A COMPARISON OF AUTHORIAL STANCES IN SPEECH GENRES: A CORPUS-BASED STUDY

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ABSTRACT

Title of Thesis	**A Comparison of Authorial Stances in Speech Genres: A Corpus-based Study**
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Corpus-based studies have grown in popularity among researchers, especially those in the linguistic fields (Conrad, 1999). Given this emphasis, a corpus-based analysis on authorial stances in speech genres has been employed.

This study explored the use of authorial stances among Thai undergraduate students enrolled in a Public Speaking class in an international university in Thailand. Authorial stances were compared between speech genres and between the gender of the speakers. The speeches delivered in class were videotaped and transcribed into plain text formats to create the corpus of the study. A freeware program called AntConc and a statistical analyzing program called PASW were then employed to investigate the authorial stances in the corpus.

Results revealed that all four types of authorial stances concerned in the study were present in the corpus. The self-mention "I" was the most frequently used, whereas attitude markers were the least employed overall.

Differences did exist between genders, but none was statistically significant. However, differences did exist between speech genres, with booster adverbs and hedge modal verbs being statistically significant. Lastly, differences did exist between rounds of the speech, with booster adverbs, hedge verbs, and possessive self-mentions being statistically significant.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Statement of the Research Problem

English public speaking skills are essential and need to be promoted among Thai students. Researchers have claimed that such skills benefit students in their academic studies and, as employers tend to expect their potential employees to possess these skills, are vital to their future careers (Boyce, Alber-Morgan & Riley, 2007; Hefferin, 1997 as cited in Johnson, 2012). Despite the considerable amount of effort devoted to the teaching and learning of English skills, there has been restricted success among students in Thailand (Hayes, 2014). It is then important to address the issue of how English skills, public speaking in particular, are taught and fostered. The traditional methods tend to focus mainly on 'what to say' or 'what should be said', and the order in which each element should appear in the speech. Students are taught the techniques of how to begin and end a speech effectively so that the speech leaves an impact on the listeners. Further, attention is also paid to the use of certain discourse markers and phrases that render the speech its fluency, such as signposts (e.g., first, second, finally), internal preview (e.g., we will discuss, next we will talk about), and internal summary (e.g., so far we have discussed, now that we have learned). Regardless of these aspects addressed in public speaking teaching, students are unaware of the authorial stances they use subconsciously when delivering a speech. Once the students are introduced to these linguistic items to the extent that they can use them strategically, it might impact the way speeches are written and delivered.

Moreover, corpus-based studies have grown in popularity among researchers, especially those in the linguistic fields. These studies may shed light on how language instructors should design the appropriate tools for instructions (Conrad, 1999). Given this emphasis, a corpus-based analysis on authorial stances in speech genres is needed.

1.2 Rationale of the Study

It is widely accepted that communicative skills are vital in the present world. Public speaking and speech delivery are two of the many crucial skills required to be able to effectively communicate. Given an increasingly globalized world where English is essential in business, it is fairly important that one is able to effectively deliver a speech in English. Such skills need to be fostered through teaching and learning strategies. Ideally, Thai students, especially at the undergraduate level, are taught primarily on the basis of how to construct an effective speech based on theories presented. However, as earlier noted, there has been little attention on addressing the linguistic items of authorial stances as part of the teaching curriculum. This also implies that little attention has been paid to authorial stances in speech genres.

1.3 Significance of the Study

With the stated problem, this present study will be helpful in promoting the awareness of authorial stances among undergraduate speech givers. It will introduce such concepts to the students and highlight the effect authorial stances have on a particular speech. Moreover, given the aim of this study to address authorial stances in both informative and persuasive speech genres, it will be beneficial to students in terms of how they construct and organize their speech. In turn, instructors of related subjects may advance this knowledge in future curriculum development. Also, there might be a significant difference when authorial stances are employed more strategically.

1.4 Background of the Study

Generally, an informative speech's main goal is to 'inform' or 'instruct' as to how something is done or happens, rather than suggesting what should be done (Lucas, 2001). Its persuasive counterpart, on the contrary, aims at creating persuasive effects on the hearers or message receivers. By definition, persuasion is defined as the ability

to either change other's perspectives or foster one's own perspective into the mind of others (Austin, 1962; Brock & Green, 2005 as cited in Kołodziejczyk & Bosacki, 2014).

Empirical evidence has shown that attention has been paid to persuasive discourse (e.g., Gayle, 2004; Kamalski, Lentz, Sanders, & Zwaan, 2014; Risselada & Spooren, 1998; Wei, 2011), with, to the author's best knowledge, very few studies devoted to informative speech. An assertion can be made here that, because informative speech primarily informs, it requires no action from the hearers or message receivers. Therefore, there are fewer issues as to how research can be conducted, when compared to that of the persuasive speech.

A considerable number of studies have investigated authorial stances in an academic context. According to Hyland (2005), authors express themselves, their judgments, and commitments to a particular topic, establish authority or hide involvements through the use of so-called authorial stances. Stances are therefore divided into four main categories: boosters, hedges, attitude markers, and self-mentions.

Certain studies have been conducted in devotion to the use of stance in the written discourse (e.g., Aull & Lancaster, 2014; Chang & Schleppegrell, 2011; Hyland, 2001; Tang & John, 1999). However, in the sphere of spoken discourse, stances are often investigated under the concept of self-mentions. For instance, the pronoun 'we' was examined in the Michigan Corpus of Spoken Academic English (Fortanet, 2004), and pronouns employed to create a speaker's stance in Javanese (Manns, 2012).

Researchers have also addressed self-mentions in the form of a pronoun adjacent to another stance type, for example, self-mention hedges (Aull & Lancaster, 2014), the self-repair functions of 'I mean' (Fernández-Polo, 2014), and the stance-taking in arguments of blog discussions (Myers, 2010)

Noteworthy is the study conducted by Biber in 2006. In that particular study, authorial stances were examined comparatively in a university written and spoken register. It was revealed that stances were far more common in the spoken academic register, compared to that of the written counterpart. The results here are understandable, due to the nature of speech whereby one tends to address oneself.

In the Thai context, few studies have addressed the issue of authorial stances in the spoken context. It can, however, be illustrated by the study conducted by

Sukhanindr (2008). The study, though conducted from a written academic discourse perspective, has contributed to the pool of academic knowledge by revealing that Thai authors tend to hedge less than English native speaker authors. She linked this result to the educational system in Thailand that results in the knowledge of lexical choices among the Thai authors being limited. Further investigation is needed to determine whether or not this assertion holds true to speech related context in Thailand.

Other related studies in the literature include stances in classrooms contexts (Lee & Subtirelu, 2015), epistemic stances in classroom discussions (Kirkham, 2011), as well as gender-based analysis of speech in public contexts (Baxter, 2002).

Despite the considerable research that has been devoted to authorial stances and their related implications, rather less attention has been paid to the use of authorial stances in a public speaking classroom's speech genres, specifically at the Thai undergraduate study level. Further, their relations to speech constructions and organizations have not been fully addressed.

1.5 Purposes of the Study

By employing the model on Hyland's (2005) authorial stances, this present study is therefore designed to address the issues of authorial stances in relation to the Thai undergraduate classroom's public speech genres. It will examine to what extent Thai undergraduate students used authorial stances in their speech delivered in a classroom setting. Additionally, the study also aims to explore the difference, if any, of different genders' use of authorial stances in speeches. Further analysis on which gender is a more effective speech giver is to be analyzed with connections to the authorial stances. The specific objectives of the present paper are as follows:

1) To explore the types of authorial stance used in informative and persuasive speeches delivered in an undergraduate classroom setting of a public speaking class

2) To determine whether there are any differences in the use of authorial stances between male and female undergraduate students, as well as between the first and second presentations

1.6 Research Questions

In accordance with the objectives of the present study, the following research questions are addressed:

RQ1: What are the types of authorial stances found in informative and persuasive speeches delivered in an undergraduate level public speaking class? What are the functions of each type?

RQ2: What are the most frequently used stance types and the most frequently used linguistic item of each type in the informative and persuasive speech genres?

RQ3: Do differences in the use of authorial stances exist between female and male undergraduate students in informative and persuasive speeches?

RQ4**:** Do differences in the use of authorial stances exist between the first and second informative and persuasive speeches?

1.7 Hypotheses

Additionally, the paper also tests three hypotheses:

H1: There is no significant difference in the use of authorial stances among female and male undergraduate students.

H2: There is no significant difference in the use of authorial stance markers found in informative and persuasive speech.

H3: There is no significant difference in the use of authorial stances in the first and second speech of both informative and persuasive genres.

1.8 Assumptions

There are primarily three set assumptions. First, in this paper, it is assumed that, as earlier noted, the English proficiency level of the third and fourth year undergraduate students who are the subjects of the study are at comparable degree, given that the pre-requisite for this particular course is English IV.

Moreover, because authorial stances have not been addressed or discussed with the undergraduate students prior to their speech preparation, the present study assumed that any occurrences of authorial stance devices in the corpus are employed subconsciously.

Further, the speeches delivered in this particular course are not impromptu, but rather prepared ones. This means that students could have, though not compulsory, written their entire speeches prior to delivering them in front of the class, which is typical for any prepared public speech. The speech delivery, however, allows no scripts to be read, and therefore requires the speech to be spoken from memory. It is then assumed here that the corpora collected for this study are of spoken context and not written.

1.9 Limitations

Due to the nature of an international university, the Public Speaking course concerned in this investigation is not restricted to only the Thai students. Students from a variety of nationalities may have enrolled in this particular course. However, the proportions are considerably unequal, i.e., most students are Thai, and foreign students are mainly Chinese. The author is aware that this investigation is not limited to the comparisons between genders alone as nationalities can also be put into consideration. However, since gender is already the main comparison in this study, other nationalities besides Thai cannot be included. The reason is because the majority of the foreign students are Chinese, and the speeches delivered by the Chinese students available to the author are mainly female. Owing to this unbalanced proportion of the gender of the speakers, only Thai students have been selected for the corpus of this study.

1.10 Definitions of Terms

To avoid any future confusions and ambiguities, the author has provided the operational definitions of terms concerning this present study as follows:

Speech Genres: This generalized plural form refers to the two types of speech delivered in the corpora, i.e., informative and persuasive.

Public Speaking Course: In this paper, this term refers to the particular course taught to Business English undergraduate students in the School of Arts, at an international university in Thailand.

Students: In this paper, ‘students’ refer to the Thai third and fourth year undergraduate students enrolled in a Public Speaking Course at an international university in Thailand.

Authorial Stances: Any linguistic items that allow the speakers to position themselves in the discourse: In this paper, there are four types of such linguistic item as defined by Hyland (2005):

1) Booster: a linguistic item signifying confidence, authority, and certainty.

2) Hedge: a linguistic item conveying doubt, uncertainty, and lack of commitment.

3) Attitude Marker: a linguistic item expressing attitude, evaluation, and assessment.

4) Self-Mention: a linguistic item the author/speaker uses to address oneself.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter, the author intends to review theoretical frameworks and previous studies. In order to be able to effectively investigate authorial stances found in the informative and persuasive speech genres, it is appropriate to explore the theories and previous studies concerning how authorial stances are defined, as well as some theories on public speaking and speeches. These issues, especially ones on authorial stances and the persuasiveness of a spoken academic discourse, have been widely investigated throughout the literature, as will be discussed in the following section.

2.1 Some Theories on Public Speaking and the Genres of Speech

In this present study, two genres of speech within the public speaking course in question will be considered, namely informative and persuasive.

2.1.1 Persuasive Discourse

Certain researchers have addressed the issue of persuasiveness in various contexts, for instance persuasive messages in social media (Teng, Khong, & Goh, 2014), Persuasive Effects of Framing Messages on Fruit and Vegetables Consumption, *(*Dijkstra, Rothman, & Pietersma, 2011*),* and Children*'*s Understanding of Characters*'* Beliefs in Persuasive Arguments (Kołodziejczyk & Bosacki, 2014).

In addition, persuasion is defined as the ability to alter other people's beliefs or to strengthen one's own perspectives in the mind of others (Austin, 1962; Brock & Green, 2005 as cited in Kołodziejczyk & Bosacki, 2014). It includes actions through messages that can influence the attitude and behavior in a communication setting (Teng et al., 2014). Though it was taught in the public speaking class that citing notable or credible sources can reinforce persuasiveness in the speech, Sternthal, Dholakia and

Leaviit, (1978, as cited in Teng et al., 2014) asserted that certain highly credible sources could, reversely, eliminate the persuasiveness under specific conditions.

According to Aristotle, there are three elements essential to the effectiveness of persuasiveness, which are ethos, pathos, and logos (as cited in Triadafilopoulos, 1999, p. 745). To elaborate, ethos refers to the speakers' character, pathos is the emotions of the audience, and logos is the rationality of the argument presented in the speech. Aristotle once noted (ibid.):

> It is not true, as some writers assume in their treatises on rhetoric, that the personal goodness revealed by the speaker contributes nothing to his power of persuasion; on the contrary, his character may almost be called the most effective means of persuasion he possesses. Secondly, persuasion may come through the hearers, when the speech stirs their emotions. . . Thirdly, persuasion is effected through the speech itself when we have proved a truth or an apparent truth by means of persuasive argument suitable to the case in question.

Relating the theory of persuasion to the current public speaking course at university level, persuasive speech is regarded as one of the general purposes a speech giver may choose to implement. Ethos, pathos, and logos as noted above are the main elements most textbooks on public speaking have adopted to instruct how to write a persuasive speech.

2.1.2 Some Theories and Models of Persuasion

In addition to the main elements of persuasion proposed by Aristotle as noted above, there are a number of persuasive theories that are still active and applied in the present contexts. In the Practitioner's Guide to Persuasion, Cameron (2009) summarized certain useful theories on persuasion, four of which are presented here: the elaboration likelihood model of persuasion (ELM), the heuristic-systematic model of persuasion (HSM), the social judgment theory (SJT), and the consistency theory.

The ELM model claims that in the attempt to create persuasiveness, two processing methods happen inside the cognitive thinking of the message receivers. Firstly, ‘central processing’ usually occurs when the message receiver is motivated and can evaluate the message quality carefully; in other words, the message receiver engages in so-called systematic thinking. Secondly, elaboration tends to be relatively low in the ‘peripheral processing’ when the message receiver undertakes a cognitive shortcut in evaluating the message. For example, the receiver may ask a mental question whether or not the information received was claimed by a credible source.

Next, according to the HSM model, message receivers form judgments whether the information is strong or weak based on credibility, attractiveness, and length of the message received. The implications of this model include the application of persuasive discourse on risk-related issues, such as eating contaminated fish, that often induces fear in the message receiver.

Furthermore, the SJT focuses on the extent to which a message agrees or disagrees with the receiver’s current attitudes towards that particular topic. For instance, if the message conforms to what the receiver believes, then the message is more likely to be accepted. This also means that the level of persuasiveness is expected to increase. The opposite is true when the message disagrees to the receiver’s belief.

Lastly, the consistency theory suggests that we, as human beings, tend to change our attitudes or behaviors when our thoughts are inconsistent with them. Psychologically, we tend to be motivated to change because cognitively, inconsistency is uncomfortable.

2.1.3 Studies Investigating Persuasive Discourse

In 2004, Gayle conducted a research study on the attitude change among the speakers and the listeners on a controversial topic such as ‘cloning’, ‘drug testing’, ‘same sex marriage’, and ‘illegal aliens’. The findings revealed that the majority of the listeners did not change their original attitude towards these topics; it was, however, the speakers themselves who mostly changed theirs. This study argues that it may be due to the involvement the speakers put into preparing the speech that caused the attitude alterations.

Though these findings may seem irrelevant to the present study, there are practical aspects that can be considered. Drawn from the study, there are four categories of why speakers display such change in attitudes: (a) citing a particular piece of information from their own presentations, (b) citing proof from someone else's experiences, (c) comparing their own experiences with the new information they have researched, and (d) citing political ramifications involved. In light of these findings, it may be assumed that citing one's own and others' experiences could cause a persuasive effect. The public speaking course in this present study also put citing personal experience along with that from a notable source in the teaching pedagogy as a means to create a level of persuasiveness. This may have some connections, and it will be explored further in this study how authorial stances are linked to speeches in persuasive genre.

The issues on pragmatic markers have also been examined by Wei (2011). Pragmatic markers are, typically limited to the spoken discourse definition, defined as linguistic devices that allow speakers to monitor their social engagement and their interpretation process of the listener they are addressing in a spoken discourse (ibid.). These markers, or so-called discourse signposts, are powerful signaling devices that significantly help the listeners to reach a better understanding of different moves in the conversation. In this particular research, analyses show that advanced students utilized pragmatic markers more actively than the intermediate level students. Hence, it is asserted that the level of English proficiency is directly related to the degree to which pragmatic markers are implanted in conversational discourse.

In regard to the present study, undergraduate students of English speech delivery might perhaps show certain levels and patterns of pragmatic markers. The course curriculum itself directs students to utilize certain connectives or transitive verbs and phrases in order to help them – the speaker – and the listeners process the content of the speech at the same pace, in other words, to make the speech more coherent. Any discourse, be it written or spoken consists of coherent structures (Risselada & Spooren, 1998). These usages of connectives and transitive verbs and phrases are asserted here to be in the same manner and purpose of the use of pragmatic markers, i.e., to serve as coherent structure of the discourse.

It should also be noted here that even though many discourse analysts have argued that coherence markers can build up a text and contribute to its persuasiveness, recent research (Kamalski et al., 2014) suggested that when the coherence markers are too evident, the audience tends to build up resistances, making it more difficult to persuade them. It is further asserted that subjective coherence markers (e.g. that is why, therefore, because of this), in particular, create resistance, whereas the objective counterparts (e.g. consequently, as a consequence, as a result of the fact that) assist integration of the information.

2.1.4 Theories on Delivering an Informative Speech

In formulating an effective informative speech, speakers should consider several factors in their preparation for the speech. According to 'The Art of Public Speaking' (Lucas, 2001), there are four types of informative speech, classified by its contents: objects, processes, events, and concepts.

The first type of informative speech is concerned with the topic related to any tangible, visible, and stable in form objects and subject matters. These include people, places, animals, or any other objects. Theoretically, speakers are not supposed to explain every detail of the object. Instead, they are to select a specific purpose that focuses on an aspect of the object in question. For example, a speaker who chooses to speak about a digital camera would simply not just explain to the audience what a digital camera is. Rather, the speaker should select a specific purpose, for example, to inform the audience of what to look for when buying a new digital camera.

Next, speaking informatively about a process is simply explaining how something occurs, or is made. For instance, a speaker might choose to prepare an informative speech on how a tsunami develops, how diamonds are made, or how to create an online blog, etc. The speakers will decide whether to instruct the audience so they know how to make or perform something or simply to inform how something happens so the audience understands better.

Thirdly, the term event is defined as anything that happened or is regarded as happening. Topics in this category include the Holocaust, civil rights movement, French Revolution, the Olympics, and Thailand's Songkran Festival. Again, the specific purpose of the speech would also have to be narrowed down. Instead of

explaining every single detail about Songkran Festival, one might choose to construct the speech on the important religious rituals involved in the festival, for an instance.

Lastly, the speaker may choose to construct an informative speech about concepts. By definition, concepts include beliefs, ideas, principles, and so on. These are, of course, more abstract than the other three categories. Some example topics include Buddhism, feminism, surrealism, and Confucianism.

2.1.5 Methods of Informing

In their book on 'The Challenge of Effective Speaking', Verderber and Verderber (2006) pinpoint five methods a speaker may implement when preparing for an informative speech: description, definition, comparison and contrast, narration, and demonstration.

2.1.5.1 Description

As the name suggests, the description method is simply to 'describe' the object you are informing to the audience. This involves the use of vivid and accurate verbal images of the object in question. Though it would be easier to employ a visual aid, description can be verbally achieved through the use of clear and understandable language. A speaker may describe the object subjectively as 'it is large' or objectively by specifying the exact numerical measurements. The objective of this method is to allow the audience to mentally visualize the object in question.

2.1.5.2 Definition

This is achieved through the use of definition; that is, informing the audience what something means. Speakers can define the subject discussed, explain its history, explain its functions, or define it with a synonym.

2.1.5.3 Comparison and Contrast

Speakers who choose this method would simply describe to the audience how the subject of the speech is different or similar to other related things. For example, a speaker may choose to inform the audience about lacto-vegetarians by comparing them to semi-vegetarians, focusing on the differences and similarities.

2.1.5.4 Narration

Narration is to inform the audience by narrating; in other words, speakers try to recount the events.

2.1.5.5 Demonstration

The last method of informing is demonstration. This method requires the speaker to explain something by demonstrating how it is done. Through the use of effective language, speakers show their expertise on the topic and create steps for the audience to follow.

It is interesting that the topic related to informative speech, from the author's experience, rarely made the topic of a research article. Unlike the issues on persuasion, though not directly addressing the persuasive speech genre, there are quite a number of studies conducted regarding the issue. The review of related literature will now address other important factors of the study, authorial stances.

2.2 Authorial Stances

In conducting this study, the author aims to adopt the premises of the existing types of stances as defined by certain notable researchers (Aull & Lancaster, 2014; Biber, 2006; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Hyland, 1998, 2000, 2001, 2005). Though these authorial stances are mostly defined in terms of their roles in the written academic text, it should be equally valuable to explore how they also apply in the spoken contexts.

On a general note, authorial stances are words, phrases, or expressions that convey the 'stance', in other words, the personal perspectives, feelings, and evaluations the authors hold towards a particular topic of discussion. In 2005, Hyland laid out a model of stance in academic writing – though this is not his first study on the topic – explicitly categorizing them into 'hedges', 'boosters', 'attitude markers', and 'self-mentions'. On the contrary, Biber (2006) categorized the stances somewhat differently, putting boosters and hedges under the same big category of epistemic stance, with sub-categories of likelihood and certainty. Other researchers, however, also investigated the same topics but have chosen to name these stances differently, for example, appraisal (Martin & White, 2005), and evaluation (Silver, 2003). In addition, Biber and Barbieri (2007) investigated lexical bundles of stance expressions that convey attitudes of certainty. Similarly, phrases like 'I don't know', and 'I think' are regarded as epistemic stance in Kirkham's study in 2011.

In the sphere of spoken academic discourse – where stance is generally more subjective and is often presented to the audience through non-verbal and paralinguistic means of communication, such as gestures and intonation (Uccelli, Dobbs, & Scott, 2013) – some researchers also regarded articulation, intonation, exclamations, and discourse particles as additional ways of expressing stance in the spoken registers (Freeman, 2014; Kockelman, 2004).

In his model of interaction in academic discourse, Hyland (2005) made an explicit distinction between stance – this was referred to as 'interpersonal metadiscourse' in Hyland (1998) – and engagement devices deployed by academic authors.

In Hyland's (2005) view, stance is defined as tools authors use to express themselves, convey their judgments and commitments. Authors may choose to establish their personal authority in their argument or choose to camouflage their involvement through the use of stance devices. Stance devices are categorized into four main categories: hedges, boosters – this was referred to as 'emphatics' in Hyland (1998) – attitude marker, and self-mention – this was referred to as 'person markers' in Hyland (1998). Each of these categories of stance will be the main focus of this present study, and will be discussed further in this chapter of literature review.

Engagement (Hyland, 2005) is a linguistic device that authors deploy in order to rhetorically position the reader/audience, in other words, engage the reader/audience into the argument and discourse. It is also a way the authors acknowledge the existence of the reader/audience and address their expectations, as well as to show connections. Engagement devices are categorized into five main categories: reader pronouns, personal asides, appeal to shared knowledge, directives, and questions.

1) Reader Pronouns: These devices are expressed through the use of the second personal pronouns 'you', and 'your', as well as the more common inclusive 'we'. These devices are to send signals of membership by acknowledging the authors and the readers as two parties of participants. They convey solidarity, anticipate the readers' objections, concerns, and express their views.

2) Personal Asides: Asides are simply the authors' brief interruptions within the text. The purpose of asides is to make an explanation or argument more explicit.

3) Appeals to Shared Knowledge: This is the authors' way of expressing ideas by using language that clearly assumed that the readers possess the same beliefs or knowledge as the authors.

4) Directives: Directives are simply imperative sentences that instruct the readers towards the directions or to perform certain acts as pre-determined by the authors. Three sub-categories of actions can be drawn from this, namely textual acts, physical acts, and cognitive acts.

(1) Textual acts are deployed to direct the readers from one part of the text to another.

(2) Physical acts are to direct readers to perform an actual action in reality. This can be directions as how to conduct a research or experiment.

(3) Cognitive acts lead the readers through stings of logic, so as to position them to understand the point made by the authors. This type is especially most threatening.

5) Questions: Here, the authors simply question the readers as a way to lead the readers to come to the conclusions as intended by the authors. These questions, however, are mostly rhetorical – requiring no responses – that are only asked to be immediately answered by the authors themselves.

Though similar to Hyland's (2005) definitions, Biber (2006) classified authorial stances into somewhat more complicated categories. His categorization should also be noted here, as follows.

1) Modal Verbs: Biber (2006) regarded certain modal and semi-modal auxiliary as authorial stances and grouped them into three sub-categories, which are

(1) Possibility or Permission

(2) Necessity or Obligation

(3) Prediction or Volition

2) Stance Adverbs: These are adverbs that function as stances. There are three sub-categories:

(1) Epistemic: Epistemic is sub-divided into epistemic modal that conveys degree of 'likelihood' (e.g., perhaps and possibly), and those that express a degree of certainty (e.g., actually and in fact).

(2) Attitude: These are stance adverbs that convey the authors' attitudes, feelings or personal judgments (e.g., importantly and surprisingly).

(3) Perspective: These stance adverbs allow authors to comment on the perspectives from which the piece of information is given (e.g., frankly, according to).

3) Stance Complement Clauses: These are grammatical clauses that function as stance. Biber (ibid.) gave a very detailed categorization of these complement clauses, grouping them by what type of stance is controlling that particular clause: stance verbs (e.g., conclude, determine and expect), stance adjectives, (e.g., certain, obvious, essential), stance nouns, (e.g., conclusion, and assumption).

When comparing the definitions of stance as given by Hyland (2005) and Biber (2006), it is suggested here that the adverbial epistemic stance of likelihood falls into the same category as hedges, adverbial epistemic stance of certainty is booster, and adverbial stance of attitude is attitude marker.

To avoid confusion, it should be clearly stated here that, in this present study, the author will investigate the stances in accordance to the terminologies identified by Hyland (2005), namely hedges, booster, attitude markers, and self-mentions, by applying them into the spoken informative and persuasive speeches in a public speaking class at the undergraduate level.

In the following part of the literature review, definitions on the four main types of authorial stances – hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mentions – will be presented respectively.

2.2.1 Hedges

Probably among the most popular stances in investigation, 'hedges' may be described as buffers. In the first sentence of this paragraph, a hedge device has already been deployed. Instead of suggesting that a hedge is a buffer, the author suggests that a hedge 'may' be considered a buffer, in which case, should an issue be raised that a hedge device is certainly not a buffer, the author has already avoided commitment to his own statement. Hedges lessen the commitments that are put on a claim, in other words, they give the readers, or listeners, the chance to disagree and argue.

According to Hyland (1998; 2005), hedges – also often referred to ‘down toners’, ‘under-staters’, ‘mitigators’, and ‘downgraders’ (Silver, 2003), stance markers of degree of uncertainty (Uccelli et al., 2013) – convey the authors’ reluctant desire not to be completely committed, open discursive spaces that render the readers the opportunity to dispute, convey respect to the viewpoints of others, and mark a statement provisional. In a similar way, Aull and Lancaster (2014) suggest that hedges are numerous linguistic devices that can be used to decrease epistemic commitment, as well as to extend the discursive space.

Though agreeing to the functions of what was often previously defined, Biber (2006) puts hedges under the category of ‘epistemic stance of likelihood’. Silver (2003) added that hedges express doubts and tentativeness of a statement specifically in academic writing, hedges protect the writers from attacks that may occur due to giving too strong assertions (Vázquez & Giner, 2009).

In addition, Aull and Lancaster (2014) categorized in their study on *‘*Stance Markers in Early and Advanced Academic Writing*’* a type of hedging device called ‘self-mention hedges’. These hedges are phrases like ‘from my experience’, ‘I think’, and ‘to my knowledge’. They are meant to lessen the commitments by stating that the authors themselves are ‘unsure’ or only suggesting things based on their personal knowledge and experiences, and is not explicitly pointing out that something is true or untrue.

2.2.2 Boosters

On the other end of the continuum, boosters, or ‘overstaters’, ‘intensifiers’, and ‘emphasizers’ (Silver, 2003), ‘emphatics’, strengtheners’, (Abdollahzadeh, 2011; Dobakhti, 2013) serve as devices that ‘boost’, strengthen, and enhance the claim an author is making. They can present the authors as being more credible and knowledgeable about the subject matters and are very essential in the authors’ attempts to convince or persuade the readers with data presented as backups (Vázquez & Giner, 2009).

Boosters serve as devices that can convey conviction and assurance, express and assert certainty and emphasis, indicate involvements and solidarity (Hyland, 2000, 2005; Silver, 2003), and are usually realized through the use of amplifying or

intensifying adverbs, ‘absolutely’, for instance (Aull & Lancaster, 2014). In a similar way, Dobakhti (2013) defines boosters as words that signal the writer’s assurance of the statement that is being claimed. Macintyre, (2013) also adds that boosters may come in the form of a single word, like ‘actually’, and it can sometimes be in the form of a phrase as in ‘it is obvious that’.

In addition to the definition discussed, Adams and Quintana-Toledo (2013) points out that writers, those who write legal research articles in particular, tend to favor the expressions of certainty (i.e., boosters) more than they do expressions of uncertainty or doubt (i.e., hedges). This may be because claims and statements made in legal argumentative text need to be seen as somewhat confident or certain, otherwise it might eliminate the persuasiveness of the arguments.

Because the functions of hedges and boosters are somewhat correlating, many researchers tend to regard these two as a pair of epistemic stances to be investigated alongside one another.

2.2.3 Attitude Markers

The next type of authorial stance researchers are interested in is attitude marker. As the name suggests, these devices are utilized to ‘mark’ the ‘attitudes’ the authors hold towards certain subjects, phenomena, claims, or statements. Attitude markers also bring with them the sense of evaluation, such as an author may evaluate a claim as being ‘surprising’, or ‘interesting’.

Attitude markers or,‘affective stance’ (Tracy, 2011), not only allow authors to convey attitudes, surprise, agreement, importance, and frustration, but they also lure readers down into the “conspiracy of agreement”, making it more difficult to argue (Hyland, 2005). It is defined as pragmatic connectives that allow authors to express their affective values (Abdollahzadeh, 2011). They reveal the authors’ personal evaluation towards the subject matter or the issues being discussed (Adams & Quintana-Toledo, 2013). Duenas (2010) adds to this notion by suggesting that, through the use of attitude markers that convey proper stance, scholarly authors have the necessity to make explicit their stances towards their claims and towards their readers so as to appear convincingly credible and their findings valid.

In 2004, Koutsantoni laid out four categories of attitude markers, namely evaluative adjectives (e.g., significant, interesting), evaluative and attitudinal adverbs (e.g., significantly, considerably), obligation and necessity expressions (e.g., it is necessary, must, should), and discourse-based negative evaluations of other research.

Apart from the commonly defined attitude markers, Koo and Rhee (2013) also, from a different perspective, regard the sentence-final particles typical in the Korean language as one type of attitude markers that are also capable of expressing the writer's attitude of discontent towards the subject being discussed.

2.2.4 Self-mentions

The last type of stance concerned in this present study is self-mention. Self-mentions are generally the authors 'mentioning' themselves in the text, or in this case of study, in the speech. It is generally the use of the first personal pronouns: I, and we. The absence or presence of self-mentions depends on the authors' own conscious decisions in terms of creating an 'authorial identity' (Hyland, 2005), or 'personae' (Martin & White, 2005), or persona (Hyland, 1998; Vázquez & Giner, 2009). Many speakers may consciously prefer the use of self-mentions in their speeches, as to create the aforementioned authorial identity or personae.

Since traditional academic writing practices, especially those in scientific disciplines, have dictated the writers to write in the most objective manner, the appropriateness of subjectivity through the inclusion of the first personal pronoun "I" remains a debated issue and highly controversial (Hyland, 2001). As Albert Einstein (1934, as cited in Hyland, 2001) stated, "When a man is talking about scientific subjects, the little word 'I' should play no part in his expositions". In the same study, Hyland (2001) noted that students are taught in academic writing classes that the use of the first personal pronoun 'I' be dropped, yet it still plays a prominent role in allowing the writers to be perceived as an idea originator. He, as well as Harwood (2005), also suggested 'self-citation' or simply put, referencing one's own previous work, is an additional and possibly the most apparent form of self-mention.

In 2005 Harwood, adds that the use of self-mention 'I', and 'we' can also help the authors to create a research space, organize the discourse, outline the procedure, and explain the authors' previous work. This is somewhat similar to the functions of

self-mention as set earlier by Tang and John, (1999) who also stated that self-mention in the form of the first personal pronoun is the most vivid attempt of the author to exist within the text.

In addition, Tang and John (1999) proposed six functions of self-mention as:

1) Representative: Authors used self-mention generically in the form of the plural first personal pronoun ‘we’ to represent a group of people. This function is considered the least powerful of all the functions.

2) Guide: Authors assume the role of a tour guide, one that walks the readers through the paper.

3) Architect: Authors outline the research paper for the readers.

4) Re-counter: Authors describe to the readers the procedures that were conducted in the study.

5) Opinion-Holder: Authors employ the first personal pronoun ‘I’ to express their personal comments and opinions.

6) Originator: Authors establish themselves as an originator and their findings or results original. This function is regarded the most powerful function an author can employ.

As one might have accurately assumed, they concluded from their study that the least powerful ‘representative’ is the most employed; reversely, the most powerful and most challenging ‘originator’ is the least employed.

Issues on the use of self-mention through, rather than simply the first personal pronoun ‘I’, the use of phrases with ‘I’ attached to the beginning have also been introduced in the literature.

One example study includes that of Myers, (2010) who studied instances of comments and arguments found in blog discussions with the main focus on stance-taking through the use of phrases like ‘I think’ and ‘I guess’. His conclusions were that bloggers deployed such phrases in order to establish a contribution as a distinctive contributor. We can probably consider the use of ‘I’ in these phrases as an attempt to deploy self-mention in order to create authorial identity for one’s own self. This should be somewhat the same as self-mentions found in speeches, as will be discussed further.

Additionally from another perspective, though similarly, the role of the first personal pronoun ‘I’ has also been regarded as a linguistic function of ‘self-repair’ in spoken discourse, that is, when the speaker uses the conversational level ‘I mean’ to adjust or modify the contents in a particular discourse (Fernández-Polo, 2014). It was noted in the study of a corpus of conference presentation (ibid.) that at least four roles of ‘I mean’ can be drawn from the collected data: 1) correcting mistakes in grammar or contents, and correcting the mistakes in speech, 2) enhancing the explicitness of a statement made earlier, 3) organizing the speech, and 4) marking certainty. Noteworthy was the fact that ‘I mean’ can sometimes serve as a form of booster by prompting the audience to concentrate on the speaker’s speech. Erman (1986, as cited in Fernández-Polo, 2014) noted that ‘I mean’ tends to have a semantically constructed pattern, i.e., the following clause is likely to be a paraphrase of what was said earlier or an addition of precision to the content in speech. This may have certain links to the corpus of speeches in a public speaking class used in this present study, since speeches as informal as ones delivered in a classroom setting tend to demonstrate the conversational style of self-mention, like the one noted above.

2.2.5 Studies Investigating Stances in Spoken Discourse

In the literature, a considerable number of studies have been devoted to the investigation of authorial stances in written academic contexts (e.g., Aull & Lancaster, 2014; Chang & Schleppegrell, 2011; Hyland, 2001; Tang & John, 1999), with, to the author’s knowledge, fewer number of studies exploring authorial stances in the spoken academic contexts. Even so, some researchers have shed light on the spoken side of academic registers, for instance, Biber (2006) investigated the stances used in university spoken registers in comparison to that of the written registers, and the epistemic stances in classroom discussion were examined by Kirkham in 2011.

Of particular interest was the concept of gender-based comparative analysis. Baxter (2002) conducted a research on post-structuralist discourse analysis of girls and boys’ speeches in public contexts and claims that boys were evaluated as more effective public speakers than their girl counterparts.

Drawing on Hyland’s (2005) model of stance and engagement**,** an investigation in the classroom interaction settings was initiated **(**Lee & Subtirelu, 2015**)**. A

comparative analysis of both English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classrooms and university lectures revealed that EAP teachers tend to use stance and engagement devices to frame the discourse so as to set up tasks and enhance the students' in-class participation. University lecturers, in contrast, used these linguistics tools to establish the relations between ideas in the arguments of the lectures.

Relating to the present study, certain important notes should be made from this particular study. Hedges were used equally frequently by both groups of instructors. As noted by Hyland (2009, as cited in Lee & Subtirelu, 2015) hedges are crucial in the discourse of classroom lectures, due to the instructors' needs to express caution towards information presented. These hedges were realized through the use of words like 'sort of', 'kind of', and the common modal verbs. Another stance that can hardly be separated from hedging is boosting. The two corpora showed equally few instances of boosters. The few instances of commitments were mainly expressed through the use of adverbs such as 'really, and 'actually'. Attitude markers, on the other hand, returned the least instances from both corpora of the study. This surprising phenomenon was explained that in spoken discourse, other paralinguistic features, such as tone and voice stresses, already signal attitudes, hence the verbal realizations of attitudes were not as necessary compared to the written discourse where these paralinguistic features are missing. Similar to other previous studies, self-mentions, being the second most frequent marker, were realized through the use of the first personal pronoun 'I'. It was revealed that the pronoun 'I' was found more frequently in both corpora than the exclusive and inclusive 'we' combined. Lastly, as classroom discourse requires engagement and interactions, the most frequent marker was not surprisingly the engagement markers.

In addition, from the corpus of TOEFL 2000 Spoken and Written Academic Language (T2K-SWAL), Biber (2006) revealed that stances were used to a greater extent in the spoken academic register than that in the written register. He also stated that epistemic stances are much more common in the spoken register when compared to the written register, with certainty adverbs (or booster adverbs), like 'in fact', and likelihood adverbs (hedge adverbs) like 'possibly', as the most frequent ones.

Moreover, in her analysis, Tracy, (2011) investigated instances from three case studies of oral arguments about marriage laws in courtrooms, and revealed that epistemic stances of certainty and doubt (i.e., booster and hedges), and affective stances

(i.e., attitude markers) can determine positive and negative stances towards the plaintiff, though this would depend on the courtroom roles each party is tied to. For example, the attorney for the plaintiff would obviously express a positive stance towards the plaintiff and the claims made by the plaintiff, while the opposite is true for the attorney defending against the plaintiff. Though her main focus was on the person-referencing and naming patterns when arguing in the courtroom, she did shed some light on authorial stances and their connections to the attitudes the speakers hold towards their interlocutors.

Aside from examining the use of self-mention, one type of stance that seems to have gained a considerable amount of attention, found in written academic papers, its usage in the spoken discourse has also been investigated. The following section provides related example studies drawn from the literature.

The use of the personal pronoun ‘you’ has been investigated within the genre of research interviews (Myers & Lampropoulou, 2012). The researchers focused their study on the use of the impersonal ‘you’, i.e., the pronoun ‘you’ that does not address anyone in particular, but rather, serves the same grammatical function as the indefinite pronoun ‘anyone’, and ‘someone’. The impersonal ‘you’ was also regarded as a form of stance that changed the relation between the speakers and their interlocutors, and thus was categorized into three main functions. The first reason why interviewees used the impersonal ‘you’ is because they wanted to re-categorize the speakers and their experiences. Secondly, the impersonal ‘you’ also displayed the perception that the subject discussed was shared knowledge, rather than belonging to an individual. The last function was to create a commonplace response to the dilemmas of the questions imposed.

In the study of self-mention found in the Michigan Corpus of Spoken Academic English, the use of the plural form of the first personal pronoun ‘we’ was investigated (Fortanet, 2004). It is claimed that in university lectures, the plural form of the first personal pronoun ‘we’ is frequently used, but of lower frequency than those of ‘I’ and ‘you’. The choice of pronouns in university merely depends of what was agreed between the speaker – the lecturer – and the listener beforehand.

In conversational and spoken discourse, stance has been studied in the form of certain epistemic phrases, ones that involve the presence of a personal pronoun together with certain patterns of utterances. These studies suggest that stance can be investigated through many more varieties of linguistic features than what has previously been acknowledged (Kärkkäinen, 2012). Though it was made distinct the differences of hedges, booster, and self-mention (Hyland, 2005), many researchers have investigated these markers in the form of self-mentions that involve expressions of hedging and boosting such as 'I thought' and 'I firmly believe that'. These will be discussed in the examples drawn from the literature, as presented in the following section.

The context of classroom discourse has also been investigated in relations to stance and stance-taking (Kirkham, 2011). Instances of classroom discussions in a higher educational level were analyzed with the main focus on how students create identities in their arguments through the use of the self-mentioning phrases 'I don't know', and 'I think'. In establishing a stance towards a topic, students in the case study implemented the phrase 'I think' in different ways, namely to take a tentative stance or an authoritative stance. In a somewhat similar way, Kärkkäinen (2012) conducted a research focusing mainly on the use of the epistemic phrase 'I thought' and its associated utterances in conversational discourse. She regarded such phrases as one form of the speaker's stance, i.e., to express an evaluation or affection, and noted that these patterns are found overwhelmingly in everyday conversations. She added that the phrase was highly routinized and could regularly be found to express certain kinds of stance taking in conversations. Similarly, both 'I mean', as previously noted (Myers, 2010), and 'I think' should play a crucial part in the speeches delivered in the classroom context. However, Fuller (2003) asserts in her study on 'I mean' and other discourse marker expressions, that 'I mean' was used at a similar rate across the context of conversational discourse and interview discourse. She asserts further that 'I mean' functioned in the same manner as phrases like 'you know' and 'well'. This implies that her perspective towards 'I mean' was not as important as what others have claimed.

English is, of course, not the only language of interest. Throughout the literature, stances have also been investigated in other languages, including Indonesian (Manns, 2012), Japanese (Dunn, 2010), Dutch (van Hell, Verhoeven, Tak, & van Oosterhout, 2005), and Spanish (Blackwell, 2010).

The use of the first personal pronoun to create a speaker's stance was explored in the casual conversations found on Java Island (Manns, 2012). Results showed that the first personal pronouns were deployed to establish solidarity, epistemic authority, and playfulness among the young intimate interlocutors, which were the subjects of this particular study. Unlike most western languages, Asian languages, like the one in question, offer their speakers a variety of first personal pronouns. It is then asserted in this particular study that the selection of the first personal pronoun by the young Indonesians of Java Island was mainly for the purpose of self-categorization, which varied from moment to moment.

The use of stances in Japanese public speaking, particularly wedding congratulatory speeches, has also been analyzed (Dunn, 2010). The discourse stances addressed in the study were honorifics, non-canonical word order, sentence-finals, and hedges, suggesting the rich expressions of speakers' affective, epistemological, and interpersonal stance in the Japanese language. It is also stated, that these stance markers served to help the speakers position themselves with the audience and the content of speech, while implying little or no effect on the content itself. Noteworthy is the assertion that these stance markers are regularly more common in the spoken discourse but rare in the written context. With relation to this present study, the occurrences of hedging devices are common in public speaking contexts.

Evaluative devices have been addressed in the context of Spanish film narratives (Blackwell, 2010). By analyzing twenty oral narrations of a film by native Spanish speakers, the above study revealed that some narrators tend to verbalize their opinions by giving appraisal of a particular element found in the film. Furthermore, the characters in the film were evaluated through judgments of the appropriateness of the actions portrayed. It is also claimed that speakers' background knowledge and the social relationships are the integral parts that constrained their use of evaluations.

Adding to the existing investigations on personal pronouns as stance markers, a comparative analysis of spoken and written narrative and expository texts in Dutch was presented (Van Hell et al., 2005). Remarkable is the result that age did not affect the differences in the usage. Rather, it is the genre that played an important role in the decision of the speakers and writers. This aforementioned study revealed that pronouns

as stance markers were more common in the narrative than expository genre and more common in the spoken than in the written context.

Authorial stances could also be studied comparatively on a cross-cultural basis. Precht (2003) analyzed the corpus of American and British conversation with focus on the use of stances, ones that express attitude, emotion, certainty, and doubt (i.e., attitude markers, boosters, and hedges). By grouping the stance markers found throughout the corpus, three categories were stated: informal affect, boulomaic planning versus small talk, and hedged opinion. The first category, informal affect, consists of stance markers that show emotion, such as 'I love', 'I like', 'crazy', and 'wow'. The second category involves the use of boulomaic planning and small talk. Boulomaic modality verbs, such as 'want' and 'need' (Hoye, 1997 as cited in Precht, 2003) are abundant in this particular category. These verbs were, as it was asserted, used to make plans, give offers, and mainly to minimize the difference of the speakers' statuses. Lastly, hedged opinion is the factor that is most evident in the corpus. This last category comprises of adverbial hedges (e.g., probably), verbal hedges (e.g., think), and modal hedges (e.g., could, and would). The researcher concluded that comparatively, Americans tended to employ more instances of informal affect markers, whereas the British made use of more evidential markers.

Taking on a different approach to the study of stance, McEntee-Atalianis (2013) explored the use of metaphorical language found in the speeches delivered by consecutive Secretary Generals of an agency of the United Nations, regarding it as a form of stance. It was asserted that the use of metaphor can strengthen positions and mark evaluations, functioning as the previously defined stance frameworks.

2.2.6 Studies Investigating Authorial Stances among Thai Authors

Reflecting on the use of authorial stances, hedging devices in particular, among native Thai authors, Sukhanindr (2008) addressed the issue from a written discourse perspective. In her research, it was stated that Thai authors employed less hedging devices in their English academic publications when compared to that of their native counterparts. The Thai authors' choices of lexical items as hedging devices are also more limited. She explained such revelation is a result of the Thai educational system that taught Thai learners to produce academic articles in a clear and organized manner,

leading to the reluctance to hedge in the text. She added further that the knowledge of language in terms of lexical choice is limited among the Thais.

Authorial stances have also been addressed from the perspective of the appraisal theory. In 2012, Arunsirot examined the commentaries of Thai newspaper reporting on the incident of the ASEAN Summit 2009 disruption. The findings showed that Thai journalists employed mostly negative attitude lexical items. It was so, the study concluded, because of the intention to intensify the emotional values of the readers.

2.2.7 Reviewing Research Methodology

In the literature, studies investigating authorial stances in both written and spoken academic discourse have make use of questionnaires and focus interviews (e.g., Hyland, 2000), multi-dimensional statistical analysis (Precht, 2003), as well as employed the use of a particular concordance program to analyze the frequency of the lexical items found in the transcribed text. These concordance programs are, for instance, CLAN program (Van Hell et al., 2005), Word Pilot 2000 (Harwood, 2005), and the newer version of Word Pilot 2002 (Dobakhti, 2013), to name a few. Some researchers (e.g., Myers & Lampropoulou, 2012) on the other hand, chose to hand code the instances in the transcriptions on their own in order to eliminate the misjudgments of computer programs.

Hyland (2000) pointed out in his study on students' awareness of hedges and boosters a method called the 'think aloud' procedure. This procedure involves the recording of the actual utterances of the participants as they are performing certain tasks. It allows researchers to obtain information concerning cognitive processes of the participants that are reliable.

To summarize, the investigations of authorial stances in spoken discourse are mainly focused on the use of self-mentions, as can be seen from this review of related literature. Hedges, boosters, as well as attitude markers, were regarded as being tied to the self-mentions. This may be due to the nature of spoken discourse in which self-mention should be fairly common, and so stances are likely to be expressed by mentioning oneself.

With regard to the present study, the informants are the undergraduate students studying in an international university where English is used as the language of

instructions. Furthermore, with the ASEAN community integration, English may serve as the Lingua Franca within the community. Therefore, the issue of English as a Lingua Franca is discussed briefly in the following section.

2.3 English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)

English as a Lingua France (henceforth ELF) is referred to as a form of communication conducted in English between interlocutors of different first languages (Seidlhofer, 2005). This particular role of the English language has become so prevalent that it is employed worldwide (Kirkpatrick, 2003). With the ASEAN community integration, ELF had been widely promoted among schools in the member countries of the community, including Thailand. Despite the considerable amount of resources authorities have devoted in promoting ELF in Thailand, the success is rather limited (Hayes, 2014).

Despite its distinct innovations (Cogo & Dewey, 2012), study has suggested that ELF in ASEAN should be promoted and encouraged, given that such mistakes do not harm the effectiveness of communication (Ploywattanawong & Trakulkasemsuk, 2014). Hayes (2014) added further that Thai university students perceived ELF as an advantage, and not in any case a threat to the Thai language. Furthermore, Kirkpatrick (2006) also claimed that educational sectors in the Southeast Asia region aim the English language acquisition success at a proficiency level of native-like, whereby encouraging the model of native speaker in classroom teaching and learning. It is claimed that in this type of classroom setting, the so-called native speaker norms are the frame of reference in teaching (Kirkpatrick, 2003). In light of this, the effect that ELF in the classroom has on the use of authorial stances among students should then be examined. Students may be performing a different persona when delivering a speech in English.

In conclusion, the review of related literature presented in this chapter substantiates the significance of the key terms employed in this study, as well as a review of related studies in the field of authorial stance, public speaking, and persuasion in particular. Furthermore, in the current world where people are globally connected and where English is accepted as the Lingua Franca, English public speaking skills are

essential, especially to non-native English speakers like Thai students. Therefore, in order to produce such resourceful public speakers, the teaching and learning of public speaking skills at university levels should then be explored. This study of authorial stances in speeches should serve as a stepping stone for future developments of the English curriculum. One might see progress in speech development skills should the authorial stances be employed by the students strategically. It is also proposed here, that though the various examples of authorial stances have been studied in written contexts, there have been, to the author's best knowledge, relatively fewer studies devoted to investigating authorial stances in spoken discourse. This present study will then fill the gap and contribute to academic research on spoken discourse and authorial stances. Figure 2.1 presents a summary of the review of related literature.

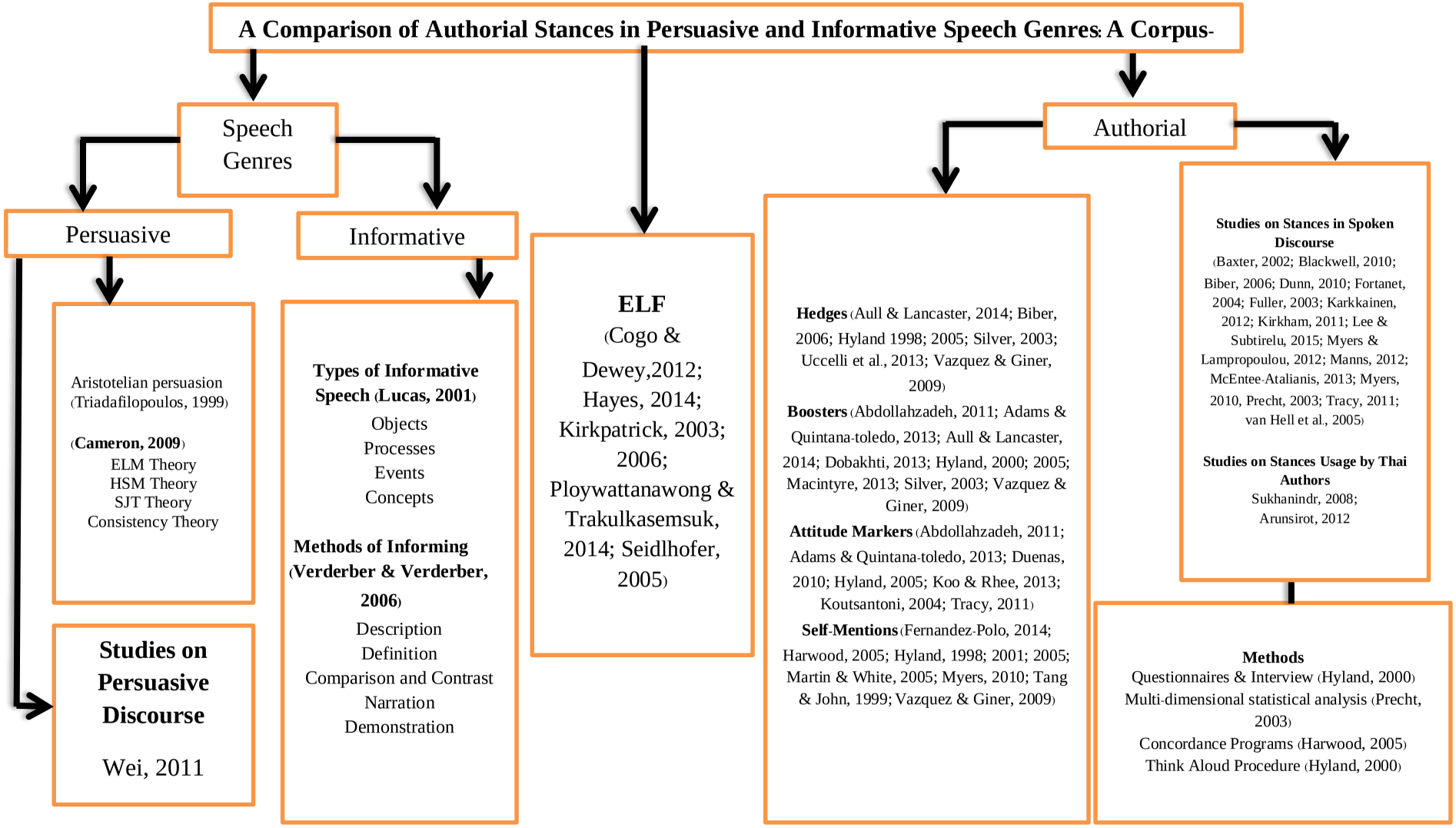

Figure 2.1 Review of Related Literature Summary

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the methodology implemented in this investigation is explained. The chapter consists of two sections. The first describes the data collection procedures as well as the instrument involved. It also explains the corpus used in this present study in detail. The second section then describes the data analysis procedures employed in order to answer each stated research question.

3.1 Data Collection

3.1.1 Samples and Population

The population of this study is 60 third and fourth year undergraduate students in the Bachelor of Arts program, majoring in Business English, at an international university in Thailand. These students were enrolled in the Major Requirement Course, Public Speaking[1], during semester 1/2014. In a quantitative research, it is important that at least 100 cases are used to elicit data; therefore, using the random sampling method, a sample size of 26 students, 13 males and 13 females, were selected. Each student delivered four speeches, resulting in 104 speeches in total.

This international university acclaims itself as an educational institution that conducts all its teaching and learning with English as the medium. In this particular course, Public Speaking is one of the Major Requirement Courses students in the School of Arts, majoring in Business English are required to complete. The prerequisite for this course is English IV, the highest level of English subject taught, and the majority of the students attending the class are from the third and fourth years. Therefore, it can be assumed that the levels of English proficiency of the undergraduate

[1] Course descriptions can be found in appendix A

students are at least at a similar stage, given that they all passed English IV[2] and have spent a certain amount of time in the English-dominated environment at university prior to enrolling in the course.

The course requires students to deliver four speeches in class in two different genres: two in the informative genre and another two in the persuasive genre. The speeches were not impromptu, but prepared speeches of approximately five to seven minutes. Topics of speech are based on freely open propositions, with the instructor's approval.

3.1.2 The Corpus

The data was collected by videotaping the speeches delivered in class. In addressing the ethical issues, consent that the videotaping will be utilized for further academic uses has already been asked. The students whose speeches were used in this study will remain anonymous.

The speeches, four from each student, 104 speeches in total, were then be transcribed into plain text documents to create the corpus of this study.

There are two sub-corpora: one sub-corpus of 52 speeches delivered by male students, and one sub-corpus of 52 speeches delivered by female students. For the purpose of this study, each sub-corpus is divided into four sections, i.e., the first and second informative speeches, and the first and second persuasive speeches. Overall, the corpus consists of 63,661 words. Table 3.1 explains the structure of the corpus of this study.

[2] Course descriptions can be found in appendix A

Table 3.1 The Structure of the Corpus of the Study

Gender of the Speaker	Genre of Speech			
	Informative Round		Persuasive Round	
	First	Second	First	Second
	Number of Words			
Female	7052	7116	9413	7577
Male	7965	7789	8820	7929
Total Number of Words in the Corpus			63,661	

3.1.3 Instrument

A concordance program called AntConc, a freeware concordance program that allows researchers to extract the frequencies of a specific linguistic item found in the corpus, which includes tools for lexical bundle analysis and word distribution plot was used.

The data was input into AntConc as plain text. The program then search for the occurrences of the specified authorial stances. The frequency of each specific word was normalized (per 1000 words) for further comparisons. Table 3.2 shows the linguistic items under each authorial stance category investigated in this study.

Table 3.2 List of Authorial Stances Investigated

Boosters
Verbs
believe / be going to / claim / confirm / demonstrate / find / highlight / know / realize / reveal / show that / show
Adjectives
certain / clear / considerable / demonstrable / definite / evident / noticeable / obvious / significant / sure / true

Table 3.2 (Continued)

Boosters
Adverbs
accurately / actually / always / certainly / clearly / completely considerably / definitely / entirely / especially / essentially extremely / fully / greatly / heavily / highly / indeed / in fact / necessarily / never / noticeably / obviously / of course / overly / particularly really / significantly / so / strongly / substantially / surely / too / truly / very / vividly / wholly
Modals
must / ought to / should / will
Nouns
certainty / fact / significance
Hedges
Verbs
appear / assume / guess / hypothesize / indicate / seem / speculate / suggest / suppose / tend
Adjectives
plausible / possible / potential / relative / some / typical / uncertain / unclear / unsure
Adverbs
about / almost / apparently / approximately / around / broadly / commonly / doubtful / fairly / frequently / generally / in general / in most cases / in some cases / in some ways / largely / likely / maybe / mostly / normally / often / on some occasion / overall / perhaps / possibly / potentially predominantly / presumably / primarily / probably / quite / rather / relatively / roughly / seemingly / sometimes / somewhat / to some degree / to some extent / typically / uncertainly / unclearly / unlikely / usually
Nouns
assumption / hypothesis / indication / possibility / tendency

Table 3.2 (Continued)

Hedges
Modals
can / could / may / might / would
Self-Mention Hedges
from my (own) experience / from my (own) perspective / I think / in my opinion / in my view / to my knowledge
Attitude Markers
Verbs
contribute / deserve / ensure / extend / expand / fail /lack / support
Adjectives
adequate / better / best /central / complex / comprehensive / confident / consistent /core / critical / crucial / dangerous / difficult /easy /effective /essential / fundamental / good / great / hard / hopeful / important / influential / interesting / limited / main / major / meaningful / key / necessary / narrow / new / poor /primary / problematic / promising / reasonable / significant /serious / strict / sufficient / suggestive / tremendous / true / unique / useful / valid / well known / worthwhile
Adverbs
critically / importantly / interestingly / only / surprisingly / truly / usefully / uniquely / unfortunately
Nouns
absence / caution / contribution / limitation / importance / insight / support
Self-Mentions
Subjective
I / we (exclusive only)
Objective
me / us (exclusive only)
Possessive
mine / my / our / ours (exclusive only)

Table 3.2 (Continued)

Self-Mentions
Reflexive
myself / ourselves (exclusive only)

Source: Aull & Lancaster, 2014; Duenas, 2010; Hyland, 1998; 2000

After eliciting the frequencies of each particular linguistic item, PASW Statistics, statistical analysis software, was used to normalize the frequencies and generate the means value respectively.

Furthermore, to ensure the accuracy of the data, the author manually rechecked the linguistic items elicited from the software in their contexts. This was to confirm that the items found were functioning as authorial stances in the discourse.

3.2 Data Analysis

In answering the research questions, the data analysis methods were as follows:

RQ1: What are the types of authorial stances found in informative and persuasive speeches delivered in an undergraduate level public speaking class? What are the functions of each type?

RQ2**:** What are the most frequently used stance type and the most frequently used linguistic item of each type in informative and persuasive speech genres?

The corpus of transcribed spoken speeches of the informative and persuasive genres was input into the concordance program, AntConc, to elicit the occurrences of each type of authorial stances. The means, standard deviations, and frequencies were used to analyze the data.

In the second part of the first research question, the author manually checked for the functions of each stance type. The functions are based on that of Aull & Lancaster (2014), Fernandez-Polo (2014), Lucas (2001), Tang & John (1999) and the author's own interpretations.

RQ3: Do differences in the use of authorial stances exist between female and male undergraduate students in informative and persuasive speeches?

An independent sample t-test was performed to find differences between male and female groups.

RQ4: Do differences in the use of authorial stances exist between the first and second informative and persuasive speeches?

A paired sample t-test was performed to find the difference between the first and second informative speeches, and between the first and second persuasive speeches. A summary of the methodology is presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Summary of the Methodolgy

	Research Questions			
	1.) What are the types of authorial stances found in informative and persuasive speeches delivered in an undergraduate level public speaking class? What are the functions of each type?	2.) What are the most frequently used stance type and the most frequently used linguistic items of each type in informative and persuasive speech genres?	3.) Do differences in the use of authorial stances exist between female and male undergraduate students in informative and persuasive speeches?	4.) Do differences in the use of authorial stances exist between the first and second informative and persuasive speeches?
Research Instruments	Video recordings	Video recordings	Video recordings	Video recordings
Dependent Variable	Authorial Stances in informative and persuasive speeches	Authorial Stances in informative and persuasive speeches	Authorial Stances in informative and persuasive speeches	Authorial Stances in informative and persuasive speeches
Independent Variable	Speech Genres	Speech Genres	Genders	First and Second Informative/Persuasive Speeches
Method of Analysis	Quantitative and Qualitative	Quantitative	Quantitative	Quantitative
Data Analysis	Descriptive Statistics / Manually checking for functions (based on Aull & Lancaster, 2014; Fernandez-Polo, 2014; Lucas, 2001; Tang & John, 1999)	Descriptive Statistics	Independent Sample *t*-test	Paired Sample *t*-test

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter reports on the results acquired from the present study. The results in the form of descriptive statistics are presented in accordance with the research questions and hypotheses.

4.1 Results

RQ1: What are the types of authorial stances found in informative and persuasive speeches delivered in an undergraduate level public speaking class?

The four types of authorial stance concerned in this study, namely booster, hedge, attitude marker, and self-mention, were all found in the corpus of informative and persuasive speeches delivered by undergraduate level students in a public speaking class. The sub-categories of each stance type occurred at least once throughout the corpus. The detailed descriptive statistics are presented in Tables 4.1–4.4.

Table 4.1 Average of Boosting Devices

Boosters	Minimum	Maximum	$\bar{X}$	SD
Adjectives	.00	5.12	0.76	1.22
Adverbs	.00	49.57	17.98	10.23
Modals	.00	45.05	11.93	9.55
Nouns	.00	4.35	0.19	0.72
Verbs	.00	28.90	7.10	5.04

Table 4.1 shows that all boosting devices are used in the speeches. By comparing the means, it is evident that booster adverbs (M = 17.98, SD = 10.22) are the most frequently used, following by booster modals (M = 11.93, SD = 9.55) as the

second most frequently used when compared to the other types of boosters. Booster nouns (M= 0.19, SD = 0.72) are, on the other hand, the least employed by the speakers in the corpus, with a maximum number of occurrences of 4.35 times per 1000 words.

Table 4.2 Average of Hedging Devices

Hedge	Minimum	Maximum	$\bar{X}$	SD
Adjectives	.00	12.88	2.53	2.74
Adverbs	.00	34.65	10.25	6.83
Modals	3.10	45.20	17.92	9.59
Nouns	.00	1.01	0.03	0.16
Self-Mentions	.00	9.55	1.12	1.99
Verbs	.00	5.26	0.47	1.07

Table 4.2 shows that all six types of hedging devices are employed. Similar to that of boosters, hedge modals (M = 17.92, SD = 9.59) are ranked first among other types of hedges, with hedge adverbs (M = 10.25, SD = 6.83) as the second most frequently used item. Like boosters, hedge nouns (M = 0.03, SD = 0.16) are the least employed by the speakers in the corpus, appearing only 1.01 times per 1000 words throughout the corpus.

Table 4.3 Averages of Attitudinal Devices

Attitude Marker	Minimum	Maximum	$\bar{X}$	SD
Adjectives	.00	35.39	9.29	5.87
Adverbs	.00	8.81	1.50	2.18
Nouns	.00	2.12	0.08	0.36
Verbs	.00	9.72	0.41	1.24

Table 4.3 shows the average of attitude markers, classified by its sub-categories, appearing in the corpus. Attitude marker adjectives (M = 9.29, SD = 5.87) are among the most frequently used items in this particular stance type. Consistent with boosters

and hedges, attitude marker nouns (M = 0.08, SD = 0.36) are the least used throughout the corpus, appearing up to 2.12 times per 1000 words in the corpus.

Table 4.4 Averages of Self-Mentions

Self-Mention	Minimum	Maximum	$\overline{X}$	SD
Subjective (I)	1.58	82.01	18.69	11.96
Objective	.00	14.08	3.27	3.24
Possessive	.00	47.62	5.23	6.01
Reflexive	.00	4.25	0.21	0.73
Exclusive We	.00	55.34	0.66	5.50

For self-mentions, the subjective first person singular pronoun 'I' (M= 18.69, SD = 11.96) is the most frequently used. The exclusive 'we' (M = 0.66, SD = 5.5) is also found in the corpus. The reflexive form (M = 0.21, SD = 0.73) is only found up to 4.25 times per 1000 words (see Table 4.4).

In addition to the descriptive statistics, the author explored the functions of each stance type. The results are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 The Functions and Features of Each Stance Type

Stance Type	Functions and Features
Self-Mention	Architect (Tang & John, 1999)
	Opinion-Holder (Tang & John, 1999)
	Self-Mention Hedge (Aull & Lancaster, 2014)
	Self-Repair (Fernandez-Polo, 2014)
	Testimonials (Lucas, 2001)
	Reminder (Lucas, 2001)
	Establishing Credibility (Lucas, 2001)

Table 4.5 (Continued)

Stance Type	Functions and Features
Booster and Hedge [3]	Double Usage
	Emphatic and Repetition
Attitude Markers	Modifier

In brief, all stances concerned in this present study were presented in the corpus, with the subjective 'I' as the most frequent one.

RQ2: What are the most frequently used stance type and the most frequently used linguistic item of each type in the informative and persuasive speech genres?

If considered in the overall perspective, in both informative and persuasive speech genres, the subjective 'I' under self-mention is the most frequently used stance type, as discussed above in regards to research question one (RQ1). In answering research question two (RQ2), however, Tables 4.6 to 4.9 below are presented to illustrate the authorial stances found in the informative and persuasive sub-corpora.

Table 4.6 Averages of Boosting Devices Found in both Speech Genres

	Speech Genres			
Booster	**Informative**		**Informative**	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Verbs	7.39	4.70	6.80	5.39
Adjectives	0.88	1.34	0.64	1.09
Adverbs	15.99	10.52	19.96	9.62
Modals	12.22	10.61	11.65	8.45
Nouns	0.18	0.64	0.21	0.79

[3] The feautures of boosters, hedges, and attitude markers are based on the author's own interpretations

From Table 4.6, it is evident that booster adverbs are the most frequently used in both the informative speech (M = 15.99, SD = 10.52) and persuasive speech (M = 19.96, SD = 9.62) sub-corpora. Accordingly, booster nouns are the least employed in both informative and persuasive speech genres (M = 0.18, SD = 0.64; M = 0.21, SD = 0.79, respectively)

Table 4.7 Averages of Hedging Device Found in both Speech Genres

	Speech Genres			
Hedge	**Informative**		**Informative**	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Verbs	0.56	1.26	0.38	.84
Adjectives	2.72	3.10	2.34	2.36
Adverbs	10.73	7.18	9.78	6.50
Modals	15.99	9.22	19.84	9.66
Nouns	0.00	0.00	0.05	0.22
Self-Mentions	0.91	1.85	1.33	2.11

For hedges, as seen in Table 4.7, modal verbs are the most frequently used in both informative and persuasive speech genres (M = 15.99, SD = 9.22; M = 19.84, SD = 9.66, respectively). Much like their booster counterparts, nouns are the least employed in both speech genres, with a mean value of only 0.05 (M = 0.05, SD = 0.22) in the persuasive sub-corpus, whereas none are found in the informative sub-corpus (M = 0, SD = 0).

Table 4.8 Averages of Attitudinal Devices Found in both Speech Genres

	Speech Genres			
Attitude Marker	**Informative**		**Informative**	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Verbs	0.32	0.75	0.51	1.58
Adjectives	8.52	4.96	10.05	6.61
Adverbs	1.20	2.07	1.80	2.27
Nouns	0.04	0.26	0.13	0.43

Attitude markers, however, are found mostly as adjectives in both the informative speech (M = 8.52, SD = 4.96) and persuasive speech (M = 10.05, SD = 6.61) genres. Like boosters, and hedges, nouns are the least used type of attitude marker in both informative speech (M = 0.04, SD = 0.26) and persuasive speech (M = 0.13, SD = 0.43) genres. These figures are displayed in Table 4.8.

Table 4.9 Averages of Self-Mentions Found in both Speech Genres

	Speech Genres			
Self-Mention	**Informative**		**Informative**	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Subjective	18.78	13.33	18.60	10.55
Objective	3.39	3.52	3.14	2.96
Possessive	6.31	7.73	4.15	3.29
Reflexive	0.32	0.94	0.10	0.42
Exclusive We	1.10	7.67	0.22	1.31

In both the informative and persuasive sub-corpora, the subjective self-mention ‘I’ is the most employed by the speakers (M = 18.78, M = 13.33; M = 18.60, SD = 10.55, respectively). Table 4.9 also shows that the reflexive forms are the least used, both in the informative (M = 0.32, SD = 0.94) and persuasive (M = 0.10, SD = 0.42)

sub-corpora.

In brief, self-mentions were mong the most frequently used stance in the corpus, while attitude markers account for the least number of occurrence in the corpus.

RQ3: Do differences in the use of authorial stances exist between female and male undergraduate students in informative and persuasive speeches?

As noted above, research question two (RQ2) discusses the use of stance types in both speech genres. Research question three (RQ3), on the other hand, addresses the difference in the use of authorial stance by comparing the difference between the genders of the speakers, i.e.; female, and male. To clearly illustrate, Tables 4.10 to 4.13 are presented below.

Table 4.10 Averages of Boosting Devices Found in both Genders

	Gender of the Speaker			
Booster	**Female**		**Male**	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Verbs	7.05	5.32	7.15	4.79
Adjectives	0.83	1.31	0.69	1.15
Adverbs	16.39	8.55	19.56	11.53
Modals	12.73	8.07	11.14	10.85
Nouns	0.20	0.71	0.19	0.73

According to Table 4.10, booster verbs, and adverbs are found relatively more frequently used by male speakers (M = 7.15, SD = 4.79; M = 19.56, SD = 11.53, respectively) than by female speakers (M = 7.05, SD = 5.32; M = 16.39, SD = 8.55, respectively). Booster adjectives, modal verbs, and nouns, on the other hand, are used more frequently by female speakers, as shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.11 Averages of Hedging Devices Found in both Genders

	Gender of the Speaker			
Hedge	**Female**		**Male**	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Verbs	0.55	1.21	0.39	0.91
Adjectives	2.73	2.73	2.33	2.78
Adverbs	9.06	6.87	11.45	6.65
Modals	16.45	7.78	19.39	11.00
Nouns	0.02	0.13	0.04	0.18
Self-Mentions	0.85	1.55	1.39	2.33

On the contrary, hedge verbs and adjectives are found to have been more frequently employed by female speakers (M = 0.55, SD = 1.21; M = 2.73, SD = 2.73, respectively) than their male counterparts (M = 0.39, SD = 0.91; M = 2.33, SD= 2.78, respectively). The remaining types of hedges are more frequently used by male speakers, as can be seen from Table 4.11.

Table 4.12 Averages of Attitudinal Devices Found in both Genders

	Gender of the Speaker			
Attitude Marker	**Female**		**Male**	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Verbs	0.60	1.58	0.23	0.73
Adjectives	9.19	6.52	9.38	5.19
Adverbs	1.66	2.18	1.35	2.20
Nouns	0.15	0.48	0.02	0.14

As displayed in Table 4.12, the only type of attitude marker that is used more frequently by male speakers is attitude marker adjectives (M = 9.38, SD = 5.19), compared to female speakers (M = 9.19, SD = 6.52). All other types of attitude markers revealed otherwise (see Table 4.12).

Table 4.13 Averages of Self-Mentions Found in both Genders

	Gender of the Speaker			
Self-Mention	**Female**		**Male**	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Subjective	17.45	10.38	19.93	13.35
Objective	2.66	2.91	3.87	3.46
Possessive	4.89	5.18	5.57	6.77
Reflexive	0.08	0.39	0.34	.95
Exclusive We	0.26	1.33	1.06	7.67

Lastly, all types of self-mentions are more frequently used by male speakers. The figures can be seen in Table 4.13 above.

In order to further address research question three (RQ3), hypothesis one (H1) and hypothesis 2 (H2) are tested below accordingly. An independent sample t-test was performed on both hypotheses. The results are as follows.

H1: There is no significant difference in the use of authorial stances among female and male undergraduate students.

Table 4.14 Differences in Boosting Devices Found between Males and Females

Booster	**Gender of the Speaker**	$\bar{X}$	**SD**	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
Verbs	Female	7.05	5.32	-0.106	102	0.916
	Male	7.15	4.79			
Adjectives	Female	0.83	1.31	0.583	102	0.561
	Male	0.69	1.15			
Adverbs	Female	16.39	8.55	-1.593	102	0.114
	Male	19.56	11.53			
Modals	Female	12.73	8.07	0.845	102	0.400
	Male	11.14	10.85			
Nouns	Female	0.20	0.71	0.066	102	0.947
	Male	0.19	0.73			

As shown in Table 4.14, an independent sample t-test indicates that the differences in the use of every sub-category of boosters between female and male speakers are not statistically significant.

Table 4.15 Differences in Hedging Devices Found between Males and Females

Hedge	Gender of the Speaker	$\bar{X}$	SD	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Verbs	Female	0.55	1.21	0.742	102	0.460
	Male	0.39	0.91			
Adjectives	Female	2.73	2.73	0.750	102	0.455
	Male	2.33	2.78			
Adverbs	Female	9.06	6.87	-1.804	102	0.074
	Male	11.45	6.65			
Modals	Female	16.45	7.78	-1.574	102	0.119
	Male	19.39	11.00			
Nouns	Female	0.02	0.13	-0.560	102	0.577
	Male	0.04	0.18			
Self-Mention	Female	0.85	1.55	-1.378	102	0.171
	Male	1.39	2.33			

Like boosters, the differences between female and male speakers in the use of each type of hedges are also not statistically significant, as illustrated in Table 4.15 above.

Table 4.16 Differences in Attitudinal Devices Found between Males and Females

Attitude Marker	**Gender of the Speaker**	$\bar{X}$	**SD**	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
Verbs	Female	0.60	1.58	1.536	102	0.128
	Male	0.23	0.73			
Adjectives	Female	9.19	6.52	-0.168	102	0.867
	Male	9.38	5.19			
Adverbs	Female	1.66	2.18	0.717	102	0.475
	Male	1.35	2.20			
Nouns	Female	0.15	0.48	1.865	102	0.065
	Male	0.02	0.14			

The same is also true regarding attitude markers. There is no significant difference in the use of attitude markers in all sub-categories between female and male speakers, as seen in Table 4.16.

Table 4.17 Differences in Self-Mention Found between Males and Females

Booster	**Gender of the Speaker**	$\bar{X}$	**SD**	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
Subjective	Female	17.45	10.38	-1.056	102	0.294
	Male	19.93	13.35			
Objective	Female	2.66	2.91	-1.920	102	0.058
	Male	3.87	3.46			
Possessive	Female	4.89	5.18	-0.571	102	0.569
	Male	5.57	6.77			
Reflexive	Female	0.08	0.39	-1.879	102	0.063
	Male	0.34	0.95			
Exclusive	Female	0.26	1.33	-0.747	102	0.457
We	Male	1.06	7.67			

Lastly, as Table 4.17 suggests, there is also no significant difference in the use of self-mentions between female and male speakers.

In brief, it can be concluded that the differences that occur in the use of authorial stances between female and male speakers are not statistically significant, with the significance level preset at 0.05.

H2: There is no significant difference in the use of authorial stance markers found in informative and persuasive speeches.

Table 4.18 Differences in Boosting Devices Found between Informative and Persuasive Speech Genres

Booster	**Speech Genre**	$\bar{X}$	**SD**	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
Verbs	Informative	7.39	4.70	0.597	102	0.552
	Persuasive	6.80	5.39			
Adjectives	Informative	0.88	1.34	1.005	102	0.317
	Persuasive	0.64	1.09			
Adverbs	Informative	15.99	10.52	-2.004	102	0.048*
	Persuasive	19.96	9.62			
Modals	Informative	12.22	10.61	0.300	102	0.765
	Persuasive	11.65	8.45			
Nouns	Informative	0.18	0.64	-0.224	102	0.823
	Persuasive	0.21	0.79			

Table 4.18 shows that there is a significant difference in the use of booster adverbs between informative speeches (M = 15.99, SD = 10.52) and persuasive speeches (M = 19.96, SD = 9.62), $t(102) = -2.004$, ($p < 0.05$). For other types of boosters, the differences are not statistically significant.

Table 4.19 Differences in Hedging Devices Found between Informative and Persuasive Speech Genres

Hedge	**Speech Genre**					**Sig. (2-tailed)**
		$\bar{X}$	**SD**	**t**	**df**	
Verbs	Informative	0.56	1.26	0.875	102	0.384
	Persuasive	0.38	0.84			
Adjectives	Informative	2.72	3.10	0.689	102	0.492
	Persuasive	2.34	2.36			
Adverbs	Informative	10.73	7.18	0.708	102	0.481
	Persuasive	9.78	6.50			
Modals	Informative	15.99	9.22	-2.081	102	0.040*
	Persuasive	19.84	9.66			
Nouns	Informative	.00	.00	-1.760	102	0.081
	Persuasive	0.05	0.22			
Self-Mention	Informative	0.91	1.85	-1.080	102	0.283
	Persuasive	1.33	2.11			

There is a significant difference in the use of modal hedges between informative speeches (M = 15.99, SD = 9.22) and persuasive speeches (M = 19.84, SD = 9.66), $t(102) = -2.081$, ($p < 0.05$). The other types of hedge,s on the other hand, show no significant difference (see Table 4.19).

Table 4.20 Differences in Attitudinal Devices Found between Informative and Persuasive Speech Genres

Attitude Marker	**Speech Genre**	$\bar{X}$	**SD**	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
Verbs	Informative	0.32	0.75	-0.793	102	0.430
	Persuasive	0.51	1.58			
Adjectives	Informative	8.52	4.96	-1.336	102	0.184
	Persuasive	10.05	6.61			
Adverbs	Informative	1.20	2.07	-1.408	102	0.162
	Persuasive	1.80	2.27			
Nouns	Informative	0.04	0.25	-1.395	102	0.166
	Persuasive	0.13	0.43			

According to Table 4.20, there is no significant difference in the use of all types of attitude markers between informative and persuasive speech genres.

Table 4.21 Differences in Self-Mention Found between Informative and Persuasive Speech Genres

Self-Mention	Speech Genre	$\bar{X}$	SD	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Subjective	Informative	18.78	13.33	0.077	102	0.938
	Persuasive	18.60	10.55			
Objectives	Informative	3.39	3.52	0.392	102	0.696
	Persuasive	3.14	2.96			
Possessive	Informative	6.31	7.73	1.857	102	0.066
	Persuasive	4.15	3.29			
Reflexive	Informative	0.32	0.94	1.505	102	0.135
	Persuasive	0.10	0.42			
Exclusive	Informative	1.10	7.67	0.810	102	0.420
We	Persuasive	0.22	1.31			

Lastly, the differences in the use of all types of self-mentions are also not statistically significant, as shown in Table 4.21.

To briefly conclude, among the differences in the use of authorial stances found in informative and persuasive speech genres, only booster adverbs, and hedge modals, display statistical significance ($p < 0.05$).

RQ4: Do differences in the use of authorial stances exist between the first and second informative and persuasive speeches?

In answering research question four (RQ4), the mean values of each stance type found in both rounds of the informative and persuasive speech genres are compared.

Table 4.22 Averages of Boosting Devices Found in both Rounds of both Speech Genres

	Speech Genres							
	Informative				**Persuasive**			
Booster	**Speech Round**				**Speech Round**			
	First		Second		First		Second	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Verbs	6.94	5.22	7.84	4.17	5.79	4.01	7.81	6.40
Adjectives	0.83	1.30	0.92	1.41	0.61	1.03	0.66	1.17
Adverbs	13.92	9.69	18.06	11.09	17.67	8.09	22.24	10.61
Modals	12.29	11.89	12.14	9.39	10.38	8.65	12.93	8.21
Nouns	0.08	0.40	0.28	0.80	0.23	0.90	0.19	0.69

For boosters, all sub-categories show an increase in the mean value in the second round of the informative speech, except for booster modal, in which the second round shows relatively less usage (see Table 4.22). For persuasive speeches, on the other hand, all sub-categories of booster increased in frequency for the second round, except for booster nouns, in which the frequency slightly dropped, as shown in Table 4.22.

Table 4.23 Averages of Hedging Devices Found in both Rounds of both Speech Genres

	Speech Genres							
	Informative				**Persuasive**			
Hedge	**Speech Round**				**Speech Round**			
	First		Second		First		Second	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Verbs	1.04	1.63	0.09	0.31	0.36	0.70	0.40	0.98
Adjectives	2.34	2.58	3.09	3.55	1.96	2.10	2.73	2.57
Adverbs	11.00	7.69	10.45	6.77	9.32	6.59	10.23	6.51
Modals	15.39	8.26	16.59	10.21	19.26	10.30	20.43	9.14
Nouns	.00	.00	.00	.00	0.07	0.24	0.04	0.20
Self-Mentions	0.89	1.98	0.93	1.76	1.70	2.45	0.95	1.68

Regarding hedging devices, the informative sub-corpus reveals an increase in the frequency in the second round for hedge adjectives, modal verbs, and self-mention hedges. Hedge verbs and hedge adverbs show the opposite, a decrease in frequency in the second round, whereas hedge nouns remain the same at no frequency at all for both rounds of the informative speech genre. This is illustrated in Table 4.23 above.

Concerning the persuasive speech genre, hedge verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and modal verbs increase in frequencies for the second round, while hedge nouns and self-mention hedge both show a decline in frequencies in the second round (see Table 4.23).

Table 4.24 Averages of Attitudinal Devices Found in both Rounds of both Speech Genres

	Speech Genres							
	Informative				**Persuasive**			
Attitudinals	**Speech Round**				**Speech Round**			
	First		Second		First		Second	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Verbs	0.48	0.90	0.15	0.54	0.65	2.05	0.36	0.93
Adjectives	7.61	3.79	9.43	5.85	10.86	7.32	9.25	5.85
Adverbs	0.82	1.52	1.58	2.47	1.58	2.07	2.02	2.48
Nouns	0.07	0.36	.00	.00	0.12	0.35	0.14	0.50

According to Table 4.24, the frequencies of attitude marker adjectives and adverbs increased in the second round of the informative speech genre. However, attitude verbs show a drop in the frequency in the second round, as well as attitude marker nouns, which declined from a mean value of 0.07 to none.

In the persuasive speech sub-category, the two stance types that increased in frequencies in the second round are attitude marker adverbs, and attitude markers nouns. Attitude marker verbs, and attitude marker adjectives show the opposite, declining in frequencies in the second round (see Table 4.24).

Table 4.25 Averages of Self-Mentions Found in both Rounds of both Speech Genres

	Speech Genres							
	Informative				**Persuasive**			
Self-Mention	**Speech Round**				**Speech Round**			
	First		Second		First		Second	
	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD	$\bar{X}$	SD
Subjective	21.47	16.47	16.09	8.72	18.20	9.42	19.00	11.74
Objective	4.22	4.31	2.56	2.31	3.19	3.19	3.09	2.77
Possessive	7.98	9.46	4.64	5.15	4.91	3.45	3.39	2.99
Reflexive	0.41	1.00	0.23	0.89	0.08	0.39	0.13	0.46
Exclusive We	2.20	10.84	.00	.00	0.09	0.48	0.35	1.80

Finally, all types of self-mention in the informative sub-corpus display a decrease in the frequencies in the second round, whereas this is also true only for the objective and possessive forms of self-mentions in the persuasive speech sub-corpus (see Table 4.25).

In brief, it can be concluded that differences exist in the use of authorial stances between the first and second round of both speech genres. However, to further address this question, a paired sample t-test was performed on the data to test hypothesis three (H3). The results are as follows.

H3: There is no significant difference in the use of authorial stances in the first and second speeches of both informative and persuasive genres.

Table 4.26 Differences in the Use of Boosting Devices Found in both Speech Rounds

		Paired Samples Statistics				Sig.
	Booster	$\bar{X}$	**SD**	**t**	**df**	**(2-taled)**
Pair 1	Verb Round 1 -	6.37	4.64	-1.509	51	0.137
	Verb Round 2	7.83	5.35			
Pair 2	Adjective Round 1 -	0.72	1.17	-.338	51	0.737
	Adjective Round 2	0.79	1.29			
Pair 3	Adverb Round 1 -	15.80	9.04	-2.544	51	0.014*
	Adverb Round 2	20.15	10.95			
Pair 4	Modal Round 1 -	11.33	10.34	-.930	51	0.357
	Modal Round 2	12.54	8.74			
Pair 5	Noun Round 1 -	0.15	0.69	-.765	51	0.448
	Noun Round 2	0.23	0.74			

As seen in Table 4.26, there is a significant difference in the use of booster adverbs between the first round of the speech (M = 15.80, SD = 9.04) and the second round of the speech (M = 20.15, SD = 10.95), $t(51) = -2.54$, ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4.27 Differences in the Use of Hedging Devices Found in both Speech Rounds

		Paired Samples Statistics				
	Hedge	$\overline{X}$	**SD**	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-taled)**
Pair 1	Verb Round 1 -	0.70	1.29	2.246	51	0.029*
	Verb Round 2	0.24	0.74			
Pair 2	Adjective Round 1 -	2.15	2.34	-1.454	51	0.152
	Adjective Round 2	2.91	3.08			
Pair 3	Adverb Round 1 -	10.16	7.14	-0.162	51	0.872
	Adverb Round 2	10.34	6.58			
Pair 4	Modal Round 1 -	17.32	9.45	-0.684	51	0.497
	Modal Round 2	18.51	9.79			
Pair 5	Noun Round 1 -	0.03	0.17	0.463	51	0.645
	Noun Round 2	0.02	0.14			
Pair 6	Self-Mention Round 1 -	1.30	2.24	0.886	51	0.380
	Self-Mention Round 2	0.94	1.70			

As shown in Table 4.27, there is a significant difference in the use of hedge verbs between the first round of the speech (M = 0.7, SD = 1.29) and the second round of the speech (M = 0.24, SD = 0.74), $t(51) = 2.25$, ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4.28 Differences in the Use of Attitudinal Devices Found in both Speech Rounds

		Paired Samples Statistics				
	Attitude Marker	$\overline{X}$	**SD**	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-taled)**
Pair 1	Verb Round 1 -	0.57	1.57	1.257	51	0.215
	Verb Round 2	0.26	0.76			
Pair 2	Adjective Round 1 -	9.23	6.00	-0.098	51	0.923
	Adjective Round 2	9.34	5.79			
Pair 3	Adverb Round 1 -	1.20	1.84	-1.298	51	0.200
	Adverb Round 2	1.80	2.46			
Pair 4	Noun Round 1 -	0.10	0.35	0.378	51	0.707
	Noun Round 2	0.07	0.36			

The differences found in the use of all sub-categories of attitude markers in the first and second round of the speech are not statistically significant, as seen in Table 4.28.

Table 4.29 Differences in the Use of Self-Mentions Found in both Speech Rounds

		Paired Samples Statistics				
	Self-Mention	$\bar{X}$	**SD**	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2-taled)**
Pair 1	Subjective Round 1 -	19.84	13.39	1.083	51	0.284
	Subjective Round 2	17.55	10.35			
Pair 2	Objective Round 1 -	3.71	3.79	1.520	51	0.135
	Objective Round 2	2.83	2.54			
Pair 3	Possessive Round 1 -	6.45	7.22	2.063	51	0.044*
	Possessive Round 2	4.02	4.22			
Pair 4	Reflexive Round 1 -	0.24	0.77	0.410	51	0.683
	Reflexive Round 2	0.18	0.70			
Pair 5	Exclusive We Round 1 -	1.15	7.67	0.895	51	0.375
	Exclusive We Round 2	0.18	1.27			

Finally, as shown in Table 4.29, there is a significant difference between the use of self-mention possessives in the first round of the speech (M = 6.45, SD = 7.22) and in the second round of the speech (M = 4.02, SD = 4.22), $t(51) = 2.063$, ($p < 0.05$).

To summarize, differneces existed between the first and the second rounds of the speech; however, only booster adverb, hedge verb, and self-mention possessive were statistically significant.

4.2 Summary of the Results

From the results, as addressed by each research question above, it can be concluded that all four types of authorial stance, namely booster, hedge, attitude marker, and self-mention, are employed by undergraduate students in the corpus of this present study. By comparing all stance types, the subjective first person pronoun ‘I’ is the most frequently used authorial stance throughout the entire corpus.

The functions of self-mentions were the most vividly used, whereas boosters, hedges, and attitude markers performed their normal functions.

Though differences in the use of authorial stance did exist between the female speakers and their male counterparts, such differences were not statistically significant. The same is true when comparing the differences between the stances found in the informative and persuasive speech genres, except for two particular stance types; i.e., booster adverbs and modal hedges, which showed significant differences (see Table 4.18 and Table 4.19).

Further, the paired sample t-test performed in the study reveals that booster adverbs, hedge verbs, and possessive forms of self-mention revealed statistically significant differences between the first and second rounds of the delivered speeches (see Table 4.26, Table 4.27, and Table 4.29). Furthermore, Table 4.30 illustrates a summary of these results.

The results reported in this chapter are discussed further in the next chapter.

Table 4.30 Sumary of the Results

Research Questions	Results
RQ1: What are the types of authorial stances found in the informative and persuasive speeches delivered in an undergraduate level public speaking class? What are the functions of each type?	Boosters Hedges Attitude Markers Self-Mentions Functions: architect, opinion-holder, self-mention hedge, self-repair, testimonials, reminder, establishing credibility, double usage, emphatic, modifier
RQ2: What are the most frequently used stance types and the most frequently used linguistic items of each type in the informative and persuasive speech genres?	Booster: Adverbs (most frequently used) Hedge: Modal Verbs (most frequently used) Attitude Marker: Adjectives (most frequently used) Self-Mention: Subjective 'I' (most frequently used and most frequently used overall in the corpus)
RQ3: Do differences in the use of authorial stances exist between female and male undergraduate students in informative and persuasive speeches?	Differences did exist, but none was statistically significant (between genders). Differences did exist, but only booster adverbs, and hedge modal verbs were statistically significant (between genres).
RQ4: Do differences in the use of authorial stances exist between the first and second informative and persuasive speeches?	Differences did exist, but only booster adverbs, hedge verbs, and possessive form of the self-mentions were statistically significant (between rounds).

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This present study was conducted to examine the use of authorial stances found in a corpus of informative and persuasive speeches delivered by students in an undergraduate level in a classroom context. The purpose was to explore the types, the frequencies, and the differences in the use of authorial stances, comparing between speech genres, genders of the speakers, and the rounds of the speech. The theoretical literature on this subject is specifically lacking in the context of spoken discourse. This study, therefore, sought to answer four research questions, as earlier noted in Chapter 1.

The main empirical findings were summarized within the previous chapter. This chapter, therefore, synthesizes the empirical findings to answer the study's four research questions.

5.1 Discussion

5.1.1 Types of Authorial Stances

The types of authorial stances found in informative and persuasive speeches delivered in an undergraduate level public speaking class were boosters, hedges, attitude markers, and self-mentions. As noted in the previous chapter, all four types of authorial stances concerned in this present investigation were found in the corpus. Previous research (e.g. Biber, 2006; Tracy, 2011) has also found such stances in the spoken discourse. Examples of the functions of each type of stance found in the corpus are discussed in the following section.

It is interesting to note that the use of the self-mention "I" was the most frequent among other stance types in the corpus. When comparing between genders, it is revealed that make speakers employed the self-mention "I" more than their female counterparts. The difference, however, was not statistically significant.

It is important to note that in a spoken discourse setting, spoken speech in the classroom in particular, the use of the self-mention “I” may be more necessary when compared to the usage in written discourse, in which academic convention discourage the use of the self-mention “I”. When the speaker is attempting to get the message across, it may be more effective to employ the self-mention “I”, making the message more personal and therefore positioning themselves into the discourse.

Given that the instructor of the Public Speaking course in this investigation allowed no script to be used when delivering the speech, it is rather normal thayt certain mistakes, both grammatical and contextual, in the speech occurred. In correcting such mistakes, speakers employed the self-mention ‘I’ to perform the role of self-repairs (Fernández-Polo, 2014), contributing to the number of ‘I’s found in the corpus. Function of the self-mention ‘I’ is discussed with some other functions in the following section.

5.1.1.1 Functions of Self-Mentions

The results yielded from this present study show that self-mention is realized mainly through the use of the first person singular pronoun, ‘I’, as well as some instances of the exclusive ‘we’.

In 1999, Tang and John suggested six functions of self-mentions as employed by the authors in discourse. The six functions are Representative, Guide, Architect, Re-counter, Opinion-holder, and Originator, as discussed in details in Chapter 2.

The function of an Architect (Tang & John, 1999) is frequently presented in the corpus. This may be because the lesson in the Public Speaking course itself emphasizes the need to ‘preview’ to the audience what was about to be said. The speakers in the corpus of the present study tried to outline the speech for the listeners, as realized through the use of self-mentions. Examples include the following.

> (Text Sample 1)
> And I have five main point that I want to tell you about his biography. […]The first one I will talk to you about is the introduction, his background, his family, and how he became king.
> (Text Sample 2)

> I will not talk about how it gets into your bloodstream like that. I will tell you about how it can be used with the object around us. First I will talk about the object in the house.

> (Text Sample 3)
> Today I will inform you guys about vegetarian, or veggies. By the end of my speech you guys will learn what type of veggie, health benefit of being veggie, veggie celebrity and the trick to be a veggie.

Such functions of the self-mention are often employed together with logical markers such as first, second, and third as the collocations to the self-mention. The author perceives this as an attempt to organize the discourse so that it is logical, and most importantly, comprehensible.

Personal comments and opinions are realized through the function of an 'Opinion-holder', as described by Tang and John in 1999. The corpus of this present study reveals the same result: speakers employ self-mentions to state their comments and opinions personally. This is most common in the form of 'I think'.

> (Text Sample 4)
> Finally, I think those tips that I said which are singing, exercising, talking with my family, and silence might help you to reduce your temper as well, so thank you.

> (Text Sample 5)
> I think this way is better, drinking a cup of beer, just one cup per night, it can be good for your heart and improve your blood pressure like that, but just one cup of beer.

> (Text Sample 6)
> I think this will be helpful, ah, useful to you.

(Text Sample 7)

I think most of Thai people like to stay at home or go to the department store to shopping.

Aside from performing the function of an opinion-holder (Tang & John, 1999), the phrase ‘I think’, also serves as the so-called self-mention hedge (Aull & Lancaster, 2014). The speakers are attaching themselves to the claim they are making to make the claim appear less certain, so as to avoid generalizing or assuming the claim to be true to everyone, as in the example below:

(Text Sample 8)

I think when you still have the cellphone next to you but you didn’t chat, I think you use it for alarm clock.

The self-repair function of ‘I mean’ (Fernández-Polo, 2014) is also presented in the corpus. This is when the speaker tries to readjust or modify the discourse, especially when something is said incorrectly.

(Text Sample 9)

I will say that everyone in this society of the world can be compared to the picture, I’m sorry I mean drawing.

The speaker here stated something incorrectly and immediately performed the self-repair function. This, however, only occurred once in the corpus.

The corpus of this present study revealed other pragmatic functions of self-mention, which are consistent with the techniques as presented in the textbook (Lucas, 2001) used in the curriculum of the public speaking course in this research, namely testimony, reminder, developing credibility.

When the speakers try to convince the listeners, testimonial, or examples from the speakers themselves, are frequently used. Such testimonials are realized and organized through the use of the first person pronoun ‘I’, linking the example to the speakers’ own experiences.

(Text Sample 10)

I try this most of the time when I ask my boyfriend a question, and it work,

(Text Sample 11)

I am a person who always have a problem with dry skin since I was teenage. And I try to find many ways to freshen up my skin.

(Text Sample 12)

… Ah let me tell you an example. My sister had the boyfriend and he is a playboy and he cheated on my sister ten times, but my sister always give him a chance to fix himself…

(Text Sample 13)

I weighed about 95 kilograms, yeah. I was eating a lot of junk food, and when I eat I always eat at night, when I eat I just straight to the bed, like that. Sometimes no brush my teeth at all.

(Text Sample 14)

I used to be the one who ever been there, I am an exchange student who join in this program as well.

Not only did speakers in the corpus give testimonies in their speeches, but they also tended to use themselves as a reminder, i.e., to re-emphasize the points they have already stated:

(Text Sample 15)

So I have told you the three advantages of the work experience,

(Text Sample 16)

Up to this point I have already mentioned about two things, which are time and words. Let's move to the next one.

(Text Sample 17)

I give you already two benefit.

In addition, it is fairly important for both genres of speech that the speakers possess a certain level of credibility to make their informative speech sound reliable and their persuasive speech convincing. This is mostly realized through the use of self-mentions.

(Text Sample 18)

I got the information from the data base form the website […] according to the research…

(Text Sample 19)

I got this information from the […] ah I shows that about 60 percent of people who use this technique are success and based on my friends experience she tell me she has been doing this technique and she found that her skin are whiter more than before.

(Text Sample 20)

I got this, not from me, I'm not a professional, but I got his from …

(Text Sample 21)

Furthermore, I got some useful information from the Thai tourism.

It can be concluded that there were no incidental 'I's in the corpus. Every occurrence of the self-mention 'I' has a linguistic function to perform, as suggested in the examples above.

5.1.1.2 Functions of Boosters and Hedges

As noted in chapter IV, booster is the most frequently used stance in both speech genres. Boosters are found the most in the informative and persuasive corpora

of both female and male speakers, whereas hedges come in second place in terms of frequency.

Both boosters and hedges were realized through the use of modal verbs. For boosters, the modal ‘will’ appeared 743 times, and the hedge ‘can’ appeared 699 times in the entire corpus.

It is then important to consider the question of whether or not the students in the sample intended to employ ‘will’, and ‘can’ as booster and hedge. One issue that arises is the language proficiency that might affect their lexical choices. One instance is from a speech delivered by a female speaker, as seen below:

(Text Sample 22)

> The […] staff will let the representative to wash their face by using their cleansing method, and then check their skin age by use the moisturizer and flexibility level.

The speaker is narrating a past event from a story of a television show. Considering the use of ‘will’ here, one may perceive it as a use of incorrect tense. To some, past events should be retold through the use of the past tense, and not the future tense. With this view, one may easily disregard the ‘will’ in this example as an instance of booster use, as it should not have been in the sentence in the first place.

The modal ‘can’ appears as the most frequently used hedging device.

(Text Sample 23)

> This problem <u>can</u> be solved by giving direct information to the people who want to buy or feed them…

(Text Sample 24)

> …your new shoes, new bags <u>it can</u> show that how luxury your lifestyle is it <u>can</u> make you look rich…

One use of booster and hedge worth noting is when the speakers employ both in the same sentence, for example:

(Text Sample 25)

I believe that most of you or maybe all of you here are playing the game every day or searching the information or to communicate with your friends through Facebook or Skype.

(Text Sample 26)

…ah I am quite sure that all of you ever heard about this information before…

(Text Sample 27)

And if you get hungry and go into seven eleven what will you get? I'm pretty sure that you'll probably end up with sausage.

(Text Sample 28)

…your BB, iPhone, so I'm sure that you might have a lot of application on there…

Speakers used boosters and hedges in the same sentence, or even used a hedging device to modify a booster (text sample 26). This raises the question of whether or not it is intentional, and whether the effectiveness of boosters and hedges will be reduced.

Speakers also, however, use emphatic lexical items to enhance the effect of a booster, as seen in the use of the emphatic 'do'.

(Text Sample 29)

And I do believe that this is one of the Asian secret to youthful skin.

(Text Sample 30)

I did believe like that too.

(Text Sample 31)

…and I still do believe that 100 percent of everybody in this room will agree with me that smartphone gives us a lot of benefit.

Repetitions are also used to emphasize a booster. Judging from the way they are produced, para-linguistically, the author believes that the following repetitions were intentional and were meant to emphasize a point.

(Text Sample 32)
…but then they still lost because of the resources and many things that the Burmese were really really good at.

(Text Sample 33)
Yes, and basically this feature makes the game really realistic, and makes it really really live.

(Text Sample 34)
…that you can play DVD as well, and this is really really cool.

(Text Sample 35)
…it isn't gonna match well because there are really really a lot more smokers than the smoking room available…

(Text Sample 36)
I think this place is really really great.

5.1.1.3 Functions of Attitude Markers

Attitude markers are the least used among all four types of authorial stances. It is, however, realized most thorough the use of adjectives, whereas nouns are barely used. Regarding adjectives, one of the most common adjectives used was 'good'.

(Text Sample 37)

And it is a good idea to take a lot of picture and be creative and move around and see which is better for each plate.

(Text Sample 38)

… to show them that this place is good

(Text Sample 39)

Yes! Good, very good.

(Text Sample 40)

…my friend she has to wait till nine thirty and finally she has to skip nine a.m. class, which is not good reason.

5.1.2 Authorial Stance Usage Frequencies

The most frequently used stance types in both the informative and persuasive speech genres was self-mention (subjective 'I'). This is in line with Lee and Subtirelu (2015), who also found in their study that the first personal pronoun 'I' was more frequently used than the exclusive 'we'. The present study found that the exclusive 'we' was used by only four speakers, whereas all 26 speakers did make use of the personal pronoun 'I'. Such findings are also similar to that of Fortanet (2004) who found that the use of 'we' was of lower frequency than that of 'I' in the spoken discourses.

The present study found a few instances of the use of the exclusive 'we', one of which can be considered as performing the representative function of the self-mention (Tang & John, 1999), realized through the use of the exclusive 'we' to represent a group of people.

(Text Sample 41)

"In Chiang Mai we have a lot tourist attraction, like […] this is the […] and […]. And if you compare to, and we also have the historic site that tell our long story, unlike Phuket, they have only sea for sightseeing. This

flowers, can you see in Phuket? No they don't have it. And we have the mountain which is the tallest mountain in Thailand."

The speaker in text sample 41 tried to persuade her audience that travelling in Chiang Mai is better than travelling in Phuket. She gives specific details of the tourist attractions, using the exclusive 'we' to refer to people of Chiang Mai and herself, who is also from Chiang Mai, although the audience is not from Chiang Mai. This example is rather clear, as separation in the use of pronouns is presented. The speaker referred to the people of Phuket as 'they', discriminating herself as not being a part of those in Phuket, in her discourse.

Furthermore, adverbs were the most frequent type of booster, whereas modal verbs were the most frequent type of hedge, and adjectives were the most frequently used form of attitude marker.

Examples from the corpus showed that most booster adverbs were realized through the use of lexical items, such as 'really' and 'very'. It is important to consider that, in the Thai educational system, Thai students were taught a very limited number of words, giving them limited lexical choices, as suggested by (Sukhanindr, 2008). As a result, the only available lexical items for the students when attempting to boost their claim may be restricted to these two common adverbs. The use of booster nouns, for instance, to emphasize a claim or statement was considerably rare in the corpus.

Modal verbs for hedges, on the other hand, were the most frequently used. It may be due to the same reason as suggested by Sukhanindr (2008); that the students were familiar with few word choices. Therefore, the common modal verbs, ones such as 'may', and 'can', were repeatedly used in the corpus.

Lastly, it is not surprising that adjectives were the most frequently used form of attitude marker. As suggested by Abdollahzadeh (2011) and Adam and Quintana-Toledo (2013), attitude markers were mainly used to express the author's, in this particular case, the speaker's attitudes, affective values, or personal evaluation towards the subject matter. As Thai students are somewhat familiar to the use of adjectives in modifying a noun, giving it values such as 'good', or 'bad', attitude marker adjectives were the most frequently used in this type of stance. This may also be because Thai students have never been taught how to evaluate or express personal judgments towards

a subject through the verbal realizations of evaluative nouns; for example, they tend to employ only adjectives when they need to show evaluations.

Furthermore, attitude markers were the least employed by the speakers in the corpus as a whole. This is also consistent to that of Lee and Subtirelu (2015), who also stated that spoken discourse does not require much use of attitude markers because other paralinguistic features, especially the tone, the pitch, and the speed of voice, have already signaled attitudes towards the subject spoken. Therefore, the verbal realizations of attitudes are not as necessary in spoken discourse as they are in written discourse, where these paralinguistic features are missing.

5.1.3 Differences in the Use of Authorial Stances between Genders and between Speech Genres

Differences in the use of authorial stances did exist between female and male undergraduate students; however, there was no statistical significance. Differences in the use of authorial stances between speech genres, on the other hand, existed, with booster adverbs, and modal hedges being statistically significant.

Given that the students concerned in this study, both female and male, were not introduced to the concepts of authorial stances, they tend to employ such stances with no strategy, and therefore showed no significant difference between the two groups of gender.

It is interesting to note that both booster adverbs and modal hedges, both of which were statistically significant, were found more frequently in the persuasive genre. As suggested by Vázquez and Giner (2009), boosters allow the author, in this case the speaker, to be seen as more credible and more knowledgeable. It is also crucial that the speaker appears convincing in a persuasive speech; therefore, the booster adverbs were found more frequently in the persuasive genre than that of the informative genre.

Simultaneously, it is also interesting that modal hedges were also found more frequently in the persuasive genre. Speakers may also find it necessary to open certain spaces for the listeners to dispute (Aull & Lancaster, 2014), and therefore employed hedges in their persuasive speeches alongside the boosters. Examples from the corpus showing instances of boosters being used together with hedges can be found in text samples 25 to 28.

5.1.4 Differences in the Use of Authorial Stances between Speech Rounds

Lastly, differences in the use of authorial stances did exist between the first and second informative and persuasive speeches; however, only booster adverbs, hedge verbs, and possessive form of the self-mentions were statistically significant.

Of the three types of stances that were statistically different between rounds, only booster adverbs showed an increase of usage in the second round of both informative and persuasive genres, whereas the other two declined in the second round of both genres.

Since the usage of these authorial stances were not on a strategic level, as such concepts were unknown to the students, the differences that occurred between rounds might not be intentional. In other words, students concerned in this study did not purposely increase nor did they purposely lower the use of the aforementioned stances in their speech.

5.2 Conclusion

As the empirical findings of this investigation suggest, authorial stances, namely boosters, hedges, attitude markers, and self-mentions, are parts of the Thai students' vocabulary repertoire.

It is important to note that, as can be expected, the self-mention "I" was the most frequently used stance in the corpus, whereas attitude markers were the least employed. Possible reasons may be that the speakers need to position themselves into the discourse, resulting in the considerable implementation of "I" to establish a persona (Hyland, 1998; Vazquer & Giner, 2009) in the discourse. On the other hand, attitude markers were not as necessary because attitudes or personal judgments towards the subject matter have already been expressed through the various paralinguistic features (e.g., the tone of voice), and other bodily movements (Lee & Subtirelu, 2015).

Furthermore, noteworthy was the fact that booster adverbs and modal hedges were found more frequently in the persuasive genre. It is an assumption that the speakers require a certain level of credibility (Vazquer & Giner, 2009) while at the same time need to open certain spaces for the listeners to dispute in the discourse (Aull & Lancaster, 2014).

When comparing between the rounds of both genres, it is rather uncertain why such differences occurred. Further investigation may be needed to conclude this matter.

5.3 Recommendations

5.3.1 Recommendations for Instruction

The empirical findings from this study suggest that authorial stances are employed by undergraduate students, despite the fact that the topic has never been a part of the lesson plan. This also suggests that the use of authorial stances may not be as strategically employed as it should be. The author proposes that the topic be introduced in an academic manner to students of public speaking courses alongside other linguistic feature that are already being taught (e.g., logical markers and verbal signposts) so that they employ the stances strategically in the future, allowing themselves to make optimal use of their speech.

Furthermore, educating Thai students of these authorial stances may increase their range of lexical choices under each category of stances. As also suggested by Sukhanindr (2008), students in the corpus of this investigation tend to employ the same few words they are accustomed to, diminishing the potential to expand their styles of speech development. By introducing such topics to Thai students, they may become more competent speakers of English in the future.

5.3.2 Recommendation for Future Research

This research was conducted to examine the authorial stances used in a spoken discourse, with different genders as the point of comparison. Although the population was that of international students in an international university, the samples selected for the study were only Thai students, due to the limitations stated earlier in Chapter I. Therefore, genders and the speech genres were the only points of comparison made. Future research may focus on comparing between the nationalities of the speakers as well as cross-cultural based analysis, which has also been one of the researchers' interests in the literature (e.g. Precht, 2003).

Moreover, in light of the concept of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), the effects that ELF in the classroom has on the use of authorial stances among students

should then be examined in further studies. Students may be performing a different persona when delivering a speech in English.

In addition, this present study is rather a descriptive report on the use of authorial stances in classroom speeches. Furture research may also seek to discuss the concept in a more critical analysis.

Lastly, to ensure that awareness is raised among the students, future research may seek to investigate the students' conceptions of the concept of authorial stances as well.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

COURSE DESCRIPTIONS

EN 4233

Public Speaking in English

3 Credits

Prerequisite: BG 2001 English IV

Course Description:

The course introduces up-to-date methods and techniques for better listening, better thinking, better speaking and provides practice in delivering and evaluating speeches according to international requirements with attention to the speech components of voice, gestures, spearker-listener impact, organization and content.

Objectives: This course aims to enable students to:

1) Work successfully towards the public presentation of a specific project

2) Organize their ideas into coherently structured presentations

3) Practice formal speaking in real life situations

4) Achieve two major goals of public speaking, i.e., to inform and to persuade

Public speaking in English will place students in a specific context and lead them through a variety of speaking situations such as, informative speeches, panel discussion, debate, and persuasive speeches.

Teaching and Learning Activities:

Class format will alternate between lectures (presentation of skill, types of speech, etc.), workshops where the students prepare a project in class, with guidance from the instructor; and individual presentations by the students. Instructors may modify the schedule and activities set forth in this outline depending on the class size, and time constraints due to length of presentations and the need to provide effective feedback to students.

BG 2001

English IV

3 Credits

Prerequisite: BG 2000 English III

Advanced English for academic and career purposes, emphasizing critical and analytical skills, and formulating logical and coherent opinions

Objectives: this course aims to enable students to:

1) Read and understand academic texts and articles concerning current affairs

2) Write effective reports and essays

3) Interpret statistical data

4) Identify errors in written texts and correct them

5) Make oral presentations and participate actively on group discussions

6) Critically analyze, argue, and present contemporary issues

7) Develop strong moral character and appropriate professional ethics through class discussion, assignments, and collaborative learning activities

Appendix B

SAMPLES FROM THE CORPUS[4]

1. First Round of Informative Speech (Female)

[…] lady and gentlemen. Today I'm going to talk about the signs of lying. And the topic is "How can you tell when boyfriend or girlfriend is lying to you'. alright, let me start with a question, "Have your boyfriend or girlfriend ever lied to you, or even you ever lied to them?" just keep your answer in mind, I I really don't wanna know. Umm, I actually got got the inspiration from a tv show called lie to me. In this show, there are experts of lying. They can tell right away that the person they are talking to is telling the truth or lying. And it really impress me, so after I watch this show, I google it, and, yeah, it's my inspiration. And of course, it's also from my own experience. Umm, I chose three major of technique that can tell you the person you are talking to are lying to you or not. It's very simple and easy that you can do it. Umm, first, lack of eye contact. One of the classic sign that I believe most of you know. If someone is telling the truth, ah, he or she is likely to give full attention to you. they can look look right to your eye without avoiding eye contact, and maybe too much eye contact. Sometimes liars are aware, they kind of paranoid that you'll catch them, you will know that they are not making enough eye contact. So they give you too much eye contact. It's kind of creepy when it happens. I try this most of the time when I ask my boyfriend a question, and it work, but just sometimes because not everyone can, umm, good at making eye contact, because some some someone they're not comfortable with looking right at people's eye. So let's move to the second sign. They will get mad easily when you ask them the same question for many times. For example, from my own experience, I used to ask my boyfriend question like "did you skip class today?". And for the first and second time he said no. but I didn't believe him. I think he's lying to me. And I wanted him to tell me the truth. So I kept asking him with the same question for like four or

[4] All grammatical and contextual mistakes are kept as is

five times. And, in the end he said “Whatever you think” with a loud noise. And he said, umm “If you don’t believe me so don’t ask”. And I was like, alright you don’t have, you really don’t have to say that loud, it’s okay. And then we end up fight. And for the last sign, there was too much detail for their story. Cuz they are fake that you know that they are lying. And so they have to make so much detail, unnecessary detail to to make their story more believable. And they will say that over and over again with no point, and sometimes they change the subject. And the detail they making, it’s, sometimes it doesn’t have anything to do with the question you ask. And in conclusion, lying is not always bad because, you know for like, white lie. White lie is just a lie that you, you lie for comfort other people’s feelings, and I hope you find my presentation useful for you and it’s really easy. I hope you can do it, adapt to your daily life, thank you.

2. Second Round of Informative Speech (Female)

[…] lady and gentlemen. Today my topic is ‘how can you understand dog language’. And is anyone of you a dog lover or have dog at home? I’m one of you too. I have two dogs at home. They are husky. And, have you ever wonder what is your dog thinking or feeling or why they act like like with like body posture. Today I have three main signs that dog shows, ah, to help you understand more about them. You know, dog have their language. But the language is not the same as our language as you know. It’s ah, body language, body postures, face expressions, and sounds. It’s their, they they communicate by by this signs. And, if you um, have you ever wonder when when the dog bite you your your ah hand, but not not that bite, a softly bite, and pull you, that’s means they want to play with you or eant you to move from what you’re doing. So I have three three three signs. First, when your dogs feels relax, their tail will tail down, ear up, and mouth slightly open. Ah you can see that if just a little. They can almost stand and sits or maybe lie down. That’s means your dogs feel relax, comfortable, and feel unconcerned, unthreatened. Second, when your dog alert, checking things out. Like form my own experience, my dog ah husky, they always alert. They always play with themselves, cuz they’re two, they are two dogs. And also play with me, my mum and dad. Like like their tail always rack or shake, ear up and wide, and mouth um, not not

closed but slightly opened. Um, and they kind of jumping around. Have you seen dog smiled? You know dog smile? Dogs, when dogs smile maybe with people that scare of dogs they think it's scary but, cuz there is show all the teeth they have. That's dog's smile. And for me, my dogs smile very lovely but with other dogs, I I don't like it. And, um the last one, when they feel scare of something or aggressive. First if they're scare of something like. Form my own experience, when my dog, um they, they bite, um, trees in my home, at my home, and my mum also gets mad when they do that. So she will act like she was hitting them and they will like, um, I don't know what to say. they'll keep their, their legs together and close their eyes, and their ears will close. Like these, that shows your dog to be like this. And when they aggressive, when they aggressive, they will show their teeth, open their mouth and maybe some some dogs will, ah, crawl, means produce noise, um, voice maybe loud or maybe um, not that loud. To show that they are feared, don't come near them. So if you see a dog do that, if you afraid of dogs, so be aware of it, don't get close to them. Um, for, in conclusion, if you think my presentation useful today you can remember and try at home in your dogs. So go back and observe your dogs if they do this or not, thank you for your attention.

3. First Round of Persuasive Speech (Female)

[…] lady and gentleman, my topic today is, 'Do you really need to have a plastic surgery?' let me start with our plastic surgery. For everyone I think it's very normal for you right? And it's not a big deal at all to have a plastic surgery, especially for girls. Ahh I have to admit to that I once used to want to have a plastic surgery. It's to do a nose job. Because I am surrounding by people who do a nose job, Botox, and filler shots. Do you know filler shots? It's a chemical liquid to shot in your face, your nose, it can help your nose shape better and stand out. And botox can help your face look thinner. But, it is not permanent. It's just for like six months to one year. It depends on how you live your life. And so, I was interested in having a plastic surgery. Then I started studying about plastic surgery a lot in the internet, and I found that there are high risks and many chances to after having plastic surgery it will it will has a mistakes and so I gets scared especially I scare of getting hurt. And after you having a plastic surgery, it takes weeks to recover everything. And I will have to spend a lot of money

too. Personally I love make up as you can see I wear make up every day. And so I watch so many tutorial of make up in YouTube. And I found that there are many techniques to have to to make your face look better without having plastic surgery. By the end of the speech, you might change your mind about plastic surgery, and you will have new attitude of having make up technique. And for guys, by the end of the speech, you will realize that you cannot trust everything you see, because it's not real. It's illusions. Back to the three technique for today. Instead of having plastic surgery, you can have a double eyelid for people who have small eye. All you have to do is buy, I I am, I don't really sure what it is called but it's a tiny paper tape you just put it in the crease of your eye and then you put make up on it, and it works. Because I saw friend do it. And for the second technique, instead of having plastic surgery, you can have your nose stand out. All you have to do is, all you have to have is one bronzer, and the second is highlighter. I'm sure girls know it, but I'm going to tell you. Bronzer is a powder but the shade of color is darker than your skin. And the highlighter is the powder too, but the shade of the color is lighter than your skin, so you just ah, you just need a brush. You ah, pat your brush on the bronzer and then put it on the side of your nose and blend it. Be careful to blend it well, because if you don't blend it well you will look funny. Then after you blend the bronzer on the side of your nose, you put the highlighter on your nose that will stand, make your nose stand out. And for the last technique is how to make your face look thinner by bronzer too. It's called contour or shading. You put bronzer with ah, a bigger brush on your jawline and your ah, under your cheekbone, and blend it well. Be careful to blend it well, avoiding.. Then then you put the highlighter on your cheekbone. It works especially at night when you have a night out with your friend and you take a photo, you look better, And for the conclusion, now you see that you don't have to get hurt or pay thousands of money to to the doctor to put a chemical thing or or anything that you don't know that will affect to your body or not in the future that you can look better. All you have to do is just only those techniques from make up tips.Thank you for your attention.

4. Second Round of Persuasive Speech (Female)

Hi everyone. Today I have an interesting information about cleansing foam I watch from tv show a Korean TV show in YouTube. And I learn about the secret of cleansing foam and I surprise about it. Because I never think that cleansing foam is the cause of aging problem. And I'm sure that most of us didn't, don't know about this before. And the question is what is the cause of aging problem. And what are the great method for us to wash your face. Let's talk about, let's talk to the interesting information. In general, most of people have the […] to cleansing their face, […] and especially the woman who are wearing makeup, there might have the three to four step and the Sponge TV show show the cleansing step of one Korean actress woman. And this is the actual step that she do every day. for the first step, she use cleansing oil to clean her face first then […] the result is there still some dirt as you can see the black spot on her skin. And for second step she use cleansing cream to clean her face again and the result is her skin, ahh, don't have any black spot anymore. But the skn become more dry. For the last step she use cleansing foam to wash her face and the result is her skin look more clean but her skin is very dry too. As you can see her skin break up into tiny pieces. As the result, cleansing in many step can cause your skin become very dry like this. And you might, and you, and the, aging problem will be. The secret of cleanser, cleansing is a chemical that will reduce the surface tension of your skin to help the molecule, the water molecule to fill up your face. For the next experiment is to show how efficient is cleansing foam. This experiment will test by the Sponge staff to use the cleansing foam to wash the oily skin. And when after finish washing, the result is the […] skin look clean and doesn't have any oil in it anymore. And how can you imagine when you wash your face by using cleansing foam it will wash out your oil and also moisturizer, and what will happen to your skin? For the next experiment the question is do you think how […]. The Sponge staff will, this experiment will test by, will test four representative from different age which are ten, twenty, thirty, and forty years old. The Sponge staff will let the representative to wash their face by using their cleansing method, and then check their skin age by use the moisturizer and flexibility level. And the result is the representative who have oldest skin age is the a girl who are twenty years old. And the representative who have less skin age is a woman who are thirty

years old. When the result come up like this the staff ask the representative of how they are take care of their skin and how they wash their skin. By start with the the representative who have, who has oldest skin age and less skin age. From the representative who have oldest skin age is a twenty years old girl. From the experiment, her skin has, her skin has ah, a good flexibility but there are, her skin very dry and don't have moisturizer anymore. She said, ah, she has to take care her skin because she think that she is still young and don't need to take care too much. And for the, for the representative who have a less skin age is thirty years old woman, her skin is very moisture and she said she will put on skin care immediately after she use cleansing foam and do not, and the secret of her baby face is, she will, she won't use the cleansing foam in the morning. because using cleansing foam in the morning will make her skin become very dry and she didn't like it. and, as you can see her face, her skin look very shine and young. So after we have known that the cleansing foam is the cause, uh, can make our skin become very dry and is the cause of skin age. So have to, you should limit using cleansing foam and especially in the morning or before you using cleansing foam you should mix it water first and then you can use it. even you are twenty years old of any age you have to take care your skin and to avoid, to maintain moisturizer and flexibility in your skin and to avoid the older skin age than your age. Thank you.

5. First Round of Informative Speech (Male)

Good morning teacher and friend. And today I will present about the benefit of drinking water. I am surely that ah most of you in here know the benefit of drinking water because it is closely to us because we use it in every day. But the benefit that we know this is the basic thing just like when we drink the water we will fresh and the water can make ah our skin looking good. And for the people who ah want to ah control the weight the water is the best solution for you. And the brain activity is also important because the in the human body we consist of the consist of 50 to ah 70 percent of the water in our body. The amount of water that you just you drink in a day, if you drink enough water in day is the important thing because ah it can use to maintain the healthy body. All of your activity use the water to maintain the power. So, now I will focus on the three benefit thing that we don't know before for the drinking water. Ah to begin with

uh, drinking water can reduce the risk of the cancel (cancer). When you drink the water, water have the ingest to involve to reduce the risk of cancel in the colon cancel and fundal cancel. If you drinking a lot of water, it will eliminate the toxic out from your body. And the second one is the benefit of is of drinking water is human body need the ph7 in our body. The require level of ph in our body is 7. This is the necessary thing because your body need uh the specific level of ph to lead the properly. And actually in our body have a acid and the alkaline is equal but the lifestyle nowadays is changed. Many people ah try to turn to look at the fast food for the convenience when you have the early time like the hamburger or sandwich or something that make you convenience to to eat. The acid acid is from the meat beef and from the beverage that you drink like the Coke or Pepsi or the energy drink. For the alkaline, you can get from the fruit and vegetable like the apple, banana, kiwi, or pineapple. If you ah eat more fruit, you can ah make equal when you eat the acid. But if you don't have the ah don't like to eat the fruit of vegetable, if you drink more water, it can help to balance the between acid and the alkaline. Ah up to this point, I give you already two benefit. The first one is ah drinking water reduce the cancel and the second one is uh human body need the ph7. So let me talk about the last thing is about the ah when we when we drinking the water it can reduce the heart attack. I get the topic from the Linda Loma University in America. They separate two group of people in age of 20 to 60. The first group ah people who drink water ah five to eight glass a day, and the second group is people who drink two or three glass a day. So when after they have finish the research, they compare that people who drinking more water in day is less likely to have the heart attack when compare to the people who drink water ah less in day. So, for my conclusion, ah everyone know the benefit that I told you already. It up to you to drinking water more or less because it's good for your health your body and your mind. If you're ah, in our is a student when we use the brain ah more in day if ah we didn't drink more water we can feel tired or the our brain will not like to think to do something. So ah everything you can buy your health, it you cannot buy it. Thank you.

6. Second Round of Informative Speech (Male)

Good morning teacher and friend. The topic that we chose I chose today is the thing that closely to our real life. How many of you in in class have your own car? And ah who know the basic thing to take care your car like the maintenance. No? Okay why why I chose this topic to show you about because I have one of my friend is a girl who only use the car not to take care her car. One day I sit with her to the Central Bang Na and the normal thing is the the water that clean the the glass and when she use it water is not not come out and she said that why it not come out and I told that and and I ask her did you fill the water or not. She doesn't she doesn't take care anymore she just only drive. Okay, and now I want to share my knowledge to both of you because it is important for us because we use it every day ah for who come here especially if you don't ride taxi you just drive your car. And for the people who do not have car you can told ah your friend ah your family member that how to maintenance is a basic thing and reduce your cost when you go to have your car fix. Okay, when you see your car you see only car or you see baby? For who see only car please rise your hand for the who see with baby left hand. Okay, car is like a baby because ah is important to you you want to take care them. If you take care them it will god for you. I look all of my car like a baby because I like to take care both of them to be good. And if I take care them good, they will take care me good too. For the first thing is about the basic when you before you use the car you can check your car pressure and the thing that you can check your car pressure is only when you didn't use it before like the first time when you before you use car you can check it by the tool that can check is h maybe 200 to 300 baht to the car pressure checker. And what we can know the standard of pressure we put in our tire you can see from the right hand right door when you're driver and you can see a sticker like this paste on the door ah they can told the standard pressure is maybe 32 or 33 but if you like to heavy ah the thing that heavy much or overload you can fill up more pressure like the 40 more something. And ah you never use your eye to maintain that your pressure is good nor not because you cannot see because ah 1 to 20 pressure you cannot see how the different. You just use the checker that I told you. And the machine that I think that most people use in the PTT station is a easy it is automatic pressure you can add the if you want to add more pressure you just plus and

you can reduce you minus. Okay, time to fill up gasoline ah you not fill up your gasoline when the car engine show that it will empty. You must fill up when they are half of the gas tank or something because if you fill up when it empty is tank the pump that we call in the system it not will work at all. And after you fill up your gasoline it full you just don't drive fast you drive it smoothly to make the system to be smooth. And checking oil level and checking oil level is very important because ah your engine use oil to ah to use when you drive and they have the this is a dip stick ah you can pull it out and put it back to check maybe two or three times. And the level of the oil level you should be in the first one is here it is okay it is for the maximum thing and is it here when it can show after you change your oil. And this is for the minimum you can't get the oil below that because it can broken your engine. And when the engine the dark you can change because it is too old. The time to use to maybe ten thousand kilometer. Checking warning light it mean when you're driving your car and the something show like the engine show you just stop and maybe wait for the professional person who get more than to to know your car. Okay and this is a sign that in every car have but it have the different type but for the thing that we have that I show you is the fuel signal and the engine oil level, okay. Thank you for your attention.

7. First Round of Persuasive Speech (Male)

Today the topic that I want to present is about the thing that we like is about the travelling. Ah everyone in here who like to travel in Thailand more than abroad? Okay, now for the people who like travel abroad more than Thailand, today I will talk to persuade you to turn back to travel in Thailand because I think when we travel in Thailand I feel that it's like a home when we go everywhere. Since my home town is in Chonburi, maybe I go to Hua Hin or sometimes other province, I feel that it's like my hometown, it's not like other place that I will go and it mae me funny and nature, and the important thing is the Thailand is the one of the country that have the beautiful place and that when we need to communicate with other people in the different area we can ah can have a many accent like in north south east and west, but we they have the accent in their area like in south when we go we just see that people in south may speak very fast but when we talk in the central language they can understand our language

and they try to assume that in the central language to not in the their ah language in the south. And I have ah three main point to support my […] why ah travel in Thailand is better than abroad. The first one is travel in Thailand is save more cost and the Thai people is very friendly and the last thing is about the food. Ah to start with the first one, the save cost. Ah the cost for travel in Thailand is cheaper when we compare to the when we travel to aboard. It's about the cost of transportation when we travel aboard when we buy the air ticket, it cost about maybe 20 thousand or 30 thousand something. But when compare to travel in Thailand, we have the personal car, we have the van, ah train, maybe on the airplane that we can choose. But the price maybe one thousand something. And the cost for living in the hotel and food and beverage is too low. Ah maybe for the hotel, maybe one thousand to two thousand baht in a good hotel. But when compare to the aboard the room maybe start two thousand or more than that per night. And for the food, the cost for food in the aboard is very expensive because the living cost in Thailand and aboard is very different. And the second one, is the Thai people is very friendly. Thailand is the land of smile. When we meet other people first time we will also smile, and it is nice to you when you meet them in the first time. And when they smile, you think that they feel good and you can ah need help for them. The Thai people also polite, example when we go to travel in the maybe in the Hua Hin, if they if we don't know the place or the restaurant that we want to go, we can ask for the rural people in there. They will smile and explain clearly the way. Ah to ah to let us go the the direct restaurant, and maybe suggest for the place to travel too. And that I told you the first main point and second one is save cost and Thai people is very friendly, the I think the important thing is on the last main point is about the taste of food. Because ah, Thai food is very delicious, and they have the variety of food, and the cost is not expensive especially we not like ah eat the seafood. And all kind of the thai food is like the healthy food because they have the herb in their food like the Tom Yum Kung, we have many kind of herb. And why I choose the food because when we compare the taste the Thai people they have maybe 5 taste is the spicy food, sour, sweet, salty, and bitter. But the for the foreign country, maybe all they have the spicy that only spicy sweet sweet and maybe salty is the salty. But for the Thai food they mix together in ah one dish of the food. And we can easily to find the […] everywhere and every time, especially we can see on the street, we have the little cart or we have the, ah the

restaurant that we can order anything like the we need to fry rice we order fry rice. We need to eat like ah maybe Krapoa Kai Kai Doa something, we can order it. […] ah about the food more than the taste, we can go everywhere but we not expect to eat the food that we go just the normal food that we eat it just like the […] for us to be hungry or something. Ah for my conclusion, ah travel Thai is save cost and people, Thai people is very friendly and the food is very and the food is match to our need. And also when when we travel in Thailand ah we can boost the Thai economy because the money will flow in our country not flow to the other country. And when we travel more in the unseen place that ah that we know and when we have the foreigner friend to come we can persuade them to travel in there. If we have the more information and have more knowledge about […] good background to show them that this place is good, you can go this, like the Talay Wagg in the south is very excited and I think it's very good for the foreigner who want to ah have the new experience. Okay, thank you for your attention.

8. Second Round of Persuasive Speech (Male)

[…] teacher and friend. Today I will present about the topic that I very interesting because it is closely to ah my life, ah it is about the import car in Thailand. And in Thailand, they have the two type of business in Thailand that they doing the business in the import car. For the first one is the independent importer, and the second one is the authorized distributor. Ah what is the independent importer, ah independent importer we can sell all kind of car in the world that they have available, ah such as in the Mercedes-Benz, BMW, Porsche, or Lamborghini. Ah you can ah when you to ah go to showroom inpendent importer you can see the variety of car in showroom. But for the authorized distributor like the […] that you can only sell one or two brand for the […] you can sell the BMW and the minicopper. […] and actually from the projector this two model is the similar and for the price it is very costly, around four million baht. For the teenager who like the model and option, they will chose the this one, from the independent importer. And for the other old parent they will choose the authorized distributor, like they do not need the option or the function more they just need […]. But for the teenager, they like to the function or the look of the model to more than the

authorized distributor. And all kind of the ah independent importer and authorized distributor they have the service to maintenance their car for the customer when they buy. […] and I have four main point that why independent importer is better than authorized distributor. For the first one is the price, the price in independent importer is cheaper than the authorized distributor. Actually, these two car have the same option and function, but for the price, for the white one is about, for the independent importer is about ah 35 million baht. But for the grey one is ah 40 million baht. And very cheap for the option and function. For the yellow one is from the authorized distributor, the price for this model is about ah 25 million baht, but for the orange one is the […] for the customer one want to add more like the one bumper, […] or the carbon interior […] thing that they can add more than they buy from the authorized distributor. And for the price, is cheaper, from the authorized distributor is about 23 million baht. And when you're buy the importing car and when you want to sell in the second hand, the price for the independent importer is higher than the authorized distributor. For the, this model, for the white one is […] now the price for second hand is around 2.2, 2.3 million baht, but for the white one in the same model from the authorized distributor the price be 1.5 to 1.7 million baht. Ah price when when we bought for the first hand the black one is higher than the white one. And I talk about the price the option for the second hand car but let's talk about this for the new model and the special one that authorized dealer they don't have the available to sell, like the this is the last model before change of the Lamborghini, so when the customer order, if they can wait, the process maybe 45 day for to came to Thailand. But if they want to get the car faster, we have the addition service more is like the […] transportation, but the this cost is like the customer they have to pay, it about when when convert to Thai baht is around ah […] baht for this shipping. But they can get ah around one week, not more than that. And that I told you ah we can order for the special model that the authorized, they don't have this like the this model for the […]. Last week, I called […] and he said in Thailand the Ford distributor they don't have this model available. They have only the […] this is for the higher car of […] in the distributor in Thailand. So ah for the independent importer we can order many model that available in the ah […] that they have the available car. It's like the, when compare to the company, they have the many car that we see, on all of Thailand like the Nissan […] something that that the authorized distributor they do not

have in their showroom but the independent importer, we can import them. And for the conclusion, that I told you that I have four major why independent importer is better than authorized distributor. Price is cheaper when compare to the option or function that the same. When we order the same model but different function but the price is different. And when you want to buy for the second hand car you bought for the independent importer you you bought cheaper than the authorized distributor, but when you sell to the second hand car you get higher higher price for the authorized distributor. And for the new model or anything that they […] you can […] to suit to you need and your want so maybe it's specific for you want […]. And for that I told you I am the independent importer so here's my contact information. Thank you for your attention.

BIOGRAPHY

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