, as in the change of state verbs (*break*), or there is an imposed bounding, duration and permanence (*half-eaten sandwich*). Verbs such as *see* and *eat* are *semantically imperfective (unmarked) verbs [non-*

itelic] in English, which do not lend themselves to attributivisation. In the narrowly defined cases (*well-done, half-eaten, moth-eaten*), the perfectivity parameter, imposing mental bounding & possibly telos), is (more) clearly linguistically signalled.

The boundary acts similarly to the *state change*, which, in English, enables participles to be adjectivized in the pre-nominal position.

8. Language profiles and a research agenda for Contrastive Studies

On the basis of the exemplified qualitative and quantitative analyses *presented above in this paper*, individual structural-semantic language profiles can be constructed, which act as *frames of reference*—*tertia comparationis*—in contrastive linguistics. What the contrastive criteria involve is, therefore, both qualitative and quantitative in nature. Based on the *Event* structure, the qualitative criteria will acquire a more specific type from among a set of semantic and structural properties of different kinds. The quantitative criteria will foreground frequencies of items, patterns and clusters, as well as their collocational and distributional combinatorics. Taking as the point of departure the structural, procedural, and substantive *tertia comparationis*, together with the respective quantitative values, a *contrastive profile of languages* and language variety comparison can be constructed in cross-linguistic research.

The new research agenda for Contrastive Studies will thus invariably involve two levels of parameters, qualitative and quantitative, which will result in a *systematic procedure to contrast* the languages. It also makes it possible to carry out systematic *intralinguistic research* within one language³. The procedure considers the reconceptualization and approximation alignment between the systems, and eventually leads to a clearer identification of typological cross-linguistic and intra-systemic similarities and differences with far-reaching implications for translation studies and foreign-language education.

³ e.g. contrasting reference corpus data with the internet Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC) as in the COST Action IS 0906 we are involved in on *Transforming Audiences, Transforming Societies*.

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Corpora

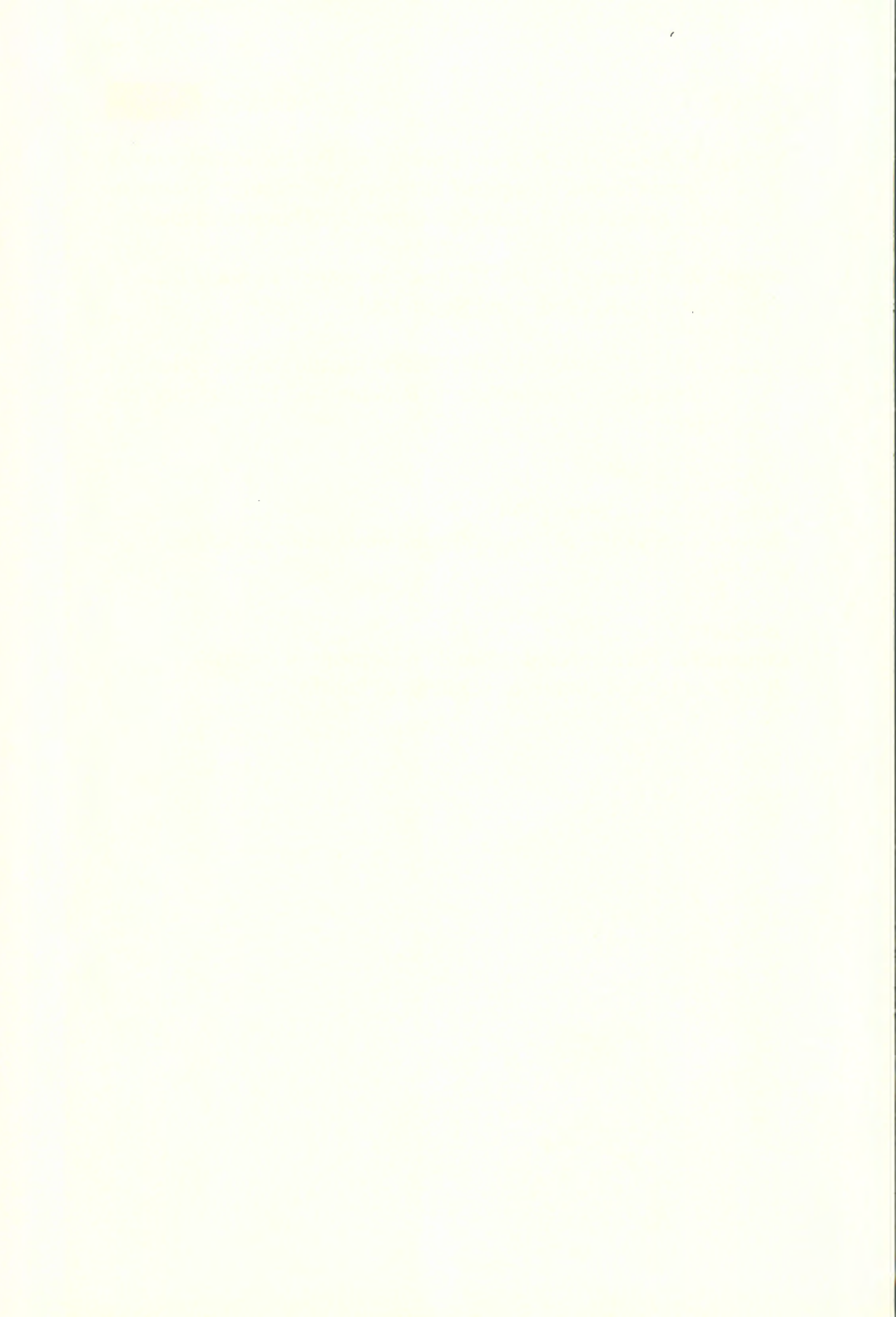
British National Corpus (BNC)

National Corpus of Polish (nkjp.pl) Narodowy Korpus Języka Polskiego (NKJP)

Samplers

Longman & Microconcord (15-million segments of English)

PELCRA (10- and 20-million segments of Polish)



Local Health Communication¹

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Abstract

The Research and Development Project on Local Health Communication relates to lifestyle and has special characteristics when it is considered with regard to location. The objectives of this project were to identify and study persons interested in becoming Healthcare Communicators (HCCs) in order to enhance working efficiency in health communication, as well as to study the operational guidelines on local health communication under the principle of Participatory Action Research. The research was undertaken in Phrae and Kanchanaburi provinces.

The HCCs studied (54 from Phrae and 46 from Kanchanaburi) were from the mass media, health agencies, educational institutions, and the health community. As part of the process of cooperation for the HCCs, activities were created to enhance potentiality (five activities for each province). The most popular activities were aimed at enhancing speaking through sound media training and public speaking. This research shows that the guidelines for operation in local health communication fall into the two categories of HCCs and support mechanisms. HCCs should play a cooperative role by encouraging, watching, preventing and solving the health problems of people in local areas. Moreover, they should be a center for health information, which is accessible to

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local people as well supporting the government sector. HCCs should be public-minded, friendly, self confident, smart and creative. They should be able to organize their thoughts, have good communication skills, and develop themselves at all times. In addition they should work on a consistent basis with determination and integrity. They should also serve as health role-models. As for support mechanisms, agency and related personnel from health agencies, mass media, local administration organizations, educational institutions, shops, individuals and centrally funded sources should provide serious and continued support for HCCs in developing knowledge in both communication and health. They should also offer health data and local health wisdom, which are reliable and current.

Keywords: Health Communication, Local Media, Healthcare Communicator

1. Background

No matter how far technology advances, public health problems are still a significant issue for every nation. The well-being, good mental health, and complete physical health of a population are considered an index indicating the level of development in a country. For this reason, both public and private health promotion agencies and organizations have been attempting to find methods to inform people about preventive measures and maintaining a healthy lifestyle. Mass media has been deemed as an important societal force for providing knowledge and motivating correct behavior. When considering local consumers of mass media living in an area within a shared society, culture, and environment, similar health problems and health behaviors were encountered. Local mass media, whether in the form of newspapers, community radio, provincial broadcasting radio, or news broadcasting tower, were all found to be potential ways of communicating positive health messages to the local people.

When considering the research results from the project of "Operating Status on Health Communication of Local Media" (Duangporn

Kamnoonwatana et al., 2005), which was financially supported by the Research and Development Plan on Health Communication System to the Public. The Health Systems Research Institute (HSRI) found that although at present people are open to both central and local media, and both are expected to present knowledge and information on health. The cause of this was that the local media operators understood their consumers, including their concepts, beliefs, and demands. Moreover, the operators knew the status of the local society and culture, and understood the problems that were occurring in the local area. As a result, they could present stories about local problems well, while the consumers were familiar with the local media operators as well. Therefore, they had a chance to discuss, by expressing their opinion and suggestions, as well as, enabling participation in the communication process by becoming more than only consumers.

As for people's demand for health information, local people expected to obtain correct, accurate, and clear information. Communication of health information was deemed to be a specific issue as determined by gurus and specialists, whereas the local media workers formed a small group and each person was in charge of many things. Most of them were found not to have health knowledge. Therefore, a presentation containing health information was produced in the form of reactive action. A presentation was developed to be shown when sharing information. There was no proactive action in the form of establishing topics and following up with information in the presentation. Thus, it is important that the presentation of health content in the local media depends on health related operating units. If such a unit supports factual information and reliable sources, and provides specialists who are ready to share health information, the local media can be a more efficient provider of health information.

A significant topic in the development of more efficient health communication was finding an approach that enables the local media to present health information that meets the needs of most receivers. Some of these needs include cooperating with experts on exploring and exchanging health data, and cooperating in the production of programs

to reduce complication in communicating health information. In addition, health news and data sources in the local area, which were limited in number, could still facilitate efficient participation in the communication process. Moreover, the method includes recognition of how the operating unit relates to health, recognizes the importance of the health communication for local people, and prepares to intentionally and continuously support media operators in several aspects.

Furthermore, enhancement of health communication capabilities of the health communicators was considered to be an important issue which should not be overlooked. This issue was analyzed and evaluated by Malee Boonsiripan et al., (2005) on the possibility of health communication system and health communicators in the research project of *“Demand and Possibility in Health Communication and Communicator Development”*. This research stated that a health communicator is a person supporting an effective health communication process. It was found to be necessary to prepare the field for future health communicators by developing the professional status of health communicators as an accepted role by society and related agencies. The initial step in the process was to train and provide health communication knowledge to the staff in charge of disseminating health information, including people who showed interest in health communication, but who lacked experience and knowledge about proper communication. With training those people could solve the problem and take action on health communication with the correct approach.

The research and development project of *“Local Health Communication”* was established and conducted in Phrae and Kanchanaburi Province in order to develop practical health communication concepts that are supportive of health communicators in local areas, and enable them to effectively communicate health information to local people.

2. Objectives

- 1) To find people who are potentially interested in becoming health communicators in the studied area
- 2) To strengthen the capabilities of health communications in conducting their programs
- 3) To study approaches to communication of health information in the local areas, as observed from the participation of the health communicators and supporters

3. Terminology

1) Person who is responsible for health communication means a person who currently works in health communication through local media. That may be a person from a mass media agency, health agency, educational institute, or public organization, and conducts health communication.

2) Potential healthcare communicator (HCC) means a person who works in health communication through local media. That may be a person from a mass media agency, health agency, educational institute, or public organization, and conducts the health communication at present, or a person who wants to work in health communication through local media intentionally, continuously, and consistently.

3) Supporter of Local Health Communication refer to a group that consists of executives from media organizations (five types of local mass media executives including local newspapers, community radio, broadcasting radio, news broadcasting tower, and cable T.V.), health agencies (executives from both private and public agencies), local media operators, and the local health community.

4. Research Methodology

The method utilized was action research using a “participatory” process as an operating mechanism. Therefore, each step of this research opened up an opportunity to interact with the relevant people, including local mass media operators, local health agency workers, supporters of

local health communication, health scholars, and the health community, to cooperatively express their opinions and find the most effective and efficient approach to develop local health communication.

5. Research Results

5.1 To identify and study people interested in becoming HCCs in the studied areas

HCCs in this project from both Phrae and Kanchanaburi Provinces were from the mass media, health agencies, educational institutes, and the health community. It was found that among the 100 people interested (54 persons from Phrae, and 46 persons from Kanchanaburi) males and females were represented in equal number. Most of them were between 35-54 years of age and had completed a bachelor's degree. Most of them were from the community, followed by the mass media and health sector, respectively. They typically had a primary occupation and worked in health communication as a secondary job. They communicated health information through audio media, including news broadcasting towers, audio lines and community radio. It was found that the most interesting health topics were the ones affecting large numbers of people in the local area, followed by national campaigns, and certain topics which were not understood.

The data source which was most popularly used by HCCs was from government agencies, followed by individual data sources such as provincial health officers, scholars, and doctors/nurses. The data were sought from internet, and from press centers in moderate to rather high level volumes, including data from private organization and foundations.

There were a few problems and obstacles facing operation, the main problem being that HCCs had insufficient knowledge and skill on health communication. They must be responsible for several tasks and their working time was not consistent with the best time for local people. They believed that it was difficult to change attitudes, values, and beliefs about health. Moreover, they had data problems such as

insufficient data sources and data; discontinuous coordination with data sources, and uninteresting and lengthy data. There were some contradictions from data acquired from different sources. Additionally, problems with budgets, equipment, and inconsistency of communication and the lifestyle of local people were found.

The group of health communication supporters formed an important group because they pushed for efficient operation of local health communication. A survey was taken by health communication supporters, executives and leaders which consisted of three parts, (1) executives from health organizations in both public and private sectors, (2) executives from local mass media organizations, including local newspapers, provincial broadcasting radio, community radio, news broadcasting tower/audio line, and cable T.V., and leaders from local mass media networks, and (3) health community leader from both provinces. The total number of executives and leaders were 181 people (81 people from Phrae and 100 people from Kanchanaburi).

Supporters from both provinces have acknowledged the project's operation since the initial stages. They expressed their opinions of and recommendations for the operation. Finally, they acknowledged the performance of and expressed their opinions on "Approach to Conduct Health Communication of the Provinces".

5.2 To strengthen the capabilities of conducting health communication for HCCs

From this study, it was found that the HCCs wanted to improve their communication skills; therefore, activities for strengthening these capabilities were established (5 activities for each province). These activities were created through the cooperative decision making of the HCCs. Besides directly solving the problems and serving the demands of the HCCs, such methods of consideration made the HCCs learn cooperative development, starting with a problem survey, moving to problem analysis, and finally to problem solving. It was obvious that the HCCs had many demands on strengthening capabilities with regard to various issues. This reflected the demands of people working in local

health communication and their enthusiasm for self-development. The two most interesting activities of the HCCs in both provinces were enhancing their speaking capabilities through audio media, and public speaking.

The activities were focused on the importance of local communication by local people because the heart of local health communication is with local people as a targeted group, is to provide them with local content, and methods that are consistent with their skills, demands, and values. The results of the activities showed a high level of ability and readiness of the HCCs.

5.3 To conduct Local Health Communication, with the participation of HCCs and supporters

In the final stage of conducting research, two significant points were highlighted. These were the approach to communicating health information in the province and the HCCs grouping. The approach to communicating health information to the local community consisted of two key parts: the HCC as an operator and the operation support mechanism.

The HCC as an operator should play a role as mediator in the cooperative enhancement of health, observing and preventing illnesses, including problem solving for the health of local people. The communication mechanism was used as a medium for health information, which could be conveniently accessed by local people. In addition, the information would be disseminated to the local people, and this information could unite the working processes of the government sector with the work of health communication.

The required qualifications to become an HCC were to love work in health communication, have a positive attitude towards health communication and communication in general, have public consciousness and be ready to work for society, have good human relation skills, be self-confident, eager to learn and develop all the time, have good perception, be creative, have a systematic perspective, be able to organize their thoughts, have well-developed communication skills,

and be able to behave as a health example for the community. The HCCs worked by surveying and analyzing information about health status and the community. This information was analyzed for planning, establishing activities, operating on a knowledge-based system, providing health information, operating consistently, paying attention to the work, and having a code of best practices. Moreover, HCCs focused on the receivers, and the relevant features of the local society and culture.

The HCC worked by using several operational support mechanisms. They also seriously and continuously supported information on communication and health by both private and public agencies, and communities from both inside and outside the studied provinces. Furthermore, HCCs enhanced their communication skills through many methods such as training, sightseeing, and learning from successful communicators. **In the informational aspect**, the information and knowledge on health, including correct local health wisdom which was reliable and updated was provided. Such information was supplied by health agencies, other relevant agencies, and people, such as local gurus. Moreover, the information was found to be correct after being analyzed, and examined prior to being communicated to the local people. This information may be found in the form of published documents, health websites, etc. They were stored and provided systematically. The information centers were located at the Provincial Health Office, Provincial Information Center, and District Hospital as a sub-center. These centers were ready to provide information to the HCCs. **The communication channel** was supported by the local mass media to provide a forum for HCCs to be able to consistently communicate to the local people. Local mass media was one of the factors for succession as McQuail (2000) analyzed that effective media for development would be multiplicity, smallness of scale, locality, deinstitutionalization, interchange of sender-receiver roles and horizontality of communication. For the aspect of gathering a group or **network**, a group was established. The members consisted of male and female HCCs, of various ages, and occupations. The network was administered systematically, and the working target was understood. The working group was set up, starting from the collaboration of

HCCs who were leaders and coordinators. They communicated within their network using many methods (such as discussions, meetings, newsletters, and Weblog) consistently. Additionally, they have acted as an inspiration by working together, and providing communication knowledge to one another (as if teaching their own siblings or friends). This was considered to be one of the mechanisms enabling the HCCs to be self-reliant. The driving assignment plan was set up clearly, such as building knowledge among the group, providing shared activities on health communication, holding meetings to exchange opinions, and extending the network. As for **office, budget, and equipment**, these were supported by community and government organizations. The office was used as a center for meeting among HCCs, and was supported by the Provincial Health Office and organizations of the community. Financial and practical support was provided by the local administrative organization, government organizations, and private organizations in the provinces such as hospitals, municipalities, women's groups, Rotary Club, and companies in the community, whose products affect the health of people in the provinces, including external financial sources.

6. Analysis of Local Health Communication in the studied areas

6.1 HCCs as social capital of local communication in the studied areas

Before the research project entered into the areas being studied in both provinces, the areas had their own system of health communication. For instance, public health officers disseminated information from the Ministry of Public Health. They provided hygienic products in the Health Service Center, distributed health documents in many places, organized a health radio program, published health information in local newspapers, read notifications and disseminated documents through news broadcasting towers, audio lines, etc. However, these actions were conducted separately. There was no record of who performed the action, or what they did. There was no unity regarding health communication,

no power, and no reasonable benefit provided from these activities to the local areas. According to the procedures of this project, there were a number of local health communication operators. In this regard, the project gathered health communication operators who desired to coordinate and to develop local health communication. As a result, health communication in the areas of both provinces became clearer. When grouped at the end of the project, the power of the task was depicted and the way the local area was affected was clearly shown.

The significant characteristics of the HCCs who participated in this project were as follows:

1. HCCs had a “public consciousness” or willingness to “sacrifice for the public”. According to the meeting to determine the guidelines for operating the local health communication programs, most participants opined that “public consciousness” was a primary factor supporting the operation of local health communication.

2. HCCs had a good attitude towards development and communication and therefore, were happy to undertake action to their full ability.

3. HCCs consisted of local people who clearly understood the social condition, culture, and local behavior. Therefore, they could communicate smoothly and naturally, which was consistent with the perception of local people. Furthermore, they were trusted by the local people.

4. HCCs possessed experience. They had already worked within the community for decades and communicated through local media such as news broadcasting tower and radio. They were also volunteers and lecturers on health training. The HCCs therefore had the capability to operate the good health communication programs, as well as, the confidence and preparation to support local people in promoting good health.

5. The HCCs were active in developing themselves. This was reflected by many of the HCCs from both areas who showed initiative in enhancing their capabilities in various issues.

6.2 Results from skill enhancement activities

1. In the initial stage of the project, during the opinion exchange process for health communication operation, the results were found to confirm a major thought of the project "Operating Status on Health Communication of Local Media". One of the most important problems for operating local health communication programs was that the communicators lacked **knowledge and communication skills**, leading to a lack of confidence in their performance. In the brainstorming meeting to determine the activities for capability enhancement, the HCCs created many enhancing topics which were limited to five activities per province. This demonstrated that they wanted to take advantage of this opportunity.

2. According to several activities held in both areas, there were many local HCCs who had the capability, ability, and potential to be developed. In each activity, it was often found that the HCCs would have outstanding abilities and be found as the "star" of the activity. Those people usually had a strong knowledge background or were highly interested in the communication. Together with their intention and commitment to study, these HCCs were able to be developed quickly.

3. As the pattern of activities was focused on practice, HCCs were able to learn in a short period of time. The communication ability was founded on knowledge of relevant skills, based on actual practice. Therefore, HCCs who had already had health communication assignments had an advantage because they could practice on the real stage, in real time.

4. In every activity learning was focused on the important features of local communication. The heart of local health communication was communicating with local people as a targeted group using media, and contents related to the local area, including methods consistent to the needs of the local people. The reason was that some HCCs are still attached to the communication model of using the central mass media.

5. Many activities have led to immediate benefits. For example, the activity on writing an advertising spot was held in Phrae. It was agreed that the awarded spot would be produced as an advertising

spot, copied, and distributed to every HCC in order to use this result together.

6. The capability enhancing activities not only enhanced knowledge and communication skills, they also improved the confidence of the HCCs. Many HCCs said that they had been working on health communication without having learned the correct principles and methods. Participation in the activity was viewed as “on the job training”; therefore, they were confident in continuing their health communication.

7. Activities which encouraged participation to create a supportive learning atmosphere, such as workshops or practice in pairs, and critiquing the results of their peers, helped to develop relationships among the HCCs through cultivating understanding of each other, which will form a basis for later networking. During the activity period, they exchanged opinions, as well as, coordinated the health communication work. For example, in Phrae Province, Suvicha Chansuriyakul, a public health scholar from the Provincial Public Health Office, proposed to act as a health information center for demanding HCCs.

8. Participation in capability enhancing activities helped to build knowledge capital for the HCCs. HCCs were able to convey said knowledge to other colleagues. For example, Aree Thitichoteanan brought her knowledge from the training on public speaking for success and continued to share it with volunteers in the area. This was deemed as a basis on which the HCCs can stand.

6.3 Enhancement of in demand communication skills in consistent speaking to receiving information by local people

When considering capability enhancing activities that a health communicator from the local area presented himself, it was found that both provinces provided the capability enhancing activities in similar yet differing ways. It was obvious that the most interesting activities for the HCCs in Phrae and Kanchanaburi were capability enhancing activities through audio media, and public speaking. Speaking through audio media means to speak through community radio, main radio, and news broadcasting towers or audio lines. In contrast, public speaking

means to speak to an audience face-to-face and on different occasions. The capability enhancing activities of the HCCs were based in this style for the following reasons.

1. People's communication behavior which was studied in both areas was mostly focused on verbal communication. That is communication by speaking and listening rather than reading and writing. This reflected the communication habits and behavior patterns found in Thai society, particularly of local society. People usually had close social relationships and had a chance to talk to each other more than people in the capital city. Thus, communication based on speaking and listening is important for local people. Moreover, this shows the power of a "personal medium" that has a dominant place in communication, especially for local people who have a close relationship with community and with people as relatives. They paid respect to, believed in, and relied on the people they knew. Therefore, when using as personal medium such as public speaking to make suggestions, or provide information, the audience usually accepted the information. The HCCs realized the strength of using a "personal medium"; therefore, they wanted to enhance their speaking capabilities in order to more effectively introduce health knowledge to the audience.

2. In the studied areas, communication tools with audio media were widely used. These tools allow for participation in communication with these media (as compared with the broadcasting radio station in the capital city). Both provinces used audio broadcasting media such as news broadcasting towers, audio lines, community radio and broadcasting radio in the province. Because communication happened in the local area, these HCCs had a chance to participate in the communication, and to learn and experience using the media. However, most of the HCCs had not been directly trained in communication. Many of them didn't have an announcement license. Therefore, these HCCs needed to enhance their speaking skills in order to speak according to the correct theory and principles, as well as, correctly take action and be accepted by the audience. This was consistent with the information receiving behavior of people in the studied areas. According to the

project of Operating Status on Health Communication of Local Media, it was found that the local media that was the most popularly used (by 643 local people) was the provincial broadcasting radio, followed by the news broadcasting tower and audio line.

6.4 Participation of HCCs in each step of the research

The target of this research project was to build health communication in the studied areas by focusing on the operators or HCCs and using Participatory Action Research. When considering the details of their participation in each step of the research, it was found that the steps were as follows.

Selection of health communication operator involved recruiting an operator in the studied area to become an HCC. The operator finally decided with an understanding of the project's background. After that, they showed their intention to participate in the project. In this step, the health communication operator who became an HCC made a decision by themselves.

Determination of capability enhancing activities – According to the details for acquiring the capability enhancing activities in both areas, the participation of HCCs was clearly shown. Starting from brainstorming in order to solve operational problems, the focus moved to obtaining knowledge and developing needed abilities. After that, opinions were exchanged for a limited period, and the topic of enhancing capability was selected from the discussion and opinions expressed by the HCCs. This was where the activities for enhancing capability came from. During this period, the HCCs had fully participated in the work. Not only did it enable each activity to support the problems and demands of the HCCs, but the establishment of these activities shows the mutual commitment among HCCs, by involving each person in learning from activities they proposed themselves.

Participatory learning – Every activity had applied the participatory learning principle. Learning was not only achieved by listening to the lecturer, but also by expressing opinions and exchanging stories from their experiences (most of HCCs had experience in

communication work), and taking action in real situations. As a result, various things were learned from lecturers, friends, and everyone who participated in the workshop.

Operational evaluation – HCCs expressed their opinions in the form of periodic operational evaluation. Each time an activity was held, the HCCs had a chance to evaluate the results, starting from obtained knowledge, utilization, activity establishment, and including recommendations. The method of evaluation used questionnaires that were discussed at the end of the activity (if time was available). From the opinions expressed regarding the activities, the HCCs realized the importance and presented the opinions actively, leading to improvement.

Determination of guidelines for health communication in the provinces – the HCCs had a set of guidelines for serious brainstorming in order to find the character of the HCCs, and operational procedures. Establishing a network that would be supported by a third party all led to guidelines for efficient health communication. This brainstorming was based on the responsibility and ownership of the work of the HCCs, which occurred naturally.

Table 1 Participation of HCCs in the Research

Research Methodology	Participatory Issues	Result of Participation
Selection of Health Communication Operators as HCCs	- Self decision on participating in the project	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - HCCs participated in conducting the research. - HCCs decided to participate in the project, later affecting the intention of the HCCs.
Determination of Activities for Enhancing Capability	- Topics about capability development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The activities responded to the demands of HCCs. - HCCs were ready to participate in the activity.
Participatory Learning	Contents and methods of the activities for enhancing skills	- Various learning methods were used, including from lecturers, friends, and HCCs from practice.
Performance Evaluation	Knowledge, implementation, activity establishment, and recommendations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - HCCs realized their self-worth. - To present creative opinions.
Determination of operational guidelines for provincial health communication	Operational guidelines for provincial health communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The guidelines were created from HCC opinions. - A mutual future plan was established. - HCCs participated in the work with a view of responsibility and ownership.

6.5 HCC grouping

The HCC grouping started with gathering HCCs who displayed leadership characteristics. However, HCC grouping in both provinces happened at the end of the project. Therefore, it could not be said that the gathering of HCCs to build a network was successful. However, many HCC groups were eager to determine the gathering method to set up and maintain the group. They considered the good qualifications required to form a group or network. For example, both men and women of all ages should be encouraged to participate in health communication. The only requirement needed was to have a mind to work for people, while the network should be managed systematically. The target must be set up; the committee should push for the outcome of the work; and communication among members must be efficient. Moreover, in these two studied areas, network expansion was mentioned, while in the initial stages, external support such as expenses, information, and knowledge, was needed. When the grouping was clear, the demands on external support decreased. Importantly, the group had the idea of self-reliance. In the past, HCCs at Kanchanaburi conveyed knowledge and experience to other parties by providing a training session on public speaking for the network of volunteers.

A network of HCCs occurred naturally under the demand of the groupings in order for every HCC to receive the benefits and have mutual working guidelines. The group of HCCs was confident.

6.6 Linkage of health communication with other work

According to the working experience of HCCs on health communication, it was found that this work linked to other work in the local area. HCCs were not capable of operating anything alone. For example, to operate the health radio program, the information must be received from the data source, and allocated operating time from the people in-charge of the radio station. When brainstorming in order to determine the guidelines for conducting health communication, HCCs in both areas showed the linkage of local health communication with agencies in the area on several issues, including knowledge, information, communication channels, and others, as follows:

1. Knowledge – HCCs realized that knowledge in communication and health was important to the operation. The knowledge may be acquired in several forms such as by documentation, training, and sightseeing. The acquisition of knowledge depended on relevant agencies in the local area, including educational institutes and health agencies in the public and private sectors, and individuals.

2. Information – To conduct health communication requires quality information for communication, no matter whether in the form of documents, leaflets, newspapers, websites, or journals. The HCCs thought that this information should be derived from a reliable source, including from local experts, and directly responsible agencies. The information should be correct, reliable and up-to-date. Caution must be used when working on embedded-advertising information in health products. It was interesting that these HCCs accepted and knew the importance of people who had knowledge and local health wisdom as one of the significant data sources of benefit to local people.

3. However, these data must be stored, systematically managed, and verified for its correctness. The data must be able to be accessed conveniently. Most of the HCCs opined that the Provincial Public Health Office probably played a major role as a data source and data provider because the Provincial Public Health was ready to do so and reliable.

4. Communication channel – The communication channel was one issue which with the HCCs expressed concern. The communication channel can be divided into two aspects. One supported the HCCs having an opportunity to identify themselves to the community, and the other was the health communication channel to people in the area. The first channel may be used when having activities in the province such as meetings, having festivals, traditional events, or others. This was considered to be a public space where many people could participate. The last channel meant communication through the media, especially local media in order to open opportunities to HCCs for communicating, including broadcasting time, providing space in newspapers, and other methods. HCCs realized that although they had the ability and good intention, if there is no communication channel for identifying and communicating to people, then health communication cannot occur. Therefore, the

HCCs thought that it was necessary to connect health communication to people already in charge of communication channels such as media owners or management, including newspapers, broadcasting radio, community radio, and other forms of media.

5. Mechanisms supporting other areas – Most of the HCCs thought that the budget for equipment and the office for HCCs were important. If there was no support, it may become an obstacle to the operation. They opined that the support should come from several sources. The flow of support should not depend on any single organization or agency. Various organizations and agencies should be used. For example, public agencies, especially local administration organizations (both provincial and sub-district) should support the budget and equipment. Meanwhile, private agencies located in the community such as paper factories, fertilizer factories, sugar factories, and other industries related to the deterioration of people's health, should participate and be responsible for funding public health maintenance. This was the expansion of a concept from a limited source of funds from the government health agency, e.g. Ministry of Public Health, to private agencies, which were responsible for the deterioration of public health. This idea was created by the HCCs at Kanchanaburi and was found to be very interesting. Moreover, the Provincial Public Health Office was expected to participate and support the various methods. For instance, Phrae Province was expected to be the health information center for HCCs, and Kanchanaburi was expected to use the Provincial Public Health Office as an HCC Center.

7. Analysis of guidelines for Local Health Communication

According to the operational procedure of the project and the concept of local health communication gathered from the brainstorming session of HCCs and supporters, the guidelines for local health communication, consisting of procedures and supporting system/mechanisms can be analyzed as follows:

7.1 Finding people who wanted to be HCCs

In the provincial areas, the health communication operators were already provided by their own sense of duty or personal interest. Not every person wanted to become an HCC. Local health communication must begin with finding people who want to become HCCs. The most important operation in this step was to study the primary data in order to acknowledge the cost of having a local health communication officer, including an understanding of the qualification and job description of the HCC, and opening an opportunity to the health communication officer to notify them of their desire to become an HCC.

One of mechanisms was to allow the communication operators to make decisions by themselves. The operators should know what a HCC does, how to do it and what the impact was.

7.2 Readiness preparation for volunteers to be HCCs

HCCs must be empowered which is considered part of their readiness preparation. HCCs should jointly determine their activities in order to respond to the demands placed on them. The capability enhancing activities should be established based on participatory learning principles and evaluated on the benefits of both knowledge and implementation.

The significant mechanism for empowerment was to establish an understanding of HCCs responsibilities and roles. Ways to do this included, enhancing capabilities in order to respond to demand, understanding the principle of two-way communication, using community participation in communication, and acknowledging the importance of resources featuring local content. These three elements were necessary and were the highlight of community communication. This made community communication differ from more general communication, as well as motivated the supporters to realize and understand the role of the HCCs.

7.3 HCC operation on health communication

When the HCCs were ready to perform the communication, the guideline for local health communication should be established. Such guidelines should be presented to supporters from agencies for their acknowledgement, opinion and recommendations in order to improve them to be appropriate for implementation in the local area. In addition, HCCs should be encouraged to gather in group settings in order to build and expand the network.

The mechanisms to be used in this step are as follows:

1. HCCs performed the communication with support by the relevant people, including people and agencies related to health (doctors, nurses, public health officers, volunteers, Thai-style medicine experts, herbal gurus, the health community, etc), people and agencies in the local administration (provincial administrative organization, subdistrict administrative organization, municipality, etc.), people and agencies in the local media (newspapers, broadcasting radio, community radio, news broadcasting tower, etc.), and people and agencies in education (teachers and lecturers, every level of educational institution, learning center, etc.).

2. HCC grouping increased confidence in the operation. The HCCs were accepted by the community because they produced useful results which were widely acknowledged.

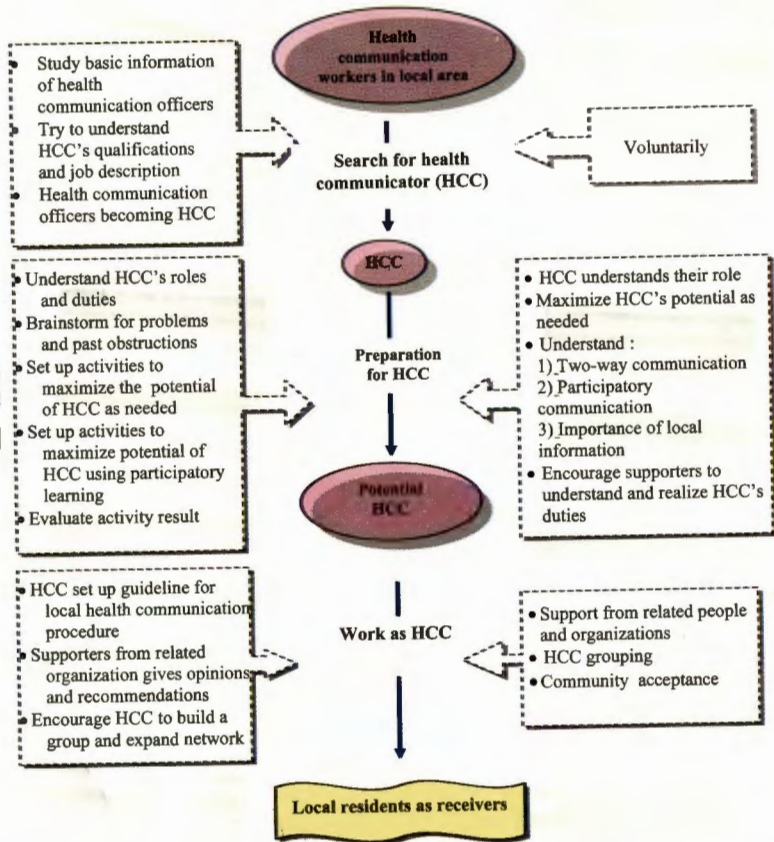


Figure 1 The model on the guidelines for local health communication.

8. Analysis on sustainability of local health communication

The objective of this research was to enhance health communication by establishing HCCs who wanted to work in the field, were experts, and had support from relevant agencies. The research results could achieve these objectives and continuing factors made local health communication sustainable. The results are shown as follows:

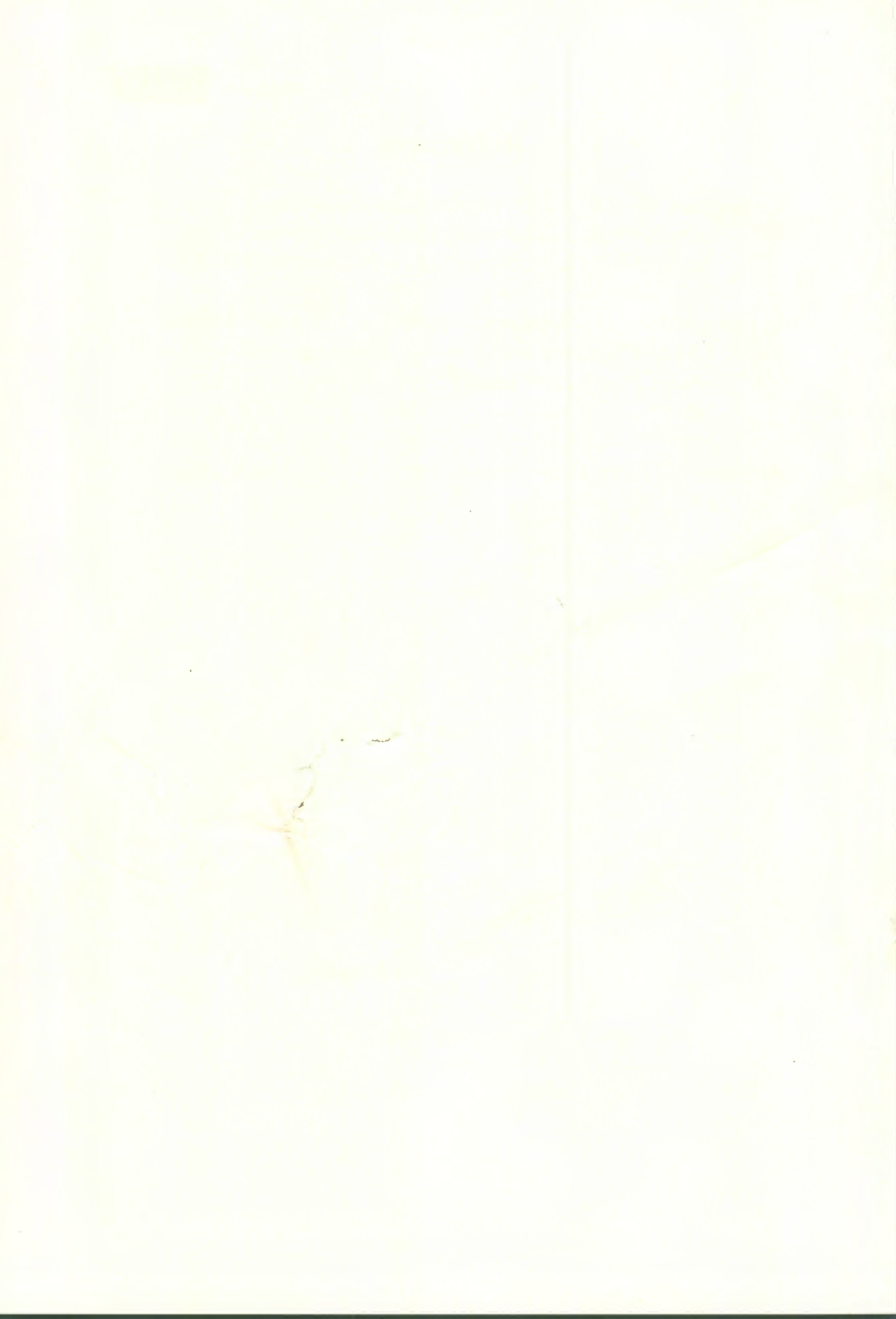
1. The performance of HCCs was clear, continuous, concrete, and widely acknowledged.
2. HCC networking was stable.
3. The community participated in the communication and the communication was in the form of participatory communication.
4. HCCs were supported by third parties and external organizations (social support).

9. Recommendations

1. HCCs should have a clear role and stance for working together. They should have a clear and concrete plan motivating their work, as well as, ways to publicize or present their work to local people for their acknowledgement and understanding of the “identification” and “existence” of the local HCCs. A meeting point for consistent discussion should be provided in order for them exchange their knowledge with each other.
2. When expanding the HCC network the desired description of new members should be considered without deviating from the operational objective, and to prevent problems and obstacles when driving the network.
3. Local people and agencies should support the HCCs seriously and sincerely. To ensure this, the policy on supporting health communication at the provincial level should be enhanced.
4. The relevant organizations that consider and certify the status of HCCs must link the health communication with both the health and communication work that already exists in the society, This must occur at both the local and broader levels of the society, in order to be consistent with and link to existing work.
5. Motivate, push, and support for health communication study in educational institutions.

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๑araj jàaη nii (อะไรอย่างนี้):
**The Grammatical Functions and Social Categories
as a New Final Particle in Thai Language**

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Abstract

This paper aims to study and to make a contribution to the description of ๑araj jàaη nii as final particle in Thai by looking at its grammatical functions as well as its social categories. The data are collected by recordings and conversations of 80 Bangkok Thai speakers aged 6-80. These data are analyzed by using the syntactic notion of dependency and co-occurrence in sentence. This paper challenges the current analysis of final particle as the small words or phrases which do not have any syntactic relationship to the sentence or utterance and are usually added to the end of colloquial speeches. This paper argues that ๑araj jàaη nii is being grammaticalized and lexicalized from noun phrase to word as final particle. There are many its variable forms, such as ๑araj jàaη nii, ๑araj jàaη nía, ๑araj nía, raj nía and so on.

The account of ๑araj jàaη nii as social categories is based on Bakhtin's notion of Heteroglossia as it is integrated within the systems of modality and evidentiality. Thai speakers use final particle ๑araj jàaη nii as a discourse connective and interpersonal marker. A comparison of speakers divided into eight generational groups. The quantitative analysis found that ๑araj jàaη nii is highly used in the ages of 21-30, 11-20, 31-40 and 41-50 in order of frequency. Meanwhile, it is not found in speakers of 71-80 years old, nor in speakers of 6-7 years olds. These different uses can be discussed from the heteroglossia function. Young Thai people interpret ๑araj jàaη nii in an adult-like fashion to become

more adult on the one hand, Thai adults fashionably use *?araj jàaŋ nīi* to perform their modern style and express the youthfulness in the other.

This paper also argues that Thai particles not only associate to pragmatic use of expressing speakers' attitudes, but also relate to discourse context of speakers to identify their situated identity by using and designing the different form of particles.

1. Introduction

The word 'particle' in Thai language is frequently described as pragmatically use of words in an utterance that convey emotions, feelings and expressing attitudes of speakers. It often appears at the end of a sentence or an utterance, so-called final particle. The notion 'particle' is rather blurred in Thai grammar. It is usually categorized to be modal word as the subclass of adverb (Bhandhumedha, 2006) as well as interjection (Uppakitsilapasarn, 1990), which mostly concern written standard Thai. Particles, therefore, are neglected on the reference grammar of Thai. Some particles, which popular used by Thai speakers such as *dī* (ดี) or *de?* (เด?), are left out from the description of Thai grammar because of their non-standard. However, because of the popular and various uses among Thai speakers, particles have necessarily been studied. There are many researches to classify Thai particles. On the basis of syntactic and semantic criteria, the previous studies such as Bhamoraput (1972), Thikashunhatian (1984), classify Thai final particle into various groups. None of the studies concern socio-pragmatic use of it. Apparently, Thai particles, particularly final particle, are very active and dynamic in daily-life language. This paper aims to study Thai final particle in sociolinguistic view and to make a contribution to the description of a new final particle *?araj jàaŋ nīi* in Thai language. The purpose of this study is to show how *?araj jàaŋ nīi* is grammaticalized as final particle and how its sociolinguistic distribution is varied among Thai age group of speakers. This paper, also, discusses its pragmatic functions and its meaning in utterances as well as its social categories marker. Considerably, this study would be effect more fulfillment but most challenging to Thai grammar.

c:	pət open	pra tuu the door	<u>dì</u> PART	'I request you to open the door.'
d:	pət open	pra tuu the door	<u>thə</u> PART	'I suggest you to open the door'

In (1a-d), the sentence, *pət pra tuu* 'open the door' is invariant. The final particles are varied both semantically optional as they affect the meaning of the whole sentence and communicative function as they express the speaker response to the situation as well as the relationship between speaker and addressee. For instance, in (1a) performs the imperative speech act, in (1d) performs speech act of suggestion, whereas in (1b-c) performs the same request speech act but a mere different relationship of speaker and addressee. In (1c) shows the closer relationship of speaker-addressee than in (1b), therefore, in (1c) is more informal. This demonstrates that these final particles perform rather discourse-pragmatic than syntactical function.

Generally, the previous study shows that type of particles in Thai is varied in terms of different criteria. On the basis of syntactic and semantic perspective, Bhamoraput (1972, p. 16) classified final particle into seven groups: intensifying particles, emphasizing particles, hortative particles, definite particles, question particles, post-question particles, and status particles. According to Peyasantiwong (1981, p. 28) looking at their similarity, divided Thai final particles into three main groups: question particles, status particles, and mood particles. And Cooke (1989, 1992) roughly divided final particles into four types on the basis of their semantic and pragmatic context: speaker-addressee relationships, or status particles, calling for response from the addressee, or question particles, speaker's response to the situation, and contextual orientation, or mood particles. He pointed out that one of the unique characteristics of final particles is variation of forms. They may involve phonological variation such as vowel shortening, initial or final consonants deletion, changes of pitch or length, or

intonational variability. These variations may also relate to the shade of their meanings.

In this paper, *?araj jàaŋ nīi* is claimed to be final particle by using both syntactical and discourse-pragmatic perspective as stating above to challenge the study of final particle in Thai language.

3. Data and methods of analysis

The data of this study is a corpus of narratives and conversations of 80 Bangkok speakers aged 6-80. Among the large corpus of these participants, it roughly divided into eight groups with 10 year range of speakers in each group, except the first group that begins with 6 years old. According to the previous study in child language acquisition in Thai school (Phisarnpanumart, 2529; Benjatanasompatti, 2546), the 6-year-old child is in the first grade of school system and has closely acquired standard grammar much alike adult speaker.

The recordings were ranging from about 10 to 30 minutes in length. Narratives and conversations were transcribed from recordings and edited slightly.

The analysis of the data consisted primarily of looking at each occurrence of *?araj jàaŋ nīi* and its variable forms in its natural discourse context within this corpus. None of data here is based on elicitation or speaker intuitions.

4. Analysis

4.1 Grammatical functions of *?araj jàaŋ nīi*

Normally, *?araj jàaŋ nīi* (อะไรอย่างนี้) in Thai speech can occur at the end of sentence or utterance with multiple grammatical functions. Syntactically, *?araj jàaŋ nīi* as noun phrase is in construction of head noun *?araj* (อะไร) ‘something or what’ followed by a noun phrase modifier which consists of a classifier *jàaŋ* (อย่าง) ‘kind’ as head noun and *nīi* (นี้) ‘this’ as its determiner. It can be shown as model below:

NP [*?araj jàaŋ ní*]
 something kind this

N. Class. Det.

In most cases, noun phrase *?araj jàaŋ ní* has some syntactic characteristics and grammatical functions as verb complement and noun modifier. In some constructions, *?araj jàaŋ ní* can not be deleted in the sentence as is illustrated by (2).

- (2) *mâj khít wâa kháw ca ram thâa ?araj jàaŋ ní dâj*
 NEG. think COMP. he will dance N:the act what
 kind this MOD V.
 'I don't think that he could dance like this.'

In this example, noun phrase *?araj jàaŋ ní* functions as a modifier of a head noun *thâa* 'the act' embedding in a subordinate clause which has *wâa* as a complementizer.

In some cases, the head noun can be deleted but *?araj jàaŋ ní* still exists, as in example (3).

- (3) *kháw mâj cháj (khřiaŋ) ?araj jàaŋ ní léew*
 PRON. NEG. use N:(machine) what kind this
 MOD.
 'No one has used what kind like this anymore.'

Also, *?araj jàaŋ ní* occurs after verb, it functions as verb complement when following intransitive verb as illustrated in (4), and functions as object when following transitive verb as illustrated in (5).

- (4) *khon jé mâak mâj jàak paj ?araj jàaŋ ní*
 people many very NEG. want go what kind this
 'It's very crowded, (I) don't want to go like this.'

- (5) raw mâj jaak tham ?araj jàaη nîi ná
 we NEG. want do what kind this PART.
 'We don't want to do what kind like this.'

All of examples above shows that noun phrase *?araj jàaη nîi* can perform these grammatical functions as noun modifier as well as verb complement and object when occurs after noun and verb in the sentence. It can not be deleted since it indicates some intention of speakers. It is noted that Thai speakers use *?araj jàaη nîi* to refer to the specific things or events which are shared-knowledge of speakers and hearers. *?araj jàaη nîi* contains the content that presupposes speakers' negative feelings or attitudes towards those things or events.

4.2 From noun phrase to final particle of *?araj jàaη nîi*

The analysis found that *?araj jàaη nîi* has been lexicalized to word. It is not a single word but a compound word. The formation of compound word in Thai is very common. In most cases, compound word can be derived from noun phrase. When noun phrase has become compound word, there is a close knit relation within it, that is, it can not be moved or inserted any words in it.

Phonetically, there are variable forms of *?araj jàaη nîi* such as *?araj jàaη ηîi* as there is some sound assimilation of nasal sound from [n] to [ŋ]. Mostly, *?araj jàaη nîi* can be followed by another assertive particle *ná*, and then derives into one word with diphthong. Thus, *?araj jàaη nîi ná* changes the form to *?araj jàaη nîa* or *?araj jàaη ηîa*. There are, then, the shorten form as *?araj ηîa* or *raj ηîa*.

When *?araj jàaη nîi* is lexicalized to word, it always occurs at the end of sentence or utterance. Its syntactic characteristics are very much like final particle. These are: it does not have any syntactic relationship and dependency with any words in a sentence or utterance; it always occurs at the end of utterance; and it can be deleted or replaced by other final particles in a group of assertive or expressions, such as *ná*.

These can be seen in (6) below.

- (6) (a) tua níi sǎaj ná
 shirt this lovely PART.
- (b) ?aw máj ?a raj jàaŋ níi
 take it QUES. PART.
- (c) man sǎaj thùuk dǔaj ?a raj ɲía
 it lovely cheap too PART.
- (d) kô ləj síi ləj raj ɲía
 so, bought MOD. PART.

‘This shirt is lovely, do you want it? she said. It was lovely and it was cheap too, I think. So, I bought it.’

This example is a connected speech of a 16-year-old girl telling her story about shopping and reporting that the seller was attempting to buy her a shirt. There are four utterances in this speech and final particles of telling story, *ná* and *?araj jàaŋ níi* appear in every utterances. Notice that there is a difference of these two particles. Final particle *ná* in (6a) is in direct speech. That means *ná* is of the seller speech to affirm how good quality of the shirt the girl was looking. In (6b) *?araj jàaŋ níi* is of the girl speech to show the end of quotation. Whereas in (6c-d) with the variable forms, *?araj jàaŋ níi* marks her own speech to express her decision to the audience.

All the forms which illustrated above shows the grammaticalized form of *?araj jàaŋ níi* from noun phrase to final particle. *?araj jàaŋ níi* has developed the specialized usage, with different grammatical and syntactic behaviors. It moves from syntactically fixed as noun modifier and verb complement to syntactically free as final particle.

4.3 Discourse function and social category of final particle *?araj jàaŋ nīi*

?araj jàaŋ nīi as final particle, it has specific meaning and function which is concerning to discourse and pragmatic aspect rather than grammatical aspect. Meaning and function of *?araj jàaŋ nīi* in this view can be pointing the social categories to the speaker. This paper uses Bakhtin's notion of heteroglossia to describe *?araj jàaŋ nīi* function. It presupposes the positioning of speakers and texts within the heterogeneity of world view and social interaction. It is integrated within the system of modality and evidentiality. *?araj jàaŋ nīi*, therefore, has a socio-pragmatic function in interpersonal communication. Thai speakers use *?araj jàaŋ nīi* as a discourse connective and pragmatic marker to indicate speaker's stance towards the information or content as well as the connection between utterances.

In example (7) illustrates *?araj jàaŋ nīi* as discourse connective and its meaning is very much like 'such as' or 'for example'.

(7) thīi paj kô mīi müaj, lék, tèk **?araj njá**
 (people) REL PRON. go REL. have PRON. PART.

'People who went there together were Muay, Lek, Tek and so on.'

In this example, Speaker use *?araj jàaŋ nīi* to connect details or examples in utterance and to show evidences to addressee by stating the people proper name which addressee might know.

Moreover, *?araj jàaŋ nīi* can be hedging or fuzziness when speaker can not describe the exact details, or speaker may lack of full information. It is probably used to blur speaker's intent as illustrated by example (8).

(8) hěn kháw nīi paj thaŋ hũa hĩn thěw bôo fãaj **?araj jàaŋ niá**
 saw him ran go way PROP-HuaHin area PROP-Bor Fai PART.

'(I) saw him ran away to Hua Hin, somewhere around Bor Fai area.'

In this example, the 35-year-old woman talked about a guy who was her neighbor had done some bad thing and had been chased by another neighbor. Being asked as the witness, she used final particle *?araj jàaŋ nii* to blur her speech but she used *hěn*, 'to see', as her evidential. This can be assumed that she may not know the exact information or she may try to hedge what she knew but she does not want to clearly say for some reasons.

These two examples above show how discourse function of *?araj jàaŋ nii* does. Speakers report those events and information with this form of final particle. This can say that final particle *?araj jàaŋ nii* indicates the information being reported was obtained through evidentials.

5. Variation in usage by speaker at different ages

Interestingly, the usage of *?araj jàaŋ nii* among age groups is very distinctive. This sociolinguistic distribution shows how Thai speakers use this final particle. From quantitative analysis, all final particles appeared in data were counted. When comparing the frequency of the overall usage of final particles, like *ná* and *?a*, it found that *?araj jàaŋ nii* is highest use in the age of 11-20. Table 1 shows that *?araj jàaŋ nii* exemplifies the usage by different age groups of speakers when comparing to other two final particle, *ná* and *?a*.

Table 1 The use of final particle *?a*, *ná* and *?araj jàaŋ níi* among age groups.

Particles Age	6-10	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	71-80
<i>?a</i>	36.69	17.85	23.1	21.06	13.57	20.34	17.42	17.39
<i>ná</i>	3.04	5.42	10.52	28.53	49.71	35.27	35.06	35.49
<i>?araj jàaŋ níi</i>	2.47	30.08	27.26	20.99	5.13	3.79	2.01	0

Using final particles by age difference here is very interesting. The analysis shows that *?araj jàaŋ níi* is highest used in the speaker at age group of 11-20 with 30.08 percent of the overall final particles used in corpus of the same age group. The age of 21-30, 31-40, and 41-50 is in order of frequency. Meanwhile, it appears zero in the speaker of 71-80 years old, and 6-7 years old. Concerning the token of data, *?araj jàaŋ níi* firstly found the usage in the speaker of 9 years old. It is noted that final particle *ná* is highly used in the age of 41 up to 80 and *?a* is the highest used at the age of 6-10.

This variation of using final particle, particularly *?araj jàaŋ níi*, demonstrating above can be the marker of indicating language change in Thai society. Using Labov's notion of change in progress, it can be assumed that *?araj jàaŋ níi* might be the main final particle of assertion and demonstrating instead of *ná*. The picture of final particle change in progress can be clearer illustrated by Figure 1 below.

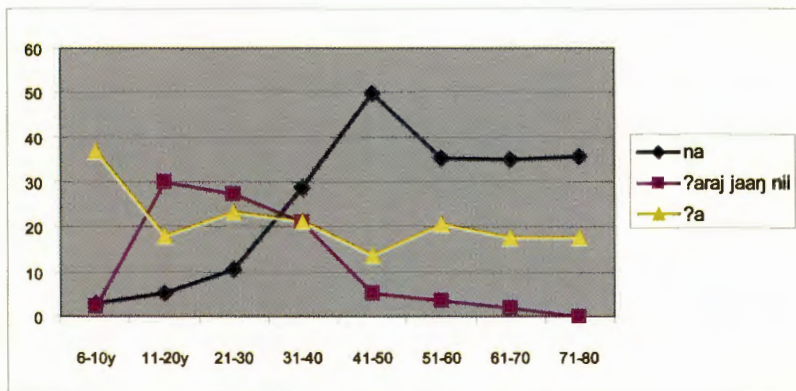


Figure 1 Change in progress of Thai final particle *na*, *?a* and *?araj jaan nii*

6. Conclusion

This paper argues that *?araj jaan nii* is a new final particle in Thai language. It is grammaticalized from noun phrase to final particle. As final particle, *?araj jaan nii* has more widely been used by Thai speakers in terms of discourse-pragmatic function. It is used as discourse connective and pragmatic marker. *?araj jaan nii* can be a marker of language of young speakers as it found the highest use in the age of 11-20. These different usages of *?araj jaan nii* as final particle among Thai speakers at different ages can be discussed from the heteroglossia function and the sociolinguistic variation perspective. Young Thai people at age of 11-20 interpret *?araj jaan nii* in an adult-like fashion since *?araj jaan nii* is a final particle of assertion and demonstrating. They popularly use it to describe and illustrate their speech and their opinion or stance very much like adult people do. On the other hand, since *?araj jaan nii* has been fashionably used by the younger, Thai adults use it to perform their modern style and to express their youthfulness. This tendency of final particle usage show the change in progress as Labov (1972) points out to Thai language.

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สนทนากับ ดร.การุณ

“การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในชีวิตประจำวัน”

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เมื่อสังเกตว่าลูกศิษย์มีสายตาดอกว่า รับความรู้อีกไม่ได้แล้ว สมอง
 ล้าแล้ว ข้อมูลมากเกินไปรับแล้ว หรืออะไรทำนองนั้น ผมก็จะหันมาสนทนากัน
 แต่เป็นการสนทนาที่ต้องใช้ปัญญาตรึกตรองก่อนพูด ด้วยการตั้งคำถามให้คิด
 เช่น **Many manufacturers have a quality control department to check the merchandise before shipping it out to the market. Do you think people should control their life quality as well? Have you ever controlled the quality of your life?** แล้วทุกคนก็
 เขียนไปสักพัก คนหนึ่งตอบว่า **I have never thought of that.** อีกคน
 ก็ตอบว่า **Actually, I might have thought about my life quality and have been trying to improve my life consciously and unconsciously.** แล้วการสนทนาก็เริ่มคึกคัก สรุปได้ว่า ที่ไม่เคยคิดที่จะ
 พัฒนาชีวิตให้มีคุณภาพก็เริ่มคิด หลังจากรับฟังความคิดเห็นที่พรั่งพรั่งกันมา
 จนไม่อยากจะกลับบ้าน ด้วยสาระสำคัญต่าง ๆ ถึงวิธีการพัฒนาคุณภาพชีวิต
 และลูกศิษย์คนหนึ่งหันมาถามผมว่า **How do you control your life quality?** และนี่ก็เป็นวิธีการที่ผมใช้พัฒนาประสิทธิภาพของชีวิต

หากมีใช้เพราะการศึกษาระดับปริญญาเอกภาษาอังกฤษ ที่ตั้งใจเรียนให้รู้จริง
 หมั่นพัฒนาภาษาในทุกด้าน ทั้งด้านการออกเสียงสำเนียง หลักภาษา ให้ทัดเทียมกับ
 เจ้าของภาษา จนเป็นที่แน่ใจของสถาบันให้ดำเนินการสอนภาษาอังกฤษแก่นักศึกษา
 อเมริกันมากกว่า ๓๐ ปีจนถึงเวลาเกษียณ แต่ก็ยังไม่อยากอยู่เฉยให้สมองเฉา เพราะยังมี
 ลิขิตส์สอนได้ ๕๐ เปอร์เซ็นต์ การสอนนี่เองที่ได้พัฒนาปัญญาให้เห็นคุณค่าของตนที่
 สามารถประสาทความรู้แก่หนุ่มสาว นอกจากสร้างฐานะให้ครอบครัวให้มีชีวิตที่อุดมและ

บริบูรณ์ด้วยรากฐานที่มั่นคงเป็นผลให้มีโอกาสเลือกสรรสิ่งปรุ่่งแต่งชีวิตตามรสนิยมในทุกด้าน ทั้งการบันเทิง การท่องเที่ยว การเลือกใช้สิ่งจำเป็นที่มีคุณภาพ การมีงานอดิเรกที่พอใจและสันถัด ที่สำคัญคือการร่วมสร้างอนาคตให้หลานชาย หากมีไข้เพราะงานที่ถนัดและทำด้วยใจรักให้มีฐานะในระดับปัญญาชนในสังคมไม่ได้รับการรังเกียจฉิวเผ่าพวงษ์ ก็คงมีอาจได้ปรุ่่งแต่งชีวิตได้สมบูรณั่ ไม่ว่าจะเป็่่งงานประเภทใดก็ตาม การทำงานด้วยใจรักและจริงจัง ย่อมทำให้เกิดทักษะ และความพอใจในชีวิตที่สามารถรับผิ่ดชอบได้อย่างสมบูรณั่ให้กับตนเอง ครอบครั้ว ผู้จ้าง ผู้ร่วมงานและผู้รับบริการ ภาชีรียายได้ยังมีทอดไปถึงสังคมอีกด้วย จึงควรเห็นได้ชัดว่างานเป็่่งสิ่งสำคัญยิ่งที่พัฒนาคุณภาพชีวิต

นอกจากงาน คือ จิตสำนึกด้วยมโนธรรม ที่พอเม่อ่อบรมสั่งสอนไว้ฝังใจมัน และกระจำงล้าลึกไปตามวัย เข้าใจในพฤติกรรมของคนว่ามีเหตุที่สร้างผล คนมีอารมณั่ และเหตุผลขนานกัน ต่างกันว่าสิ่งใดมีน้ำหนักมากกว่ากัน ขึ้นอยู่กับความเข้าใจในจิต และการฝึกควบคุมสติไว้ด้วยเหตุผล โดยระงับอารมณั่มิให้นำชีวิต ทั้งมีจิตเวทนาเกือ่อกูล ผู้ด้อยโอกาสและวาศนา ช่วยบรรเทาทุกข์ และบำรุงสุขให้เท่าที่มีความสามารถและโอกาส ก็เป็่่งการบำรุงสุขภาพจิต ทั้งพัฒนาจิตใจให้เจริญเป็่่งการสร้างพลังจิตที่คิดติกระทำดี พลังเช่นนี้สร้างสรรคั่และพัฒนาคุณภาพชีวิต ส่วนพลังจิตที่คิดร้ายเป็่่งพลังที่ทำลายไม่อาจพัฒนาคุณภาพชีวิตได้

การรักษาสุขภาพกายก็เป็่่งสิ่งสำคัญในการพัฒนาประสิทธิภาพชีวิตที่สำคัญไม่น้อย หลายคนที่ไม่ได้ศึกษาอาหารที่ควรบริโภค ค่านึงแต่รสที่เคยชิน หากเป็่่งอาหารที่มีไขมัน เกลือ น้ำตาล มากแต่มีคุณค่าทางอาหารน้อย เท่ากับเป็่่งการสั่งสมโรคต่าง ๆ ไว้ในร่างกายให้ปรากฏได้ในที่สุด หากปรากฏในวัยชราที่ควรเป็่่งเวลาพัก ก็กลับต้องทุกข์ทรมานด้วยโรคต่าง ๆ หากเป็่่งในวัยทำงาน ชีวิตก็ไร้ประสิทธิภาพ ผมจึงใส่ใจในอาหารที่มีคุณค่าเลือ่่งรับประทานผักผลไม้ อาหารที่เป็่่งประเภทเบ็งเช่นข้าว ก๋วยเตี๋ย พาสต้า รับประทานได้เพียงน้อย สิ่งปรุ่่งรสก็เช่นกันใช้เพียงพอที่ร่างกายต้องการ นอกจากอาหาร การออกกำลังกายวันละครึ่งชั่วโมงอย่างน้อย จะด้วยการเดิน ว่ายน้ำ หรือถีบจักรยาน ก็จำเป็นต้องฝึ่่งใจในระยะแรก เมื่อทำไปได้สัก ๓ อาทิตย์ ก็จะมีติดเป็่่งนิสัย นอกจากทำให้หัวใจแข็งแรง ยังช่วยลดไขมันและน้ำตาลในร่างกายได้ดี ร่างกายที่สมบูรณั่ไร้โรคเบียดเบียน สามารถสร้างสรรคั่ เพิ่มประสิทธิภาพชีวิตได้

อื่น ๆ ที่ผมใส่ใจเพื่อพัฒนาคุณภาพและประสิทธิภาพแก่ชีวิต คือความสนใจส่วนตัว เช่น วาดรูป ร้องเพลงไทย ฟังเพลง (คลาสสิก) อ่าน เขียนหนังสือ ทำสวน

ทำอาหาร ท่องเที่ยว และสมาคม สิ่งเหล่านี้ให้ทั้งการบันเทิงใจ และเพิ่มทักษะต่าง ๆ เป็นผลให้เพลิดเพลินชีวิตทุกยาม ใครถามว่า **How are you?** คำตอบที่ฝรั่งพูดมาทันที คือ **Just wonderful.**

ก็เป็นการสนทนาที่พาให้ลูกศิษย์คิดและ دلใจให้ผู้ที่ไม่เคยคิดในเรื่องนี้ ได้เริ่มใส่ใจพัฒนาคุณภาพและประสิทธิภาพของชีวิต ในฉบับนี้ ก็เลยจะพูดถึง **say “พูด”, tell “บอก”** ซึ่งไม่ต่างจากภาษาไทยนัก แต่ก็มีวิธีการใช้หลายสถานดังต่อไปนี้

Say เป็นการ “พูด” ถึงเรื่องต่าง ๆ ให้ผู้อื่นฟัง จึงต้องตามด้วย “เรื่องที่พูด” เช่น

Say ‘you won’t do that again.’

(You won’t do that again. เป็นสิ่งที่ต้องการให้พูด)

Say ‘yes, please.’

(yes, please เป็นเรื่องที่ให้พูด)

Say มีสำนวนของตัวเองอยู่บ้าง เช่น

As the saying goes (เป็นที่พูดกัน หรือ เป็นที่รู้จักกัน)

“Well, as the saying goes: Better late than never.”

(ก็เป็นที่รู้จักกันว่า สายดึกว่าขาด)

That goes without saying (ไม่ต้องอธิบายกันแล้ว)

“If it rains, there will be floods.” “That goes without saying.”

(ถ้าฝนตก น้ำก็ท่วม ไม่ต้องมาอธิบายอะไรเลย)

No sooner said than done (ทำไวกว่าพูด)

When the old man asked Peter to help him out of his chair, it was no sooner said than done.

(พอผู้ชายชราขอให้ปีเตอร์ช่วยเขาลุกจากเก้าอี้ เขาก็ทำให้ทันทีแทบจะไม่ต้องบอก)

Tell เป็นการ “บอก” คนเกี่ยวกับบางเรื่อง คำที่ตามมาจึงต้องเป็นบุคคลก่อนเรื่องที่จะบอก เช่น

Tell me ‘you won’t do that again.’
(me เป็นคนที่จะบอก และตามด้วยเรื่องที่จะบอก)

Tell มีใช้เป็นสำนวนต่าง ๆ เช่น

Tell ... apart “recognize a difference between”

(เห็นความแตกต่าง)

Can you *tell* those twins *apart*? (คุณดูว่าฝาแฝดคู่นั้นแตกต่างกันหรือไม่)

Tell (one) from (another) “distinguish between”

(จำแนกระหว่าง)

I cannot tell Herman from his brother; they look alike.

(ผมแยกเซอร์แมนไม่ออกจากรองชายเขา เขาเหมือนกัน)

Tell a story (เล่านิทาน), **joke** (เล่าเรื่องตลก), **lie** (โกหก),
tale (พ้อง), etc.

The children want you to *tell them a story*.

(เด็ก ๆ ต้องการให้คุณเล่านิทานให้เขา)

Tell time (บอกเวลา)

Their six-year-old son is learning to *tell time*; now, he wants a watch.

(ลูกชายวัยหกขวบของเขากำลังเรียนการบอกเวลา ตอนนี้ เขาต้องการนาฬิกาข้อมือแล้ว)

Tell the truth (บอกความจริง)

You can’t believe a thing Jack says. He just can’t tell the truth.

(คุณไม่อาจเชื่อสิ่งที่แจ๊คพูดได้ เขาไม่มีวันจะพูดความจริงได้เลย)

ฉบับหน้าจะเสนอเรื่อง SPEAK, TALK

Book Review

Chaiyathip Katsura

Book Title: Gaurs of Khun Yuam Jungle (กระทิงป่าขุนยวม)

Author: Mr Nathawat Utthangkorn*

Publisher: Ban Nang Sue

Number of Pages: 286

Type: Fiction

Language: Thai

Price: THB 200

At a time when dense canopies of green still covered many parts of Thailand, some well-off people deemed it a test of their courage to make an adventure into such territories and come back with some ‘prizes’—rare, valuable wood, a jaguar’s skin, an elephant’s tusks or even indigenous people’s artifacts. Little by little, such feats brought irreparable damage to wildlife and the environment.

In the year 2009, a middle-aged man performed a similar feat—going into a jungle and coming back with a prize. Joining a team of archaeologists from many institutions, Mr Natthawat Utthangkorn, whose father had worked in the Forestry Department, visited Sgaw Karen villages in a jungle of Khun Yuam District of Mae Hong Son Province in Northern Thailand. His hunt was not for exorbitantly priced elephant tusks or competitively auctioned feline skins, but for

* The author passed away in April 2011, at a premature age of 46. This novel was the last he wrote.

information on forest conditions and the indigenous people's ways of life in the old days. And it was based on this 'prize', that Mr. Utthangkorn wrote his novel '*Gaurs of Khun Yuam Jungle*'.

Set between 1940 and soon after the end of World War II, this novel features Sgaw Karens' typical ways of life and their close relationship with the forest. The storyline begins with a young Karen boy, Nge Po, accompanying his father and uncle into the jungle, where he is not only 'educated' about animals and plants but also taught 'the rules of the jungles'. What is exciting to the boy on this trip is a herd of gaurs he sees up close, but what is special to him is a young white-faced gaur that locks his eyes with the boy's. A friendship is formed thenceforth.

But as both the boy and the bull grow older, the situation changes, especially with the arrival of Japanese troops. The altered ways of life, caused partly by Japanese soldiers and partly by contact with the outside, more commercialised world, worsened the relationship between the Karens and their forest. Hunting for food for survival gives way to killing for pleasure and money. Amidst this powerful stream of change, how will Nge Po's friendship with the white-faced gaur develop?

Mr. Utthangkorn, who had received an award from HRH Princess Sirindhorn for his juvenile novel 'Rock-Hearted Boy' (ตัวเล็ก หัวใจรีดค), told this story in simple yet moving language. Wasting no words, he described events and characters using vivid expressions, with occasional analogies reflecting his sense of humour. Ultimately, it is the author's call for human respect of nature, plants and all creatures that sets the theme of this story.

หลักเกณฑ์การเสนอบทความวิชาการหรือบทความจากงานวิจัย เพื่อตีพิมพ์ในวารสาร CONNEXION

1. เป็นบทความด้านมนุษยศาสตร์ สังคมศาสตร์
2. ประเภทของบทความได้แก่ บทความวิจัย (research article) บทวิจารณ์ หนังสือ (book review) และปกิณฑกะ (miscellaneous)
3. เป็นภาษาไทยหรือภาษาอังกฤษ (ที่มีการตรวจทานความถูกต้องทางไวยากรณ์และการใช้ภาษาแล้วเป็นอย่างดี)
4. ต้องระบุชื่อบทความ และชื่อ-สกุลจริงของผู้เขียนบทความ พร้อมวุฒิการศึกษา ตำแหน่งและสถานที่ทำงานอย่างชัดเจน เป็นภาษาไทยและภาษาอังกฤษ
5. บทความต้องมีบทคัดย่อทั้งภาษาไทยและภาษาอังกฤษ มีความยาวอย่างละ 1 หน้ากระดาษ A5
6. บทความที่ส่งต้องไม่เคยได้รับการตีพิมพ์หรือกำลังเสนอเพื่อตีพิมพ์ในวารสารหรือแหล่งอื่นใดมาก่อน
7. บทความที่ส่งมาเพื่อตีพิมพ์จะได้รับการกลั่นกรองจากผู้ทรงคุณวุฒิอย่างน้อยสองท่าน ในสาขาที่เกี่ยวข้องกับบทความ
8. บทความที่ไม่ผ่านการพิจารณาให้ตีพิมพ์ ทางกองบรรณาธิการจะแจ้งให้ผู้เขียนทราบ แต่จะไม่ส่งต้นฉบับคืนผู้เขียน
9. บทความต้องจัดเนื้อหาและรูปแบบตามคำแนะนำดังต่อไปนี้

1. การพิมพ์ต้นฉบับ

1.1 การตั้งค่าหน้ากระดาษ

- พิมพ์ด้วยกระดาษขนาด A5 หน้าเดียว ระยะบรรทัด 1.5 เท่า พร้อมระบุเลขหน้า
- ด้านบนขวา ความยาวของบทความอยู่ระหว่าง 15-20 หน้า ตั้งระยะขอบกระดาษ

บน 2.5 ซม. (1 นิ้ว) ล่าง 2.5 ซม. (1 นิ้ว)
ซ้าย 2 ซม. (0.79 นิ้ว) ขวา 2 ซม. (0.79 นิ้ว)

1.2 รูปแบบการจัดพิมพ์

● เนื้อหา

ภาษาไทย

เนื้อหา	จัดขอบ	ลักษณะตัวอักษร	รูปแบบตัวอักษร	ขนาดตัวอักษร
ชื่อบทความ	กลางหน้ากระดาษ	หนา	Cordia New	16
ชื่อผู้แต่ง	ชิดขวา	หนา	Cordia New	14
บทคัดย่อ	ชิดซ้าย	หนา	Cordia New	14
เนื้อหาบทคัดย่อ	จัดพอดีหน้า	ปกติ	Cordia New	13
หัวข้อคำสำคัญ	ชิดซ้าย	หนา	Cordia New	13
คำสำคัญ	-	ปกติ	Cordia New	13
หัวข้อแบ่งตอน	ชิดซ้าย	หนา	Cordia New	14
หัวข้อย่อย	ย่อหน้า	หนา	Cordia New	14
เนื้อหาบทความ	จัดพอดีหน้า	ปกติ	Cordia New	14
การเน้นความในบทความ	-	หนา	Cordia New	14
ข้อความในตาราง	-	ปกติ	Cordia New	13
ข้อความอ้างอิง	-	เอียง	Cordia New	14

ภาษาอังกฤษ

Text	Alignment	Font Style	Font	Size
Title	Center	Bold	Times New Roman	14
Author(s)	Right	Bold	Times New Roman	12
Abstract	Left	Bold	Times New Roman	12
Abstract Content	Justified	Normal	Times New Roman	11
Keyword Heading	Left	Bold	Times New Roman	11
Keyword	-	Normal	Times New Roman	11
1 st Level Heading	Left	Bold	Times New Roman	12
2 nd Level Heading	Indented	Bold	Times New Roman	12
Main Text	Justified	Normal	Times New Roman	12
Emphasis	-	Bold	Times New Roman	12
Table Content	-	Normal	Times New Roman	11
Notes	-	Italic	Times New Roman	12

- รูปภาพและตาราง

กรณีที่มีตาราง พิมพ์ “ตารางที่...” ด้วยตัวอักษรหนาตามด้วยชื่อตาราง อักษรปกติ ใ้ด้ด้านบนตาราง ชิดซ้าย จัดตารางอยู่กึ่งกลางหน้ากระดาษ

กรณีที่มีรูปภาพ พิมพ์ “รูปที่...” ด้วยตัวอักษรหนาตามด้วยชื่อรูป อักษรปกติ ใ้ด้ด้านล่างตรงกลางภาพ

- คำสำคัญ

พิมพ์ต่อจากส่วนบทคัดย่อก่อนขึ้นส่วนของเนื้อหา ควรเลือกคำสำคัญที่เกี่ยวข้องกับบทความประมาณ 3-5 คำ

1.3 การเขียนเอกสารอ้างอิง

บทความภาษาไทยให้พิมพ์คำว่า “เอกสารอ้างอิง” ใช้อักษร Cordia New ขนาด 16 พอยต์ ตัวหนา กึ่งกลางหน้ากระดาษ ถ้าเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ พิมพ์คำว่า “References” ใช้อักษร Times New Roman ขนาด 12 พอยต์ ตัวหนา กึ่งกลางหน้ากระดาษ กำหนดให้เขียนเอกสารอ้างอิงตามระบบ Harvard (สามารถดูตัวอย่างและรายละเอียดได้จาก <http://stks.or.th/wiki/doku.php?id=reference-bibliography-manual-style> โดยใช้ตัวอักษรและขนาดเช่นเดียวกับเนื้อเรื่องในบทความ

ตัวอย่าง

หนังสือ

ผู้แต่ง 1 คน

ธำรงค์ดี อายูวัฒน์. (2547) *ไทยในมาเลเซีย*, กรุงเทพฯ: บรรณกิจ.

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สุวิทย์ มูลคำ และอรทัย มูลคำ. (2544) *การบูรณาการหลักสูตร และการเรียนการสอน โดยเน้นผู้เรียนเป็นสำคัญ*, กรุงเทพฯ: ภาพพิมพ์.

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ใส่ชื่อทุกคน ชาวไทยใส่ “และ” ชาวต่างประเทศ คั่นชื่อด้วยเครื่องหมายจุลภาค “,” และใส่เครื่องหมาย “&” คั่นชื่อคนสุดท้าย

ศุภมิตร เมฆฉาย, พัชรินทร์ คุรุาเมือง, อัญชลี วงษา, เทอดชัย เวียรศิลป์,

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ผู้แต่ง 6 คน หรือมากกว่า 6 คน

ผู้แต่ง 6 คน ใ้ชื่อทั้ง 6 คน และคั่นด้วยเครื่องหมาย "&" ก่อนชื่อคนสุดท้าย ผู้แต่งมากกว่า 6 คน ใ้ชื่อ 6 คนแรก ตามด้วยคำว่า "และคนอื่นๆ" ในภาษาไทย ภาษาต่างประเทศ ใช้ "et al."

สมจิต สวชนไพบุลย์, สายพิน กิจจา, บัญชา มุสิกานนท์, พิสิทธิ์ โพธิ์สุทธิ, พงษ์ศักดิ์ แพ่งคำอ้วน, ชัดติยา ด้วงสำราญ, และคนอื่นๆ. (2548) *การวิจัยและพัฒนาชุดกิจกรรมการจัดกระบวนการเรียนรู้ที่ผู้เรียนเป็นสำคัญด้วยกิจกรรมหลากหลาย*, กรุงเทพฯ: ศูนย์วิทยาศาสตร์ศึกษา มหาวิทยาลัยศรีนครินทรวิโรฒ.

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พระราชรัตนรังษี (ว.ป.วีรยุทธ) (ม.ป.ป.) *จาริกเนปาล*, ม.ป.ท.: ม.ป.พ.

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วารสาร

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<http://www.businessgai.co.th/content.php?data=407720-opinion> [ค้นเมื่อ 25 ธันวาคม 2548]

วิธีส่งต้นฉบับ

1. ทางไปรษณีย์ : กรุณาส่งต้นฉบับ 1 ชุด พร้อม CD มาที่ กองบรรณาธิการ วารสาร Connexion ส่วนประสานงานบัณฑิตศึกษา มหาวิทยาลัยแม่ฟ้าหลวง 333 หมู่ 1 ตำบลท่าสุด อำเภอเมือง จังหวัดเชียงราย 57100 โทรศัพท์ 053-91-6137 โทรสาร 053-91-6141
2. ทาง E-mail : กรุณาส่งไฟล์ข้อมูลมาที่ connexion@mfu.ac.th

Guidelines for sending articles to be published in CONNEXION:

1. The articles should focus on Humanities and Social Sciences.
2. The articles could be research articles or book reviews or miscellaneous articles.
3. The articles must be written in Thai or in English.
(If written in English, it should be proof-read by a native speaker before submitted.)
4. The articles should be clearly titled and enclosed with information on the writers' name and surname, title of educational background, workplace, position and contact address in English.
5. The articles' abstracts must be in English of approximately one A5 page in length.
6. The articles must not have been previously published or in the process of publication.
7. All articles will be peer-reviewed by at least 2 experts in the relevant fields.
8. Hard copies and electronic copies of rejected articles will not be returned to the writer
9. The articles must follow the following guidelines:

1. A copy of the manuscript

1.1 Page setup

- Type in single-sided A5, double spaced and number each page on the top right corner. The overall length should be 15-20 pages.
- Margins
Top 2.5 cm.. (1 inch) Bottom 2.5 cm. (1 inch)
Left 2 cm. (0.79 inch) Right 2 cm. (0.79 inch)

1.2 Text layout and character formats

● Content

Text	Alignment	Font Style	Font	Size
Title	Center	Bold	Times New Roman	14
Author(s)	Right	Bold	Times New Roman	12
Abstract	Left	Bold	Times New Roman	12
Abstract Content	Justified	Normal	Times New Roman	11
Keyword Heading	Left	Bold	Times New Roman	11
Keyword	-	Normal	Times New Roman	11
1 st Level Heading	Left	Bold	Times New Roman	12
2 nd Level Heading	Indented	Bold	Times New Roman	12
Main Text	Justified	Normal	Times New Roman	12
Emphasis	-	Bold	Times New Roman	12
Table Content	-	Normal	Times New Roman	11
Notes	-	Italic	Times New Roman	12

● Figures and tables

Type “Table...” (Bold) and the table’s names (Regular) above the table. The table must fit well in the text.

Type “Figure...” (Bold) and the figure’s names (Regular) center below the figure.

● Keywords

Each article should have 3-5 keywords in each language. They should be placed right after the abstract.

1.3 References

Type “References” with Times New Roman, Bold at the center of the page. Use Harvard system in the reference list and use the same font style and font size as in the main text. (See http://education.exeter.ac.uk/dll/studyskills/harvard_referencing.htm)

Examples

Book

Book with one author

Adair, J. (1988) *Effective time management: How to save time and spend it wisely*, London: Pan Books.

Book with two authors

McCarthy, P. and Hatcher, C. (1996) *Speaking persuasively: Making the most of your presentations*, Sydney: Allen and Unwin.

Book with three or more authors

Fisher, R., Ury, W. and Patton, B. (1991) *Getting to yes: Negotiating an agreement without giving in*, 2nd edition, London: Century Business.

Book – second or later edition

Barnes, R. (1995) *Successful study for degrees*, 2nd edition, London: Routledge.

Book by same author in the same year

Napier, A. (1993a) *Fatal storm*, Sydney: Allen and Unwin.

Napier, A. (1993b) *Survival at sea*, Sydney: Allen and Unwin.

Book with an editor

Danaher, P. (ed.) (1998) *Beyond the ferris wheel*, Rockhampton: CQU Press.

If you have used a chapter in a book written by someone other than the editor

Byrne, J. (1995) 'Disabilities in tertiary education', in Rowan, L. and McNamee, J. (ed.) *Voices of a Margin*, Rockhampton: CQU Press.

Books with an anonymous or unknown author

The University Encyclopedia (1985) London: Roydon.

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Department for Education and Employment (DfEE), (2001) *Skills for life: The national strategy for improving adult literacy and numeracy skills*, Nottingham: DfEE Publications.

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Hart, G., Albrecht, M., Bull, R. and Marshall, L. (1992) 'Peer consultation: A professional development opportunity for nurses employed in rural settings', *Infront Outback – Conference Proceedings*, Australian Rural Health Conference, Toowoomba, pp. 143 – 148.

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