



**A Comparative Study of Language Use in Oral Presentations of Thai EFL
Learners and English-native Students**

Cherdsak Yeereem

**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Master of Arts Degree in Teaching English as an International Language
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Thesis Title A Comparative Study of Language Use in Oral Presentations
of Thai EFL Learners and English-native Students

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เปิดโอกาสให้มีการถาม-ตอบใดๆ ในด้านลักษณะทางภาษา นักเรียนไทยส่วนใหญ่ใช้ “fillers” “discourse markers” ค่อนข้างน้อยและมักจะออกเสียงคำคิดบ่อยๆ อีกทั้งยังเลือกใช้ถ้อยคำและโครงสร้างประโยคที่ซับซ้อนยากแก่การเข้าใจของเพื่อนร่วมชั้นเรียน การนำเสนองานปากเปล่าจึงฟังดูไม่เป็นธรรมชาติและไม่ประสบความสำเร็จเท่าที่ควร

ผลของการศึกษาครั้งนี้ชี้ให้เห็นว่า นักเรียนไทยมีปัญหาการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสื่อสารและขาดความเข้าใจในการเลือกใช้ภาษาในการนำเสนอที่เหมาะสมกับผู้ฟัง วัตถุประสงค์และประเภทของการพูด ถึงแม้ว่านักเรียนส่วนใหญ่พอจะมีพื้นฐานความรู้อยู่บ้างว่าการนำเสนอที่ดีเป็นอย่างไร ดังนั้นการสอนการนำเสนองานปากเปล่าและการเปิดโอกาสให้นักเรียนได้ฝึกฝนการนำเสนอด้วยวิธีการสอนแบบประจักษ์ชัดจึงเป็นสิ่งจำเป็นต่อการพัฒนาให้ผู้เรียนสามารถใช้ภาษาในการเรียบเรียง นำเสนองานปากเปล่าในบริบททางวิชาการได้อย่างมีประสิทธิภาพ

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ABSTRACT

This study aims at investigating English native speakers' and Thai EFL learners' language use in oral English presentations. The presentation transcripts of English-native students obtained from the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MiCASE) were compared with those of Thai high-school students in Grade 11 at Princess Chulabhorn's College, Satun. This comparative study utilized the Conversation Analysis (CA) methodology in order to address the following questions: a) how Thai EFL learners and English-native students use English in their oral presentations and b) what similarities and differences are in the language use of the two groups.

The findings revealed that Thai EFL and English-native students oriented to the same structural organization of the presentation, namely, introduction-body-conclusion. However, they differed in their language use in structuring each component. The Thai learners treated the presentation as a formal speech event, not reflecting the genuine relationship between them and their audience, whilst the English-native students used the language more engaging and better fitting their audience. Concerning the presentation structure, unlike the English-native students, the Thais delivered a formal greeting followed by a one-by-one self-introduction and made a topic announcement without outlining their presentation. Additionally, instead of transitional signposts, they utilized rhetorical questions and/or topicalization as well as speaker change to mark sequence shifts. Neither previews nor recaps were employed in the body. To finish their presentations, the Thais expressed abrupt gratitude without any summaries or concluding remarks and dismissed a question-

and-answer session. It was also showed that besides employing the lexicon and sentence structure beyond their competence, the students hardly resorted to common fillers and discourse markers and often mispronounced words, thus making their presentations unnatural, disruptive and mostly incomprehensible.

The Thai students apparently lacked mastery of language use appropriate for the speech genre and the audience even though most reportedly had some knowledge and understanding of what an effective presentation is like. It was suggested that the students not simply lacked English proficiency but needed skill training and explicit teaching of language use in organizing an effective oral presentation. Teachers were therefore recommended to provide courses aimed particularly at developing oral presentation skills in order to assure their students' ability to deliver a successful presentation satisfying demands of any academic context.

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LIST OF PAPERS

This thesis is primarily based on the following papers:

1. What Is Missing from a Typical Oral English Presentation of Thai EFL Students?
2. Language Use in Organizing Oral Presentations: A Comparative Study of Thai EFL Learners and English-native Speakers



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Mr. Cherdsak Yeereem:

Thank you for submitting the manuscript, "What is Missing from a Typical Oral Presentation of Thai EFL Students?" to English Language Teaching. With the online journal management system that we are using, you will be able to track its progress through the editorial process by logging in to the journal web site:

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If you have any questions, please contact me. Thank you for considering this journal as a venue for your work.

Best Regards

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Dear Cherdsak Yeereem

On behalf of King Mongkut's Institute of Technology Ladkrabang, we are pleased to inform you that your paper on **LANGUAGE USE IN ORGANIZING ORAL PRESENTATIONS: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THAI EFL LEARNERS AND ENGLISH-NATIVE SPEAKERS** has been accepted. We would like to invite you to present your paper at the 11th International Conference on Developing Real-Life Learning Experiences: Learning Innovation for ASEAN (DRLE2013) that will be held in Bangkok, Thailand on the 3rd of May, 2013.

We are looking forward to seeing you in Bangkok. Your participation in this event is cordially appreciated. Please contact the Secretariat of the Conference for registration at Email: drle2013inter@gmail.com or Tel +668-5260-7966, Fax +66-2329-8435

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Yours Sincerely,
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1. INTRODUCTION

Oral presentations have increasingly become part of course requirements both at high school and university levels. Based on the Basic Education Core Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2008), all learning areas require high school students to orally display the knowledge gained from course assignments by means of either individual or group presentations. At the university level, courses such as English for Academic Purposes and English for Specific Purposes aim at equipping students with skills needed to succeed in giving academic and business presentations (Chou, 2011; Miles, 2009; Tsai, 2010; Yu & Cadman, 2009). In the fields of hard science such as science and engineering, undergraduates are required to deliver technical oral presentations in their second or third year of study (Radzuan & Kaur, 2011; Suwa, Miyahara, & Ishimatsu, 2012). Students therefore need to possess not only content or subject knowledge but also essential skills for giving successful presentations.

An effective presentation requires presenters to understand its purpose, know the audience, deliver smooth flow of ideas, and to master the proper organizational structure as well as language style of the presentation. It is necessary for presenters to use the strategies suiting the purpose and to make the audience feel engaged throughout the presentation (Grand, n.d.). A successful presentation needs to meet the expectation of the audience. Additionally, the ideas presented should be properly organized following a particular logical or chronological order, from general to specific, known to unknown, accepted to controversial, cause-effect, problem-solution, and the like (Storz et al., 2002). When delivering presentations, speakers should also use appropriate styles of verbal and nonverbal language and structure the presentations following a particular order, normally with an introduction, a body and a conclusion (Grand, n.d.; Storz et al., 2002; Williams, 2008).

Oral presentations often pose challenges to ESL or EFL learners due to a number of factors such as native language barriers, unfamiliarity with genre-related features of the target language, and lack of oral communication skills. When it comes to giving oral presentations in a non-native language, learners usually do not perform

as well as in their mother tongue. Radzuan and Kaur (2011), for instance, found that lack of English language proficiency was a major source of anxiety in Undergraduate Research Project (URP) oral presentations among Malaysian engineering students. Zareva (2009) also revealed that in academic settings L2 presenters were so worried about the content that they excluded their peers from negotiating the information. This resulted in L2 presentations being constructed in a more formal way than L1 ones. Communication skills are also crucial for presenters to deliver a successful talk. The skills consist of a mixture of "... verbal, interpersonal and physical strategies needed to interact confidently and effectively with a range of audiences" (Griffith Institute for Higher Education, 2004). They are required for successful presentations and also for communication in general (Nakate, 2012).

To deliver effective presentations, learners need not only to understand the content but also to be trained in the structure and appropriate forms of the target language used in the organization of particular oral presentations. Suwa, Miyahara and Ishimatsu (2012) trained Malaysian Mechanical Engineering undergraduates to address technical presentations in Japanese using a number of techniques to improve their presentation skills through the practice-discussion-modification cycle. Certain improvements of oral presentation delivery process were discovered. The students also found the presentation practice sessions useful.

Several studies in Thai EFL context also showed that there were improvements of oral presentation after receiving training and treatments by frequently giving oral presentations—learning by doing—with guidance on how to deliver an effective one (e.g. Choksuansup, Rujikietgumjorn, & Griffith, 2010; Miyata, 2003; Mosby, 2008; Nantachaipan, 2004; Wiboonwachariyakun, 2004). However, none of the studies described or explained the improvements by qualitative measure; previous studies primarily compared pre- and post-training scores rather than probing into the missing features of language use between the pre- and post-training presentations.

Likewise, to help Thai EFL learners deliver a successful oral presentation, we as teachers should explore and familiarize the learners with the

features of genuine oral presentations they need to master. In fact, there has been a dearth of research concerning the comparison of oral presentations of Thai EFL learners and English native speakers. Accordingly, the present study is designed to comparatively investigate the language use in oral presentations delivered by Thai EFL learners and English native students. The focus is placed on the structural organization and sequencing of the oral presentations, as well as the language features of the students' talk. The data is analyzed primarily using the Conversation Analysis (CA) methodology.

1.1 Definitions of Key Terms

1.1.1 Oral English presentations refer to the oral presentations of Thai EFL learners and English-native speaking students.

1.1.2 Thai EFL learners refer to the Thai Grade 11 students who attended the Science-Mathematics Program at Princess Chulabhorn's College, Satun and participated in the study.

1.1.3 English-native speaking students refer to the university students whose oral presentations had been tape-recorded and transcribed by the research team at the University of Michigan, available on the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MiCASE).

1.1.4 Language use in oral presentations includes the following:

1.1.4.1 Structural organization of the presentations refers to the way in which the presenters structure their oral presentations.

1.1.4.2 Sequencing or sequence organization refers to the way in which the students organize their turns into sequences in different parts of their presentations.

1.1.4.3 Language features refer to features of verbal language used by the students in delivering the presentations.

1.1.5 Conversation-Analytic transcription symbols

The following transcription symbols were obtained from Schegloff (2007) and Seedhouse (2004). Punctuation marks are used to capture characteristics of speech delivery, not to mark grammatical units. Only those symbols relevant to this paper are presented below:

[Point of overlap onset
]	Point of overlap termination
=	(a) Turn continues below, at the next identical symbol (b) If inserted at the end of one speaker's adjacent turn, indicates that there is no gap at all between the two turns (c) Indicates that there is no interval between adjacent utterances
(0.5)	Numbers in parentheses indicate silence, represented in tenths of seconds; what is given here indicates 5 seconds of silence
(.)	A dot in parentheses indicates a "micropause", hearable but not readily measurable; ordinarily less than 0.2 second
<u>word</u>	Speaker emphasis
-	A hyphen after a word or part of a word indicates a cut-off or self-interruption
.	Indicates a falling, or final, intonation contour, not necessarily the end of a sentence
,	Low-rising intonation, suggesting continuation
?	Rising intonation, not necessarily a question
!	Animated or emphatic tone
°word°	Utterances between degree signs are quieter than surrounding talk
wo:rd	Colons show that the speaker has stretched the preceding sound
<i>ja</i> ((tr.: yes))	Non-English words are italicized and followed by an English translation in double parentheses
(guess)	Indicates the transcriber's doubt about a word
(())	Indicates transcriber's description

- [gibee] In the case of *inaccurate* pronunciation of an English word, an approximation of the sound is given in square brackets
- Marks features of special interest

2. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study aims at exploring the following:

2.1 to compare language use in oral presentations of Thai EFL learners and English-native students; and

2.2 to identify similarities and differences between language use in the presentations of the two groups of students.

3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the objectives presented above, there are two questions being addressed in the study:

3.1 How do Thai EFL learners and English-native students use the English language in their oral presentations?

3.2 What are the similarities and differences in the language use of the two groups?

4. LITERATURE REVIEW

4.1 Oral Presentation in ELT

In general, an oral presentation is seen as a means of communication. Mandel (2000) defined it as a type of speech event often given in a business, technical, professional or scientific environment. Eggleston (2003) described oral presentations in the broadest sense as every encounter one has with every person he/she ever meets, and he specified that whenever a person is asked to give a speech

in front of one or more people with the purpose of explaining, educating, convincing, or otherwise conveying information, that person has a presentation.

According to Jay (1974), an oral presentation is a pattern of communication comprising certain rules and burdens which is often essential for further discussion. If the presentation is successful, further discussion will take place and the audience will have more interest in the subject matter as it can arouse their curiosity and stimulate their desire to gain more information. Often, an oral presentation is aimed at persuading an individual or more to (a) adopt or revise an attitude, (b) accept or modify an opinion, and (c) take or refrain from taking an action or decision.

In the context of English language teaching, oral presentations are extensively considered one of the most effective instruments to improve speaking or communication skills. Lazaraton (2001) recommends a number of communicative activities for oral proficiency improvement: interviews, games, group discussion, debates, dramas, role-plays and oral presentations. Among these activities, which should frequently be implemented in language classrooms, oral presentation is one of the most popular assignments EFL/ESL teachers often give their students.

In the area of English for Academic Purposes or EAP, Jordan (1997) states that “many students, whose mother tongue is not English, already possess study skills to an advanced level in their own language. They may simply need help to transfer their skills into English and, possibly, to adjust them to a different academic environment.” To do so, oral presentation was recommended as one of the important vehicles to achieve the goals of language learning. Likewise, McGovern (1997) suggests that oral presentations are a good method allowing students to express themselves in English as well as providing teachers a chance to listen to and observe their students. That is to say, this type of activity can promote students’ English proficiency through speaking practice and encourage them, as speakers and listeners, to become productive partners in ESL/EFL classrooms (Abe, 1994). According to King (2002), oral presentations are crucial and beneficial in that they: (a) bridge the gap between language study and language use, (b) use four language skills in a

naturally integrated way, (c) assist students in collecting, inquiring, organizing and constructing information, (d) enhance teamwork, and (e) help students become active and autonomous learners.

4.2 Effective Oral Presentations

To successfully deliver an oral presentation, presenters are required to understand the goal of their presentation, know the audience—normally present to acquire something from the presentation—, deliver smooth flow of ideas, and master the proper organizational structure as well as language style of the presentation (Anderson, Maclean, & Lynch, 2004; Centre for English Language Communication, n.d.; Grand, n.d.; Griffith Institute for Higher Education, 2004; Storz et al., 2002).

The following are practical guides often proposed in the literature for presenters in preparing and structuring successful oral English presentations. First and foremost, it is very important for the presenter to define the objectives of the presentation, for example, to introduce a new concept, to propose a new project, to report the progress of a project, etc. (Centre for English Language Communication, n.d.). With clear objectives, the presentation can persuade the audience to accept or do something, not just being introduced, proposed or reported.

It is also very helpful if the presenters can identify and analyze the audience. Charlesworth (2000, cited in Griffith Institute for Higher Education, 2004) proposes a certain number of questions to identify the audience (e.g., who will be in the audience?, should the presentation be conducted formally or informally?) and strategies to analyze the audience's demographics (e.g., what is the average age of the audience?, what are the educational and intellectual levels of the audience?), physical aspects or settings (e.g., what is the size of the audience?, where will the presentation be delivered?) and psychological aspects (e.g., how favorable is the audience towards presenters and the topic?, how willing is the audience to listen to the message?). Being clear with the aims and understanding the audience and settings can lead the presenters to the first step of success in preparing the presentation.

With clear aims and understanding of the audience, presenters can begin structuring their presentation. According to Anderson, Maclean, and Lynch (2004), Grand, (n.d.), Storz (2002), and Williams (2008), inter alia, a well-structured presentation should contain the beginning, the middle and the end (or introduction, body and conclusion) with appropriate language use in organizing and expressing both the structure and content of each respective part.

2.1 The Beginning or the Introduction

The beginning of a presentation is likely to be the most important part when establishing a connection with the audience and gaining its attention and interest (Centre for English Language Communication, n.d.; Storz, 2002).

To gain the audience's attention, to make people want to listen, to feel relaxed and to introduce the issues, native English speakers usually employ a joke, an anecdote and a statement to surprise and provoke listeners. Direct or rhetorical questions are also used to engage the listeners in the talk. Certain signposts and expressions are also helpful as shown in the examples below.

Right. / Well. / OK. / Um.

Good. / Fine. / Great.

Shall/Can we start?

Let's begin/ start/ get started.

Let's get the ball rolling.

Then, greeting audience is likewise important. This can be accomplished formally or informally according to the context of the presentation, for instance:

Hi / Hello, everyone / everybody.

Good morning/ afternoon/evening, ladies and gentlemen.

After greeting the audience, self-introduction should be conducted to give important information about the presenters, establish their authority on the subject and allow the audience to see their viewpoint. It might be spoken out as shown below:

My name is John Carol, a doctoral candidate from...

I'm Tom Cruise, a student at...

Subsequently, title and subject proclamation will provide a rough idea or working definition of the subject, as in the following example:

Today, I'm going to talk about...

The subject of my presentation is...

The theme of my talk is...

Objectives of the presentation are also very crucial to be conveyed out to the audience so that they can capture what is going to be delivered right then, as examples given below:

My purpose in doing this project/writing this paper is to give...

What I would like to do today is to illustrate... and to have a look at...

Outline announcement can additionally assist the audience in following and catching the main points to be addressed in each part of the presentation, as exemplified below:

My presentation is divided into ... points.

Firstly, I will give a few basic definitions of...

Then I will focus on...

Next, I'm going to show...

Finally, I'm about to ...

The audience might want to ask some questions or give some comments, so the presenters should let them know when they may do so, for instance:

I'd ask you to save your questions for the end.

Please feel free to ask questions at the end of the presentation.

If you have some questions, you can interrupt me during the presentation.

Between the introduction and the body, presenters should make a transition, referring to the transparency or outline, such as:

Now, let us turn to point one.

Let us now move on to the second part, which is, as I said earlier, ...

2.2 *The Middle or the Body*

The body, which is the major part, basically concerns the content in the presentation which should support the objectives because the content is mostly limited as time is also restricted. So, the content should be enough to clearly develop the ideas of the presentation and should be logically sequenced: chronological order; from general to specific; from known to unknown; cause/effect; problem/solution; etc. No matter how the presentation is sequenced, all the headlines should be in the same grammatical structure.

Throughout the entire presentation, there should be the use of connectives to make the relationship between ideas or different points. This is to guide the audience where or on what point the presenters are. That means what is going to be said should be firstly announced and then addressed out right after. Also, when one point has been finished, another should be indicated by the connectives. It seems to be redundant if it is a written text, but it will be very useful in an oral presentation. Obvious pause, change of stance and alteration of voice pitch are often used as good aids in speech delivery. Centre for English Language Communication (n.d.) classifies the connectives into four types as the following:

Firstly, linkers provide a link or connection between the idea which is being left and the one which is going to be talked about right then, for example:

That's all I would like to say about ... and now let's turn to ...

Now we have seen ... let's move to ...

Secondly, internal previews inform the audience what is going to be discussed next in more detail than linkers, for instance:

In looking at some solutions to the problem of falling sale, I will focus on two in particular—increasing advertising and special promotions. Let's consider each in turn.

Thirdly, internal summaries review the points which have been covered in the current section to remind the audience what they have just heard. The summaries also offer the audience an opportunity to grasp the points, e.g.,

So we can see that the results of an increased advertising campaign are increased product awareness, an immediate increase in sales followed by a leveling off some months later and a temporary surge in profits.

Last but not least, a certain number of signposts (Centre for English Language Communication, n.d.; Grand, n.d.; Storz, 2002, inter alia) are adopted to use in a variety of ways. These signposts tell the audience where the current point is and what point is being delivered. The examples of the use of the signposts are as follows:

Numbers and some other kinds of signposts are used to list information such as:

There are three things to consider: one)...., two)...., and three) ... or a)...., b)...., and c)...

First of all, ... Secondly, ... And finally, ...

Using rhetorical questions is another kind of signpost utilization, for example, to introduce the first point and the following point, as in:

What makes mail order fraud such a persistent problem?

.
.

.

So, how can we solve this problem? ...

Certain words or phrases or clauses can helpfully be employed to make the points more apparent and concrete, as listed below:

To give an example:

Now let's take an example.

Let's see this through an example.

To illustrate this...

For example/instance, ...

To rephrase:

Let me rephrase that,

In other words,

That is to say,

To summarize:

To summarize,

To sum up,

Briefly,

In conclusion,

To emphasize:

What is very significant is...

I'd like to emphasize the fact that...

What we need to focus on is...

What is important to remember is...

What I'd like to highlight is...

To refer to what have been said previously:

As I have already said earlier...

As we saw in part one...

To refer to what will be said:

We will see this a little later on.

This will be discussed in section three.

We will go into more detail on that later.

To refer to what an expert says:

I quote the words of ...

In the words of ...

According to...

As Mr. X says in his book...

To refer to common knowledge:

As you know...

It is generally accepted that...

Overall, the content of the presentation with enough information, well-sequenced ideas and indicative connectives can create interest, establish a relationship with the audience and help keep the audience's attention throughout the speech.

2.3 The End or the Conclusion

Even though it is the last part of a presentation, the conclusion of the presentation should not come as a surprise to the audience, and it needs special consideration. Its content should include four parts: brief summarization, a short conclusion, thanks to the audience and an invitation to ask questions, make comments or open a discussion.

First of all, presenters should briefly summarize the presentation to assure that the audience has retained the main points by opting for the following alternatives: to restate the main points of the talk; to address an essential message to retain; to list the main points and what is necessary to keep in mind; to review informally or indirectly by using a quote, a comparison or an example. The following are examples in signaling those:

I'd like to summarize/sum up...

At this stage I'd like to run over/through the main points...

So, as we have seen today...

Secondly, a short conclusion can be conveyed as a message logically developed from the ideas in the speech. It can be a commentary, some recommendations, or the next steps. These can be addressed as follows:

As a result we suggest that...

In the light of what we have seen today I recommend that...

I have a few proposals for this. The first is...

In conclusion I would like to say that...

Thirdly, what is necessary and unforgettable for presenters to do is to address a thankful appreciation to the audience for listening, being there, or being engaged in the presentation by saying some of these kinds:

Thank you very much for your attention.

Thanks for participating in my presentation.

Lastly, presenters should provide the audience an opportunity to ask relevant questions or comment or open a discussion about doubtful points. When asking for queries, the presenters need to be very well-prepared intellectually and psychologically to transfer control to the audience and be able to respond any queries as experts. The presenters may take these to signal:

I'd be happy to answer any questions...

If there are any questions, please feel free to ask.

At this stage, all questions or comments are welcomed.

When dealing with difficult questions, the presenters need to make sure that they clearly understand the questions. If not, some strategies may be taken up to deal with the difficulties, for example, by repeating the questions in own words or asking the questioner to repeat. In answering, the presenters may delay the answer by asking for time or repeating the question by saying some of these:

Just a minute please. What is a...?

I'm glad you asked that question.

That's a good question/remark/point.

Can I answer that question later?

All in all, to deliver an effective presentation and at the same time a good image of the presenters or their organization, the presenters are required to carefully prepare and organize the content of the presentation by opting for appropriate and accurate language use. Storz et al. (2002) makes a summary of a good rule of presentation structure as “announce what you are going to say, say it and finally, say what you have said.”

4.3 Conversation Analysis and Institutional Talk

Essentially, Conversation Analysis (CA) is a means for the study of communication in human language. CA is defined as a branch of discourse analysis which investigates how conversation works and how social order is constructed through ordinary, everyday talk (Nunan, 1993, Sinwongsuwat, 2007). As stated by Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008), it is the study of recorded, naturally occurring conversation which is to discover how participants understand and respond to one another in their turns at talk, with a central focus on how sequences of action are generated. It aims particularly at studying the organization and order of social action in interaction.

Although initially focused primarily on everyday conversation, CA investigation has come to also cover institutional talks in different settings given the common core mechanism (Heritage, 2004). According to Schegloff (1999), such talks as wedding ceremonies and legal proceedings in court are not ordinary conversation even though the practices involved in these talks are adjusted from it and pressed into the contexts with more restriction and specialization. Unlike everyday conversation, institutional talks put emphasis on the specialized and restricted settings embodying three basic elements, i.e., limited and institution-specific purposes, restricted nature of interactional contributions, and common institution- and activity-specific inferential frameworks (Drew & Heritage, 1992).

Heritage (2004) accordingly differentiates two strands of CA research, namely basic CA and institutional CA. Basic CA aims to specify the norm of structure and logic of a definite social interaction and its organization into systems via interlocutors' or speakers' management in organizing their talk-in-interaction such as turn-taking and repair. It also inspects the practice out of that normative structure in practical sequences of action.

Institutional CA, on the other hand, employs basic CA as a resource to gain the understanding of the interactional work of particular settings of social institutions such as police, medicine and education. It focuses on how speakers adopt

a language to organize practical tasks and perform particular activities in association with their involvement in these settings (Goodwin & Duranti, 1992).

In classroom settings, there are five distinctive domains of interactional phenomena which are to be explored in relation to the nature of institutional talk (Drew & Heritage, 1992). The five domains are as follows:

- (1) Turn-taking organization
- (2) Overall structural organization of the interaction
- (3) Sequence organization
- (4) Turn design
- (5) Lexical choice

(1) Turn-taking organization

Turn-taking organization is a process which an interactant allocates one another in talk-in-interaction the right or obligation to participate in an interactional activity (Jefferson, Sacks, & Schegloff, 1974). As stated by Jefferson, Sacks, & Schegloff (1974), and Seedhouse (2004), in conversation speaker-change occurs, and one speaker tends to talk at a time. When more than one person speak, the talk is usually brief. Extended gap or overlapping exchanges of turn seldom appear in conversation. The turn-taking organization consists of two major components: *turn-constructive* component and *turn allocation* component (see Schegloff, Jefferson, & Sacks, 1977, cited in Sinwongsuwat, 2007).

The *turn constructive component* describes basic units out of which turns are fashioned. These basic units are known as *turn constructive units* or TCUs. Unit types that a speaker may produce could vary from a sentence, a clause, a phrase, or to any audible sound. The TCUs have the property of projectability and the property of transition-relevance-place creation. That means participants are able to project what sort of units it may be as well as how and at what point it may come to an end. The point of possible completion at the end of a TCU yields a legitimate transition between talk-participants, i.e., a transition-relevance place (TRP).

The turn allocation component describes how participants organize their interaction by selecting speakers in a conversation. There are three options of turn allocation techniques that speakers may select to adopt in conversation (see, e.g., Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998; Psathas, 1995, cited in Sinwongsuwat, 2007):

- Rule 1
- (a) If the current speaker selects a particular next speaker, that next speaker has the right to take the turn.
 - (b) If there is no such a selection, any next speaker may self-select to take the turn.
 - (c) If no one takes the turn, the current speaker may, but need not, continue talking with another TCU.
- Rule 2
- The system of such rules is recursive; whichever option operates, in the next TPR the same set of rules comes into play again. (ibid.)

When it comes to institutional talk, the turn-taking mechanism is slightly different. Drew and Heritage (1992) defined it as the talk informed by goal orientations of a relatively restricted conversational form. Heritage (2004) stated that conversational talk seemingly cannot be predicted in advance whilst some forms of institutional talk such as debates, ceremonies, meetings and so forth are predictable since their topics, contributions and speaker order are organized from the beginning. Unlike everyday conversation, institutional talk therefore has a pre-determined structure and preset objectives. It involves a smaller range of interactional practices employable by the participants, restrictions in the contexts the practices can be deployed in, and often involves some specialization and respecification of the relevance of the interactional practices.

(2) Overall structural organization of the interaction

In fact, most of interactions—ordinary or institutional—consist of activity phases typically occurring without concerns of specific content (Heritage & Clayman, 2010). If the openings and closings of ordinary conversation, for example, do not occur in the interaction, the absence of the overall structural organization will be visible. Outside the openings and closings of the conversation, pre-specified phases

of overall structure cannot be identified. Some of institutional talk, in contrast, holds overall structural organization which is created from the characteristic emergence of component phases in a particular order (Heritage, 2004).

To be more clearly seen, overall structure of acute primacy care visits, for example, is summarized as in the following table:

TABLE 4.1
Overall Structure of Acute Primacy Care Visits

Phase	Activity
1	Opening: Doctor and patient establish an interactional relationship.
2	Presenting complaint: The patient presents the problem or reason for the visit.
3	Examination: The doctor conducts a verbal or physical examination or both.
4	Treatment: The doctor (in consultation with the patient) details treatment or further investigation.
5	Closing: The visit is terminated

(Byrne & Long, 1976, cited in Heritage, 2004)

These phenomena do not always occur in every type of institutional talk. Each type of the talk may contain the same or very similar structured overall organization if it occurs in that type.

All mentioned above might lead to the conclusive definition of the overall structural organization of interaction as it is not a framework but something to be sought and taken a look at only the extent which in the talk organization the overall structure is oriented to by the parties or speakers (Heritage, 1997).

(3) Sequence organization

Action, which is central to interaction, is handled via sequence organization. The organization of talk sequences can also be labeled as a crucial device employed to establish, maintain and manipulate interactional identities and roles such as story teller, news deliverer, and the like and larger social and

institutional identities such as man, women, parent, Asian, and American. This function of sequence organization relates to both ordinary and institutional talk (Heritage, 2004; Heritage & Clayman, 2010).

Fundamentally, the sequencing of conversation can be understood by the concept of *adjacency-pair*. An adjacency pair is a minimal, basic unit of conversation which consists of the exchange of two turns each made by different speakers (Schegloff, 2007). These two turns are relatively ordered—they are differentiated into “first pair part” (FPP) and “second pair part” (SPP). The first turn requires a certain type or range of types of the first turn, e.g., greeting-greeting, question-answer, offer-accept/decline, and the like. The single, basic minimal adjacency pair is often expanded; the expansion can be found in three places: (1) before the first pair part, or a *pre-expansion*, (2) between the first pair-part and the projected second pair-part, or an *insert expansion*, and (3) after the second pair-part, or a *post-expansion*. Basically, adjacency-pair sequences are considered as the general pattern into which turn-at-talk sequences are organized.

(4) Turn design

Different from turn-taking organization, turn design seems to be a mechanism to address speech in institutional context whether to be, for example, formal or informal, polite or impolite, based on speakers’ making decision on designing their turns at talk. Drew and Heritage (1992) claim that the design of turns occupies two distinctive selection fundamentals: action and means. The action is designed as a speaker wants to accomplish it in a turn. And the means among alternative ways is selected by a speaker to perform the action.

Heritage (2004) studies a call between a school official and a student’ mother about his absence from the school, and the finding shows that a highly designed turn is employed by the official to manage the delicacy of the situation in a variety of ways. Likewise, the questions “Is your father alive?” and “Is your father dead?” in reviewing a patient’s medical history give a different state of affairs in the interrogative mood.

(5) Lexical choice

Lexical choice is an essential part of the structure of turns and turn design. Specific word selection among alternatives helps an interactant design his/her turn in the way a particular setting of the talk will be conveyed. Heritage (2004) defines lexical choice as a profoundly complex aspect of institutional talk investigation. The same state of affairs can be referenced by formulation of lexical alternatives. Sacks (1992, cited in Heritage, 2004) exemplifies the use of “I” and “we” of speakers who refer to themselves as the latter alternative indicates the representative of an institution. Another example of lexical choice by Sacks (1979, cited in Heritage, 1997) presents that “cop” is used in ordinary conversation while in the court “police” is in favor. This supports Heritage’s (1997) statement that speakers’ selection of descriptive terms—or other lexical items—signifies their orientation to the institutional practices and settings, that is, their understanding of the institutional circumstance they are engaged in.

4.4 Related Studies

There have been a number of studies examining ESL/EFL students' oral presentations. King (2002a, 2002b) prepared EFL learners at Soochow University, Taiwan for oral presentations by incorporating the presentations into listening and speaking classes. In doing so, the students were informed that any grammatical and pronunciation errors would not be marked off in the evaluation of the presentations to reduce students' anxiety. And the students were encouraged to use conversational English as well as visual aids when they gave the presentations. The students were also taught presentation skills e.g., organizing main ideas, developing logical, coherent outline, and making clear introduction and conclusion. It was concluded that oral presentations provided a real experience useful for students' learning and their future careers. Other advantages stemming from the oral presentation practice involve: (a) increased confidence in public speaking, (b) better data-gathering and processing skills, and (c) improved presentation skills.

Some studies have compared L1 and L2 academic presentations, while others have mainly investigated students' language use in the English presentation. Zareva (2009), for instance, investigated informational packaging, level of formality, and the use of circumstance adverbials in L1 and L2 student academic presentations. 16 English-native students (NSs) as well as 16 non-native English students (NNSs) were individually assigned to give presentations during their routinely scheduled classes. The findings revealed that the NSs seemingly perceived the academic presentation as an opportunity to (a) informally present information, (b) interact with their audience, and (c) keep the audience involved in their presentations. Additionally, they thought that the primary purpose of giving presentation is to deliver as well as negotiate information. They, therefore, attempted to build an atmosphere of cooperation with their audience. NNSs, on the other hand, seemed to very strongly emphasize constructing and justifying the logic of their arguments or explaining the conditions influencing the sequence of events more than getting their audience involved in their presentations. This resulted in more formal presentations than NSs' ones.

Yu and Cadman (2009) investigated the use of discourse markers in individual and group oral academic presentations of Taiwanese university students with low-intermediate English proficiency. The findings revealed the students' different use of the markers in the two forms of presentations as well as their problems with the use of frame markers to signpost the conclusion of their presentations, making it difficult for the audience to follow the presentation structure. They additionally used pronouns and person markers inappropriately, constructing inconsistent interpersonal relationships with the audience.

There additionally are studies investigating factors influencing students' oral presentation performance such as course materials, learning strategies and affective factors. Tsai (2010) developed and integrated courseware for oral presentations into ESP learning contexts. The courseware provided authentic materials with a logical situational layout and a friendly interface design to help develop oral presentation skills in international business and technical settings. Qualitative and quantitative analysis revealed that students' learning effectiveness and

satisfaction with courseware integration were significantly improved after their six weeks of self-study regardless of level of proficiency. With such improvement, the multimedia courseware proved to be a success.

Chou (2011) investigated the use and influence of learner strategies in cooperative and individual learning, and the benefits of cooperative learning in improving oral English presentation ability. Fifty-two French major participants were asked to give oral presentations in groups in the first semester and individually in the second semester. Questionnaires, interview and oral assessments were utilized for data collection. The results revealed that (a) certain learner strategies had positive impacts on the learners' language performance in both types of presentations, and (b) group presentation had the greatest influence on learners' oral English ability improvement.

Radzuan and Kaur (2011) explored sources of anxiety in individually technical oral English presentations of 44 engineering students at Universiti Malaysia Pahang, Malaysia. Six groups of 44 students participated in the focus group interviews in order to obtain the sources of anxiety during oral presentation delivery. The findings revealed several main sources of students' English presentation anxiety: (a) demanding and provocative evaluation panels, (b) limited technical knowledge, and (c) lack of English language proficiency. The provision of effective technical oral presentation training in academic settings was recommended as it was suggested that students needed to possess not only content or subject knowledge but also essential skills for giving successful presentations.

Some studies looked into students' oral presentations in other L2s. Suwa, Miyahara and Ishimatsu's (2012), for instance, investigated techniques used for improving technical presentation skills of Malaysian undergraduate students in a Japanese Associate Degree Program (JAD Program). The student participants received training in giving oral Japanese presentations in an experimental course following the practice-discussion-modification cycle. The results revealed certain improvements in the students' oral presentation delivery process as their presentation grades increased up to 7.7%. The majority of the students also found the presentation

practice sessions useful, enabling them to give presentations with confidence. It was concluded that the techniques used were applicable to improving technical presentation skills in any language.

There were a number of studies in Thai EFL context showing students' presentation improvements after regularly receiving particular training or treatments with guidance on how to deliver an effective oral presentation.

Miyata (2003) compared undergraduate students' oral presentation ability and self-confidence before and after learning via a genre-based instruction. The participants were 43 fourth-year students enrolled in English for career II course at Rajamangala Institute of Technology, Northern Campus, Chiang Mai. The research instruments were oral presentation ability test and self-confidence test implemented before and after the instruction. The results revealed improvements of oral presentation ability and increase of self-confidence after the instruction.

Nantachaipan (2004) explored the quality and improvement of students' oral presentation skills and their opinion about learners' role and success in conducting group oral presentation after learning English through an autonomous learning approach. The participants were 24 students at Payap University, Chiang Mai. The research instruments were three lesson plans and two questionnaires on the autonomous learning approach. The results revealed that (1) the autonomous learning lessons were effective for the undergraduate learners, (2) students' oral presentation skills were improved, and (3) the students agreed that they became more responsible for their own learning after learning through the autonomous learning lessons.

Wiboonwachariyakun (2004) compared students' oral English presentation ability and awareness of local wisdom before and after learning through local wisdom-based experiential learning. 15 10th graders at Kamphaengphet Pittayakom School participated in the study. The research instruments were 4 lessons of local wisdom-based experiential learning, oral presentation assessment form and the awareness of local wisdom assessment form. The results showed improvements of

oral presentation skills and increase of awareness of local wisdom after receiving training via the local wisdom-based experiential learning approach.

Mosby (2008) studied the effectiveness of English oral presentation lessons based on strategic language training. The target group was 21 undergraduate students enrolled in English II in one university in the north of Thailand. The research instruments were assessment criteria for oral presentation, checklists of useful phrases while giving oral presentation, questionnaire and semi-structured interview. The findings showed improvement of oral presentation skills after training. The students used more useful words and phrases as well as a higher number of strategies when delivering their oral presentations. The results of the interview revealed the students preferred note-taking with graphic organizers and rehearsal strategies.

Choksuanup, Rujikietgumjorn and Griffith (2010) investigated the effect of participation in oral presentation on speaking ability of 30 randomly selected fourth-year engineering students at Khon Kaen University as well as investigating their opinions towards oral presentation. The instruments used in the study were: (1) individual oral presentation tasks, (2) pre- and post-speaking tests to evaluate interview skill, and (3) students' opinion questionnaire. The findings showed that the oral presentation course could significantly enhance students' speaking ability, and the students had a positive opinion towards the course. She then recommended that the course be further used as an instrument for language classes.

However, none of the studies reviewed thus far described or explained the improvement by qualitative measure; the studies above primarily compared pre- and post-training scores rather than probing into the features of language use in the presentations which were missing before training and those evident of the positive development.

5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This section describes the methodology utilized in this study including the following subsections: research participants and setting, data collection procedure, and data analysis.

5.1 Research Participants and Setting

The participants of this qualitative study were 24 Grade-11 students who were studying a Science-Math program at Princess Chulabhorn's College, Satun (PCCST). The ages of the participants ranged from 16-17 years old. They were chosen for this study primarily for two reasons. First, according to the previous teachers who had taught them in the previous academic year, the speaking ability of most of the students was somewhat poor but they were able to deliver better, more substantial English presentations than those in other classes of the school. This helped the researcher gain enough data for the analysis. Second, the students were enrolled in the Foundation English III course, of which in the listening and speaking section, the students were required to give oral presentations once during the semester.

5.2 Data Collection Procedure

5.2.1 Thai EFL learners' presentations

The participants were randomly divided into eight groups each consisting of three individuals. All the groups were randomly assigned to give presentations on one of the following eight topics: air pollution, water pollution, soil pollution or contaminant, light pollution, littering, global climate change, flood and deforestation. They were also given the same three keywords—cause, effect and solution—as a guideline to prepare their presentations. Each group was asked to give an in-class oral presentation within five to ten minutes. The presentations were videotaped and transcribed primarily using the Conversation Analysis (CA) methodology, rendering eight excerpts for subsequent close analysis.

5.2.1 English-native students' presentations

The other eight excerpts of oral presentations were obtained from a corpus of native speakers' spoken English, namely, the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English, or MiCASE. The presenters were university students at the University of Michigan. The presentations examined were also given by groups of two to three students in the disciplines of science and social sciences; namely, community change, black media, Brazilian Studies, and Second Language Acquisition.

5.3 Data Analysis

The videotaped oral presentations of the Thai EFL learners were transcribed for close analysis. The learners' language use in the presentations was compared with that of the English-native students in terms of structural organization and sequencing as well as linguistic features.

6. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The findings of this study are discussed in three sections: 6.1 structural organization and sequencing, 6.2 Thai students' problems with structural organization and sequencing of oral presentations and 6.3 linguistic features. Based on the close comparative analysis, Thai EFL and English native students showed both differences and similarities in their language use in the oral presentations.

6.1 Structural Organization and Sequencing

Concerning the overall structural organization, both groups oriented to the introduction-body-conclusion structure. However, they structured the three main sequences quite differently.

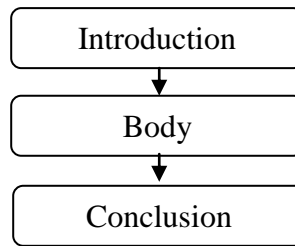


Figure 1: Overall presentation structure

6.1.1 Introduction sequence

In every excerpt, the Thai EFL learners organized the introduction which consisted of oft-formal greetings, topic announcement and self-introduction, but varied in the order of these components: the introductory sequence of half of the groups contained greeting, topic announcement and self-introduction while the other half delivered greeting, self-introduction and topic announcement.

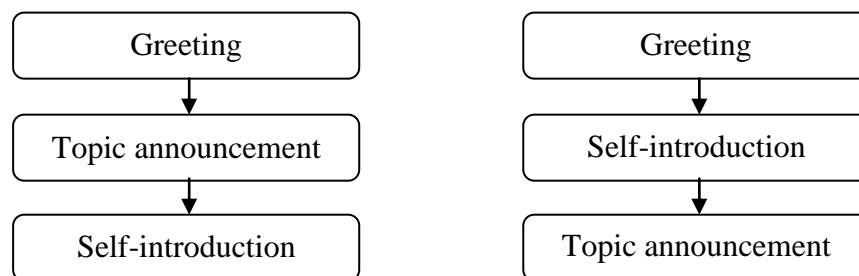


Figure 2: Introduction sequence of Thai EFL learners' presentations

As can be seen in Excerpt (1) below, Thai EFL learners often used a formal greeting to commence their presentation, shown from lines 1 to 3, thus distancing themselves from the audience and treating their presentation as being formal. In this instance, the formal greeting was additionally done through a repair sequence in which S2 initiated the repair in line 2 and S1 completed it in line 3, being other-initiated self-repair as described in Chotirat & Sinwongsuwat (2011). In line 4, after finishing the repair, S1 continued with introducing the topic of the presentation and stating her name. Her team members then introduced themselves one by one, in lines 5 and 6.

(1)

- 1 S1: good morning lady and gentleman.
 2 S2: °good afternoon°.
 3→S1: oh, good afternoon lady and gentleman.
 4 we will present (0.1) soil pollution. my name is Onkanya Lempan.
 5→S2: my name is Kanokporn Kaewla.
 6→S3: my name is Natthawud Noopum.

Only in one out of the eight instances examined, shown in (2), an informal greeting “hello” was produced by the Thai student when addressing their friends whereas a formal one was used to address the teacher, thus creating social distance and constructing different social roles between teacher and student.

(2)

- 1 S1: good afternoon teacher and hello my friends. my name is Thawin Sansiri.

After the greeting, the introduction of all team members was found only in one instance, as in (3). In the rest of the excerpts examined, the Thai students each introduced themselves before their own talk.

(3)

- 1 S1: good afternoon everyone, we are Wanlika Kalawan, Peewara
 2 Chaiyachart, and i Sirasit Laopetchsakulchai

English native students, on the other hand, appeared to be more diverse in structuring the introduction sequence and gave a more laconic introduction. Instead of greeting, they sought the audience’s alignment with a discourse marker and got right to the topic with only a casual self-introduction.

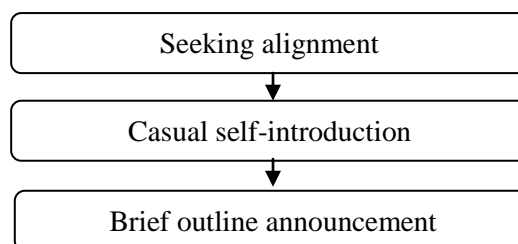


Figure 3: Introduction sequence of English-native students’ presentations

As shown in (4), the English native student, S2, used the discourse marker “okay” to seek alignment with the audience and welcomed them to the presentation. The speaker also introduced only herself and started outlining the presentation.

(4)

- 1→S2: okay. um, we would like to welcome everybody to the unveiling, of the
 2 new Freedomways two.
 3 SS: ((applause))
 4 S2: and i'm Whitney Jones, the editor of the new paper, and um i would like
 5 to give you a brief history of what Freedomways is about because we
 6 today are taking on the same, aim that they had in the past.

In fact, a greeting was found only in one of the eight presentations examined. As shown in (5), the English native student opted for a relatively informal greeting “hello”, in line 1, and sought the audience’s alignment with the topic of the presentation through related questions, in lines 3-4.

(5)

- 1→S12: hello everybody. um how many of, you have heard of Ruby Dee?
 2 oh really that's it?
 3→ okay um, how many of, you have seen Do the Right Thing? Jungle
 4→ Fever? and more recently Baby Geniuses?

Group member introduction was found only in three excerpts. As can be seen in (6), the English native student, S 3, gave a quick introduction of the presentation and introduced the team members through a photo presentation as in lines 9-10.

(6)

- 1 S3: i'm just gonna give a quick introduction, to our web page um, i'm sure
 2 most of you, if not all of you have uh, taken a moment to check it out.
 3 right here with the soccer guy we have um, World Cup Soccer team it
 4 gives a nice page layout of uh, the Brazilian uh, Men's Soccer Team.

- 5 [SU-f: ooh] uh thank you.
 6 .
 7 .
 8 .
 9 → and that's about it. and uh, down below we have the pictures of our group.
 10→ there's Bruce, Carol, myself, and, Anita.

Found in the other two instances, unlike Thai students, self-introduction in the native students' presentations, however, was seemingly made in order that the audience, their classmates, could put the presenters' names on the peer assessment sheets, being part of the class procedure rather than a routine practice of the presentation, as in (7) lines 1-3.

(7)

- 1→S3: okay, so you guys can put our names on the sheet my name's Lindsay
 2→S4: i'm Mir-Soo, M I R S O O
 3→S5: i'm Kelly (0.7)
 4 S4: um well thank you for being present for our presentation and um, um our
 5 project is about, is a combination of cross-sectional, studies and
 6 pragmatics, and well through this class we all know that there are, excuse
 7 me, there are many kinds of speech acts such as uh requests, complaints
 8 di- disagreements apologies corrections and refusals. and what we're
 9 gonna do today is about refusals. and uh just to let you know what kin-
 10 what kind of studies there have, been, um, till, now, ...

Discovered in one instance of the English native students' presentations, the audience was engaged in an activity to activate their background knowledge, allowing them to think about the topic before starting the actual presentation, shown in (8). This strategy was not found in the Thai students' presentations.

(8)

- 1 S1: um first we'd like to start with a little activity a little class participation,
 2 um, what i want you to do is to, build ...

Unlike the Thai students, English native students were additionally found to outline their presentation in the introduction sequence, telling the audience which topic each member is dealing with, as shown not only in Excerpt (7) but also in (9), lines 2-6. This however was not found in the Thai students' presentation.

(9)

- 1 S3: and, in the central paragraph it just explains briefly um, just the types of
 2→ uh, categories we're gonna, talk about so, that's about it. and uh, i i kinda
 3→ wanna stay away from this cuz i may be wrong but, Bruce's gonna talk
 4→ about police brutality, Carol's gonna talk about um, kinda the political,
 5→ aspects, of Brazil, i'm gonna talk about health care issues in Brazil, and
 6→ Anita, is going to talk about [human rights, excellent]=
 7 S5: [human rights]
 8→S3: =so that's uh, that's the intro.
 9→S4: alright. uh. ((reading throughout utterance)) seven thousand four hundred
 10 ninety-one kilometers of coastline...

The English native students also employed signposts to make transition from the introductory sequence to the body. As shown in line 8, S3 marks the end of the introduction with “so that’s uh, that's the intro.” S4 ratifies the end with the signpost “alright” followed by the filler “uh,” indicating the speaker’s taking the turn.

6.1.2 Body sequence

Moving from the introduction to the body sequence, in four excerpts, the Thai students abruptly began the body sequence, using rhetorical questions, and topicalization. Between each of the body sequences, verbal signposts or transition markers were hardly used. The transition between body sequences was mainly signaled by the change of speakers. And the succeeding presenter mostly introduced new ideas through topicalization and rhetorical questions.

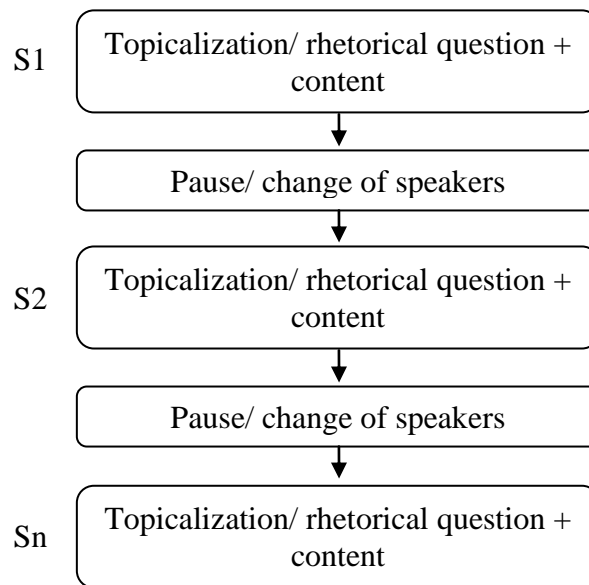


Figure 4: Body sequence of Thai EFL learners' presentations

As discussed above, the Thai learners often prefaced their parts in the body sequence using topicalization or a rhetorical question. As can be seen in Excerpt (10), S2, line 5, conveyed the content by the question “What (0.3) what is light pollution?” and gave a definition of topic right after.

(10)

- 1 S1: Good afternoon teacher and good afternoon everybody. We are proud to
 2 present you about uh light pollution. My name is Worathida Saengchote.
 3 S2: My name is Wisatchana Thipsombat.
 4 S3: My name is Katethana Leukitna. (0.3)
 5→S2: What (0.3) what is light pollution? Light pollution is the pollution
 6 [causset] by misplaced artificial light. It is a growing (0.1) light problem
 7 thats [treaten] wildlife, human, natural [habit (habitats)],

Apart from topicalization and a rhetorical question, inappropriate transition markers were adopted to mark a shift from the introduction to the body. As previously shown in Excerpt (1), repeated below in (11), S1, in line 7, called the audience's attention using “listen”, seemingly giving a command, and S3 in line 8 used both topicalization and rhetorical questions as the start of the body.

(11)

- 3 S1: oh, good afternoon lady and gentleman.
 4 we will present (0.1) soil pollution. my name is Onkanya Lempan.
 5 S2: my name is Kanokporn Kaewla.
 6 S3: my name is Natthawud Noopum.
 7→S1: and now (0.1) listen.
 8→S3: soil pollution. what is soil pollution? soil pollution is a (0.1) result of
 9 many activities and experiments (0.2) done by [matkind] which end up
 10 contaminating the soil.

Expressions such as “let’s go” and “go”, not found in the native students’ presentations, were also utilized to signal getting into the body sequence, as shown in Excerpts (12) line 4 and (13) line 6.

(12)

- 1 S1: good afternoon teacher and hello my friends. my name is Thawin Sansiri.
 2 S2: my name is Pattiya Detchanin.
 3 S3: my name is Kalantaka Hiranpijit.
 4→S1: uh, we are presents [deforedtations]. (0.2) let’s go. (0.2) in present (0.1)
 5 increase of people (0.2) effect to [deforedtation] (0.1) because (0.2) all
 6 human uh want to making house. so deforestation is uh popular
 7 problem...

(13)

- 1 S1: good morning teacher and my friends. we are uh we will present global
 2 climate change. rao kaun mai?((tr.:me first?)) my name is Maharoh
 3 Pimraphan.
 4 S2: my name is Panchanit Eiwsakun.
 5 S3: my name is Napassorn Tansakun.
 6→S1: ah, go. our plan.
 7 S2: Maharoh ()
 8 S1: rao kaun rao kaun((tr.:me first, me first)) our planet is surrounded uh by a
 9 blanket of gas and uh keeps the earth warm...

As shown in Figure 4, shifting from one body sequence to another of the Thais' presentations was marked via speaker change and introduced through topicalization and rhetorical questions. As can be seen in Excerpt (14), S1 immediately abandoned the floor without any verbal signposts but a long pause, and S2 started the next topic via topicalization in line 4.

(14)

- 1 S1: ...this would also effect (0.1) the larger (0.1) predators (0.2) and compel
 2 them to move to other place, one((once)) they [lo:d] their food supply.
 3 (1.0)
 4→S2: prevention of land (0.1) pollution. (0.3) u:h land pollution is caused by
 5 soil((solid)) waste like city waste, crop^owaste residues^o, and industrial
 6 waste like fly a:t((ash)), [shemical] like fer uh fertilizers and pesticide and
 7 polytene bags...

S3 in Excerpt (15), on the other hand, chose rhetorical questions to start her part, while in Excerpt (16) she began her part immediately with neither topicalization nor rhetorical questions.

(15)

- 1 S2: ...the heat (0.1) that is [relea:set] in the water has negative effect on all (.)
 2 life in the reving((receiving)) surface water. it is the kind of the pollution
 3 that is commonly known as heat pollution or thermal pollution. (1.0)
 4→S3: what is eutrophications, what cause it and what are dangers?
 5 eutrophication mean natural (.) nutrient (0.2) enrichment of streams and
 6 la:ks((lakes)). the enrichment is often increased by human activities, such
 7 as ang (0.1) agriculture...

(16)

- 1 S1: ... animal may mistake the item of litter (0.1) floating in te((the)) water as
 2 food and could choke on them or (0.1) they may get entering((entangled))
 3 in it. (1.0)
 4→S3: litter can be very dirty. not only does it not look nice but it may carry
 5 germs. some animals (0.1) are attract to area with lots of litter. they find
 6 their food among (0.1) the trat((trash)) and can pick up (0.1) the germs...

Only one Thai presenter, S1 in Excerpt (17), used a discourse marker to mark a shift from her friend's talk to her own after a long pause.

(17)

- 1 S2: ... everything from food to cloth (.) clothes, and computers to carpet use
 2 energy when it is pro(.)duk((produced)) and transport, causing carbon
 3 emission to be released.
 4 (1.0)
 5→S1: next, the effect of climate (0.1) change. even if no more fossil fuels were
 6 burned, or trees (.) cut down, the world's climate would still warm in
 7 years to come (0.1)

Unlike the Thai students, who often signaled the beginning of their part with topicalization or a rhetorical question and the ending with a long pause or speaker change, English-native students often began their part with a transitional marker and a preview of the content of the subsequence, and, likewise, ended the part with a recap prefaced by a transitional marker.

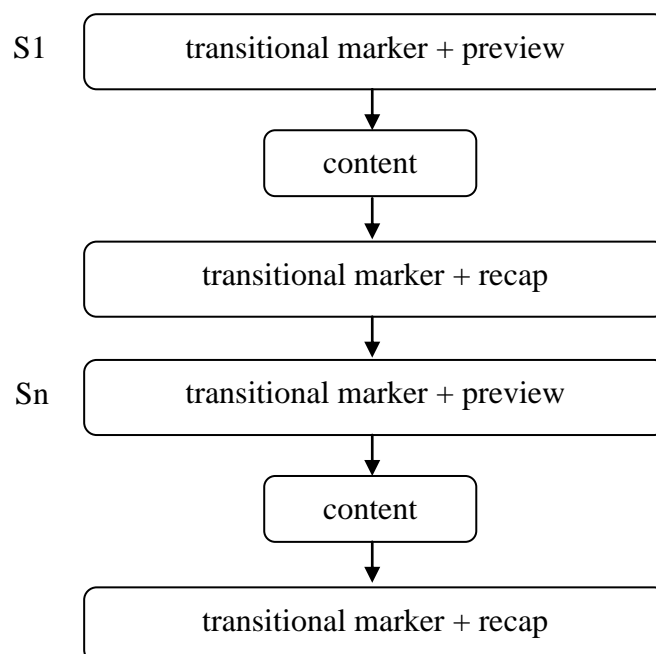


Figure 5: Body sequence of English-native students' presentations

As can be seen in Excerpt (18), for instance, S15, in lines 1-2, marked her beginning with a preview of her part, which deals with strengths and weaknesses of the agency. In lines 9-10, she recapped what she just discussed before yielding the floor to S14, indicated by lower voice volume and the speaker shift. S14 took the floor, marking her part with the signpost “as far as our plan goes.” in line 11.

(18)

- 1→S15: i'm just gonna briefly talk about the agency's strengths and weaknesses
 2→ that we've found. um first and foremost i think that Generations had,
 3 really good community spor- support, and in talking with Joanie ...
 4 .
 5 .
 6 .
 7 ... so. and our last weakness um of the agency was the high turnover rate
 8 for tutors and mentors, and also with the interns. you know they're only
 9 → there for a semester and then they leave. so, that's what we found um, for
 10→ the strengths and weaknesses °of Generations.°
 11→S14: as far as our plan goes.
 12 S13: mhm
 13 SU-f: right
 14 S14: as far as you know anything, [that would be like a block, to our plan. um=
 15 SU-f: [right]
 16 S14: = so we did meet with Joanie last night,

Additionally, the English native students frequently took the audience's questions and/or comments during their presentations, as can be seen in (19). In line 6, S20 welcomed a question from a member of the audience, S24, to which S20's group members helped provide the answers, as seen in lines 7-8. This was not found at all in the Thai students' presentations.

(19)

- 1 S20: ... so, that's kind of a description of it, and it would be a non-equivalent
 2 comparative program component um group design. so, that's the way it's
 3 established right now. um, and that's the, the evaluation part. so, that's
 4 really pretty much, the gist of the presentation uh, Joe has a question
 5 then we'll go for more.
 6→S24: um, when did you say the funding ends for this? sor-
 7→S22: in two years
 8→S23: yeah, in two thousand two two thousand three.

6.1.3 Concluding sequence

In the conclusion sequence, the Thai learners ended their presentations without providing any summary or remarks but simply thanked the audience immediately. They offered no chance for the audience to ask questions and give comments.

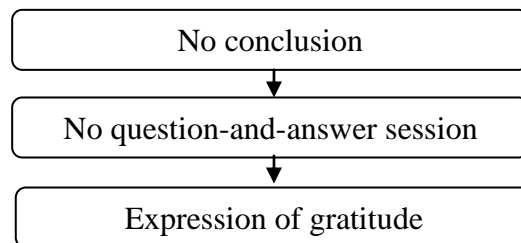


Figure 6: Concluding sequence of Thai EFL learners' presentations

As shown in Excerpt (20) line 3, S3 immediately expressed gratitude after she had finished the content without giving conclusive remarks or arousing further discussion. S1, in line 4, repeated the gratitude, seemingly to stress the ending of their presentation.

(20)

- 1 S3: ... Residential BBQ flu:d floodlight can be [shild (shielded)] to minimize
 2 light [tre:tpa:t (trespass)] and uplight also avoid over lighting where
 3→ possible. thank you very much.
 4→S1: thank you very much.

One group of the Thai learners even abruptly ended their presentation without signaling, shown in Excerpt (21).

(21)

1 S3: ...is commonly (.) know as lime deposit. it can be removed by using, a
2 specifally((specially)) sut((suited)) cleaning agent.

English native students, on the other hand, normally ended their presentations by providing concluding remarks, asking for questions or suggestions from the audience, and expressed their gratitude.

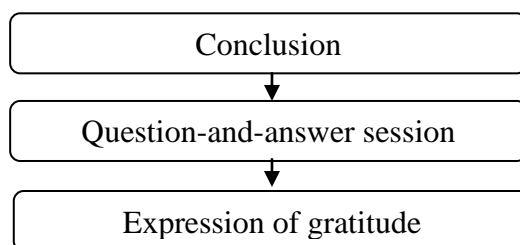


Figure 7: Concluding sequence of English-native students' presentations

As can be seen in lines 5-6 in Excerpt (22), after she finishes recapitulating what the group was doing, S1 elicits questions from the audience about the group project just presented and a question is asked in lines 7-8, after which the answers are given.

(22)

1 S1: ... so we're trying to, um coordinate those different organizations and, see
2 how we can help them and how they can help, the parents, within the
3 University. um, and each agency knows and supports us in that we're
4 talking to other, agencies that share the concern about parents who are
5→ also students. so. do you guys have any questions about our project or
6→ what we're doing? mhm?
7→ SU-f: is it for (.) are you targeting everybody or um, graduate students or
8→ undergrads? i didn't hear what you said
9 S1: both
10 SU-f: both.

Besides eliciting questions in the conclusion, the English native presenters also occasionally raised questions for the audience to think about and discuss, as in lines 1-7 in (23).

(23)

1 S3: and, so a question that i really want you guys to think about, is do you
2 think these issues, or the issues that they faced then, are they still
3 problematic today? and, in the article that i'm writing, or that i wrote it's
4 about, whether or not in particular, the voting rights, is it still at issue
5 today? or is it still problematic today? so if you, hm?

6 SU-f: ()

7 S3: yeah. so, if you think that this is still a, a problem today, i want you to, ...

After the class discussion is over, SU-f, in Excerpt (24) line 6, a member of the presenting team, ended the presentation by expressing her gratitude.

(24)

1 S1: ... what resources they have and what they know about and, what their
2 concerns are so (0.7) anything else?

3 S10: you can now eat your Pixie Sticks

4 SS: ((laugh))

5 SU-f: if you haven't started already

6→SU-f: thank you

7 SS: ((applause))

6.2 Thai Students' Problems with Structural Organization and Sequencing of Oral Presentations

All in all, the preceding discussion about the overall structure and sequencing of the presentation suggests that the Thai EFL learners' oral presentations are still short on effectiveness. Different from those of English-native students in the various aspects previously discussed, they still lack several features of successful presentations.

First, the Thai students apparently lacked awareness of the language choice appropriate for establishing the relationship between them and the audience, which was composed of only their teacher and classmates. Just like in Thai presentations, when beginning the English presentation, the students relied merely on a formal greeting, followed by a formal self-introduction. While maintaining a certain degree of power distance between them and their teacher, social distance was unnecessarily created between them and their classmates, who, at the time of study, have been studying in the same class and together doing certain extracurricular activities for at least two years, being considered as close friends.

Another problem found in the Thais' presentations is that the objectives of each main sequence were not made clear. There were no outlines made in the introduction sequence; the students simply announced the topic of the presentation and jumped right into the body sequence. Neither a preview nor a recap of the content was given in the body.

Additionally, sequence transitioning was not marked with discourse or transitional markers but merely with topicalization and/or rhetorical questions as well as speaker shift. Generally, when Thai high school students who have not received any special presentation training give presentations in Thai, quite often they do not make verbal transition that helps the audience to follow their presentations. Based on the researcher's observations and student interviews, with PowerPoint, they often rely on slide transition in signaling topic shift, and mostly read the heading or the topic on the new slide at the sequence onset, thus resulting in topicalization. Also, they occasionally formulate rhetorical questions with the new topic and read them to the audience. Normally, this type of question is used by the teacher for gaining students' attention or reflection on what has been said instead of eliciting their responses (Cruickshank, Jenkins & Metcalf, 2009). The Thai students, however, seemed to overuse them often at the points where they have already gained the audience's full attention or where there is not anything yet to reflect on, for instance at the very beginning of the talk. Therefore, without explicit training, the Thai students may not know how to appropriately make verbal transition or mark a sequence shift in an oral presentation and transfer L1 practices they are familiar with into English.

To conclude the presentation, the Thai students often expressed gratitude with neither summarization nor concluding remarks. They apparently did not realize that ending a presentation with a good conclusion can help the audience better grasp the key points and understand the value of their presentation. With sudden stop, the audience may get confused and feel unsatisfied with the presentations. And as no question-answer session was initiated at the end of the talk, it can be assumed that the presenters did not have adequate confidence and understanding of the subject matter to answer any questions if asked. By the same token, the audience might also not completely understand the messages conveyed to them, disabling them to ask questions during or after the presentation. A typical EFL oral presentation given by Thai students thus does not lead to a class discussion, which will usually help make them gain a better understanding of the content.

Overall, the Thai learners seemed to conduct their presentation mainly as a routine pedagogical practice following a relatively formal pattern of organization with little variation and consideration of its effectiveness. Since the English presentation was actually delivered as part of the routine class procedure, formal greeting and self-introduction seemed unnecessary. Concluding messages and class discussion, which are beneficial and essential for their learning, were left out as a result of insufficient confidence and understanding of the information researched. Other important organizational features such as outlining, preview, recap and sequence transitioning were neglected. It can therefore be concluded that no matter how often the students are required to give oral presentations, if they receive neither special training on an effective oral English presentation nor explicit feedback on strategic organization of a presentation, their presentations will likely remain unsuccessful, being not much different from a reading-aloud task.

6.3 Linguistic Features

Based on close feature analysis of the students' talks, the English-native and Thai-native students exhibited noticeable differences in five linguistic features, shown in Figure 8 below.

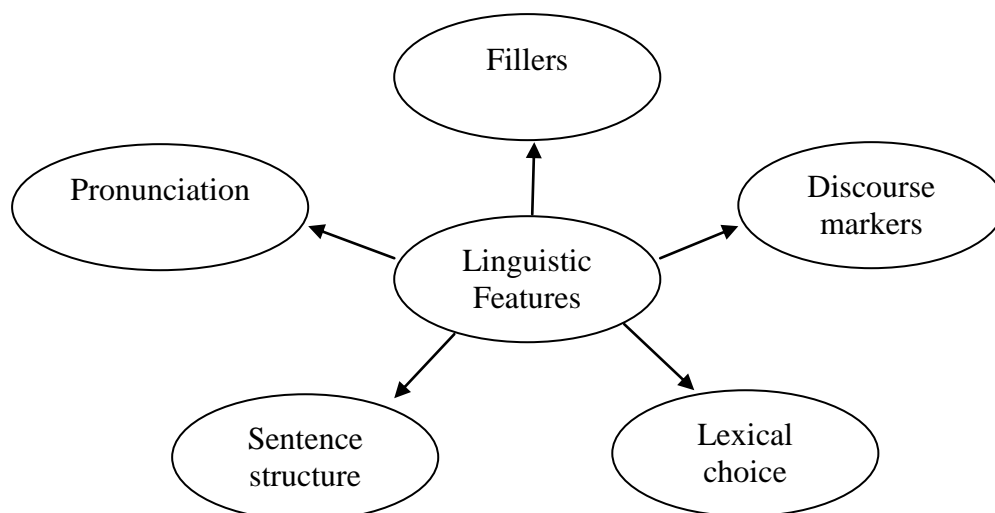


Figure 8: Prominent features of linguistic differences

First of all, unlike the English-native students, the Thais frequently used prolonged fillers as a repair mechanism to deal with problems in talk rather than to fill the gap and maintain the floor. As can be seen in Excerpt (25), S2, in lines 3 and 5, was having difficulty in reading the word “fertilizers” on the PowerPoint slide, thereby employing the stretched filler “u::h” to fix the problem.

(25)

- 1 S2: prevention of land (0.1) pollution. (0.2) u::h land pollution is caused by
 2 → [soil (solid)] waste like city waste, crop °waste residues°, and industrial
 3 → waste like fly [a::t (ash)], [shemical] like fer u::h fertilizers and pesticide
 4 and [polytene] bags. (0.1) proper [soil (solid)] waste disposal like sanitary
 5 → landfill. (0.1) using limited amounts of fer u::h fertilizers and pesticide.
 6 (0.1) avoiding polytene bags...

Within almost the same number of words—53 words in Excerpt (25) of the Thai and 52 words in Excerpt (26) of the English below, the frequency of fillers used as well as their functions is disparate. Distinguishably, the English-native student, S12, used two fillers “um” four times and “uh” once in order to maintain control of her speech while thinking of what to say next, not to fix a reading problem like the Thai did.

(26)

1 S12: okay well, um i recently wrote an article about Ruby Dee, uh she, is a, she
 2 is an actress a black actress born in the twenties, um a very prolific
 3 actress during, the sixties and during the civil rights movement um she's a
 4 screenwriter, a play writer, a singer, um she's done movies...

Moreover, Excerpt (25) above as well as Excerpt (27) below provide a good illustration of mispronunciation—the words in [...]—of the Thai learners which may create unnaturalness, disruptiveness and incomprehensibility of the speech. Such mispronunciation, which is not just a slip of the tongue in L1 speakers, occurred apparently because the students had difficulty in reading the texts on the PowerPoint slideshows. Noticeably, fixing the reading problem, the student, S2, in Excerpt (27) also relied mostly on vowel-stretching or syllable lengthening, e.g., “do::s” in line 4 and “en::environment” in line 6.

(27)

1 S2 avoiding [polytene] bags. (0.2) u::h it is high time we realize that we
 2 need the environment [of (for)] our own [survivai] and for the [survai] of
 3 other life forms hence (0.1) we must learn to res (.) respect nature and
 4→ try not to [disrup] its ecological balance. (0.5) in order to do::s to do so it
 5 is [necessarary] to first have a good understanding of all the three element
 6→ of the physical en::environment...

Discourse markers (DMs) were hardly found in the Thai students' presentations. Only four DMs were used, namely, “okay”, “sorry”, “oh”, and “so”, and “now”. As shown in Excerpt (28), S2, for instance, used “okay” in line 1 to mark the new item on the list or an increment of a turn and in line 3 “okay” with falling-intonation to yield the floor, marking speaker change.

(28)

1→ S2: ... next, umm effects to people in cities. boom! (0.5) okay, uh effects to
 2 animals and pets. uh and snake umm on the water. next, uh effects to
 3→ environments (0.2) okay. (0.5)
 4 S3: uh, from the question, are there any ways to solve this problem? these are
 5 the brob the ways for solve. government should plan city planning for...

Unlike the Thais, English-native speakers on the other hand frequently opted for discourse markers such as “okay”, “well” and “alright” in the turn-initial position—often with fillers “um” or “uh”, to signal turn initiation and to get the audience’s attention to their talk, often followed by transitional expressions. S6, in Excerpt (29) line 1, prefaces his talk using the discourse marker “okay” with the filler “um”.

(29)

1→S6: okay um i'm going to talk about the the political, um corruption, that
2 happens in Brazil, and relate it to the, the stor- history, of corruption. um,
3 Brazil is the largest nation, in South America, ...

Regarding lexical choice, it is worth discussing the Thai learners’ use of personal pronouns and some content words. In their presentations, personal pronouns were scarcely used, occurring only in self-introduction and topic announcement. None were found at all in the body sequence of the presentation except for those taken from the original text they searched for. Shown in Excerpt (30), taken from a body sequence, from the first to the last word, S1 did not produce any of the pronouns. This seems to indicate that when delivering the presentation, the Thai students mostly did not really express their own voice, but mainly presenting the voice of others, particularly the authors of the text they had read, often without citing or referring to them.

(30)

1 S1: next, the effect of climate (0.1) change. even if no more fossil fuels were
2 burned, or trees (.) cut down, the world’s climate would still warm in
3→ years to come (0.1) as there is a time lag between when [emissions] occur
4 and when their effects (0.1) are felt. one hundred and fifty((thousand))
5 people already die every year from climate change. in the next fifteen
6→ fifteen years displacement disruption to agriculture and fo and (.) and
7→ food supplies, and damage and destruction to infrastructure would be
8→ likely to to lead to economic and political instability. both within within
9 countries and across international border and even [towards] as

10→ environment [refug:s (refugees)] (0.1) seek new homes and
 11→ countries clash over scarce water and food supplies. the industrial
 12→ countries also could (.) find themselves under immense (0.1) pressure
 13 from [hug (huge)] numbers of environmental [refug:s] from the
 14 developing world.

As for other words, it seemed that the Thai learners' choice of many content words was not quite appropriate for the audience. Seemingly taken right from the original text without any simplification and elaboration, many words used, especially those unlikely found among the list of the most frequently used words, were probably not comprehensible to their audience, whose English proficiency was not very high; for instance, “a time lag” in line 3, “displacement disruption” line 6, “destruction” and “infrastructure” line 7, “political instability” line 8, “refugees” and “seek” line 10, “scarce” line 11, and “immense” line 12 (said by some students). This is apparently because the Thai presenters still lacked not only a clear understanding of the information they were presenting but also paraphrasing skills. They particularly needed to be made aware of the importance of using the language fitting their target audience.

Conversely, the English native students usually used the personal pronouns—often with contractions such as “i’m”, “we’re”, “we’ll”—throughout their talks, thus not only reconstructing informal relationship with their audience but also projecting their own voice. Some other unceremonious lexicons were also resorted to, for example, “gonna”, “halfa”, “you guys” and “y’all” as seen in (31) and (32). The native English speakers’ talks therefore sounded more natural and audience friendly.

(31)

1 S13: so basically what we're gonna do is we're gonna, fill you in briefly about
 2 um some of our issues and some of our central strategies and tactics, how
 3 we're gonna focus more than on um, processing what occurred...

(32)

1 S8: okay. you guys can eat your food now. so (xx.) we don't have power in
 2 the computer right so we don't have our audiovisual presentations for
 3 y'all's but, you'll just hafta, hafta go with it, um, so the, with the example
 4 of resources and structure, that you're supposed to be using...

In regard to sentence structure, apart from difficult word choice, most of the Thais, i.e., 18 of 24 students, delivered their presentations in complex sentences or long phrases apparently taken right from the original written text without paraphrasing. As can be seen in Excerpt (33) below, a phrase from lines 6-8, “increase in salinity...useless and barren”, which consists of 19 words, is one long complicated phrase structure with a participial phrase, which might be comprehensible for the class only if written. In fact, such phrases as participials were one of the many structures that the students at this level did not yet master.

(33)

1 S1: ... some of the most (0.2) serious (0.1) soil pollution effect are: (1.0) first,
 2 decrease in soil [fertility] and therefore decrease in the soil yield. (0.2)
 3 second, loss of soil and natural nutrients present in it. plants also (0.1)
 4 would not thrive (0.1) in such soil, which would further result in soil
 5 [erosion] (erosion). (0.4) [dis::disturban] in the balance of flora and fauna
 6→ (0.1) residing in the soil. increase in salinity of the soil, [whit (which)]
 7→ therefore make it unfit for [vegetation (vegetation)], thus making it
 8→ useless and barren. (0.2) generally (0.1) crops cannot grow (0.1) and
 9 [flourit] in polluted soil. yet if some crops manage to grow, they would...

Only two groups out of the eight gave the presentations in their own words, not copying texts from original sources. Consequently, their speech contained grammatical errors and misuse of words, as shown in Excerpt (34).

(34)

1 S1: in present (0.1) increase of people (0.2) effect to [deforestation] (0.1)
 2 because (0.1) all human uh want to making house. so deforestation is uh
 3 popular problem, but not one case((cause)). um in face((fact)),
 4 case((cause)) of deforestations there are many reason. such building dam
 5 (0.2) in Thai (0.1) “kheun”. um, building dam for save water.

Even though the English-native students quite often used complex sentences, as shown in (35), it is obvious that, unlike the Thai learners, the words they used are still among the list of the most frequently used words in speech and writing, making them more readily understandable to their audience.

(35)

1 S3: ...okay. and um, his article was published in nineteen sixty-one and
 2 basically, he was summarizing everything that blacks had faced from the
 3 time of slavery all the way up to the civil rights movement. so some of the
 4 issues that he talked about, well first he hit on the fact that, blacks,
 5 originally or initially had no rights whatsoever. and um, he spoke about,
 6 how, slavery, was a legal, um it was legal and the government was bound
 7 to protect it, and how President Lincoln wasn't necessarily an enemy of it
 8 that, he supported it in the South but, he didn't want it to expand to the
 9 North and, he went on from there to talk about...

To sum up, as far as these five linguistic features are concerned, both groups of students were noticeably different. The Thai EFL learners employed a much smaller number of fillers and discourse markers. They often mispronounced words and dealt with the problem by resorting to syllable lengthening. They also deployed certain lexicons and complex sentence structure which were apparently beyond the level of their competence, mainly presenting the voice or the idea of the author of the original text rather than their own often without citation. These may have made their speech unnatural, disruptive and incomprehensible to their audience. The Thai EFL learners therefore need to be trained paraphrasing skills and referencing. Additionally,

they should be made aware of the importance of using language appropriate for the target audience of their presentations.

The English-native students, on the other hand, more frequently made use of fillers, discourse markers, and personal pronouns with contractions, thus sounding more natural, coherent, and being able to form more informal genuine relationship with their audience and project their own voice. Seemingly having been well-trained to paraphrase and acknowledge sources of the ideas or words that are not their own, the native speakers possess essential skills in delivering effective research presentations.

7. CONCLUDING REMARKS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this section, a summary of the research findings is provided, followed by pedagogical implications for language learning and recommendations for further studies.

7.1 Summary of Research Findings

This study has closely examined language use in oral presentations of Thai EFL and English-native students. It reveals differences and similarities in both overall structural organization and sequencing as well as linguistic features. Even though both groups oriented to the same structural organization of an introduction-body-closing sequence, they varied in the ways they structured each part of the presentation. Unlike English-native students, the Thai ones often began their oral presentations with formal greetings and one-by-one self-introduction, thus treating the presentations as a formal speech event. They introduced the topic of the presentation without giving any outline of the talk and employed no techniques to arouse audience interest. Neither did they try to activate the audience's background knowledge of the talk. When making transition from one main sequence to another, they also hardly used signposts or transition markers, the transition being marked very often by a long pause and speaker change. Although sometimes used, the transition markers were not appropriate.

Additionally, different from native students, they often employed rhetorical questions and topicalization in making a transition from the introduction to the body sequence or from one body sequence to another. When delivering each part of the body sequence, the students neither provided a preview nor a recap. Influenced by written language, the talk was apparently delivered verbatim based on the texts they had researched, thereby sounding unnatural. Therefore, it appeared that they still needed to be explicitly taught not only how to organize an effective presentation but also how to do research in preparation for an oral presentation. Researching and paraphrasing skills additionally needed be developed. Moreover, during their presentations, they never allowed the audience to ask questions or give comments. The Thai learners ended their presentations without any summary or remarks. They simply thanked the audience and offered no chance for further discussion.

Pertaining to the linguistic features—filler, discourse markers, pronunciation, lexical choice and sentence structure—used in the oral presentations, the study showed noticeable differences from those of English-native speakers. The Thai students employed a smaller number of fillers and discourse markers, had difficulty reading the text prepared, and adopted lexical choice and sentence structure beyond their competence. Thus, their presentations sounded unnatural, disruptive and somewhat incomprehensible.

The differences in the language use between the Thai learners and the native students apparently owed largely to the current stage of their L2 acquisition or language barriers, the lack of explicit teaching on language use in structuring effective oral presentations, and little exposure to authentic oral presentations in the target language. The Thai EFL learners' presentations seemed to largely be influenced by the formal convention that they were used to when conducting a presentation in their native tongue and by the fact that they were not made aware of stylistic variation in language use in oral presentations in the target language.

7.2 Implications for Language Pedagogy

The findings of the study carry important implications for EFL classroom teaching, particularly for teachers teaching listening and speaking or communication courses. It appears to be necessary for these Thai EFL students to be provided courses explicitly teaching them oral academic presentation skills. The awareness of language use should also be a focus in classroom teaching. To help them become more successful in higher education especially in an international context, teachers need to reconsider how to teach the students oral presentation skills. For example, they may consider providing a learning example of authentic oral English presentations as this will be very helpful for the learners to acquire the appropriate language use in structuring their presentation. Explicit teaching of oral presentation with authentic examples should help enable them to deliver a more effective, appropriate presentation fitting demands of particular contexts or speech events.

7.3 Recommendations for Further Studies

Further comparative studies conducted in EFL or ESL context should try to minimize the differences, for instance, in the education levels of the Thai and English native students, prior experiences of the students in giving oral English presentations, and classroom setting for greater validity. Also, having more cases or research samples for data analysis can lead to a better generalization to other groups of students studying similar context in other institutions. Further studies may additionally investigate the effectiveness of explicit teaching of oral presentation in helping enhance the learners' presentation skills.

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PAPER 1

What Is Missing from a Typical Oral English Presentation of Thai EFL Students?

What is missing from a typical oral English presentation of Thai EFL students?

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Abstract

This paper examines the features of successful oral presentations which are missing from a typical oral presentation of Thai EFL students. Obtained from 11th-graders' class presentation at Princess Chulabhorn's College, Satun, the talk excerpts illustrated were analyzed primarily following the Conversation Analysis (CA) methodology. Concentrating on the target language use in organizing the oral presentation, the analysis revealed problems with both language style and presentation structure. It was suggested that the students not simply lacked English proficiency but needed skill training and explicit teaching of language use in organizing an effective oral presentation. Teachers were therefore recommended to provide courses aimed particularly at developing oral presentation skills in order to assure their students' ability to deliver a successful presentation satisfying demands of any academic context.

Keywords: Oral English presentation, Thai EFL learners, Conversation Analysis, language style, presentation organization, explicit teaching of language use in oral presentation

1. Introduction

Oral presentation is an essential means for high school students to exhibit what they have learned in class or from course assignments. As part of course requirements, it is also a means to engage the students in class discussion in nearly all learning areas, for example, hard sciences, social studies, and humanities (Ministry of Education, 2008). A large number of courses at the university level also require undergraduates to demonstrate their knowledge or to present their research project through academic and business oral presentations (e.g. Chou, 2011; Miles, 2009; Radzuan & Kaur, 2011; Suwa, Miyahara & Ishimatsu, 2012; Tsai, 2010; Yu & Cadman, 2009).

In EFL/ESL contexts, an oral English presentation can pose a real challenge to students at any level; apart from worries about the content, one of the main sources of anxiety stems from the lack of English proficiency (Radzuan & Kaur, 2011; Zareva, 2009). EFL/ESL students therefore need training and various treatments to overcome the language barrier and to succeed in delivering L2 oral presentations (e.g. Choksuansup, 2010; Suwa, Miyahara, & Ishimatsu, 2012).

Several studies in Thai EFL context showed that there were improvements of oral presentation after receiving training and treatments by frequently giving oral presentations—learning by doing—with guidance on how to deliver an effective one (e.g. Choksuansup, 2010; Miyata, 2003; Mosby, 2008; Nantachaipan, 2004; Wiboonwachariyakun, 2004). However, none of the studies described or explained the improvements by qualitative measure; previous studies primarily compared pre- and post-training scores rather than probing into the missing features of language use between the pre- and post-training presentations.

This paper therefore aims at examining features of successful oral presentations based on previous literature and discussing the features missing from a typical classroom oral presentation of Thai EFL students.

2. Features of Successful Oral Presentations

To successfully deliver an oral presentation, presenters are required to understand the goal of their presentation, know the audience—normally present to acquire something from the presentation—, deliver smooth flow of ideas, and master the proper organizational structure as well as language style of the presentation (Anderson, Maclean, & Lynch, 2004; Centre for English Language Communication, n.d.; Grand, n.d.; Griffith Institute for Higher Education, 2004; Storz et al., 2002).

The following are practical guides often proposed in the literature for presenters in preparing and structuring successful oral English presentations. First and foremost, it is very important for the presenter to define the objectives of the presentation, for example, to introduce a new concept, to propose a new project, to report the progress of a project, etc. (Centre for English Language Communication, n.d.). With clear objectives, the presentation can persuade the audience to accept or do something, not just being introduced, proposed or reported.

It is also very helpful if the presenters can identify and analyze the audience. Charlesworth (2000, cited in Griffith Institute for Higher Education, 2004) proposes a certain number of questions to identify the audience (e.g., who will be in the audience?, should the presentation be conducted formally or informally?) and strategies to analyze the audience's demographics (e.g., what is the average age of the audience?, what are the educational and intellectual levels of the audience?), physical aspects or settings (e.g., what is the size of the audience?, where will the presentation be delivered?) and psychological aspects (e.g., how favorable is the audience towards presenters and the topic?, how willing is the audience to listen to the message?). Being clear with the aims and understanding the audience and settings can lead the presenters to the first step of success in preparing the presentation.

With clear aims and understanding of the audience, presenters can begin structuring their presentation. According to Anderson, Maclean, and Lynch (2004), Grand, (n.d.), Storz (2002), and Williams (2008), inter alia, a well-structured presentation should contain the beginning, the middle and the end (or introduction, body and conclusion) with appropriate language use in organizing and expressing both the structure and content of each respective part.

2.1 The Beginning or the Introduction

The beginning of a presentation is likely to be the most important part when establishing a connection with the audience and gaining its attention and interest (Centre for English Language Communication, n.d.; Storz, 2002).

To gain the audience's attention, to make people want to listen, to feel relaxed and to introduce the issues, native English speakers usually employ a joke, an anecdote and a statement to surprise and provoke listeners. Direct or rhetorical questions are also used to engage the listeners in the talk. Certain signposts and expressions are also helpful as shown in the examples below.

Right. / Well. / OK. / Um.
Good. / Fine. / Great.
Shall/Can we start?
Let's begin/ start/ get started.
Let's get the ball rolling.

Then, greeting audience is likewise important. This can be accomplished formally or informally according to the context of the presentation, for instance:

Hi / Hello, everyone / everybody.
Good morning/ afternoon/evening, ladies and gentlemen.

After greeting the audience, self-introduction should be conducted to give important information about the presenters, establish their authority on the subject and allow the audience to see their viewpoint. It might be spoken out as shown below:

My name is John Carol, a doctoral candidate from...
I'm Tom Cruise, a student at...

Subsequently, title and subject proclamation will provide a rough idea or working definition of the subject, as in the following example:

Today, I'm going to talk about...
The subject of my presentation is...
The theme of my talk is...

Objectives of the presentation are also very crucial to be conveyed out to the audience so that they can capture what is going to be delivered right then, as examples given below:

My purpose in doing this project/writing this paper is to give...
What I would like to do today is to illustrate... and to have a look at...

Outline announcement can additionally assist the audience in following and catching the main points to be addressed in each part of the presentation, as exemplified below:

My presentation is divided into ... points.
Firstly, I will give a few basic definitions of...
Then I will focus on...
Next, I, going to show...
Finally, I'm about to ...

The audience might want to ask some questions or give some comments, so the presenters should let them know when they may do so, for instance:

I'd ask you to save your questions for the end.
Please feel free to ask questions at the end of the presentation.
If you have some questions, you can interrupt me during the presentation.

Between the introduction and the body, presenters should make a transition, referring to the transparency or outline, such as:

Now, let us turn to point one.
Let us now move on to the second part, which is, as I said earlier, ...

2.2 The Middle or the Body

The body, which is the major part, basically concerns the content in the presentation which should support the objectives because the content is mostly limited as time is also restricted. So, the content should be enough to clearly develop the ideas of the presentation and should be logically sequenced: chronological order; from general to specific; from known to unknown; cause/effect; problem/solution; etc. No matter how the presentation is sequenced, all the headlines should be in the same grammatical structure.

Throughout the entire presentation, there should be the use of connectives to make the relationship between ideas or different points. This is to guide the audience where or on what point the presenters are. That means what is going to be said should be firstly announced and then addressed out right after. Also, when one point has been finished, another should be indicated by the connectives. It seems to be redundant if it is a written text, but it will be very useful in an oral presentation. Obvious pause, change of stance and alteration of voice pitch are often used as good aids in speech delivery. Centre for English Language Communication (n.d.) classifies the connectives into four types as the following:

Firstly, linkers provide a link or connection between the idea which is being left and the one which is going to be talked about right then, for example:

That's all I would like to say about ... and now let's turn to ...
Now we have seen ... let's move to ...

Secondly, internal previews inform the audience what is going to be discussed next in more detail than linkers, for instance:

In looking at some solutions to the problem of falling sale, I will focus on two in particular—increasing advertising and special promotions. Let's consider each in turn.

Thirdly, internal summaries review the points which have been covered in the current section to remind the audience what they have just heard. The summaries also offer the audience an opportunity to grasp the points, e.g.,

So we can see that the results of an increased advertising campaign are increased product awareness, an immediate increase in sales followed by a leveling off some months later and a temporary surge in profits.

Last but not least, a certain number of signposts (Centre for English Language Communication, n.d.; Grand, n.d.; Storz, 2002, inter alia) are adopted to use in a variety of ways. These signposts tell the audience where the current point is and what point is being delivered. The examples of the use of the signposts are as follows:

Numbers and some other kinds of signposts are used to list information such as:

*There are three things to consider: one) ..., two) ..., and three) ... or a) ..., b) ..., and c) ...
First of all, ... Secondly, ... And finally, ...*

Using rhetorical questions is another kind of signpost utilization, for example, to introduce the first point and the following point, as in:

What makes mail order fraud such a persistent problem?

.
.
.

So, how can we solve this problem? ...

Certain words or phrases or clauses can helpfully be employed to make the points more apparent and concrete, as listed below:

To give an example:

*Now let's take an example.
Let's see this through an example.
To illustrate this ...
For example/instance, ...*

To rephrase:

*Let me rephrase that,
In other words,
That is to say,*

To summarize:

*To summarize,
To sum up,
Briefly,
In conclusion,*

To emphasize:

*What is very significant is ...
I'd like to emphasize the fact that ...
What we need to focus on is ...
What is important to remember is ...
What I'd like to highlight is ...*

To refer to what have been said previously:

*As I have already said earlier ...
As we saw in part one ...*

To refer to what will be said:

*We will see this a little later on.
This will be discussed in section three.
We will go into more detail on that later.*

To refer to what an expert says:

*I quote the words of ...
In the words of ...*

According to...

As Mr. X says in his book...

To refer to common knowledge:

As you know...

It is generally accepted that...

Overall, the content of the presentation with enough information, well-sequenced ideas and indicative connectives can create interest, establish a relationship with the audience and help keep the audience's attention throughout the speech.

2.3 The End or the Conclusion

Even though it is the last part of a presentation, the conclusion of the presentation should not come as a surprise to the audience, and it needs special consideration. Its content should include four parts: brief summarization, a short conclusion, thanks to the audience and an invitation to ask questions, make comments or open a discussion.

First of all, presenters should briefly summarize the presentation to assure that the audience has retained the main points by opting for the following alternatives: to restate the main points of the talk; to address an essential message to retain; to list the main points and what is necessary to keep in mind; to review informally or indirectly by using a quote, a comparison or an example. The following are examples in signaling those:

I'd like to summarize/sum up...

At this stage I'd like to run over/through the main points...

So, as we have seen today...

Secondly, a short conclusion can be conveyed as a message logically developed from the ideas in the speech. It can be a commentary, some recommendations, or the next steps. These can be addressed as follows:

As a result we suggest that...

In the light of what we have seen today I recommend that...

I have a few proposals for this. The first is...

In conclusion I would like to say that...

Thirdly, what is necessary and unforgettable for presenters to do is to address a thankful appreciation to the audience for listening, being there, or being engaged in the presentation by saying some of these kinds:

Thank you very much for your attention.

Thanks for participating in my presentation.

Lastly, presenters should provide the audience an opportunity to ask relevant questions or comment or open a discussion about doubtful points. When asking for queries, the presenters need to be very well-prepared intellectually and psychologically to transfer control to the audience and be able to respond any queries as experts. The presenters may take these to signal:

I'd be happy to answer any questions...

If there are any questions, please feel free to ask.

At this stage, all questions or comments are welcomed.

When dealing with difficult questions, the presenters need to make sure that they clearly understand the questions. If not, some strategies may be taken up to deal with the difficulties, for example, by repeating the questions in own words or asking the questioner to repeat. In answering, the presenters may delay the answer by asking for time or repeating the question by saying some of these:

Just a minute please. What is a...?

I'm glad you asked that question.

That's a good question/remark/point.

Can I answer that question later?

All in all, to deliver an effective presentation and at the same time a good image of the presenters or their organization, the presenters are required to carefully prepare and organize the content of the

presentation by opting for appropriate and accurate language use. Storz et al. (2002) makes a summary of a good rule of presentation structure as “announce what you are going to say, say it and finally, say what you have said.”

3. Features missing from Thai EFL Students’ Oral Presentations

In this section, the missing features of a typical classroom oral presentation of Thai EFL students—transcribed and analyzed using the Conversation Analysis (CA) methodology—are discussed in regard to the features of successful oral presentations delineated above. Excerpts of the classroom presentation examined here were taken from an average-rated group presentation of 11th-graders in the Science-Math program at Princess Chulabhorn’s College, Satun, Thailand. The students gave a 5-10 minute genuine group presentation on an environment-related topic as a requirement for the Foundation English III course offered in the first semester of the academic year 2012.

The presentation examined here was a genuine one, not a role-play simulation, which was part of regular classroom practice. It took place in a classroom in which the students who had known each other for at least one year were assigned to present to their classmates the cause-effect-solution dimension of a particular environmental issue which was part of the course contents. Given such context, the presentation should be delivered in a more casual style. However, this was missing from the typical classroom oral presentation of Thai EFL students examined here.

As can be seen in Excerpt (1) below, starting from the greeting sequence, lines 1-3, S1 chose to begin her talk formally by saying “good morning lady and gentleman”, distancing themselves from the classmates and not reflecting much closer relationship between them and the audience. In fact, in this case such a casual greeting as ‘OK, hello everyone’ should have sufficed.

(1)

- 1 S1: good morning lady and gentleman.
 2 S2: °good afternoon°.
 3 S1: oh, good afternoon lady and gentleman. We will present (0.1) soil pollution.

In the introduction, all the three speakers—S1, S2 and S3—also introduced themselves one by one in a formal style. As seen from lines 2-4 in Excerpt (2), a more casual self-introduction should be more appropriate for the context given the presenters and the audience know each other.

(2)

- 1 S1: oh, good afternoon lady and gentleman. We will present (0.1) soil pollution.
 2 My name is Onkanya Lempan.
 3 S2: My name is Kanokporn Kaewla.
 4 S3: My name is Natthawud Noopum.

Additionally, in the introduction instead of giving an outline to make it easier for the audience to follow the presentation, S1 in line 2 immediately made a weird shift from the introduction into the body by giving a command “listen”—which apparently sounds impolite, as can be seen in Excerpt (3).

(3)

- 1 S3: My name is Natthawud Noopum.
 2 S1: And now (0.1) listen.
 3 S3: Soil pollution. What is soil pollution? Soil pollution is a (0.1) result of many
 4 activities and experiments (0.1) done by [mankind] which end up contamina::ting the
 5 soil...

When starting the body sequence, the presenters employed no linking expressions or signposts, but resorted to topicalization and rhetorical questions. The immediate introduction of the topic led to the abrupt opening of the body sequence. Seen in Excerpt (4), S3 in line 1 used both topicalization and a rhetorical question as the start of the body sequence. The use of topicalization was apparently influenced by the native tongue which often allows focus structure with topicalization, whereas rhetorical questioning was likely picked up from the teacher talk.

(4)

1 S3: *Soil pollution. What is soil pollution?* Soil pollution is a (0.1) result of many
2 activities and experiments (0.2) done by [matkind] which end up contaminating the
3 soil. *First, industrial waste* (0.1) such as harmful gas and
4 chemical (0.4) agricultural [pesticides], fertilizer (0.1) and ...

Either one of these patterns was also found as a starter for the following body sequences, as can be seen in line 1 in Excerpts (5), (6) and (7).

(5)

1 S1: *And what are the effect of soil pollution?* The effect of pollution on soil are (0.1)
2 quite alarming and can cause [huge] disturbance in the ecological balance
3 and health of living creature (0.1) on earth. Some of the most ...

(6)

1 S2: *Prevention of land (0.1) pollution.* (0.2) *Land pollution is caused by* [soil (solid)]
2 waste like city waste, crop waste residues, and industrial waste like fly [ash],
3 [chemical] like fertilizers and pesticide and polythene bag. ...

(7)

1 S3: *Ways to resolve the land pollution issue (0.1) that we are face with now and in the*
2 *future* (0.2) are we believe that it is the responsible [thing] to do to [increase]
3 recycling. This takes only a [couple] minutes out of your week to separate ...

Apart from starting each point in the body sequences without any transitional signals, the closing of an existing sequence and the shift to a new sequence was not achieved by a transitional marker but the change of presenters, for example in Excerpt (8) showing the shift from S3 to S1.

(8)

1 S3 (0.2) technique, which are characterize by release of [sewage] into the
2 large dumping ground and [nearby] [streams] or river. (0.5)
3 S1: *And what are the effect of soil pollution?* The effect of pollution on soil are (0.1)
4 quite alarming and can cause [huge] disturbance in the ecological ...

Likewise, there occurred no internal previews in all the four major points discussed. As can be seen in, for instance, Excerpt (9), S3 in lines 1-3 introduced the definition of “soil pollution”, and started the following point “cause of pollution” without giving any preview of the causes he was going to address.

(9)

1 S3: *Soil pollution. What is soil pollution?* Soil pollution is a (0.1) result of many
2 activities and experiments (0.2) done by [matkind] which end up contaminating the
3 soil. *First, industrial waste* (0.1) such as harmful gas and
4 chemical (0.4) agricultural [pesticides], fertilizer (0.1) and [insecticides]
5 [are the most] (0.1) common cause of soil pollution. (0.3) Second,
6 ignorance toward soil [management] and relate system. (0.5) [Nek], unfavorable and
7 harmful [irrigation] practice. (0.2) Improper septic system ...

Similarly, internal summaries did not exist in all the four discussed points. The presenter, S1 in lines 1-4, for example, in Excerpt (10), still talked about small points of the soil pollution effects when she

came to the end of her part and then left the floor without summarizing what she had talked about, ending her part without a closing sequence.

(10)

- 1 S1 ... Soil pollutants would brings in alteration in the soil structure, which would lead
 2 to death of many essential organism (0.1) in it this would also effect (0.1) the larger
 3 (0.1) predators (0.1) and compel them to move to other place, [one (once)] they [lo:d
 4 (lose)] their food supply. (0.5)
 5 S2: Prevention of land (0.1) pollution. (0.2) E::r Land pollution is caused by ...

However, there were some signposts used to make a list of information. As can be seen in Excerpt (11), S3 listed the causes of soil pollution, making use of such signposts as “first”, “second”, “next”, and “last”.

(11)

- 1 S3 ... E::r cause of pollution. *First*, industrial waste (0.1) such as harmful gas and
 2 chemical (0.4) agricultural [pestisidase (pesticides)], fertilizer (0.1) and [insectisidase
 3 (insecticides)] are the most (0.1) common cause of soil pollution. (0.3) *Second*,
 4 ignorance toward soil [manadement] and relate system. (0.5) [*Nek*], unfavorable and
 5 harmful [airigation] practice. (0.2) Improper septic system (0.1) and [manadement]
 6 and (0.1) [metinen (maintenance)] of the same. (0.2) [*Likade* (Leakages)] from
 7 sanitary [seewade (sewage)]. (0.3) Acid rain, (0.2) when fume release from industry
 8 get mix with rains. (0.4) [*Fu:l*] [*likade* (leakages)] from [automobai] (0.1) that get
 9 wash away due to rain and seep into the [nebi (nearby)] soil. [*La:s*], unhealthy waste
 10 (0.1) [manadement] (0.2) technique, which are characterize by release of [seewade
 11 (sewage)] into the large dumping ground and [nebi (nearby)] [*steam* (streams)] or
 12 river. (0.5)

Regarding language style, the talk in the entire body sequence was formally delivered, and it was seemingly taken straight from a written text. As can be seen in Excerpt (12) below or in the other excerpts previously discussed, the speech contains features of passive voice and complex grammatical structure, and it was produced with little use of personal pronouns. Although there are some fragments or incomplete sentences used here, they were seemingly a copy of an entire list of the causes or effects of soil pollution taken from a written text. In the same excerpt, for instance, S1 talked about the effects of soil pollution, presenting them in a list starting from lines 3-18. The list contains eight subheadings shown in italics with few details explained, and there appears no connection between subheadings.

(12)

- 1 S1: And whats are the effect of soil pollution? The effect of pollution on soil are (0.1)
 2 quites alarming and cans cause [hug (huge)] disturbance in the ecological bala:nce
 3 and health of living creature (0.1) on earth. Some of the most (0.2) serious (0.1) soil
 4 pollution effect are: (1.0) first, *decrease* in soil [fertility] and therefore decrease in
 5 the soil yiel. (0.2) Second, *loss* of soil and natural nutrients present in it. Plants also
 6 (0.1) would not trive (0.1) in such soil, which would further result in soil [erosun
 7 (erosion)]. (0.4) [*Dis::disturban*] in the balance of flora and fauna (0.1) residing in
 8 the soil. *Increase* in salinity of the soil, [whit (which)] therefore make its unfits for
 9 [vettation (vegetation)], thus making its useless and barren. (0.2) Generally (0.1)
 10 crops cannot grow (0.1) and [flourit] in polluted soil. Yet if some crops manage to
 11 grow, they would be poisonous enough to cause serious health (0.1) problems (0.1) in
 12 people consuming them. (0.5) *Creation* of toxic dust is another potential effect of
 13 soil pollution. (0.2) [*Fo:l*] *smell* (0.1) due to industrial [shemicals] and gases (0.1)
 14 might result in [heads.ase (headaches)], [fa:tigiw (fatigue)], nausea, etc., in many
 15 people. *Soil pollutants* would brings in alteration in the soil structure, which would
 16 lead to death of many essential organism (0.1) in it this would also effect (0.1) the
 17 larger (0.1) predators (0.1) and compel them to move to other place, [one (once)]
 18 they [lo:d (lose)] their food supply. (0.5)

To close the presentation, the presenters only expressed their appreciation for the audience's presence without providing any summary or concluding remarks or even offering the audience a chance for questions or comments, as shown in Excerpt (13). Apparently, each responsible for their own parts, the presenters might find it challenging to draw a conclusion to the entire talk. Additionally, they might neither completely understand what has been presented nor feel comfortable dealing with the audience's questions or comments, thus not offering them the chance.

(13)

- 1 S3: ... While these machine are highly expensive; they are they are completely worth it.
 2 (0.1) These would clean (0.1) the world up (0.1) in no time, even just (0.1) having
 3 one in every state, or every [messy (guess)] major city would make (0.1) [they
 4 (their)] [would (world)] a better [plade]. Oka:::y
 5 S2: Thank you, teacher.
 6 S1: Thank you for your attention.

4. Concluding Remarks and Implications for Teachers

To sum up, this paper has examined the verbal features of successful oral presentations which are missing from a typical classroom oral presentation of Thai EFL students. It reveals problems both in language style and organization structure. The students apparently treated the presentation as a formal speech event, beginning their presentation with a formal greeting and self-introduction. This seemed to be influenced by the formal convention that they were used to when conducting a presentation in their native tongue and by the fact that they were not made aware of stylistic variation in language use in oral presentations in the target language.

Additionally, in terms of the organization structure, they did not give an outline of the talk and seldom used transitional markers when shifting from one main sequence—and/or a small point—to one another, marking the shift very often by speaker change and/or pauses. This made the presentation sound abrupt and to a certain degree lack unity and coherence. Some markers were also used inappropriately. The students apparently needed to be explicitly taught the use of devices to signal transition in talk to produce a more effective presentation.

When delivering each part of the body sequence, the students neither provided a preview nor a summary. Influenced by written language, the talk was apparently delivered verbatimly based on the texts they had researched, thereby sounding unnatural. To end the presentation, the students simply thanked the audience without giving a summary or concluding remarks or even offering a chance for questions or comments. Therefore, it appeared that as they still needed to be explicitly taught not only how to organize an effective presentation but also how to do research in preparation for an oral presentation. Researching and paraphrasing skills additionally needed be developed.

On a final note, it therefore appears to be necessary for these students to be provided courses explicitly teaching them oral academic presentation skills. To help them become more successful in higher education especially in an international context, teachers need to reconsider how to teach the students oral presentation skills such that they will be capable of delivering a more effective, appropriate oral presentation fitting demands of a particular context or speech event.

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PAPER 2

Language Use in Organizing Oral Presentations: A Comparative Study of
Thai EFL Learners and English-native Speakers

**LANGUAGE USE IN ORGANIZING ORAL PRESENTATIONS:
A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THAI EFL LEARNERS AND
ENGLISH-NATIVE SPEAKERS**

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ABSTRACT

This study aims at investigating English native speakers' and Thai EFL learners' language use in the organization of oral English presentations. The oral presentation transcripts of English-native students obtained from the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MiCASE) were compared with those of Thai high school students in Grade 11 at Princess Chulabhorn's College, Satun. This comparative study utilized the Conversation Analysis (CA) methodology in order to address the following questions: a) whether Thai EFL learners use the English language to organize their oral presentations differently from English-native students, and b) how the Thai learners' oral presentations are different from those of the native speakers. The analysis focused on the students' structuring oral presentations, their language style, and the flow of their presentations. Preliminary results revealed that Thai EFL learners and English-native students were more different than similar in the organization of their oral presentations. It was found that both groups oriented to the same external organization of the presentation, namely, introduction-body-conclusion, and could manage to deliver smooth flows of ideas. However, they differed in their language use in structuring each component, being strikingly different especially in the adopted language styles. English-native students frequently resorted to fillers and common discourse markers, making their speech sound more natural. The Thai learners, on the other hand, opted for more formal language despite addressing their classmates. The results suggested that the Thai EFL learners' language use in the oral presentation was greatly influenced by their mother tongue and by written English. The students had yet to be explicitly taught oral English presentation in order to master the language styles appropriate for the speech genre and the audience.

Keywords: Oral English presentation, language use, style, flow

INTRODUCTION

Oral presentations have increasingly become part of course requirements both at high school and university levels. Based on the Basic Education Core Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2008), all learning areas require high school students to orally display the knowledge gained from course assignments by means of either individual or group presentations. At the university level, courses such as English for Academic Purposes and English for Specific Purposes aim at equipping students with skills needed to succeed in giving academic and business presentations (Chou, 2011; Miles, 2009; Tsai, 2010; Yu & Cadman, 2009). In the fields of hard science such as science and engineering, undergraduates are required to deliver technical oral presentations in their second or third year of study (Radzuan & Kaur, 2011; Suwa, Miyahara, & Ishimatsu, 2012). Students therefore need to possess not only content or subject knowledge but also essential skills for giving successful presentations.

An effective presentation requires presenters to understand its purpose, know the audience, deliver smooth flow of ideas, and to master the proper organizational structure as well as language style of the presentation. It is necessary for presenters to use the strategies suiting the purpose and to make the audience feel engaged throughout the presentation (Grand, n.d.). A successful presentation needs to meet the expectation of the audience. Additionally, the ideas presented should be properly organized following a particular logical or chronological order, from general to specific, known to unknown, accepted to controversial, cause-effect, problem-solution, and the like (Storz et al., 2002). When delivering presentations, speakers should also use appropriate styles of verbal and nonverbal language and structure the presentations following a particular order, normally with an introduction, a body and a conclusion (Grand, n.d.; Storz et al., 2002; Williams, 2008).

Oral presentations often pose challenges to ESL or EFL learners due to a number of factors such as native language barriers, unfamiliarity with genre-related features of the target language, and lack of oral communication skills. When it comes to giving oral presentations in a non-native language, learners usually do not perform as well as in their mother tongue. Radzuan and Kaur (2011), for instance, found that lack of English language proficiency was a major source of anxiety in Undergraduate Research Project (URP) oral presentations among Malaysian engineering students. Zareva (2009) also revealed that in academic settings L2 presenters were so worried about the content that they excluded their peers from negotiating the information. This resulted in L2 presentations being constructed in a more formal way than L1 ones. Communication skills are also crucial for presenters to deliver a successful talk. The skills consist of a mixture of "... verbal, interpersonal and physical strategies needed to interact confidently and effectively with a range of audiences" (Griffith Institute for Higher Education, 2004). They are required for successful presentations and also for communication in general (Nakate, 2012).

To deliver effective presentations, learners need not only to understand the content but also to be trained in the structure and appropriate forms of the target language used in the organization of particular oral presentations. Suwa, Miyahara and Ishimatsu (2012) trained Malaysian Mechanical Engineering undergraduates to address technical presentations in Japanese using a number of techniques to improve their presentation skills through practice-discussion-modification cycle. Certain improvements of oral presentation delivery process were discovered. The students also found the presentation practice sessions useful.

Likewise, to help Thai EFL learners deliver a successful oral presentation, we as teachers should explore and familiarize the learners with the features of genuine oral presentations they need to master. In fact, there has been a dearth of research concerning the comparison of oral presentations of Thai EFL learners and English native speakers. Accordingly, the present study is designed to comparatively investigate the language use in the organization of oral presentations delivered by Thai EFL learners and English native students. The focus is placed on the external structural organization of oral presentations, the internal structure of the talk or the flow of ideas, and language styles. The data is analyzed using the Conversation Analysis (CA) methodology. The data collection and data analysis are based on the following questions:

- 1) Do Thai EFL learners use the English language to organize their oral presentation differently from English-native students?
- 2) If so, how are they different from the native speakers?

METHODOLOGY

Participants:

The participants of this qualitative study were 24 Grade-11 students who were studying a Science-Math program at Princess Chulabhorn's College, Satun (PCCST). The ages of the participants ranged from 16 – 17 years old. They were chosen to participate in this study primarily for two reasons. First, according to the previous teachers who had taught them in the previous academic year, the speaking ability of most of the students was somewhat poor but they were able to deliver better, more substantial English presentations than those in other classes of the school. This helped the researcher gain enough data for the analysis. Second, the students were enrolled in the Foundation English III course, which consisted of Listening and Speaking, Reading, and Writing sections. In the listening and speaking section, the students were required to give oral presentations once during the semester.

Data collection:

During the research implementation, the participants were randomly divided into eight groups of three students.

a) Thai EFL learners' oral presentations

All the groups were randomly given one of the following eight topics: air pollution, water pollution, soil pollution or contaminant, light pollution, littering, global climate change, flood and deforestation. They were also given the same three keywords—cause, effect and solution—as a guideline to prepare their presentations. Each group was assigned to give an in-class oral presentation within five to ten minutes. The presentations were videotaped and transcribed using the Conversation Analysis (CA) methodology, rendering eight excerpts for subsequent close analysis.

b) English native students' presentations

The other eight excerpts of native students' oral presentations were obtained from a corpus of native speakers' spoken English, namely, the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English, or MiCASE. The presentations examined were also given by groups of two to three students in the disciplines of science and social sciences; namely, community change, black media, Brazilian Studies and Second Language Acquisition.

Data analysis

The videotaped oral presentations of the Thai EFL learners were transcribed for close analysis. The learners' language use was compared with that of the English native students according to the following aspects: how they structure their oral presentations; what language styles they adopt; and how smooth the flow of their ideas is.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Based on the close comparative analysis, Thai EFL and English native students showed both differences and similarities in their language use in the organization of oral presentations.

External organization of oral presentations

Concerning the external organization, both groups oriented to the introduction-body-conclusion structure. However, they structured their introduction quite differently. In every excerpt, the Thai EFL learners organized the introduction which consisted of oft-formal greetings, topic announcement and self-introduction, but varied in the order of these components: the introductory sequence of half of the groups contained greeting, topic announcement and self-introduction while the other half delivered greeting, self-introduction and topic announcement.

As can be seen in Excerpt (1) below, Thai EFL learners often used a formal greeting to commence their presentation, shown from lines 1 to 3, thus distancing themselves from the audience and treating their presentation as being formal. In this instance, the formal greeting was additionally done through a repair sequence in which S2 initiated the repair in line 2 and S1 completed it in line 3, i.e., other-initiated self-repair (Chotirat & Sinwongsuwat, 2011). In line 4, after finishing the repair, S1 continued with introducing the topic of the presentation and stating her name. Her team members then introduced themselves one by one, in lines 5 and 6.

- (1)
- 1 S1: good morning lady and gentleman.
 2 S2: °good afternoon°.
 3 S1: → oh, good afternoon lady and gentleman.
 4 we will present (0.1) soil pollution. my name is Onkanya Lempan.
 5 S2: my name is Kanokporn Kaewla.
 6 S3: my name is Natthawud Noopum.

Only in one out of the eight instances examined, shown in (2), an informal greeting "hello" was produced by the Thai student when addressing their friends whereas a formal one was used to address the teacher, thus creating social distance and constructing different social roles between teacher and student.

- (2)
- 1 S1: good afternoon teacher and hello my friends. my name is Thawin Sansiri.

After the greeting, the introduction of team members was found only in one instance, as in (3). In the rest of the excerpts examined, the Thai students each introduced themselves before their own talk.

(3)

- 1 S1: good afternoon everyone, we are Wanlika Kalawan, Peewara Chaiyachart,
2 and i Sirasit Laopetchsakulchai

English native students, on the other hand, appeared to be more diverse in structuring the introduction sequence and gave a more laconic introduction. Instead of greeting, they sought the audience's alignment with a discourse marker and got right to the topic with a brief, casual self-introduction. As shown in (4), the English native student, S2, used the discourse marker "okay" to seek alignment with the audience and welcomed them to the presentation. The speaker also introduced only herself and started outlining the presentation.

(4)

- 1 S2: *okay*. um, we would like to welcome everybody to the unveiling, of the
2 new Freedomways two.
3 SS: ((applause))
4 S2: and i'm Whitney Jones, the editor of the new paper, and um i would like to
5 give you a brief history of what Freedomways is about because we today
6 are taking on the same, aim that they had in the past.

In fact, a greeting was found only in one of the eight presentations examined. As shown in (5), the English native student opted for a relatively informal greeting "hello" and sought the audience's alignment with the topic of the presentation through related questions.

(5)

- 1 S12: *hello everybody*. um how many of, you have heard of Ruby Dee?
2 oh really that's it?
3 okay um, how many of, you have seen Do the Right Thing? Jungle Fever?
4 and more recently Baby Geniuses?

Group member introduction was found only in three excerpts. As can be seen in (6), the English native student, S 3, gave a quick introduction of the presentation and introduced the team members through a photo presentation as in lines 11-13.

(6)

- 1 S3: i'm just gonna give a quick introduction, to our web page um, i'm sure most
2 of you, if not all of you have uh, taken a moment to check it out. right here
3 with the soccer guy we have um, World Cup Soccer team it gives a nice
4 page layout of uh, the Brazilian uh, Men's Soccer Team.
5 [SU-f: ooh] uh thank you.
. .
11 and that's about it. and uh, down below we have the pictures of our group.
12 there's Bruce, Carol, myself, and, Anita.

Found in the other two instances, unlike Thai students, self-introduction in the native students' presentations, however, was seemingly made in order that the audience, their classmates, could put the presenters' names on the peer assessment sheets, being part of the class procedure rather than a routine practice of the presentation, as in (7).

(7)

- 1 S3: okay, so you guys can put our names on the sheet my name's Lindsay
 2 S4: i'm Mir-Soo, M I R S O O
 3 S5: i'm Kelly (0.7)
 4 S4: um well thank you for being present for our presentation and um, um our
 5 project is about, is a combination of cross-sectional, studies and
 6 pragmatics, and well through this class we all know that there are, excuse
 7 me, there are many kinds of speech acts such as uh requests, complaints di-
 8 disagreements apologies corrections and refusals. and what we're gonna do
 9 today is about refusals. and uh just to let you know what kin- what kind of
 10 studies there have, been, um, till, now, ...

Discovered in one instance of the English native students' presentations, the audience was engaged in an activity to activate their background knowledge, allowing them to think about the topic before starting the actual presentation, shown in (8). This strategy was not found in the Thai students' presentations.

(8)

- 1 S1: um first we'd like to start with a little activity a little class participation,
 2 um, what i want you to do is to, build ...

Unlike the Thai students, English native students were additionally found to outline their presentation in the introduction sequence, telling the audience which topic each member is dealing with, as shown not only in Excerpt (7) but also in (9). This however was not found in the Thai students' presentation.

(9)

- 1 S3: and, in the central paragraph it just explains briefly um, just the types of uh,
 2 categories we're gonna, talk about so, that's about it. and uh, i i kinda
 3 wanna stay away from this cuz i may be wrong but, Bruce's gonna talk
 4 about police brutality, Carol's gonna talk about um, kinda the political,
 5 aspects, of Brazil, i'm gonna talk about health care issues in Brazil, and
 6 Anita, is going to talk about [human rights, excellent]=
 7 S5: [human rights]
 8 S3: =so that's uh, that's the intro.
 9 S4: alright. uh. ((reading throughout utterance)) seven thousand four hundred
 10 ninety-one kilometers of coastline...

The English native students also employed signposts to make transition from the introductory sequence to the body. As shown in line 7, S3 marks the end of the introduction with "so that's uh, that's the intro." S4 ratifies the end with the signpost "alright" followed by the filler "uh," indicating the speaker's taking the turn.

Moving from the introduction to the body sequence, in four excerpts, the Thai students, however, abruptly began the body sequence, using rhetorical questions, topicalization, or inappropriate transition markers. As previously shown in Excerpt (1), repeated below in (10), S1, in line 7, called the audience's attention using "listen", seemingly giving a command, and S3 in line 8 used both topicalization and rhetorical questions as the start of the body.

- (10)
 3 S1: oh, good afternoon lady and gentleman.
 4 we will present (0.1) soil pollution. my name is Onkanya Lempan.
 5 S2: my name is Kanokporn Kaewla.
 6 S3: my name is Natthawud Noopum.
 7 S1: and now (0.1) *listen*.
 8 S3: *soil pollution. what is soil pollution?* soil pollution is a (0.1) result of
 9 many activities and experiments (0.2) done by [matkind] which end up
 10 contaminating the soil.

Expressions such as “let’s go” and “go”, not found in the native students’ presentations, were also utilized to signal getting into the body sequence, as shown in Excerpts (11) line 4 and (12) line 6.

- (11)
 1 S1: good afternoon teacher and hello my friends. my name is Thawin Sansiri.
 2 S2: my name is Pattiya Detchanin.
 3 S3: my name is Kalantaka Hiranpijit.
 4 S1: uh, we are presents [deforedtations]. (0.2) *let’s go*. (0.2) in present (0.1)
 5 increase of people (0.2) effect to [deforedtation] (0.1) because (0.2) all
 6 human uh want to making house. so deforestation is uh popular problem...

- (12)
 1 S1: good morning teacher and my friends. we are uh we will present global
 2 climate change. rao kaun mai?((tr.:me first?)) my name is Maharoh
 3 Pimpraphan.
 4 S2: my name is Panchanit Eiwsakun.
 5 S3: my name is Napassorn Tansakun.
 6 S1: *ah, go*. our plan.
 7 S2: Maharoh (
 8 S1: rao kaun rao kaun((tr.:me first, me first)) our planet is surrounded uh by a
 9 blanket of gas and uh keeps the earth warm...

In the body sequence of the Thais’ presentations, verbal signposts or transition markers were hardly used. The transition between body sequences was mainly signaled by the change of speakers. And the succeeding presenter mostly introduced new ideas through topicalization and rhetorical questions. As can be seen in Excerpt (13), S1 immediately abandoned the floor without any verbal signposts but a long pause, and S2 started the next topic via topicalization in line 3.

- (13)
 1 S1: ...this would also effect (0.1) the larger (0.1) predators (0.2) and compel
 2 them to move to other place, one ((once)) they [lo:d] their food supply. (1.0)
 3 S2: → prevention of land (0.1) pollution. (0.3) u:h land pollution is caused by
 4 soil ((solid)) waste like city waste, crop ^owaste residues^o, and industrial
 5 waste like fly a:t ((ash)), [shemical] like fer uh fertilizers and pesticide and
 6 polytene bags...

S3 in Excerpt (14), on the other hand, chose rhetorical questions to start her part while in Excerpt (15) began her part immediately with neither topicalization nor rhetorical questions.

(14)

1 S2: ...the heat (0.1) that is [relea:set] in the water has negative effect on all (.)
2 life in the reving((receiving)) surface water. it is the kind of the pollution
3 that is commonly known as heat pollution or thermal pollution. (1.0)
4 S3: → what is eutrophications, what cause it and what are dangers?
5 eutrophication mean natural (.) nutrient (0.2) enrichment of streams and
6 la:ks((lakes)). the enrichment is often increased by human activities, such
7 as ang (0.1) agriculture...

(15)

1 S1: ... animal may mistake the item of litter (0.1) floating in te((the)) water as
2 food and could choke on them or (0.1) they may get entering((entangled))
3 in it. (1.0)
4 S3: → litter can be very dirty. not only does it not look nice but it may carry
5 germs. some animals (0.1) are attract to area with lots of litter. they find
6 their food among (0.1) the trat((trash)) and can pick up (0.1) the germs...

Only one Thai presenter, S1 in Excerpt (16), used a discourse marker to mark a shift from her friend's talk to her own after a long pause.

(16)

1 S2: ... everything from food to cloth (.) clothes, and computers to carpet use
2 energy when it is pro(.)duk((produced)) and transport, causing carbon
3 emission to be released.
4 (1.0)
5 S1: → next, the effect of climate (0.1) change. even if no more fossil fuels were
6 burned, or trees (.) cut down, the world's climate would still warm in years
7 to come (0.1)

Unlike the Thai students, who often signaled the ending of their part with a long pause, the English native students frequently employed signposts to do so. For instance, in line 4 in Excerpt (17), while S15 is yielding the floor, indicated by the utterance "of Generations" in low voice, S14 initiates her part with the signpost "as far as our plan goes." in line 5.

(17)

1 S15: ... so. and our last weakness um of the agency was the high turnover rate
2 for tutors and mentors, and also with the interns. you know they're only
3 there for a semester and then they leave. so, that's what we found um, for
4 the strengths and weaknesses (of Generations.)
5 S14: as far as our plan goes.
6 S13: mhm
7 SU-f: right
8 S14: as far as you know anything, [that would be like a block, to our plan. um=
9 SU-f: [right]
10 S14: = so we did meet with Joanie last night,

Additionally, taking the audience's questions or comments during the presentations also frequently occurred in the English native students' presentations, as can be seen in (18). In line 6, S20 welcomed questions from a member of the audience, S24, to which S20's group

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members help provide the answers, as seen in lines 7-8. This was not found at all in Thai students' presentations.

(18)

- 1 S20: ... so, that's kind of a description of it, and it would be a non-equivalent
2 comparative program component um group design. so, that's the way it's
3 established right now. um, and that's the, the evaluation part. so, that's
4 really pretty much, the gist of the presentation uh, Joe has a question
5 then we'll go for more.
6 S24: um, when did you say the funding ends for this? sor-
7 S22: in two years
8 S23: yeah, in two thousand two two thousand three.

In the conclusion part, the Thai learners ended their presentations without providing any summary or remarks but simply thanked the audience immediately. They offered no chance for the audience to ask questions and give comments, as in Excerpt (19).

(19)

- 1 S3: ...and upright also avoid over lighting where possible. thank you very
2 much.
3 S1: thank you very much.

One group of the Thai learners even abruptly ended their presentation without signaling, shown in Excerpt (20).

(20)

- 1 S3: ...is commonly (.) know as lime deposit. it can be removed by using, a
2 speciffally((specially)) sut((suited)) cleaning agent.

English native students, on the other hand, normally ended their presentations by asking for questions or suggestions from the audience and the class discussion started afterwards. As can be seen in lines 3-4 in Excerpt (21), S1 elicits questions from the audience about the group project just presented and a question is asked in lines 5-6, after which the answers are given.

(21)

- 1 S1: ... um, and each agency knows and supports us in that we're talking to
2 other, agencies that share the concern about parents who are also students.
3 so. do you guys have any questions about our project or what we're doing?
4 mhm?
5 SU-f: is it for (.) are you targeting everybody or um, graduate students or
6 undergrads? i didn't hear what you said
7 S1: both
8 SU-f: both.
9 S1: everybody.

Besides eliciting questions in the conclusion, the English native presenters also occasionally raised questions for the audience to think about and discuss, as in lines 1-7 in (22).

(22)

- 1 S3: and, so a question that i really want you guys to think about, is do you
2 think these issues, or the issues that they faced then, are they still
3 problematic today? and, in the article that i'm writing, or that i wrote it's
4 about, whether or not in particular, the voting rights, is it still at issue
5 today? or is it still problematic today? so if you, hm?
6 SU-f: (
7 S3: yeah. so, if you think that this is still a, a problem today, i want you to, um

Internal organization of oral presentations

Pertaining to the internal organization, both Thai EFL learners and English native students could maintain a smooth flow of ideas, but they differed in language style.

a) Flow of ideas

The Thai EFL learners logically sequenced their ideas based on the keywords given – cause, effect, and solution. Before the three main ideas, they gave a definition of the topic, and a few of them provided contextual information of the topic given, apparently influenced by written English and the structural organization of an essay. Most of them did not conclude the presentation with restatement or summarization but with immediate expression of gratitude. Lastly, they neither raised nor elicited questions or comments from the audience.

Likewise, in terms of ideas, the English native students also logically sequenced their presentations – from general to specific. Brief introductions as well as definitions of main words or issues were conveyed at the beginning of their presentations. However, different from the Thai students, all questions were welcomed from the audience not only at the end but also during the presentations.

b) Language style

Considering that the presentations were conducted orally, the language used should be the informal standard variety of English rather than the written variety. Most of the Thais, i.e., 18 of 24 students, however delivered their presentations quite formally, opting for written English, seemingly copied from online-distributed information. As can be seen in Excerpt (23) below, the speech contains features of written language such as the use of passive voice and grammatically complex sentences.

(23)

- 1 S1: ...our planet is surrounded uh by a blanket of gas and uh keeps the earth
2 warm and make it able to sustain life. this is getting thicker as increasing
3 (0.1) amount of greenhouse (0.1) gas a are released by burning fossil
4 fuel for energy and transport, trapping (0.1) in heat. as a result our climate
5 (0.1) our climate is starting to change.

Although some fillers such as “uh” were sometimes used to help smoothen the speech, they often appeared because of the presenter's having difficulties reading the content on PowerPoint slideshows. Moreover, a number of mispronunciations were noticeable, making their speech sound unnatural, disruptive and incomprehensible.

Only one-fourth of the Thai students opted for more casual language styles, not reading the text and using fillers and discourse markers. However, no contractions were found, and their speech contained grammatical errors and misuse of words, as shown in Excerpt (24).

(24)

- 1 S1: in present (0.1) increase of people (0.2) effect to [deforestation] (0.1)
 2 because (0.1) all human uh want to making house. so deforestation is uh
 3 popular problem, but not one case((cause)). um in face((fact)),
 4 case((cause)) of deforestations there are many reason. such building dam
 5 (0.2) in Thai (0.1) "kheun". um, building dam for save water.

Conversely, the English native students typically selected unceremonious language styles with a lot of contractions such as "i'm", "gonna", and they also resorted to fillers and discourse markers. These make their speech more natural, informal and mostly interactive.

CONCLUSION

This paper has closely examined language use in the organization of oral presentations of Thai EFL and English native students. It reveals differences and similarities in both external and internal organization of the oral presentations. Even though both groups oriented to the same external organization of an introduction-body-closing sequence, they varied in the ways they structured each part of the presentation. Unlike English-native students, the Thai ones often began their oral presentations with formal greetings and one-by-one self-introduction. They introduced the topic of the presentation without giving any outline of the talk and employed no techniques to arouse audience interest. Neither did they try to activate the audience's background knowledge of the talk. When making transition from one main sequence to another, they also hardly used signposts or transition markers, the transition being marked very often by a long pause and speaker change. Although sometimes used, the transition markers were not appropriate.

Additionally, different from native students, they often employed rhetorical questions and topicalization in making a transition from the introduction to the body sequence or from one body sequence to another. And during their presentations, they never allowed questions or comments from the audience. The Thai learners ended their presentations without any summary or remarks. They simply thanked the audience and offered no chance for questions or comments.

As far as the internal organization of the oral presentations is concerned, both the English native students and the Thai learners were able to logically organize their presentations; however, they differed in the style of language use. Besides pronunciation and grammatical errors, wrong word choice, as well as the absence of appropriate transition markers, the Thai learners mostly delivered more formal presentations than the native speakers, exhibiting features of written language.

The differences in language use between the Thai learners and the native students apparently owed largely to the current stage of their L2 acquisition or language barriers, the lack of explicit teaching on language use in structuring effective oral presentations, and little exposure to authentic oral presentations in the target language.

IMPLICATIONS FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING

The findings of the study carry important implications for EFL classroom teaching, particularly for teachers teaching listening and speaking or communication courses. Thai learners should be explicitly taught how to deliver effective oral presentations. The awareness of language use and language style should also be a focus in classroom teaching. Lastly, the provision of authentic oral English presentation as a learning example will be very helpful for the Thai learners to acquire the appropriate language use in structuring their presentation.

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APPENDIX

Conversation-analytic transcript symbols

[Point of overlap onset
]	Point of overlap termination
=	(a) Turn continues below, at the next identical symbol (b) If inserted at the end of one speaker's adjacent turn, indicates that there is no gap at all between the two turns (c) Indicates that there is no interval between adjacent utterances
(0.5)	Numbers in parentheses indicate silence, represented in tenths of seconds; what is given here indicates 0.5 second of silence
(.)	A dot in parentheses indicates a "micropause", hearable but not readily measurable; ordinarily less than 0.2 second
<u>word</u>	Speaker emphasis
-	A hyphen after a word or part of a word indicates a cut-off or self-interruption
.	Indicates a falling, or final, intonation contour, not necessarily the end of a sentence
,	Low-rising intonation, suggesting continuation
?	Rising intonation, not necessarily a question
!	Animated or emphatic tone
°word°	Utterances between degree signs are quieter than surrounding talk
wo:rd	Colons show that the speaker has stretched the preceding sound
<i>ja</i> ((tr.: yes))	Non-English words are italicized and followed by and English translation in double parentheses
(guess)	Indicates the transcriber's doubt about a word
(())	Indicates transcriber's description
[gibee]	In the case of <i>inaccurate</i> pronunciation of an English word, an approximation of the sound is given in square brackets
→	Mark features of special interest

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