

## LANGUAGE AND INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT OF CHINESE STUDENTS IN THAI LIVING AND LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

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**Abstract:** The current study is then to investigate the difficulties in the process of adjustment of Chinese students to the Thai learning environment, and to explore the predictors for their language and interaction adjustment as well as the strategies they use in coping with Thai and English inefficiency and interacting with Thai people. A total of 250 Assumption University students in Thailand participated by responding to a questionnaire developed to meet the objectives of the study. The results of this study suggest that Chinese students have moderate language learning and interaction adjustment, while the variables covered in language adjustment have no significant effects on their language adjustment. Thai and English language proficiency is not found to contribute significantly to the language adjustment. Chinese students are fairly satisfied with their interaction with Thai nations. Cultural identification with the host, perceived personal similarities, positive expectations, and quality of contact with the host, attitude of the host and host receptivity variables contribute greatly to Chinese students' interaction adjustment in Thai learning environment. A multiple regression test shows perceived similarities and attitude of the host toward Chinese students have the strongest predictive power for their interaction adjustment. Demographic variables have some predictive power for Chinese students' adjustment. Female students have less difficulty in Language adjustment and interaction adjustment, indicating female less adjusted to the Thai learning environment. It is also found that the older students are, the less they adjust in learning and interacting with Thai. Length of stay in Thailand has significant impact on their adjustment and amount or kinds of difficulty they experience in Thai learning environment. In coping with Thai language inefficiency, most preferred strategy is to look up in the dictionary followed by avoidance of the topic, co-national help and using English. In terms of interpersonal interaction, the majority of the Chinese students choose to stay with their co-nationals. The rest three strategies in order of frequencies are sharing, support and initiative. Recommendations for Thai School educators and administrators and suggestions for further research on this topic are also discussed. Future research should extend the range of nationalities of international students in Thai higher institutions to generalize more common factors and predictors for their successful adjustment, to explore and classify the causes for their experienced difficulties in adjustment and longitudinal research is

recommended for future research which allows observing the adjustment process over time.

**Keywords:** Chinese students; language adjustment; interaction adjustment; strategies; Thai learning environment

### Introduction

There is hardly any country that is unaffected by the presence of international students in its institutions of higher learning, or the pressure to send some of its own students to study abroad (Paige, 1990). As a component of international exchange and cooperation, international student education has been given great importance by every government. Worldwide, there were more than 2.9 million international students in 2006, a 3 percent increase over the previous year, and almost 8 million students are projected to be studying outside their home countries by 2025. Global student mobility patterns are changing with more countries and institutions seeking students, and more countries having growing pools of students to send (Dessoff, 2010). Consequently, the increasing numbers of international students all around the world and in particular, their ability/inability to adjust to their new environments have attracted attention from researchers.

In Thailand, for example, the international student population has increased significantly over the past five decades. It was reported that from 1950 to the end of 2006, there have been over a million international students studying in Thailand. According to the Education Ministry of Thailand, in 2006, China is the leading country of origin of most international students in Thai tertiary institutions. The presence of Chinese students in Thai tertiary institutions brings both cultural diversity and economic advantages to Thailand. Meanwhile, colleges and universities are called to meet the needs of Chinese students to facilitate their adjustment to Thailand and its culture.

Culture refers to the total system of values, beliefs, attitudes, traditions, and behavioral norms regulating life among a particular group of people (Kornblum, 1991). When individuals are suddenly immersed in a foreign culture, they may not be able to recognize what is considered 'normal' in that culture. Simply, they may be unaware of the cultural cues that dictate what are considered normal behaviors in that culture. Yet, past studies have shown that, regardless of the nature of their sojourn (business or educational purpose, long-term or short-term), people often change when they move to a different country or culture (Anderson, 1994). This change forces individuals to take different strategies to adjust themselves to the environment of the host culture. Research on intercultural adjustment of sojourners has identified a number of different models of intercultural

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adjustment: the U-curve and W-curve hypotheses (Lysgaard, 1955; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963), social cognitive model or the stress-reaction model (Kim, 2005), and the social learning model (Gudykunst, 2005).

Oberg (1954) describes four stages of culture shock pointing out that all people who travel to foreign countries go through the whole process but that the intensity of the experience might vary from person to person. These stages include what are termed the (1) honeymoon stage, (2) involvement stage, (3) coming-to-terms stage, and (4) completion of adjustment stage.

1. *Honeymoon stage* – This stage can last from a few days or weeks and up to six months depending on circumstances. The environment is experienced as new and exciting, and sojourners are fascinated by different customs and traditions. The representatives of the host culture are especially attentive and hospitable.

2. *Involvement stage* – This is the stage when a person starts to experience difficulties in his/her life such as language difficulty, accessing transportation, shopping, housing and everything else that might be different on a daily bases. The person also starts to feel hostile towards the people of the host country.

3. *Coming-to-terms stage* – This stage signals that a person has overcome some of the initial difficulties and starts to deal with them in a more constructive way. Feelings of superiority over the host culture and people might help in this stage as well as possibilities of helping out someone who is in a less adjusted position. Learning the language of the host culture might be of significant help in building up one's confidence.

4. *Completion of adjustment stage* – At this stage a person becomes efficient and productive in the new environment and starts enjoying everything in the new culture. According to Oberg (1954), the person will still experience some stressful moments but with grasping and understanding of social cues, most difficulties tend to disappear. This is the stages which could bring longing for the new culture in case that the person has to leave the new environment.

Kim (1988, 2001, and 2005) identified six dimensions that may influence cross-cultural adaptation by integrating various factors addressed by different investigators as constituting and/or predicting differing levels or rates of adaptive change. These dimensions include personal communication, or *host communication competence* (Dimension 1), which is defined as the cognitive, affective and operational capacity to communicate in accordance with the host communication symbols and meaning systems. This dimension serves as the very engine that pushes individuals along the adaptive path. Inseparably linked with host communication competence are the activities of *host social communication* (Dimension 2), through which strangers participate in interpersonal and mass communication activities of the host environment. Activities of *ethnic social communication* (Dimension 3) provide distinct, subcultural experiences of interpersonal and mass

communication with fellow co-ethnics. Interacting with the personal and social (host, ethnic) communication activities are the conditions of the *host environment* (Dimension 4), including the degrees of receptivity and conformity pressure in the local population as well as the strength of the ethnic group. The individual's *predisposition* (Dimension 5) consisting of preparedness for the new environment, proximity (or distance) of the individual's ethnicity to that of the natives, and the adaptive personality attributes of openness, strength, and positivity – influences the subsequent development in personal and social communication activities. Together, all of the factors identified above directly or indirectly contribute to explaining and predicting differential rates or levels of *intercultural transformation* (Dimension 6) within a given time period.

Through the host's social communication activities (Dimension 2), strangers participate in the interpersonal and mass communication activities of the host environment. The dimension of ethnic social communication (Dimension 3) provides experiences of interpersonal and mass communication with fellow co-ethnics. Dimension 4 represents the expectations of the host environment that foreigners engage in communication, both at the personal and social interaction levels, with the host and other ethnic groups. Such interaction includes the degree of receptivity by the local and other ethnic populations. Gudykunst (2005) reported from the anxiety/uncertainty theory of strangers' intercultural adjustment that attempts to deal with the ambiguity of a new environment, involve learning both information-seeking (managing uncertainty) and tension-reduction (managing anxiety). According to these researchers, anxiety and uncertainty management are the basic factors influencing successful intercultural adjustment – all other variables such as self-concept, self-esteem, reactions to host, etcetera, are tangential to intercultural adjustment.

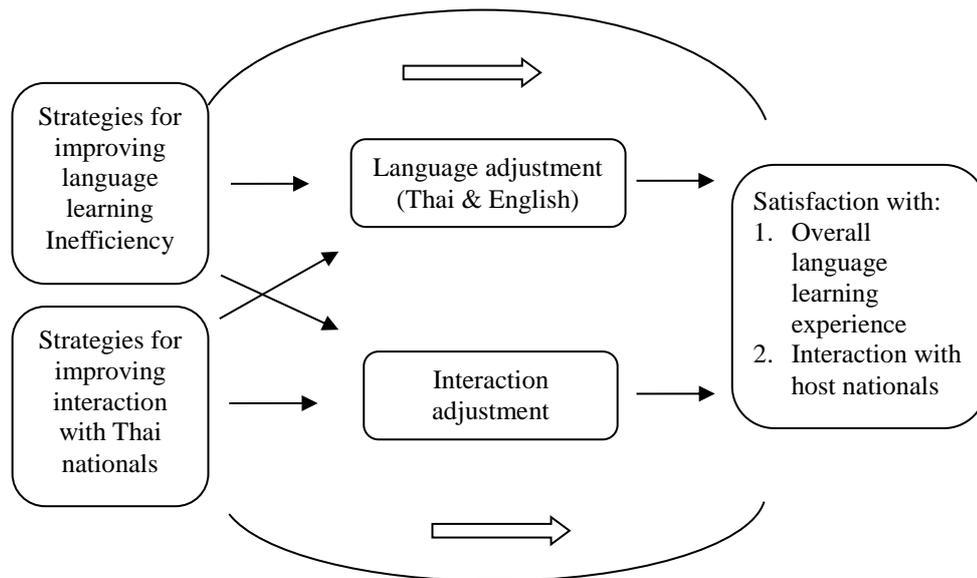
In the present study, intercultural adjustment was analyzed from both social cognitive and social learning frameworks (Kim, 2005; Gudykunst, 2005). The variables targeted for investigation included language deficiency and quality of interaction with host nationals and, in particular, the strategies employed to enhance such intercultural adjustment. While studies of international students' learning experiences and their academic adjustment have been approached from different perspectives, the present study targeted international students via both quantitative and qualitative (i.e., in-depth interview with individual international students) research protocol.

### **Theoretical Framework**

The present study attempted to investigate the strategies that Chinese students employ to improve their (1) learning and language inefficiency, and (2) interaction with Thai nationals and how such strategies may enhance the quality of their academic and interaction adjustment,

and ultimately their level of satisfaction with their overall language learning experience and their interaction with the host Thai nationals. Interaction adjustment is concerned with the extent to which the international students achieve a harmonious relationship with learning and interacting with the host nationals. This includes interaction with teachers and students, cultural identification with host, host receptivity, etc. Academic adjustment involves learning issues such as language proficiency, understanding education system, teacher-student relationship and academic stress. The proposed study's conceptual framework is presented as Figure 1.

the dependent variable, i.e., the sensitivity of the predictor variables. The statistical program G\*Power 3 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007) was employed to determine the required sample size. Setting the significance level at .05, power at .95, and effect size at .15 (medium) for 8 predictor variables (strategy for improving language efficiency; strategy for improving interaction with Thai nationals; difficulty in learning Thai; proficiency with Thai language; level of competency with Thai language; level of competency with English language; interaction adjustment; overall level of satisfaction during study and living time in Thailand) the required minimum sample size was determined to be 160.



**Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of Intercultural Adjustment.**

### Methodology

This chapter presents the methodology that will be used in the current study. The main sections of the chapter are presented in the following order: (a) research design; (b) participants of the study; (c) research instrumentation; (d) data collection procedure; and (e) data analysis.

### Participants

The participants of the study consisted of Chinese undergraduate and graduate students enrolled at Assumption University (ABAC). As the proposed adjustment model was tested via multiple regression analysis, the sample size required was determined by both the power of the statistical test, the effect size of the predictor variables, and the number of predictor variables in the model. Power in multiple regression analysis refers to the probability of detecting as statistically significant a specific level of *R*-square, or a regression coefficient at a specified significance level (Hair et al., 1995). Effect size is defined as the probability that the predictor variables in the regression model do have a real effect in predicting

However, in order to enhance the external validity of the obtained findings, it was decided to double the recommended sample size to approximately 250 respondents.

The sampling method involved convenience sampling in which Chinese students enrolled at ABAC were invited to fill in the study's questionnaire. Convenience sampling was conducted in the two campuses of the University, dormitories for Chinese students, and other likely places where Chinese students congregate. The selection criteria for inclusion in the sample were: (1) graduate or undergraduate students at Assumption University; (2) Mainland Chinese; (3) able to read and write in Chinese/English; and (4) willing to participate voluntarily in the study. Informed consent was obtained from all respondents prior to them filling in the questionnaire. Furthermore, prior to filling out the questionnaire, the respondents were assured of anonymity as well as confidentiality in the handling of their personal data and responses.

## Procedure

Data collection consisted of the following procedural steps:

1. The researcher sent a letter to the undergraduate school offices of Assumption University to obtain permission to conduct the study.
2. A pretest of the questionnaire was conducted prior to the actual study to check if there might be any problems with regard to the respondents' comprehension of the questionnaire directions and items.
3. Any reported problems with the questionnaire directions and items were resolved before the actual study. The inclusion criteria were applied and informed consent was obtained before every potential participant was given the questionnaire to fill.
4. After collection of all the completed questionnaires, the researcher individually inspected the questionnaires to check for possible errors. Only valid completed questionnaires were subjected to statistical analysis.

## Results

### Demographic Profile of Respondents

The sample consisted of 250 respondents of whom 118 (47.2%) were males and 132 (52.8%) were females. Their ages ranged from 16 years to 31 years and above, with a mean age within the interval of 19 to 30 years. In terms of educational level, 59% ( $n=147$ ) of the respondents were studying for a Bachelor's degree, 37.8% ( $n=94$ ) were studying for a Master's degree, and 3.2% ( $n=8$ ) were studying for a Doctorate degree. In terms of the length of time they had spent in Thailand, 15.6% ( $n=39$ ) of the respondents reported that they had spent less than two months in Thailand, 12% ( $n=30$ ) reported that they had spent between 2 to 6 months in Thailand, 14.8% ( $n=37$ ) reported that they had spent between 6 to 12 months in Thailand, and 57.6% ( $n=144$ ) reported that they had spent more than one year in Thailand.

### Reliability Analysis of Scales Employed

Reliability was conducted on the five scales of language strategy, interaction strategy, language adjustment, interaction adjustment, and language proficiency. The purpose of the reliability analysis was to maximize the internal consistency of the five measures by identifying those items that are internally consistent (i.e., reliable), and to discard those items that are not. The criteria employed for retaining items were (1) any item with 'Corrected Item-Total Correlation' (I-T)  $\geq .33$  will be retained (.33<sup>2</sup> represents approximately 10% of the variance of the total scale accounted for), and (2) deletion of an item will not lower the scale's Cronbach's alpha.

Table 1 presents the items for the five scales together with their I-T coefficients and Cronbach's alphas.

(See Table 1 in last page)

As can be seen from the above Table 1, all items representing the factors of language strategy, interaction strategy, language adjustment, interaction adjustment, and language proficiency have corrected item-total correlations (I-T)  $> .33$ . Thus, the factor of language strategy is represented by two items, the factor of interaction strategy is represented by four items, the factor of language adjustment is represented by six items, the factor of interaction adjustment is represented by five items, and the factor of language proficiency is represented by four items. The computed Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all five scales were adequate and ranged from .61 to .85. Each of the five factors of language strategy, interaction strategy, language adjustment, interaction adjustment, and language proficiency was then computed by summing across the items that make up that factor and their means calculated.

The following Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations for the five computed factors and the overall levels of satisfaction with (1) English language learning experience, (2) Thai language learning experience, and (3) quality of interaction with Thai host nationals as a function of the demographic variables of gender, age, educational level, and length of time spent in Thailand.

### GLM Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) to Test for Demographic Differences

In order to investigate demographic differences (gender, age, educational level, length of stay in Thailand) for the eight variables of language strategy, interaction strategy, language adjustment, interaction adjustment, language proficiency, and the overall levels of satisfaction with (1) English language learning experience, (2) Thai language learning experience, and (3) quality of interaction with Thai host nationals, GLM multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted.

**Gender.** The results showed that there was no overall gender effect for the eight variables combined,  $F(10,238)=1.01$ ,  $p>.05$ . Follow-up tests of between-subjects effects showed that gender has a significant effect for the dependent variable of *language strategy*,  $F(1,247)=4.37$ ,  $p<.05$ . Examination of the marginal means showed that female students reported higher usage of language strategy ( $M=3.35$ ) than their male counterparts ( $M=3.06$ ) in dealing with language problems. Male and female students did not differ on their interaction strategy, language adjustment, interaction adjustment, language proficiency, and their overall levels of satisfaction with (1) English language learning experience, (2) Thai language learning experience, and (3) quality of interaction with Thai host nationals ( $p>.05$ ).

**Age.** The MANOVA results showed that there was an overall age effect for the eight variables combined,  $F(30,714)=1.79$ ,  $p<.01$ . Follow-up tests of between-subjects effects showed that age has a significant effect

for the dependent variable of *language strategy*,  $F(3,245)=5.02$ ,  $p<.01$ . Examination of the marginal means and *post hoc* comparisons showed that younger respondents (16 to 18 years) reported significantly lower usage of language strategy ( $M=2.36$ ) than their older counterparts (19-24 years:  $M=3.26$ ; 25-30 years:  $M=3.33$ ; > 31 years:  $M=3.38$ ) in dealing with language problems. The results also showed that the older respondents did not differ in their reported usage of language strategy ( $p>.05$ ).

**Educational level.** The MANOVA results showed no significant education level effect for the eight variables combined,  $F(20,474)=0.66$ ,  $p>.05$ . Follow-up tests of between-subjects effects also showed that education level has no significant effect for any of the eight dependent variables of language strategy, interaction strategy, language adjustment, interaction adjustment, language proficiency, and the overall levels of satisfaction with (1) English language learning experience, (2) Thai language learning experience, and (3) quality of interaction with Thai host nationals ( $p>.05$ ).

**Length of time in Thailand.** The MANOVA results showed that there was an overall 'time' effect for the eight variables combined,  $F(30,714)=3.37$ ,  $p<.001$ . Follow-up tests of between-subjects effects showed that 'time' has a significant effect for 4 of the 8 dependent variables: language strategy,  $F(3,245)=14.09$ ,  $p<.001$ ; interaction strategy,  $F(3,245)=4.74$ ,  $p<.01$ ; language adjustment,  $F(3,245)=4.25$ ,  $p<.01$ ; and interaction adjustment,  $F(3,245)=6.70$ ,  $p<.001$ . Examination of the marginal means and *post hoc* comparisons showed that students who spent the least amount of time in Thailand (less than 2 months) reported (1) significantly lower usage of language strategy ( $M=2.34$ ) than those who spent more time in Thailand (2-6 months:  $M=3.22$ ; > 1 year:  $M=3.51$ ) in dealing with language problems; (2) significantly lower usage of interaction strategy ( $M=2.61$ ) than those who spent more time in Thailand (> 1 year:  $M=3.25$ ) in dealing with interaction problems; (3) significantly higher difficulty with language adjustment (2-6 months:  $M=3.51$ ) than those who spent more time in Thailand (> 1 year:  $M=2.88$ ); and (4) significantly higher difficulty with interaction adjustment (less than 2 months:  $M=2.28$ ) than those who spent more time in Thailand (6-12 months:  $M=2.97$ ; > 1 year:  $M=2.97$ ).

## Discussion

**Gender.** The results demonstrated that female Chinese (international) students reported higher usage of language strategy than their male counterparts in dealing with language problems, suggesting that they were more motivated in finding solutions to language problems. Numerous studies have demonstrated motivation to be one of the main determinants of second language learning achievement (Gardner & Smythe, 1975; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Motivation has been reported to influence use of language learning strategies, frequency of interaction with speakers of the

target language and general language proficiency (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). In fact, one of the most prominent researchers in the area of second language learning acquisition – Gardner (1985) – identified motivation as the single most influential factor in learning a new language. Cohen and Dornyei (2002) opined that motivation is often seen as the key learner variable because without it, nothing much happens. In light of this, it can be said that male Chinese students were less motivated to use language strategies when confronted with language difficulties compared to female Chinese students.

**Age.** The results showed that age has a significant effect for language strategy; more specifically, younger respondents (16 to 18 years) reported significantly lower usage of language strategy than their older counterparts in dealing with language problems. This may be because of lack of experience or opportunities to deal with language problems in a more mature way. Older students may have realized, through experience, how important it is to find ways to deal with communication difficulties when studying in a foreign country, to facilitate integration and immersion in the new culture. Alternatively, it can be argued that even though young and old learners make use of the same basic interactional strategies, adult learners tend to use repetition as an interactional strategy more frequently. Moreover, being aware that they are non-native speakers, older learners engage in negotiation for meaning by using clarification requests and confirmation checks more often than younger learners (Long, 1983).

Other studies have drawn a connection between the interactional processes that different-aged learners get engaged in and the nature of the input they obtain. These studies contend that older learners are more efficient at drawing from their linguistic environment a type of input that addresses their learning needs in a more accurate way. One of the studies supporting older learners' greater advantage in learning a second language as a result of their more active involvement in conversation is that of Scarcella and Higa (1982).

**Length of time in Thailand.** Chinese students with different lengths of stay in Thailand have significant differences in their learning and living adjustment and the degree of difficulty they experience in the Thai learning environment. The point is, the longer they stay in Thailand, the less language learning interaction problems they have. Not surprisingly, the new arrivals reported having significantly higher difficulty with language and interaction adjustment. Toyokawa's study, in contrast, demonstrated that the longer the students stayed in a foreign language school, the lower their level of satisfaction with education. The current finding may be explained in that, with the passage of time, the Chinese students have learned to adjust progressively to the Thai learning environment; that is, they have become accustomed to language and learning difficulties, and may have likely discovered ways of coping and/or have

become more confident in dealing with these problems as time went on. The significant difference between lengths of stay in terms of level of difficulty partly supports the U-curve hypothesis explained in Chapter II.

*Path analysis.* The finding that the employment of strategies to improve both the quality of language and interaction at university has indirect influences on the Chinese students' level of satisfaction, being mediated by their interaction adjustment, points to the importance of being able to adjust effectively to university life, thus, contributing to the students' sense of satisfaction. Language proficiency was found to contribute significantly to Chinese students' language adjustment and interaction adjustment. This finding concurred with those of earlier studies (e.g., Barratt & Huba, 1994; Crano & Crano, 1993; Lewthwaite, 1990). Additionally, in a study involving 1,857 international students across the USA (Lee et al. 1981), it was demonstrated that command of the English language was related to academic satisfaction. However, Yang (2005) argued that language proficiency, to some extent, affected international students' adjustment, but not as significantly as many researchers assumed. The researcher pointed out that Chinese student in the elementary level demonstrated better adjustment in many aspects than those at the medium level. There could be another possible interpretation for the current findings. Subjectively perceived language proficiency evaluation may not indicate the individual's actual language ability. According to Ballard and Clanchy (1997), international students enter higher education with expectations shaped by their previous learning experiences which are often significantly different from the educational system in the new country. Thus, academic difficulties may arise not only because of linguistic differences but also because of a failure to understand or communicate at a cultural level, something that may not have been anticipated.

It was also found that the employment of strategies to improve the quality of interaction at university has direct positive influence on the Chinese students' level of satisfaction, showing that the ability to interact effectively at university is a crucial factor in contributing to the students' sense of satisfaction. Cultural identifications are shared locations and orientations evidenced in a variety of communication forms, including conduct of groups of people, discourse in public context, and individual accounts and ascriptions about group conduct (Collier, 2005). Cultural identification has two dimensions: host national identification and co-national identification. Strong host national identification is associated with better interaction adjustment (Gudykunst, 2005). Ward and colleagues (Ward & Kennedy, 1994, Ward & Deuba, 1999) reported that strangers' identification with the host culture is associated with sociocultural adjustment. The strong positive correlation between cultural identification with the host culture and the overall interaction adjustment in the current study ascertained that cultural identification played a role in Chinese students'

interaction adjustment.

When we categorize host nationals, we form expectations about their behavior. Expectations involve our anticipations and predictions about how host nationals interact with us. An absence of expectations may indicate lack of commitment without which the sojourners cannot achieve success because they lack the necessary motivation and direction. What an individual anticipates has a direct bearing on what he or she experiences (Rohrlich, 1993). Positive expectations lead us to behave in a positive manner towards host nationals (Hamilton et al., 1990) and to find satisfaction in the host culture (Hawes & Kealey, 1980). Relative to the findings of the current study, there is significant positive correlation between the positive expectations and interaction adjustment for Chinese students.

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**Table 1: Scale Items Together With Their Corrected Item-Total Correlations and Cronbach's Alphas**

<u>Language strategy</u>	<u>Corrected I-T Correlations</u>
• When talking to Thai people, if I don't know how to say a word in Thai, I will look up the dictionary and show them the explanation.	.44
• When talking to Thai people, if I don't know how to say a word in Thai, I will turn to friends from my country who can speak Thai for help.	.44
Cronbach's Alpha = 0.61	
<u>Interaction strategy</u>	<u>Corrected I-T Correlations</u>
• I often take the initiative to make friends with Thai teachers and students.	.69
• I often invite Thai friends to join our activities.	.72
• I spend as much time as I can with my Thai friends.	.71
• I discuss with Thai teachers or friends when I have problems.	.57
Cronbach's Alpha = 0.84	
<u>Language adjustment</u>	<u>Corrected I-T Correlations</u>
• When learning Thai, how difficult do you find learning grammar?	.73
• When learning Thai, how difficult do you find learning writing?	.48
• When learning Thai, how difficult do you find learning speaking?	.73
• When learning Thai, how difficult do you find learning listening?	.74
• When learning Thai, how difficult do you find learning tones?	.69
• When learning Thai, how difficult do you find learning polite expressions?	.49
Cronbach's Alpha = 0.85	
<u>Interaction adjustment</u>	<u>Corrected I-T Correlations</u>
• I speak and act more and more like a Thai.	.34
• I speak Thai language in my daily life.	.61
• I often attend various activities organized by ABAC, such as parties, picnics, and cultural activities.	.55
• I deal with Thai people every day.	.55
• The university finds ways to help me to adapt to living and studying in Thailand.	.46
Cronbach's Alpha = 0.7	
<u>Language proficiency</u>	<u>Corrected I-T Correlations</u>
• In terms of your Thai language skills, how proficient are you with listening?	.67
• In terms of your Thai language skills, how proficient are you with speaking?	.70
• In terms of your Thai language skills, how proficient are you with reading?	.75
• In terms of your Thai language skills, how proficient are you with writing?	.67
Cronbach's Alpha = 0.85	

**Table 2: Means and Standard Deviations for the Computed Factors Language Strategy, Interaction Strategy, Language Adjustment, Interaction Adjustment, and Language Proficiency, and the Overall Levels of Satisfaction With (1) English Language Learning Experience, (2) Thai Language Learning Experience, and (3) Quality of Interaction With Thai Host Nationals as a Function of the Demographic Variables of Gender, Age, Educational Level, and Length of Time Spent in Thailand**

Gender	Male		Female		Total					
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>				
• Language strategy	3.06	1.11	3.35	1.10	3.21	1.11				
• Interaction strategy	3.01	1.05	3.24	.86	3.13	.96				
• Language adjustment	2.96	.91	3.06	.95	3.01	.93				
• Interaction adjustment	2.81	.81	2.88	.96	2.85	.90				
• Language proficiency	1.99	.83	1.99	.92	1.98	.88				
• Satisfaction with English language learning experience	3.21	1.13	3.29	1.12	3.25	1.12				
• Satisfaction with Thai language learning experience	2.77	1.15	2.77	1.24	2.78	1.19				
• Satisfaction with quality of interaction with Thai host nationals	3.27	1.12	3.33	1.10	3.30	1.11				
Age	16-18 yrs		19-24 yrs		25-30 yrs		>31 yrs		Total	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
• Language strategy	2.36	1.20	3.26	1.08	3.33	.96	3.38	1.25	3.21	1.11
• Interaction strategy	2.90	1.07	3.06	.96	3.41	.92	3.08	.89	3.13	.96
• Language adjustment	2.98	.86	2.98	.89	3.06	.96	3.09	1.13	3.01	.93
• Interaction adjustment	2.63	.75	2.76	.95	3.04	.72	3.04	.98	2.85	.90
• Language proficiency	1.89	.72	1.99	.86	1.96	.93	2.14	.96	1.99	.88
• Satisfaction with English language learning experience	3.36	1.40	3.18	1.09	3.26	1.12	3.46	.99	3.25	1.12
• Satisfaction with Thai language learning experience	3.14	1.13	2.69	1.19	2.70	1.16	3.11	1.26	2.78	1.19
• Satisfaction with quality of interaction with Thai host nationals	3.55	1.01	3.19	1.12	3.48	1.12	3.25	1.04	3.30	.11
Educational level	Bachelor		Master		Ph.D.		Total			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
• Language strategy	3.17	1.14	3.27	1.05	3.25	1.34	3.21	1.11		
• Interaction strategy	3.08	1.00	3.26	.90	2.81	.80	3.14	.96		
• Language adjustment	2.98	.90	3.08	.96	2.58	1.01	3.00	.93		
• Interaction adjustment	2.86	.93	2.85	.84	2.85	.95	2.85	.89		
• Language proficiency	1.99	.92	1.99	.83	1.88	.76	1.99	.88		
• Satisfaction with English language learning experience	3.24	1.15	3.27	1.08	3.25	1.04	3.25	1.12		
• Satisfaction with Thai language learning experience	2.87	1.18	2.68	1.19	2.50	1.41	2.79	1.19		
• Satisfaction with quality of interaction with Thai host nationals	3.31	1.10	3.29	1.15	3.13	.83	3.30	1.11		

<u>Length of time in Thailand</u>	< 2 mths		2-6 mths		6-12 mths		> 1 yr		Total	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
• Language strategy	2.34	1.05	3.22	1.18	2.92	1.13	3.51	.97	3.21	1.11
• Interaction strategy	2.61	1.03	3.22	.93	3.14	.86	3.25	.93	3.13	.96
• Language adjustment	2.99	.96	3.51	.86	3.14	.93	2.88	.91	3.01	.93
• Interaction adjustment	2.28	.77	2.83	1.22	2.97	.72	2.97	.84	2.85	.90
• Language proficiency	2.17	.87	1.78	.71	2.05	1.06	1.97	.85	1.99	.88
• Satisfaction with English language learning experience	3.05	1.27	3.27	1.14	3.38	1.09	3.26	1.08	3.25	1.12
• Satisfaction with Thai language learning experience	2.66	1.19	3.03	1.38	2.97	1.01	2.71	1.19	2.78	1.19
• Satisfaction with quality of interaction with Thai host nationals	3.13	1.23	3.17	1.15	3.49	1.09	3.32	1.07	3.30	1.11