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<th>Page Range</th>
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Attitude toward English among Vietnamese Students in the Philippines

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Abstract

Language attitude is considered as one of the most important components in the success of learning a target language. Such argument inspired the researchers of this study to investigate the attitudes of the Vietnamese learners in the Philippines toward the English language, and to know if their attitudes are influenced by their age, gender and socio-economic status (SES). This investigation is anchored on the Socio-Educational Model espoused by Gardner in 1985 that attitude is an important motivating factor in language learning. The data was gathered through the use of questionnaire and one-on-one interviews. For the statistical tools, weighted mean was employed to find out the attitudes held by the participants toward English while Chi-square Test for Independence was utilized to determine if there is a significant relationship between the participants’ language attitude and the variables identified. The results illustrated
that Vietnamese students in the Philippines have high positive attitude toward the English language. It was further discovered that there was no significant relationship between the attitudes of the participants toward the target language vis-à-vis age, gender and socio-economic status (SES).

**Keywords:** Attitude, Vietnamese, age, gender, socio-economic status

**Introduction**

This study aimed to investigate the language attitudes toward the English language among Vietnamese students in the Philippines and probed the relationship between the language attitudes of the participants and their age, gender and socio-economic status (SES). This exploration was meant to determine the significance of the identified variables in creating favorable or undesirable attitude in language learning which may aid in the *Project 2020* of the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) in Vietnam.

Current research into the attitudes of the English as second Language (ESL) and English as foreign language (EFL) learners in various contexts were conducted that show the global superiority of the English language. However, most of these popular studies had participants who studied the target language within their home countries. Less is known as regards the attitudes of those who are learning the English language in foreign countries.

**Literature Review**

The English language was declared as the working language of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations as manifested in the Article 34 of the ASEAN Charter in February 2009 as it (Kirkpatrick, 2012). As a result, such linguistic icon is being introduced as a compulsory subject in the primary curriculum in all ASEAN countries now with the exception of Indonesia (Hashim & Leitner, 2014). It also encouraged the proliferation of the English instructed schools and universities in countries like Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar, and Vietnam (CLMV).

In Vietnam, there has been a strong move to improve the English language skills of its people as reflected in *Project 2020* of Vietnam’s Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) (Nhan, 2013). As a result the government of Vietnam has encouraged tertiary institutions in the national and regional universities to implement the use of English as a medium of instruction (Van de Craen, Ceuleers, Lochtman, Allain & Mondt, 2007). However, the context of Vietnam
was found to be deficient in the teaching of the target language (Tran & Baldauf, 2007). In order to achieve adequate English proficiency, Vietnamese students study English in other countries just like in the Philippines.

Thus, the global demand for English language education has led to the huge influx of foreign students in the Philippine universities and colleges. But in any language learning situation, the attitudes of the learners toward the target language plays a significant role in the success of learning. According to Gardner (1985) the learners’ positive or negative attitude may determine their success or failure in learning and acquiring the language.

**Attitudes toward the English language**

Attitude as explained by Middlebrook (1980) is an overall, learned, core disposition that guides a person's thoughts, feelings and actions. On the other hand, Ahmed (2015) posited that attitude refers to the learner’s feelings towards language use and its status in the society that can nurture or hinder the learning process. Therefore, attitude is a disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to the object, person, institution, or event. In the recent studies conducted in ESL and EFL contexts, it was found that students’ attitude toward English language learning is extremely positive (Ahmed, 2015; Sicam & Lucas, 2016).

Over the years, numerous studies were conducted to determine the language attitudes of the language learners and how their attitudes relate to age, gender, and socio-economic status. Baker (1992) revealed a significant relationship between age and language attitude in contrast with Marsgoret and Gardner (2003) who showed that neither availability nor age had clear moderating effects. As with gender, Ghazvini and Khajehpour (2011) found that girls have more positive attitude toward learning the English language and are more inclined to bilingualism than boys. Similarly, Aldosari (2014) found that females have favorable attitude towards English more than males. Furthermore, the socio-economic status (SES) variable demonstrated an influence to language learning attitude since the inability of the language learners to travel to other countries have not motivated them to learn the language of other people as they did not see language study as relevant to their lives (Carr & Pauwels, 2006). Likewise, Gayton (2010) found that there was a relationship between socio-economic status and language learning motivation by linking participant’s language learning to mobility or access to travel abroad.
**Research Questions**

This study specifically tried to answer the following questions.

1. What are the attitudes of the Vietnamese students in the Philippines toward English language?
2. Is there a significant relationship between the participants' English language attitudes and the following variables: age, sex and socio-economic status (SES)?

**Methodology**

This is a quantitative-qualitative research that probes into the general attitude of the Vietnamese students in the Philippines towards the English language. It is conducted in a state university in the Luzon area of the Philippines which forged partnership with international educational institution in Vietnam. The partnership allowed the Vietnamese students to study through student exchange programs. To provide intelligible results, all the 36 Vietnamese students enrolled in the state university were chosen as the participants of the study. The profile of the Vietnamese is shown in Table 1. It shows the age, gender and socio-economic status of the participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>SES</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>18-20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>VND 5,000,000, and below</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-23</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>75.0</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>VND 5,000,000-13,000,000</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 and above</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>VND 13,000,000-15,000,000</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>30.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>VND 20,000,001 and above</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>36</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were five first year college students, 3 males and 2 females, with ages ranging from 20 to 25 ($M=22.4$); six second year college students, 5 males and only 1 female, with ages ranging from 20 to 22 ($M=20.9$); fourteen third year college students, 9 males and 5 females, with ages ranging from 21 to 22 ($M=22.4$); and eleven fourth year college students, 4 males and 7 females, with ages ranging from 21 to 25 ($M=22.7$). The socio-economic status of the
participants shows that 11 Vietnamese participants have VND 10M-15M combined income of parents. The 11 Vietnamese who are all 4th year college students have been staying in the university for four years while the five Vietnamese participants who are all 1st year college students have been staying in the university for only three months.

The participants answered a modified version of the Language Attitude Questionnaire formulated by Sicam and Lucas (2016) with only 25 statements being modified to accommodate the objectives of the present study. The other five statements in the questionnaire of Sicam and Lucas (2016) were not included since it caters on the language attitude in Filipino which is beyond the scope of the study. On average, the Vietnamese students answered the questionnaires in 25 minutes. The data were then tabulated using Microsoft Excel and were then transferred to SPSS for analysis, as guided by a statistician. Weighted mean was used to establish the participants’ positive or negative attitude towards the English language. Since the variables are categorical data, the Chi-square Test for Independence was used to determine whether there is a significant relationship between the participants’ language attitude and their age, sex and socio-economic status (SES). A qualitative approach was also used through in-depth individual interviews to solicit fundamental answers that allow participants to speak and narrate for themselves on the factors that influence their language attitude.

**Results and Discussions**

In order to achieve the goals of this study, the English language attitudes of the participants were determined through the computation of the mean scores. In the aspect of significant relationship between English attitude vis-à-vis age, gender and SES, the Chi-square Test of Independence was employed.

**Attitude towards English language**

The attitudes of the Vietnamese students toward the English language appear to be favorable as shown in Table 2.
Table 2

*General attitudes towards English among Vietnamese students*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>AS</th>
<th>DS</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
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<td>18</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.53</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
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<td>14</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>4.56</td>
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</tr>
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<td>15</td>
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<td>19</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.0</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.33</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>4.86</td>
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<td>16</td>
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<td>4.72</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>Slightly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: Scale: 1–2 = very low attitude; 2.1–3.0 = low attitude; 3.1–4.0 = moderate attitude; 4.1–5.0 = high attitude; 5.1–6.0 = very high attitude.*
The results as shown in Table 2 appear that Vietnamese participants have generally favorable attitude towards the English language based on the mean scores of each statement that support the claim made by Ahmed (2015) and Sicam and Lucas (2016). Ahmed (2015) asserted that positive attitude stems from the favorable atmosphere of English language learning and teaching context. In addition, the participants may have realized the importance of English in their lives particularly in various domains that contributed to their positive attitude toward the target language (Sicam & Lucas, 2016). Because of such important function of the target language in order to survive and succeed in a foreign country, Vietnamese students developed such positive attitude. Moreover, the context of the Philippines is found to be encouraging and friendly towards learners and speakers of English that strengthens the favorable attitude. These quantitative results are validated by the responses of the respondents during the one-on-one interview when students expressed strong positive attitude toward English language.

Participant S: Because ah, when I came here I cannot communicate with other people by Vietnamese that’s why I have to speak English but by English ah they understand me.

Participant H: When I stay here almost four years and then I’m so love Philippines. I want to learn more speak English for I will get the job.

Participant K: Uhmm, First thing is understand others communicate with others the Filipinos, my teachers and some of my Friends they come from America ahm some country that they speak English so it help me to make me more friend.

As shown, the participants provided favorable responses when asked on their evaluation about the English language made by the participants because they are already understood as they use the target language to communicate with people from Vietnam and the Philippines. Furthermore, the linguistic context of the Philippines seems to reinforce positive attitude because they find the country very supportive in their English language learning. The responses of the participants demonstrate the ideas expressed by Gardner (1980 as cited in Dehbozorgi, 2012) that positive attitude is much stronger in a context where there is much more of an opportunity for contact between learners and target language speakers than in a foreign language context where learners are not in a close contact with the target cultures and beliefs. Moreover, English is the language that students can express themselves better to be understood
in their learning environment. As viewed by Grosjean (1982), people tend to have positive attitude to language in which one can better be able to express abstract thoughts. In addition, Table 3 presents the statements number 1, 5, and 10 which were rated highly positive in terms of language attitude. These statements got the mean scores of 5.36, 5.19 and 5.19 respectively.

Table 3

*Statements about English language with very high attitude ratings*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Weighted Mean</th>
<th>Qualitative Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Modernization and advancement can be better achieved through the use of English.</td>
<td>5.36</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel more self-confident if I can speak English well.</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think it will be easier to find a good job with a high salary if one is proficient in English.</td>
<td>5.19</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows that among the twenty-five statements which received high rating from the participants, most of them seem to strongly agree to the statements: *Modernization and advancement can be better achieved through the use of English* (M= 5.36), *I feel more self-confident if I can speak English well* (M=5.19), and *I think it will be easier to find a good job with a high salary if one is proficient in English* (M=5.19). The statement 1 in Table 3 probably mean that those respondents generally equate being skillful in English as the instrument to access advanced technological knowledge for modernization and to reach out to the world. As expressed by one of the respondents during the interview, he saw how English language serves as the key to access global information.
**Participant A:** It’s the way to understand English websites.

From the response made, English is understood to be the language of the internet websites where one can gather information about anything and almost everything around the world. If one does not know how to understand English, such opportunity to get information can be missed. English has become the means to access information in the global context through technology. Moreover, the statement number 5 in Table 3 shows that Vietnamese students equate one’s ability to use the target language to positive self-image. It can be viewed that such self-confidence is associated with the ability to communicate and to be understood by others. As provided by some participants:

**Participant S:** Yes, when I came here I cannot communicate with other people by Vietnamese that’s why I have to speak English but by English ah they understand me. A Vietnamese speak English they understand. I feel good ma’am. That why I’m very happy because when I say they understand me yah that’s very happy Ma’am.

**Participant H:** Yes. Yeah. If coming here I don’t know how to speak English I cannot buy something I cannot buy for example If I to buy clothes, I cannot talk with the seller, 'How much is this?' I don't know' body language only. And then I more understand them and they understand me. that's why. Now I can talk to them. Am happy.

The respondents expressed that their ability to communicate with the use of the target language boosted their self-image. They felt happy as they can now exchange thoughts with other people and they are understood by their interlocutors. They have achieved the real meaning of communication with through English. The improvement made by the Vietnamese speakers in their ability to use the target language for communication and the ability to be understood make them feel good about themselves. Their experience in the Philippines allowed them to practice the target language in the different domains that helped them learn the language better. In turn, the improvement in English made them feel good about themselves.

In addition, participants were consistent with their responses during the interview and to those statements which they rated highly. As shown in Table 3, statement 10 (*I think it will be easier to find a good job with a high salary if one is proficient in English*) validates the association of upward and outward mobility to proficiency in English language. Students
believe that for them to climb the social ladder, English is the gate that they must get through. The following extracts echo statement number 10 of the questionnaire.

**Participant P:** Yes it means, its reason why they require me to study in a school because they said if you want to find good job high salary you need study English. It’s very good for you to have a job.

**Participant H:** Because so many foreigner company come in my country if I have English language I can get noble jobs and high salary and if I have high salary I can have some for my parent. That's all I think.

The answers provided by the students during the interview show that they learn English for them to get good paying jobs after graduation from the university. Especially among foreign companies in Vietnam, proficiency in the English language is an important factor for them to get hired.

Based on the reactions of the Vietnamese students, in addition to the quantitative results, the English language is seen as the key to attain personal advancement and economic stability since it is an important requirement in hiring, retention and promotion in any organization around the globe. As asserted by Malcolm (1987 as cited in Hosseini & Pourmandnia, 2013), language attitude is influenced by factors such as social and economic imperatives that shape the L2 positive or negative attitude in the learner. In this case, the social and economic gains from being proficient in English result to high positive attitude.

In the end, the general attitudes of Vietnamese students toward English simply show the awareness of the learners of the personal, social and economic impact of the target language in their lives.

2. **English language attitude vis-à-vis age, sex and socio-economic status (SES)**

   The Chi-square Test of Independence was carried out to determine if there is a significant relationship between attitudes, age, gender, and SES. The results of the analysis are illustrated in Table 4.
Table 4

**Correlation of general language attitudes vis-à-vis gender, age, and SES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Chi-Square Value</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>1.504</td>
<td>0.826</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ATTITUDE</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.783</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SES</td>
<td>9.206</td>
<td>0.235</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As presented in Table 4, the results reveal that there is no significant relationship between the English language attitude and the age of the respondents with the p-value of 0.826 which is greater than the value of the alpha (0.05). This contradicts the assertion made by Baker (1992) who revealed that there was a statistically significant relationship between age and language attitude. However, it is consistent with the study of Marsgaret and Gardner (2003) who found that age had no clear effects towards language attitude.

The results can be attributed to the fact that the Vietnamese students do not vary greatly with their age that ranges from 18-24 who are all considered as young adults. This implies that Vietnamese students could have almost the same objectives and experiences in learning the English language which in turn, result to the same attitude irrespective of age.

In addition, the relationship between attitude and gender was found to be not significant with the p-value of 0.783 that contradicts previous findings (Ghazvini & Khajehpour, 2011; Aldosari, 2014) that students’ attitude towards English language is significantly related to gender. This could mean that some held perceptions towards language attitudes of male or of female may not be always true and correct. In the case of Vietnamese, they have favorable feelings towards English regardless of gender. This shows that inclination to second or foreign language is not a monopoly of women alone but men are also inclined now to learn English as demonstrated in the results.

Meanwhile, Table 5 also shows that the relationship between attitude and socio-economic status (SES) is not significant since the p-value is 0.325. The result is different from the findings provided by Sicam and Lucas (2016) who reflected that students’ SES is significantly related to positive attitudes towards English language.
Carr and Pauwels (2006) argued that socio-economic status affect language learning attitude through providing connections between mobility and language attitude. They claimed that the opportunity to travel abroad to visit the country where the target language is spoken influences positive language attitude. In the case of these Vietnamese students, regardless of their socio-economic status, all of them have travelled to the Philippines to study abroad. So basically, the language attitude of the respondents whose parents are farmers is not different from the one whose parents are owners of gasoline stations in Vietnam. The language attitude of the participants did not vary because all of them were given equal opportunities to become exchange students, they have the same university where they study, they have the same place of stay, and they have the same people they interact with. On the other hand, Gayton (2010) found that students who belong to higher socio-economic status recognize the value of English subject and see the target language as very relevant to their lives for work or for foreign travel. But on the present study, the recognition of the power of English language and its perceived advantages are appreciated across all kinds of social classes and not just by those who belong to the upper social strata of the society.

Therefore, the results of this study indicate that the value of English for personal, social and economic advancements is strongly felt by the Vietnamese students regardless of age, gender and SES as reflected on their attitude.

Conclusions

This investigation concludes that positive language attitude is a very important dimension in the success of learning. As mentioned, the Vietnamese students did not have sufficient ability to communicate with the use of the target language when they first arrived in the Philippines. But because of their supportive language community, their accommodating teachers and their encouraging classmates and friends, they now possess a certain level of proficiency in English that allows them to convey their thoughts and to exchange ideas in their daily activities. This linguistic development created a positive attitude toward the target language among the participants. As claimed by Gardner (1985), learners who have positive attitudes learn more, and also learners who learn well acquire positive attitudes. The progress made by the Vietnamese students in their English language competence reflects the importance of language learning and teaching experiences, openness to other cultures, and support from parents and teachers in creating favorable attitude toward a target language that in turn result to success in learning.
This research also achieved to show that age, gender and socio-economic status were not significant in the attitude embraced by the learners. This reflects that favorable affection to English language is not just a monopoly of women and of those people who belong to the upper stratum of the society which has been the argument of other investigations conducted in the field of English language. The present study illustrates that the value of English is felt by people regardless of age, gender and economic status among Vietnamese English language learners in the Philippines. This assertion can also be true in the other contexts as English has been playing an important role in this age of globalized world.

If this kind of language attitude of the Vietnamese ESL learners can be maintained, enhanced and reinforced, the Vietnamese Ministry of Education can have a high probability in the achievement of its vision to make Vietnamese students confident in the use of English as a foreign language in 2020 both in local and international contexts.

References


**Researchers’ Note:** This is an original publication which has not been published elsewhere and is not under consideration elsewhere.
What Factors Influence Changes in Students’ Motivation to Learn English as a Foreign Language?

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**Abstract**

This study examined the changes in students’ motivation to learn English as a foreign language in Indonesian high school context. Participants were 340 grade 10 and 11 students from two senior secondary schools in Padang, West Sumatera, Indonesia. Students’ motivation were measured at the beginning and at the end of the semester using Motivated Strategies of Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ). Repeated measures of MANOVA were used for this purpose. Students who indicated the highest changes in motivation over the two time points, whether an increase or a decrease, were selected for a 15- minute interview to find out the factors influencing the changes in their motivation. The results revealed that factors related to teachers’ classroom behavior played an important role in the dynamics of students’ motivation.

**Keywords:** motivation, teachers’ classroom behaviour

Bung Hatta University, Padang, West Sumatera, Indonesia
Introduction
The purpose of the study was to find out whether students’ motivation to learn English as a foreign language change over a semester and to identify factors that may affect students’ motivation, either positively or negatively. The study addressed the following research questions:

Literature Review
Socio-dynamic perspectives of motivation to learn a L2.
Building upon previous studies, research studies on L2 motivation shifted to a new phase Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) called the socio-dynamic period. There were four main reasons as to why research on L2 motivation needed to evolve to the new phase. Firstly, Dörnyei (2005) acknowledged that the process model he proposed earlier had drawbacks in that it cannot present the dynamic and situated complexity of the learning process reason accurately. In addition, he added that “although it reframed motivation as a dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person, it was still conceptualised within a process oriented paradigm, characterised by linear cause-effect relation” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 70). Thus, he called for a more radical reformation which finally led to a complex dynamic system perspective. Another reason came from Norton (2000). She argued that L2 acquisition theories were not comprehensive and did not integrate language learners and the setting of language learning. She underscored that now there is a plethora of L2 research which suggests language learning should be viewed as a socio-culturally and socio-historically situated process as a substitute for a cognitive psycholinguistic process. Furthermore, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) argued that, with the rise of global English, the study of language learners’ motivation should make a distinction between L2 learners of English and learners of language other than English because learning English as a L2 is significantly different from learning other languages in such a context. With the wide spread of English in this global era, the traditional concepts of L2 motivation, such as integrativeness, attitude toward language community and culture are not relevant due to the unclear reference of the target language community, especially geographically. Considering the aforementioned phenomena, a new L2 acquisition theory of L2 motivation began to develop and researchers are now in the phase called socio-dynamic.

Recently, theoretical models of L2 learning incorporated motivation as a dynamic variable. In other words, the dimension of motivation may change during the period of studying the L2. For example, attitudes toward the L2 community is only relevant in the initial phase,
especially in deciding which language to learn and, once the study has started, it becomes less important as a motivator (Lamb, 2007). In addition, Lamb claims that the nature of motivation is “fluctuating and highly context-sensitive” (p. 758). His study revealed that changes in students’ motivation may also be affected by students’ experience in the language class and teachers’ classroom behaviour. Indeed, there is evidence that the decline among Indonesian, junior, secondary students’ motivation over a 20 month period was related to the class teacher. Lamb’s study examined the motivation of Indonesian adolescents toward learning, how it changes over the period of research and identifies psychological, social or institutional factors which may influence the changes. Twelve junior secondary school students participated in Lamb’s mixed methods study and it was reported that, initially, these students showed a positive attitude toward the English language. However, after 20 months, the students’ attitude towards formal learning tended to depreciate and they expressed concern about their negative experiences of classroom learning although they still maintained the value of English. The interviews revealed that students’ motivation decreased because of their negative feelings toward the teacher’s behaviour which made them feel excluded or alienated. Students reported that their teachers just followed the curriculum and ignored the desires and interests of the students and, therefore, they claimed, the lesson lacked intrinsically motivating activities. In other words, little variety of class activities and textbook orientation without communicative use of language was evident in his observations and was the cause of this motivational decrease. On the other hand, students who commented positively on their teacher’s style or methods, such as providing time for practice in speaking and listening rather than just focusing solely on the materials, were more motivated. From this, it was evident that the role of a teachers’ behaviour in the classroom was central to the motivation of students.

Methodology

Participants. Participants of the study were 344 senior high school students from two different senior high schools, in Padang, West Sumatera, Indonesia. These students were from grade 10 (243) and grade 11 (101). Students’ ages ranged between 16 and 17 for Year 10 and between 17 and 18 for year 11.

Materials. All students completed Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) developed by Pintrich, Smith, Garcia and McKeachie (1991) to measure students’ achievement in the two time points, at the beginning and at the end of the semester. This seven-point Likert-
type scale consists of 31 items from which constituted six subscale, namely *Intrinsic Goal Orientation (IGO)*, *Extrinsic Goal Orientation (EGO)*, *Task Value (TV)*, *Control of Learning Beliefs (CLB)*, *Self-Efficacy for Learning and Performance (SELP)* and *Test Anxiety (TA)*. Students are asked to choose an option ranging from “not at all true to me” to “very true to me”. The scale is originally in English and for this study the scales were translated into Indonesian. To ensure the quality of translation, each item was back translated into English by an independent bilingual translator.

**Students’ interview.** The interview used a semi-structured protocol. This type of interview is considered more appropriate because the participants were young learners and also offers the researcher the opportunity to prepare the questions in advance, participants experience freedom to express their thoughts and feelings and the process allows for topical trajectories during the interview that may stray from the protocol when necessary (Cohen et.al 1989). The one-on-one interviews lasted between 15 to 25 minutes and were conducted in the school library at a time convenient to the participants.

**Research Procedures and Data Analysis.** In the first week of the semester, students completed Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) during their English class which took them around 40 minutes. Ten weeks later students again completed the MSLQ. Interview with selected students were conducted at the end of the semester. Before the interview, the questionnaire completed by the students were inspected to identify students whose motivation increased or decreased most over the two time points. On this basis, eight students (four high and four low motivated students) were selected for a 15-minute interview. The score of the eight selected students on MSLQ at Time 1 and Time 2 are presented in Table 1.
Table 1:
Mean Differences between Time 1 and Time 2 Scores of 16 Selected Students for Interview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MSLQ group</th>
<th>T1 M</th>
<th>T2 M</th>
<th>difference</th>
<th>T1 score</th>
<th>T2 score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MSLQ increase</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>5.97</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSLQ decrease</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>5.87</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSLQ decrease</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td>1.42</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSLQ decrease</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>5.74</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSLQ decrease</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>-2.84</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSLQ decrease</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>-1.87</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSLQ decrease</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>-1.23</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSLQ decrease</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>4.52</td>
<td>-1.19</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Findings. The descriptive statistics of the MSLQ including the mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis at Time 1 is presented in Table 2. For the six MSLQ subscales it showed that students were quite highly motivated as described by the means of most motivation dimensions which were rated above 5 on the 7 point scales. Overall students were also revealed to be more extrinsically motivated as indicated by the highest group mean for extrinsic goal orientation (T1: \( M = 6.00; SD = .89 \); T2: \( M = 6.14, SD = 78 \)); in contrast mean scores on intrinsic goal orientation were lower (T1: \( M = 4.38, SD = .76 \); T2: \( M = 5.34, SD = 0.85 \)). Thus, participants in this sample were more extrinsically than intrinsically motivated to learn English. Test anxiety scores appeared to be the lowest among the six dimension of MSLQ.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics and Test of Normality for MSLQ at T1 (N = 344)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subscales</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skewness/SE</th>
<th>Kurtosis/SE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IGO</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>-1.95</td>
<td>-1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EGO</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>-6.85</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV</td>
<td>5.70</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>-6.92</td>
<td>2.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLB</td>
<td>5.61</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>-2.76</td>
<td>-70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SELP</td>
<td>5.17</td>
<td>.95</td>
<td>-3.31</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-1.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To investigate whether there were changes in students’ MSLQ motivation factors over the 10 weeks, one-way repeated measures MANOVA was used. The six dimensions of motivation and two time points were used as within-subject factors, and school, grade and gender as between-subject factors across the two time points. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted and no serious violations noted. The results revealed a significant main effect for time $F(1, 335) = 25, p < .01$, Wilks’ Lambda = .93 partial $\eta^2 = .07$ suggesting that time impacted the students’ motivation. Another significant main effect was for motivation $F(5, 331) = 689.70, p< .01$, Wilks’ Lambda = .09, partial $\eta^2 = .91$ indicating different levels across the different motivation factors. Students exhibited an increase on most of the motivation dimensions. Only test anxiety and self-efficacy for learning and performance decreased over time.

**Interview Results.**

**Factors that motivate students to learn English at Time 1.**

Selected students for the interview came from two groups, those who showed the highest increase (IM) group and the highest decrease (DM) group in motivation. The results from the interviews were congruent with the quantitative findings, which showed that students scored the highest on the extrinsic goal orientation subscale, followed by task-value. The majority of the students in the interviews cited that they were mostly motivated to achieve a good grade on their school report so as to please their parents. Weni, a student who showed the highest increase in motivation over the 10 weeks, put it this way:

Well, **to me having a good grade in English is really important.** That’s why I study hard. Since I was in junior secondary school, I’ve never got bad marks for English. My parents are very happy with that. (Weni, Year 10)

Weni’s remarks align with three items from the extrinsic goal orientation subscale of the MSLQ. For instance, Item 7, “Getting a good grade in this class is the most satisfying thing for me right now”, item 11, “The most important thing for me right now is improving my overall grade point average, so my main concern in this class is getting a good grade’, and item 13, “If I can, I want to get better grades in this class than most other students”. These three items were endorsed by the majority of the participants with 93.9%, 90.4%, and 95.6% respectively.
Two out of the eight students showed task-value motivation by citing that English is important for their future life. These students referred to extrinsic factors, such as the utility value of English. This was voiced by Wulan, a year 10 student, who put it this way:

**I do think that English is really important, because it opens doors to many opportunities in the world.** If you don’t want to be left behind, you should master English. As you can see, many good jobs or positions in multinational companies require their employees to be fluent in English, oral and written. I want to learn this subject very seriously so I can be fluent and it is easy for me to get a good job in the future. (Wulan, Year 10).

Wulan’s remarks were congruent with item 10 “It is important for me to learn the course material in this class”, item 23 “I think the course material in this class is useful for me to learn” and item 27 “Understanding the subject matter of this course is very important to me” in task-value subscale of MSLQ. These items were endorsed by 93%, 93% and 88.6% respectively, implying that the majority of the participants of the study understand the importance of English and this motivates them to learn.

**The dynamics of students’ motivation over a 10-week period.**

When asked about the role of the teacher in motivating them to study English, the students’ from IM and DM groups responded very differently. Students from the IM group had positive perceptions of their teachers, stating that the types of activities such as group work, paired work and role play used by the teacher were not only enjoyable but also provided them with opportunities to learn from others as they were working on different type of tasks. In other words, students from IM groups enjoyed the experience of collaborative learning under the directions of a skilful or resourceful teacher. They expressed that the teacher gave clear instructions and explanations as well as encouraging comments, which sustained the motivation of well-motivated students and helped the less motivated to stay focused and to engage in their classroom activities. There were references to some of the teacher’s classroom behaviour such as good classroom management, positive feedback, and maintaining good relationship with the students in some of the students’ remarks during the interviews.

In contrast, students from DM groups expressed their disappointment with their learning experiences. With regard to the teacher, students mentioned at least five characteristics of teachers which contributed greatly to the decrease in their motivation to study. These
characteristic included classroom management, negative feedback and unfair treatment to students, inadequate teaching skills and low level English mastery.

Budi illustrated:

Before the activities begin, my teacher explains the rules that we have to strictly follow. In a role play, for example, all students are expected to participate actively, from writing the dialogue to performing the role play. My teacher also speaks English very clearly. She also makes sure that we know and understand the rules before she proceeds to another task. And you know what I like the most from studying English with the teacher? She never gets angry if we make mistakes. (Budi, Year 11)

This suggests that the student have a good perception of their teacher in terms of classroom management. In addition, Budi’s interview above showed how students’ motivation to learn was maintained by the teacher’s positive behaviours, especially with regards to how mistakes were dealt with in the classroom.

On the other hand, unclear structuring of the class was perceived by the students as associated with the decrease in their motivation to study. Betty observed:

I always feel unsure of what the teacher wants from us. For example, one day she asked us to read the text and then discuss the answer in groups. I expected that after we finished the group discussion, we will discuss in the class discussion. But what happened is the teacher chose one person from each group to come to the front to tell the story in his/her own words. So we felt that what we have discussed was useless, and we could not do well on the performance task, because we did not prepare for that. **There were no clear rules for the students to follow** (Betty, Year 10).

Betty’s remarks reveal that the teacher did not have a set of explicit rules for conducting the activities in the class, which resulted in confusion and a decrease in students’ motivation.

**Negative Feedback**

Teacher’s negative comments contributed significantly to a decrease in his motivation. Surya observed that his teacher seemed not to be aware that comments and negative feedback when correcting errors hurt the students and made them feel humiliated. Some students
refrained from volunteering to answer questions or even chose to remain silent even though the teacher pointed at them to answer. This was illustrated by Surya as follows:

I am not very interested and motivated to study English lately. I guess I became lazier and lazier. I often have a bad experience in class, I receive negative comments and I feel it was very discouraging. I was quite enthusiastic before. I voluntarily answered the teacher’s questions. When I got it wrong, the teacher did not only tell me that it was not correct but also commented negatively, like saying, even the first grade of junior high school can answer it correctly. Since then I choose to remain silent in class. (Surya, Year 11).

Surya’s description above clearly illustrated how his enthusiasm to participate in the class turned into withdrawal from classroom activities because of teacher’s discouraging comments. Instead of receiving appreciation for his efforts to voluntarily answer the questions, he felt humiliated as a result of the comments by the teacher and decided not to take part in further classroom activities.

**Teacher and Student Relationships**

One of the students, Wen, stressed that a good relationship between the teacher and students is an important factor in helping his motivation increase over the course of the 10 week period. She is clearly referring to the quality of relationship with the teachers, including friendliness and fairness to students. This can be detected in the following comment:

I think it is important to maintain good relationships between the teacher and students. If you don’t like the teacher or the teacher does not like you for certain reasons, of course, you don’t feel like coming to the class. What I like from my English teacher now is that she is friendly and always treats everybody fairly. You know, some teachers tend to show that they have a favourite student in the class, it makes us feel that we are treated unfairly. (Wen, Year 10).

Wen’s remarks underscore the importance of fair treatment of all students because this contributed to making the students feel comfortable and positively affected their motivation.

By contrast, Surya, a Year 11 student from the DM group observed how students felt about unfair treatment in the English class and how this negatively affected motivation.
Well, at the beginning of the semester, I was quite active. I always raise my hand to answer the questions. But she always choose the same person, I guess because she is sure that the student will always answer correctly. I know the students she chooses are the clever ones. So,... yeah since I know her style,... I don’t bother to volunteer to answer the questions. (Surya, Year 11).

The last sentence in this interview indicates that unfair treatment leads to decline in Surya’s motivation and his withdrawal and disengagement from trying to respond to the teacher’s question.

To conclude, the results of the interviews with the students from IM and DM groups supported the quantitative findings that most of the participants exhibited extrinsic goal orientation and task value dimensions in relation to their motivation. However, motivation fluctuated during the 10 week period and the change was mostly influenced by their perception of the teacher’s classroom behaviour, although some other factors also contributed to the increase or decrease in students’ motivation.

Discussion
That students generally exhibited an increase in three dimensions, intrinsic goal orientation, task value and extrinsic goal orientation, control of learning beliefs challenged the common phenomenon that student’s motivations to study in general tend to decline across the school year. It has been argued that “over the course of the school year, students’ motivation on average declines or becomes less adaptive as the students entered the junior high school or middle school years” (Pintrich, 2003, p. 680). In line with this, empirical evidence from the United States and Western Europe reported similar findings indicating that students’ motivation declined over time (Lamb, 2007). With respect to the increase in intrinsic goal orientation in particular, the finding of the present study was inconsistent with those of Wigfield, Eccles, and Rodriguez (1998) who argued that, over the school years, learners tend to be less intrinsically motivated to study. In a similar vein, a study conducted in an Asian context revealed that intrinsic motivation of Japanese learners of English in Japan declined from the third through sixth grade of elementary school (Carreira, 2011). Although this study was conducted over a relatively shorter time frame compared to these previous studies, the
reverse tendency was exhibited by the participants. This may be an indication that the students were in an advantageous learning environment which enhanced their motivation.

It was considered important to find the causes of the increase in *intrinsic goal orientation* experienced by the participants of the present study for at least two reasons. One is that intrinsic motivation has been confirmed as a predictor of a number of positive outcome variables in learning, including perceived competence, perceived autonomy, lower anxiety and a positive attitude toward language learning (Noel, *et al.* 2001). Another is that this has not been a common phenomenon reported by previous research and the discussion offers new evidence for researchers in this area to consider.

Studies conducted by Noels *et al.* (2001) and Deci and Ryan (2000) suggested that perceived competence and autonomy are two antecedents of *intrinsic motivation* which play an important role in sustaining it. The results of interviews with the student participants indicated that perceived competence contributed to an increase in participants’ *intrinsic motivation*. Perceived competence is developed through accomplishment of moderately-challenging tasks (Bronson, 2000). The feeling of satisfaction resulting from success experiences in completing reasonably challenging tasks creates a sense of competence, which results in the development of learners’ intrinsic motivation. In the case of the present study, the teachers may have set the tasks at an appropriate level of difficulty so the students gained confidence in their ability to do the tasks. This was supported by one student from the group who showed an increase in motivation (IM) who throughout the semester became more confident and felt more competent in English, especially when she could complete the tasks with very little assistance from the teacher. She acquired new vocabulary and developed her skills by doing the assignments and all the tasks. Another student explained that he was becoming more interested in English compared to the start of the semester as he found the lessons were interesting. The teachers used different teaching techniques to raise students’ interest toward the language.

Research studies conducted in various contexts including the United States, Western Europe and Asia have provided a growing body of empirical evidence which suggests that students’ motivation tends to decrease throughout the school year (Bernaus, Moore & Azevedo, 2007; Carreira, 2011; Lamb, 2007; Pintrich, 2003; Zhang, 2007). With respect to some dimensions of motivation, student participants in the present study reported corresponding results to previous findings. It was revealed that, over the two time points, students’ *test anxiety*, and *self-efficacy for learning and performance* tended to decrease.
The decrease in test anxiety is understandable due to the type of test students undertake during the semester and the way the tests were assessed and marked. In the Indonesian schooling system, students sit formal tests twice throughout the semester, a mid-semester test and an end-of-semester test. Based on the researcher’s observations, the skills tested on both tests were only receptive skills (listening and reading) in the form of multiple-choice tests. The absence of productive skills tests, especially a speaking or oral test which was previously reported as one of the anxiety provoking factors (Worde, 2003), may contribute to the decrease of student’s test anxiety. In addition, the multiple-choice test could be considered less challenging because students can guess answers from the available options. Furthermore, the system of assessment that provides an opportunity for students to re-sit the test before awarding their final mark may also contribute to a decline in the test anxiety score.

Students also cited several other teacher-related behaviours that demotivated them, namely teacher’s inadequate teaching and classroom management skills, low level English mastery, inappropriate teaching materials. Teachers with a lack of classroom management skills could not ensure that the activities and the class ran appropriately, resulting in a noisy and disorganised class. Lack of teaching skills resulted in repetitive classroom activities which made students bored and demotivated. All these teacher related aspects were also reported in previous research (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

References


Tourist to Ajarn: The Filipino Teachers in Thailand

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Abstract
Most Filipino teachers in Thailand teach in anuban (pre-school), phratom (elementary) and Mathayum (high school). Few Filipinos are able to teach in the university level where professional development is highly esteemed in the academic community. They are pressured to improve their teaching methods as well as seeking avenues to improve their professions to ensure that their employers will renew their contracts yearly.

The study explored the lives of five Filipino teachers working in elementary and university levels and their struggles to professionally improve themselves to ensure the continuous renewal of their contracts.

The study sought to understand the various reasons for migrations of the Filipinos in Thailand; to present the professional development undertaken by the Filipino teachers for professional development; and to present the struggles and the issues confronting them as migrant workers.

Employing the life story method the author did questions, interviews via internet and review of related literature as secondary data. The questions were semi-structured which provided the respondents to reflect and dissect their situations in an open mindset.
There are around 16 to 17 thousand Filipinos in Thailand but there is really no accurate data since the Filipinos move constantly.

**Keywords:** ASEAN, English teachers, development, Filipino, migration, tourists

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**Introduction**

According to Tulud-Cruz (2004) Asia has a long history of permanent, temporary and cyclical migration due to trade, work, religion or cultural interchange. In pre-colonial times the Malay peninsula and the Indonesian and Philippine archipelago is an area marked by mobility of people of various ethnicity especially via the sea. Arab and Chinese traders are key players in this period of history of people mobility in Asia.

The ancient kingdoms of Siam (Thailand’s old name) and Luzon had a long history of trading relationship. The Sukhothai and Ayutthaya dynasties also employed mercenaries from Luzon to fight the Burmese and Cambodian invaders (Morga, 1907; David, 1984).

Philippines was also a popular destination among Thais before World War 2 since the country’s education system was patterned to the American curriculum aside from cheap tuition and living compared to the United States and England. In a newspaper article, Novio (12 Feb 2012) wrote that in the ‘70s few Filipinos came to work with Bangkok-based international agencies or multinational firms, or as missionaries or entertainers. Among the popular Thai personalities who were Philippine educated is the popular band, Kalabaw. The members studied at the Gregorio Araneta Foundation (now La Salle). Older Thais know the Philippine universities as the best in Asia if not of the world. On the same article, Novio mentioned that Filipinos has been coming to Thailand since. However, only during the year 2000 former Prime Minister Thaksin Shinawatra opened the country for foreign teachers to teach English that swarm of Filipinos came in.

On 14 June 1949 the Philippines and Thailand signed the signed the Treaty of Friendship, formalizing their bilateral relationship (Philippine Embassy website).
Migration among the Filipinos and ASEAN

In 1973, President Ferdinand Marcos formalized the opening of the country as a source of labor market, through its export-oriented policy. Aside from the growing unrest in the country where many Filipinos trooped to foreign embassies to fled, the rising oil prices attracted many workers to the Middle East for contractual labor. However, at this time majority of those who left the country were males while the nurses bound to the United States were mostly females. (Asis, 2011; Choy, 2003; O’neil, 2004).

The Philippine Government however has different perception in encouraging migration. The study of Rodriguez (2005) stated that the political benefits of migration, as the state makes plain in official policy documents, include mitigating the growth of the communist insurgency. The availability of employment overseas addresses the Philippines’ perennial un- and underemployment problem, which, state officials believe communists take advantage of to increase their ranks.

Migration resulted to “brain drain”. However, Yuen (2013) emphasized that although receiving countries benefited from the “brains” of the skilled migrants, the emigrants help their own countries through sending of remittances; transfer technology and knowledge; and provide crucial networks for trade and investments. It also leads to higher level of human capital formation. Further, upon returning of the emigrants to their home countries, they are able to share the skills they have learned from their host countries.

The pattern of migration significantly changed in the past years due to the strong collaboration of South East Asian nations. It resulted to the establishment of ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) in 2015. AEC aims to give employment and other economic opportunities to 622 million people. With a US$2.6 trillion market, AEC is the third largest economy in Asia and the seventh largest in the world (http://asean.org/asean).

The ASEAN region is now gearing on the full implementation of the ASEAN Economic Community, more and more Filipino workers and job-seekers flock to middle and upper income countries in the ASEAN region like Malaysia, Singapore and Thailand due to its open-door policy on skilled and professional workers in the region.

Despite the open-door policy, there are only eight professions in the MRAs (Mutual Recognition Agreements) allowed for skilled labor recognized to work in ASEAN region. These are medical doctors, dentists, nurses, architects, engineers, accountants, surveyors and tourism professionals. These professions are yet to freely move in any ASEAN countries because each country prioritizes their own professionals (Muennoo, 2012). The ASEAN
Economic Community Blueprint facilitates only the mobility of these skilled professionals. However, according to critics, the arrangement to facilitate the movement of these professionals is also problematic in some countries because the requirements imposed on ASEAN professionals are the same as those of the non-ASEAN countries. (Tangkitvanich, Rattanakhamfu, 2017)

Teaching profession may be excluded, but it is still the most in demand among the non-English speaking countries in SE Asia excluding Malaysia, Singapore and Indonesia.

As Thailand struggles to meet the standard of the ASEAN community in English language proficiency, it becomes a haven for job-seekers from English speaking countries including the Philippines. Known for their adaptability, excellent work ethics, and even accepting low salary Filipinos are becoming in demand in Thailand as teachers or ajarns.

**Thailand’s Labor Market**

Thailand is known for tourism with its foods, beaches, country sides, night markets and the alluring night life of Bangkok. Tourists, retirees and job seekers flock to Thailand because of its low standard of living and relatively relax immigration rules especially workers from ASEAN countries.

As a receiving country, Thailand’s workers are from neighboring Myanmar, Cambodia, Laos (Mekong countries) and now the Philippines. Compared to the other three countries, Filipino workers are mostly professionals and demanding higher compensation. Philippines on the other hand is the largest labor-sending country in the ASEAN region (OECD, 2015).

Despite the strong diplomatic relations between the Philippines and Thailand, there is an absence of a Bilateral Labor Agreement (BLA). Thailand has Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) with the Mekong countries on labor. (Go, 2007a; http://www.mekongmigration.org)

Therefore, most workers from the Philippines enter as tourists. Engineers, development workers and missionaries are sponsored by multi-national companies with sub-offices or churches based in Thailand.

Bilateral agreements (BAs) have traditionally been used to manage migration flows between countries. These are formal, legally binding treaties relating to cooperation in various aspects related to labor migration while MOUs are nonbinding and less formal (Bacalla, 2012, Go, 2007b).
Recently, Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Declaration on the Protection and Promotion of the Rights of Migrant Workers was adopted by the ASEAN heads of state in Cebu, Philippines in 2007. The Declaration calls on countries of origin and destination to ensure the dignity of migrant workers by outlining their obligations in the areas of: (i) protection from exploitation, discrimination, and violence; (ii) labor migration governance; and (iii) the fight against trafficking in persons. (http://www.ilo.org/dyn/migpractice). The Declaration also includes the undocumented workers. On April 27-29, 2017, it is expected that the final draft on the instruments of the Convention will be finalized.

The Filipino Migrants

The International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (1990) defines a migrant worker as a person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a state of which he or she is not a national.

The Commission of Overseas Filipinos (CFO) classifies the Filipino migrants into the following:

- **Permanent migrants** – These refer to Filipino migrants and legal permanent residents abroad. Permanent migrants may be Filipinos who are Filipino citizens, who are Philippine passport holders, or who have been naturalized citizens in the host country. Popular labels to these kinds of migrants are “immigrants” and “emigrants”;

- **Temporary migrants** – These refer to Filipinos whose stay overseas, while regular and properly documented, is temporary. This is owed to the employment related nature of their status in the host country. Temporary migrants include contract workers, intra-company transferees, students, trainees, entrepreneurs, businessmen, traders, and others whose stay abroad is six months or more, as well as their accompanying. These migrants are popularly referred to as “overseas contract workers (OCWs)” or “overseas Filipino workers (OFWs)”; and

- **Irregular migrants** – These are migrants whose stay abroad is not properly documented. They also do not have valid residence and work permits; they can also be overstaying workers or tourists in a foreign country. These migrants falling into this category shall have been in such status for six months or more.
The Convention categorized the migrant workers as documented or in regular situations “if they are authorized to enter, to stay and to engage in a remunerated activity in the State of employment pursuant to the law of that State and to international agreements to which that State is a party”. Otherwise, they are considered to be non-documentated or in an irregular situation.

**The Filipinos in Thailand**

The table shows the estimated number of Filipinos in Thailand covering the period of July to December 2015 in a Report to Congress by the Philippine Embassy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Permanent Migrants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1,025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*2004-2015</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Temporary Migrants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13,266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*figure is taken from the 12,921 work permits issued by the Thai Ministry of Labor as of September 2015 and the 345 reports of births received by the Embassy in 2015</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Irregular/undocumented</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1,371</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*based on the information provided by clients who approached the Embassy in 2015 for various consular and ATN-related services</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15,662</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the same report, the Philippine Embassy admitted that the number of males and females were not provided. Further, in January to June 2015 report there was a discrepancy due to the continuous mobilization of the Filipino migrants.
Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Permanent Migrants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Temporary Migrants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>12,921</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Irregular/undocumented</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>17,921</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 is based on the work permits issued by the Thai Ministry of Labor in the same period.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Professions</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Professionals</td>
<td>9,597</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Skilled</td>
<td>897</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Semi-skilled</td>
<td>335</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Low-skilled</td>
<td>157</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Household Service Workers</td>
<td>83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. “Others” (as grouped by Thai authorities)</td>
<td>2,197</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Not identified (includes figures 1a and 1c)</td>
<td>2,396</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>15,662</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In an interview to former Vice Consul Edgar Badajos, he confirmed that majority of the Filipinos entered Thailand as tourists (Novio, 2012). In separate interviews Filipinos admitted that they were tourists upon their entry and later found work in different provinces in Thailand.

* Philippine Embassy in Bangkok (Bangkok PE) Report to Congress from the period July to December 2015

The Filipino Teachers

Philippines is the third largest English speaking society in the world (Bolton and Bautista, 2004). English is the official language of the government and in education and a large
part of the media, music, films and televisions. Philippines has high literacy rates of 87% and good English speaking ability (Jinkinson, 2003). In the past ten years, the Philippines has exported approximately four thousand teachers, primarily in the subjects of math, science, English, and special education. Tubeza (2009) enumerates the top destinations as being primarily non-English speaking countries such as Japan, Qatar, United Arab Emirates, and Saudi Arabia. The United States, an English speaking country, imports foreign English teachers and is included as one of the top destinations for Filipino teachers.

Besides English, Filipino teachers working abroad are given other subjects to teach such as Mathematics, Science and other related disciplines. Further, since English is the language of commerce and politics in the Philippines, majority of the Filipinos understand English thus can be categorized as native English speakers. (Frederiksen, 2014).

In 2001, it is generally believed that former Prime Minister Thaksin Shinawatra opened Thailand for teaching employment as it prepared for ASEAN integration. Thus, a new wave of migration began paving the way for Filipino professionals seeking jobs. However, most job seekers from the Philippines are classified as tourists. It is assumed that the 3,000 undocumented Filipinos on the record of the Philippine Embassy in Thailand in December 2015 were either tourists or workers with expired work permits or not issued with working visa.

As a labor sending country, the Philippines relies on overseas remittances to keep the economy afloat. Categorize as global work force, the Filipino workers continue to seek personal development to remain competitive in their chosen fields to improve quality of life through income and livelihood, and job security. Achieving higher education, accreditations and recognition from both the sending and receiving countries, are considered capital investments to continue working abroad.

**Statement of the Problems**

Few Filipinos are able to teach in the university level where professional development is highly esteemed in the academic community. The Filipino teachers are pressured to improve their teaching methods as well as seeking avenues to improve their professions to ensure that their employers will renew their contracts yearly. The paper answered the following questions: 1.) What are their reasons for migration; 2) How do they improve their professions to ensure the continuity of their contracts and 3) What are their struggles as migrant teachers?; and 4) what are the issues confronting them as migrants?
According to Becker, education, training, and health are the most important investments in human capital. Human Capital Theory (HCT) examines the relationships between education, economic growth and social well-being.

This paper explored the lives of five Filipino EFL teachers who started as tourists and now working as teachers in universities in Thailand. The paper narrates their struggles to prove their professional worth as English teachers as well as their success as Filipino teachers in a foreign country.

**Methodology, methods of collecting data and analysis**

Life story method is used in this paper where the following were employed: questions, interviews via internet, review of related literature as secondary data. The questions were semi-structured which provided the respondents to reflect and dissect their situations in an open mindset. Messenger chat and calls were used for the interviews. Fact to face interviews were done to those based in Nakhon Ratchasima.

In life story method, the researcher selected the five respondents based on the following criteria: length of stay in Thailand; university lecturers; has access to university funding for professional development; consent; accessibility to the author and location.

The data collected were interpreted according to their perceptions of professional development and how does it define them as an EFL teacher in Thailand. Other factors such as family, education, cultures, and migration were also analyzed.

The study was conducted from October to December 2016. Each respondents were given two weeks to answer the interview. Follow-up interview were also done for three months.

**Respondents**

The paper has five respondents; three females and two males. All of them are teaching in university level. The three female respondents have twelve years teaching experience, while one has been teaching for eight years and the other one has six years teaching experience.

Three of the respondents have Master’s Degree. The two female respondents already finished their Master’s Degree in the Philippines while the other female respondent finished Master’s in Thailand. One male respondent is currently enrolled in a Master’s degree while the other has no plan to pursue Master’s degree.

The respondents are from Phitsanulok, Nakhon Ratchasima, Khampeang Pet and Nonthaburi.
Analysis and Results

The table shows the Push and Pull factors in migration of the Filipino teachers in Thailand.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Push Factors from the Philippines</th>
<th>Pull Factors to Thailand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No permanent jobs; low paying jobs; limited financial opportunities</td>
<td>Perceived high paying jobs for English speaking people and more opportunities to have tutorials, professional opportunities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stressful relationship; stressful work</td>
<td>Perceived to provide security due to distance and low-stress level in the workplace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire to uplift the standard of living; looking for adventure; change of lifestyle;</td>
<td>Perceived financial security thus the ability to buy material things; lifestyle is considerably changed;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouragement from friends and relatives</td>
<td>Perception that the successful life of others could be the same or even surpassed.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Professional Development

The study revealed that the push and pull factors in migration were the main reasons why the respondents migrated to Thailand, except for one male respondent who was a volunteer in an international non-government organization. However, this respondent did not leave after his one year contract because his Thai colleagues encouraged him to apply for a teaching job. Eventually, he was able to bring his wife and children in Thailand.

Josemari said:

“I was sent by an international organization based in the UK to OBEC (Office of the Basic Education Commission) in Bangkok to document the Burmese refugees across Thailand. After my contract, my boss, an alumnus of the Gregorio Araneta University (in the Philippines) told me to apply as a teacher since there is a huge need of English teachers. Since then, I taught
in a university in Khampeang pet and finally in Nakhon Ratchasima. I am in Thailand now for 9 years.

Opportunities abound in Thailand especially for talented Filipinos. Pursuing hobbies like photography is easier and could be an advantage especially for teachers.

Jojit, a teacher in Nonthaburi said:

“Equipment are cheaper. I bought a DSLR camera in Bangkok. In the Philippines, it would just be a dream because I was only an ordinary teacher.”

Thailand provides professional and individual growth among the respondents. Attending conferences, workshops, trainings both in Thailand and abroad are fully supported by their universities. Thus, the respondents have to improve their teaching strategies and update learning materials to assure their universities that they are deserving of the financial supports.

Nancy, a lecturer in one of the top university in Thailand emphasized:

After twelve years in Thailand and working in the same university, I am still worried when September comes because that is the time to renew our contracts. That’s why I have to attend conferences and seminars. Last year, I presented a paper in a TESOL conference in Indonesia. This was my first ever international presentation. Our university paid for the trip and everything. There is really no reason for us not to improve ourselves.

Nancy also mentioned that in the Philippines, it would be difficult to get financial support from the schools for such travels because of the limited funding for education. Josemari attested to that being a teacher in a state college in the Philippines. In his experience, his department’s fund for research was only P5,000 for more than 10 instructors.

Two respondents took Master’s in Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL) for personal and professional development since universities preferred lecturers/teachers with master’s degrees. Teachers with MA also receive higher salary compared to those who only have bachelor’s degree.

Marie, a Filipina married to Thai came to Thailand as tourist. She was twenty-three years old, a management graduate who had only one year working experience in a food chain in the Philippines. Her friends encouraged her to try Thailand. Teaching in a private university in Nakhon Ratchasima, Marie receives B30,000+ because she has Master’s Degree.
“I’ve been here for 17 years. I know I could never get a high paying job if I would not enroll in a Master’s Degree. After working in several village schools, I took MA in TEFL (Teaching English as Foreign Language) at Rajhabat University in Bangkok. I was teaching in a university in Lampang and studying at the same time. I am trying to finish my research which is funded by my university.”

Prime, a university lecturer in Phitsanulok was invited by her Thai classmate to come to Thailand. With a Master’s Degree in Psychology, looking for a job was easy. She has been living in Thailand for the past twelve years.

“We are required by our university to attend seminars and conferences; even abroad. I do that. I also update reading materials of the students. I make my own materials because some English books are not suited to their level of English.”

The respondents agreed that professional development is a lifetime achievement that they can bring anywhere. Since four of them still plan to go back to the Philippines upon their retirement, the skills and technology they have gained will be beneficial to them when they re-apply again as teachers.

Nancy said:

“Continuing Professional Development (CPD) is needed in the Philippines now to be able to renew a teacher’s license. CPD has a corresponding points for promotions. It includes research, presentations, trainings, etc. My experiences here are more than enough to for CPD.”

The respondents also mentioned that technology is advanced in Thailand as compared to the Philippines. Technology-based education and teaching such as flip-classroom using learning management systems such as Google classrooms, Edmodo, and Moodle are commonly used in Thai classrooms which they also adapt.

**Struggles as migrants**

Josemari experienced depression when he was first assigned in Khapeang pet. He did not realize it at first. He is never properly diagnosed but he said he recovered already.

“I see blood everywhere whenever the students were noisy. I just leave the room to calm myself. Every night, I wake up and just cry. I stayed with my Filipino friend and tell him to just
Josemari finally realized that he needed help. He asked his wife and children to join him in Thailand. His family has been here for seven years now.

Some of the respondents worked in the rural areas. Majority of the Thai students in both rural and urban areas do not understand English. “Lost in translation” is a term the respondents used when what they meant is understood by Thai differently due to the difference in Thai meanings, tones, and alphabet compared to the respondents who are educated in the English medium.

To ease homesickness, the Filipino respondents communicate to their families through Facebook and Skype. They also meet with other Filipino in various Filipino organizations and church-based activities. They also engaged in hobbies such as cooking Filipino foods and photography.

Prime learned to bake pandesal, ensaymada (Filipino breads) and other delicacies for sale to other Filipinos and to ease her homesickness.

Nancy said:

“I can only say, “taw lai na ka; suay; kotot naka.” (how much; sorry)

The respondents’ inability to speak and read in Thai posed a major setback in communicating between the students and the superiors. Despite this, all respondents were able to understand Thai, speak passable Thai and adapt to their environment as years passed. They have no desire to study Thai in formal setting.

**Documented or undocumented**

In the Philippines, a migrant worker is considered illegal if she/he does not undergo process at the POEA (Philippine Overseas Employment Agency) such as PDOS (pre-departure orientation seminar) and other requirements deemed necessary by the agency.

Four of the respondents came to Thailand as tourists. Since they were not given any orientation by the POEA, they did not have any idea about the culture and traditions. They relied information only from friends who already settled in Thailand. Asked if they sought information from the Philippine Embassy, all of them responded negatively.

Upon their employment, they were issued with work visa (Non-B) and work permit which are renewable every year. Thus, a person with Non-B visa and work permit is a legal migrant worker in Thailand and is covered with insurances and benefits.
All the respondents agreed that the yearly-renewal of contract hinders also their full capacity for development because there is always a chance of not getting renewed.

The Philippine government only recognized the legality of the migrant workers upon their return in the Philippines to register at the POEA and OWWA (Overseas Workers Welfare Association).

The absence of Bilateral Labor Agreement (BLA) between the Philippines and Thailand contributes to the increasing tension between the Filipino teachers and the employers particularly on the benefits as migrant workers and unfair labor practices despite of the Thai Labor Laws covering all migrant workers.

**Conclusions**

Filipino workers in Thailand, particularly the teachers are as important as the other migrant workers in the other parts of the globe because of their contributions to the Philippine economy. Furthermore, their role in nation-building through education of the youth in their host country cannot be disregarded.

As a receiving/host country, Thailand benefitted from the Filipino teachers who teach English in the universities. Further, the skills they acquire are also given back to the Thai students. As a sending country, the Philippines receives monthly remittances thus, strengthening the purchasing power of the individuals in the micro-level. In the end, the skills and knowledge gained by the teachers will be useful in the Philippines if they choose to come home.

The Filipino teachers take all the opportunities offered to them for professional development which is nearly impossible to achieve if they remain in the Philippines. As university lecturers they are respected both by their colleagues and students.

Despite homesickness, depressions, inability to speak the language and other hindrances, the Filipino teachers in Thailand remain optimistic the continuity of their contracts as well as the Philippine government’s recognition to their contribution as overseas workers (OFW). The continuing push factors drive away the Filipinos to search for “greener pasture” thus finding this in Thailand as the pull factors.

Though majority arrived in Thailand as tourists and became illegals according to the definition of the Philippine government of legal workers, the Filipino teachers were able to become legal in both countries by following the laws prescribed by the immigration.
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How much do High Schools Contribute to Improving Students’ English Proficiency? Seeking Alumni’s Perception in Indonesia

Faisal Mustafa

Syiah Kuala University, Banda Aceh, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Faisal Mustafa, who graduated from Syiah Kuala University in Indonesia with a Bachelor’s degree in English Language Teaching in 2008, earned a Master’s degree in Linguistics from the University of Manchester, UK, in 2011. His research interests cover linguistics, translation, teaching methodology and language testing, and vocabulary. He can be reached at faisal.mustafa@unsyiah.ac.id.

Abstract

Students from non-English speaking countries learn English as a foreign language in school. Therefore, schools should play the most important role in improving students’ English proficiency. This study aimed at describing high school alumni’s perception on whether schools have successfully played that role. To obtain the data for this research, a questionnaire was sent to all second-semester students at Syiah Kuala University. The questionnaire asked their opinion on whether the teaching and learning process at schools improved their English proficiency. Out of 1,500 students, 500 students responded to the questionnaire. The results showed that most students (76 percent) agreed that their current level of English was only partially due to the teaching and learning process at school. The percentage of students who believed that their current level of English was because of the school was 15 percent. Only 9 percent of the students considered that the teaching and learning process at school did not contribute to improving their English proficiency. Therefore, the teaching and learning process at schools has to be adjusted. Because most students did not have time for autonomous learning, schools must upgrade teachers’ competence and invest in school facilities to improve the English proficiency of its students.
**Keywords:** Indonesian high school, English proficiency improvement, students’ perception

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Indonesia

**Introduction**

In Indonesia, English is taught at secondary and high school levels. Students spend the whole day at school, leaving very limited time for self-study and practice. Therefore, schools play very significant roles in improving students’ English proficiency. Three years ago, Indonesia advocated a new curriculum that suggests the implementation of the scientific method for English subjects at secondary and high school levels. The scientific method is a procedure followed by a scientist to “investigate nature” (Carey, 2011, p. 3). The main feature of the approach is cooperative learning, where students mostly work together during the teaching and learning process (Zaim, 2017, p. 34). Teachers are to facilitate the students’ autonomous learning. Should this approach be implemented, all students will have the same chance of language exposure. However, the results of the TOEFL test for high school graduates admitted at Syiah Kuala University revealed that only 13% of the students could reach higher than the basic level. That shows that the expected results of the curriculum are not achieved. Previous research revealed that teachers are not able to interpret the goal of the curricula, either previous or current curricula (Jaedun, Hariyanto, Nuryadin, 2014, p. 19; Sulfasyah, 2013, pp. 196–197) because of a lack of training, and trainers are usually less expertise regarding the curriculum (Sundayana, 2015, p. 30). Therefore, according to preliminary data, the changes to focus on scientific approach in curricula have not had any significant impact on students’ English proficiency. Only motivated students who practice English outside of school can successfully reach higher levels of English. Previous research tends to focus on the application of certain methods, models, and strategies (Diem, 2011; Nita & Syafei, 2012). However, there has been no research investigating students’ perception of the role of teaching and their learning process at schools in improving their English proficiency. Therefore, this research aimed to find out whether high school graduates believed that their current level of English proficiency is due entirely, partially, or not at all to the teaching and learning process at school.
Literature review

This section reviews variables in this study including English language teaching and English proficiency in an Indonesian context.

English language teaching in Indonesia

English has been taught in Indonesia as a compulsory subject since the Dutch colonialization era (Tsuchiya, 1975). The English curriculum has undergone dramatic changes (Muth’im, 2014, p. 1094; Rudy, 2015, p. 79). The focus of language teaching has been matched with the current trend in language teaching (Madya, 2007, p. 2).

Currently, teachers are strongly recommended to apply the scientific approach in teaching English in secondary and high schools. The approach consists of 5 steps (Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture, 2013). Each step represents a method where any relevant teaching and learning strategies can be implemented.

- Observation

  In observation, teachers invite students to observe the language learning concept in action (Carey, 2011, p. 3). Because observation is the “empirical foundation” of all knowledge, it is an important skill for helping to understand phenomena (Malderez, 2003, p. 179). The observation may be in structured or unstructured form. In structured observation, students are instructed to observe a certain focus (Gillham, 2008, p. 3), such as the expression of agreement in an authentic video. In this observation, students are usually given a worksheet. Gillham (2008, p. 3) added that unstructured observation is when students are only requested to observe without any guidance.

- Questioning

  Students are given opportunities to employ higher-order questioning for the concept they have failed to understand during observation. At this step, the students are assisted in developing their abilities to ask higher-order questions. According to DeWaelsche (2015, p. 138), it is essential for the development of critical thinking. In addition, Etemadzadeh, Seifi, and Far (2013, p. 1025) believe that students who regularly ask questions tend to learn better compared to those who stay quiet. Gall (1984, p. 44) explained that asking questions motivates students to practice.
• Exploring and experimenting

After the students ask and respond to questions by their classmates, teachers ask students to collect information related to the discussed topic in the school library or on the internet. The best model to be implemented in this step is inquiry-based learning, which was previously only used in science classrooms (Shih, Chuang, & Hwang, 2010). The method was later adopted in language learning programs (Chang, Chang, & Shih, 2016, p. 101).

• Associating

In this step, the students are invited to make conclusions based on the information they have gathered in the previous steps. Athiyah (2015) recommended that teachers make students sit in a small group or in pairs to discuss the information. They can relate one idea with another logically and construct an understanding of a topic (Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture, 2014).

• Networking/Communicating

The last step is to disseminate what the students have learned to the rest of the class (Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture, 2013, p. 3). Should the class size be too large, students or pairs can be combined into bigger groups and have a discussion to conclude their opinions. Then, each group assigns a representative to present the results of their discussion. Other groups are invited to give feedback after the presentation. After all groups present, the teachers confirm whether the students have understood the topic.

The failure of ELT in Indonesian schools

English is taught as a foreign language in Indonesia, starting from junior high school to the university level. Both junior and senior high schools are completed in three years and English is taught as a core subject in all semesters. However, the most current data show that more than 85% of fresh high school graduates admitted to Syiah Kuala University were still basic learners, as shown in the following chart.
This failure was motivated by the following weaknesses:

1. Teachers’ competence in implementing the curriculum

   The current curriculum suggests that teachers use the scientific approach in the teaching and learning process (Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture, 2013). This approach has been implemented in teaching subjects related to sciences such as physics (Nagl, Obadovic, & Segedinac, 2012), biology (Lawson, 1999), chemistry (Reid, 2008), etc. It has also been proven effective in English language teaching (Zaim, 2017). It was introduced in Indonesia in 2013 along with the establishment of the new curriculum. However, most English teachers did not have access to training in implementing this curriculum (Jaedun et al., 2014, p. 18). When teachers were given the training, most trainers were not well-prepared (Sundayana, 2015), which made teachers even more confused.

2. Facilities

   The scientific approach, which is suggested by the current curriculum, requires students to have access to the internet or other alternative sources to find information such as library (Gauch, 2003, p. 7). However, internet is preferable due to its current and comprehensiveness. Very few schools provide internet access to students, and schools rarely have language laboratories equipped with computers (Yulia, 2013, pp. 5–6). Therefore, even if the teachers know how to implement the scientific approach, not all steps can be actualized. In this case, the third step is completed by asking students to collect as much information as possible using

Figure 1: Fresh graduate students’ TOEFL scores
the internet. An alternative is the school library but, except for schools in cities, books are very limited (Madya, 2002, p. 149).

3. Unspecified vocabulary size

While the National Final Examination requires the 1st – 5th 1,000 most frequently used words, students only have some words in every level. Mustafa (2017) found that students seem to pick up new words randomly. This vocabulary size is not sufficient to comprehend texts in the exam (Laufer, 1989, p. 319), in this case National Final Examination for Indonesian high schools. This is motivated by the fact that the curriculum does not specify which vocabulary needs to be taught (Mustafa, 2017, p. 108). As a result, teachers do not know which vocabulary to focus on during the teaching and learning.

Methodology

In order to find out whether high school graduates considered teaching and learning process at schools to have contributed to their current level of English proficiency, an online questionnaire was sent to all students who had the minimum TOEFL score of 400, i.e. 489 students, who are considered high achieving learners. The students are recent high school graduates admitted to Syiah Kuala University in Aceh, Indonesia. They are currently in the second semester. The TOEFL was administered in the first month of their first semester at the university. The students whose scores were below 400 were excluded because their English skills are considered elementary. From the 489 students, 65% of them (274 students) completed the questionnaire. All students whose scores were above 550 completed the questionnaire, but that is not the case for other proficiency groups. Figure 2 shows the number of students who returned the questionnaire based on their TOEFL scores.
In the questionnaire, the students were asked whether their current level of English proficiency is because of the teaching and learning process at school, outside the school, or both. For those who answered outside the school or both, they were asked how they studied. While the first question was a multiple-choice question, the second one was open-ended.

The results from the questionnaire were calculated and reported quantitatively by comparing them to the total number of participants. The participants were grouped based on their TOEFL scores, which ranged from 400 to 570 as shown in Figure 2 above.

**Results**

Based on the questionnaire results, the number of students who believed that it was the school which contributed to their current level of English proficiency is presented in Figure 3.
Figure 3: The students’ response to what contributes to their current English level

Figure 3 shows that the majority of high achieving students did not believe that their current level of English is credited to the teaching and learning process at the schools. The trend changes for students whose TOEFL scores were lower than 450. However, the numbers were not very high compared to the total number of students. Some students whose scores were lower than 463 thought that their current level of English proficiency was the result of their learning outside of school. In addition, almost all high achieving learners considered that their success in learning English goes to both formal teaching and learning process at school and other learning efforts outside the school.

The next item in the questionnaire asked more specifically about students’ learning methods outside of school. The results are presented in Table 1.

### Table 1: Activities for autonomous learning outside the school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Self-study (learning outside the school)</th>
<th>Attended courses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Intentional self-study</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Unintentional self-study</td>
<td>129</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>219</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that more students thought that they learned English unintentionally by watching movies, reading for pleasure in English, and communicating online with foreigners. Of those students, 20 percent of them attended English courses. The percentage of students attending English courses is even higher (35 percent) for students who admitted learning intentionally by practicing with friends, reading grammar books, learning from materials given at school, and consulting the dictionary to improve their vocabulary.

**Discussion**

The objective of this research was to find out high school alumni’s perspective regarding what contributed to their current level of English proficiency. A questionnaire was distributed to high school alumni who has post basic level of English proficiency. The result shows that 15 percent of the participants considered their level of English proficiency a result of the teaching and learning process at school, while 9 percent of them considered that it was because of their learning outside school. In addition, 76 percent of them perceived that both the teaching and learning process in the school and outside the school contribute to improving
their current English levels. This result is not surprising because English classes meet twice a week in Indonesian high schools, equaling three hours a week and 720 hours total for the whole high school levels. According to Archibald et al. (2006, p. 3), students require longer than 720 hour-instruction time to use functional language even in the ESL context. Therefore, 87 percent of the high school alumni admitted at Syiah Kuala University were not getting a sufficient amount of practice in school.

It is very challenging for students to invest in additional learning hours because most high schools finish classes in the afternoon. With homework to complete as well, that leaves students with limited extra time. Only highly motivated students still managed to invest time outside the school to learn English. Based on the current research, however, the number of such students is small, i.e. 13 percent.

Of those motivated students, some learn English unintentionally by watching English movies. There has been much research that shows a positive correlation between watching movies and English proficiency (Damronglaohapan & Stevenson, 2013; Safranj, 2015). Some of them use subtitles either in English or in L1, and the others, usually advanced learners, do not use any subtitles. Either way, the activity influenced students’ proficiency improvement (Başaran & Köse, 2013). In addition, they learn English unintentionally by reading novels and other online materials for pleasure, which have been proven to be very effective in improving vocabulary (Day, Omura, & Hiramatsu, 1991, p. 545; Wang, 2013). Many also reported that they played games in English, which has been suggested by Madarsara (2015, p. 32) to improve vocabulary.

The number of students who learned English intentionally was less than half of the number of unintentional learners. These learners are very motivated to learn English. They learn by practicing conversation with friends, which is one of the social strategies proposed by Oxford (1990, p. 21). This strategy has been found to be very popular among successful learners to improve their English (Gerami & Baighlou, 2011, p. 1573). Students also reported that their grammatical skills improved drastically by studying grammar books. Grammatical skills are significant both for producing a language and understanding one (Praise & Meenakshi, 2015, p. 101). In addition, intentional learners reviewed materials given at school, and consulted the dictionary to improve their vocabulary. Using the dictionary has been found to improve vocabulary regardless of the type of dictionary (Rezaei & Davoudi, 2016; Yazdi, 2014). However, learning vocabulary by using a dictionary does not promote long-term vocabulary retention as much as unintentional vocabulary learning (Chun, et. al., 2012, p. 128).
In addition, 35 percent of them attended English course, which is higher when compared to students who learn English unintentionally, i.e. 20 percent.

Conclusion

This research has shown that most high school graduates past the basic language level consider their current level of English proficiency due to not only the teaching and learning process in school but also their own learning outside school. Few students thought that it was because of either just teaching and learning process at school or only their own effort outside school. More students learned English outside the school unintentionally than intentionally. Students in both groups also attended English courses.

The conclusions above provide significant feedback for the teaching and learning process at high schools in Indonesia. First of all, the government needs to upgrade teachers’ professional and pedagogical competence through trainings with accomplished trainers. In addition, the government needs to invest in school facilities to support the teaching and learning process such as computers, projectors, sound systems, and internet access. As vocabulary is a foundation for learning other skills, the curriculum should specify the vocabulary learning goal so students will no longer pick words randomly. Desperate learners seem to try and improve their vocabulary by consulting a dictionary, which is not a good strategy for vocabulary retention; therefore, students need to be familiarized with unintentional, more effective vocabulary learning in addition to the vocabulary introduced at school.

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Reading Log Blog on Amplifying Students’ Writing Quality and Motivation in Multilevel Class

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Abstract

In a writing class, teachers’ success in teaching will be more difficult to be achieved if the teachers teach in the multilevel class or classes in where the students with different English language proficiency levels learn together (Wigati, 2014). This Classroom Action Research was to find out the use of reading log blog to improve students’ writing ability. The research subjects of this study were 4th semester students of English Education Program in one of universities in Karawang. To obtain the data, the study used students’ writing results, observation sheets, and interviews. The findings showed that the media could improve the students’ writing ability by the influence of the specific assignments. This technique generated the lower achievers to have higher motivation and turned them out to be active and autonomous learners.

Keywords: reading log blog, writing ability

Introduction

Reading and writing are two things that are integrated. However, at university level, both are often taught separately and not integrated. With the wrong approach and lack of
strategies in learning, the process of reading and writing can be very tedious. Moreover, the process of reading and writing learners who use English as a foreign language tends to be more difficult and less efficient (Weigle, 2002; Wigati, 2013). Therefore, it is not surprising that the results of learners’ writing products in Indonesia as a result of intensive reading is still apprehensive (Mukminatien, 1997: 2; Yuhardi, 2009, Wigati 2013). In fact, the ability to read and write academic in English is absolutely necessary for academics to share knowledge, information, experiences, opinions, and research results.

Teaching reading and writing in Indonesian context was still facing several obstacles. The first obstacle is the lack of awareness of lecturers and students to enjoy the reading process. Secondly, students do not have critical thinking skills when reading the source. Thirdly, the students have not been able to convey their argument systematically and consistently in accordance with the generic structure and the appearance of the exposition essay language. To solve the above problems, an interesting and innovative learning method is needed that can stimulate students to like reading and ultimately have the motivation to write in English. Learning method that is likely to solve the above problems is e-reading blog log. Based on the above explanation, the author is interested to learn the use of e-reading log blog as a method of teaching academic writing, especially exposition essay.

**Methodology**

The approach used in this study is a qualitative with Classroom Action Research method which embraced the 4 components: planning, acting in which Reading Log Blog process was applied, observing, and reflecting. There are 2 cycles on this study with four meetings on each cycle.

The research subject of this study is a class of 4th semester students of an English Education Program in one of universities in Karawang consisted of 21 students. The class chosen is heterogeneous in character due to the differences between language proficiency levels of the students.

Data collection techniques in this study include: writing assignments, observations, and interviews. The writing assignments were given 3times to measure the students’ improvement in their writing. There were the pre-test, post-test cycle 1, post-test cycle 2. In this study, the measure score was by using analytical scoring from Weigle 2009. To have a more valid and reliable data result, in the process of scoring, the researcher also used interater. The second data collection techniques were observation of the teacher and observation of the students which
were done on every cycle of the Classroom Action Research. The teacher observation focused on the teacher’s preparation, teacher’s presentation, execution methods, and teacher-students interactions. The student observation was to measure the students’ activities which included their interest, attention, and participation. The third was interview. The interview was to gather the data about the students’ responses toward the technique. The interviews were done before and after treatments for each cycle. The data from observations and interviews were then codified and interpreted. Finally, all of the data were juxtaposed and triangulated.

**Data Presentation and Discussion**

A. Preparation

The preparation phase was done in the first week of the study to determine the problems faced by the students in class before the cycle begins. They were given the pre-test. From the result of pre-test, in general, the students could not demonstrate the understanding of the difference between thesis and arguments stage. It was also difficult to measure whether all of the students demonstrate the capability in applying the proper linguistic features of an exposition text since often their sentences were ambiguous because of the errors in their grammar.

From the data taken from the respondents who were at basic level of language proficiency (around 30% of the total students in the class), the texts produced indicated a lack of details of the important ideas required by the readers. It was not build the understanding of the content. This can be seen clearly from the length of the text. The average words for each text are only 120-140 words. One important thing that needs to be reported is that the basic level students still had lack of vocabularies and incapability in operating the English grammar. Therefore, their ideas were difficult to be understood. Observation and interview data also provided some explanations of the reasons why the respondents did not provide enough details. Problems encountered by the students were mainly on the lack of vocabulary and lack of capability in operating the English grammar. They consulted a dictionary around 7 times in one sentence making. This could lead on two effects. First, the time was more taken to consult the dictionary. Second, the ideas might be truncated. With regard to the coherence of the text, the respondents of the basic levels’ text often missed the transition signals which may lead to the difficulties to follow the movement of the texts. They also often made wrong mechanics. Apparently, their time and energy were taken to look up the dictionary and to think about applying the English grammar.
On the other hand, respondents who have the intermediate proficiency level (for about 50%) also had better writing. Because of their capacity of operating the English grammar and the adequacy of vocabulary were better, they had better results too. They more had enough time to think and to explicate their ideas though some errors were still found. Regarding the organization of the text, they still rarely put transition signals and loosed the coherence of the sentences. However, their accuracy in mechanic was more precise.

The students who were at upper-intermediate level (totaling about 20%) had best results in their writing. They did not have problems with English grammar and vocabulary. They had accurate grammar operation though still found some slips or unintentional errors. The respondents also occasionally opened the dictionary but not to look for a translation of the target language but rather aimed at the selection of the proper vocabulary or diction. Concerning the organization of the texts, they had more precise coherence and put more transition signals to ease the readers to follow the movement of their texts. These students also did not have problems with mechanic since they had enough time to consider whether their capitalization, punctuation, and spelling were correct.

A.1. Cycle 1
Planning

The lecturer formed several instruments before the learning process. The instruments are syllabi, lesson plan, teaching materials, reading assignments, reading log blog assignments, and writing assignments. The syllabi and the lesson plan were organized as the guidelines for the process of teaching and learning writing by the aid of reading log blog. The second was teaching materials. The teacher prepared materials about exposition text which includes its function, schematic structure, and its linguistic features. The teacher also prepared two models of the text.

Next, the teacher prepared two observation sheets: the teacher observation sheet and the student observation sheet. The teacher observation sheet was used to observe the teacher and the students’ activities. Lastly, the teacher prepared the interview guidelines.

Actions and Observation

The actions to teach were based on the Lesson plan. To monitor the teaching and learning process, the teacher was observed by other teacher. The observer used teacher observation sheet to record the data on how the teacher taught based on some criteria. The teacher also did the observation to record the students’ activities.
In the first step, build the students’ knowledge by asking about exposition texts they ever read. Secondly, the teacher gave the explanation on exposition text (its function, generic structure, and linguistic features). Third, the teacher gave two models of exposition text, at that moment, she also explained about the generic structure and the linguistic features of exposition text. Fourth, the teacher assigned the students to collaborate in group to make a blog by registering to wordPress.com. Likewise, the students were directed to choose exposition essays with the topic they were interested in. Next, they should report their reading progress on their reading log blog. The reading blog should consist of date, book/ article title and source, pages that they had read, and their summary. This reading log should be uploaded on their online blog, therefore, the teacher and their friends can check their progress on reading or even ask some critical questions related to their reading results to the group by posting the questions on the blog. After 3 weeks, the students should collaborate with their group (consist of three students) to compose an exposition essay. These activities spent 4 meetings since all of the writing processes (pre-writing, outlining, drafting, and revising) were passed. Finally, each participant should compose a text individually as the post test of cycle 1.

Reflections

Observer found some weaknesses that must be improved in the next cycle. The first was that the lecturer did not explain how the reading are interconnected with the process of writing so the students felt confuse and the activity did not engage the students’ interest and understanding in writing.

However, from the interview results, it was found that the extensive reading motivates them to read and to finish their reading because of their curiosity. The students affirm that they can understand the content as the language of texts were matched with their language level. This supports the previous idea from Lyutaya (2011). She mentioned that extensive reading is able to motivate students to read many of text since the students themselves choose their text based on their interest, language level, and even the time and place.

In the writing process, students with highest language proficiency level tended to dominate the group. All of the processes including the process of summarizing the reading text, finding ideas in writing, outlining, and drafting were done by these students. The other students only did small things such as helping to write or finding some words in the dictionary. Therefore, there was no significant impact to the lower achievers.

After the individual writing assignment completed, it was found that the lower levels students had some psychological problems. Anxiety feeling often came. Based on theories, this
feeling can be caused by three factors: lack of ability, apprehension of time limit, and fear of negative evaluation (Daly and Miller, 1975a, 1975b; Fox; Leki; Pajares and Johnson, 1994; Raisman, 1982; Smith 1984 all in Ozturk&Cecen, 2007:220; Yuhardi:2009 all in Wigati, 2014). The respondents who are at the basic proficiency level were anxious when they were asked to write the essay. The feeling was caused by their lack of ability. It is evidenced by their essays that showed the lack of ability in writing. It is also supported by the data through interview, quoted as follows.

R#1 (a basic level respondent): “Saya suka stress karena susah menuangkan ide saya ke dalam bahasa Inggris. Vocab saya sedikit…grammar saya juga jelek. (I feel anxious to express my ideas into English since I have limited vocabulary and have problem with the grammar.

In contrast, the upper-intermediate level students showed the feeling of comfortable in doing the writing task. They made themselves high self-esteem. They also had high motivation and great persistence in doing the assignment. Though the collaborative was applied but there was still a clear different of achievement between students.

On the other hand, the positive thing that could be recorded was that the teacher helped the students to solve the problems by giving the students chance to have consultation. The teacher also encouraged the lower levels students to contribute in the writing composition though it was not enough.

A.2 Cycle Two (2)
Preparation phase

The teacher did the reflections of the first cycle. Based on the strengths and the weaknesses found in the first cycle, the teacher revised the lesson plan.

A.2.1. Action and Observation Phase

The students were still grouped consists of 3 students with different language proficiency levels (upper-intermediate, intermediate, and basic or 2 intermediate and 1 basic). However, based on the weaknesses found in the first cycle that upper-level students dominated the group and there were also no big impacts to the lower levels students, therefore, the teachers made a class competition and assigned specific roles for each member of the group.

To increase the motivation of the students, the teacher made a competition. The competition concerned on the holistic knowledge of the students on their writing result including the generic structure and linguistic features of the text. This understanding came during the process of reading. While they are in the process of reading the texts, they should identify the generic structure and linguistic features of the text:
a. Generic structure: thesis (position and preview), arguments, and conclusion
b. Language features: present tense, external conjunction, internal conjunction, relational process, contrastive conjunction, and modal verbs.
c. Writing elements: structure, mechanic

These identifications and text summary should be reported in their reading log blog. The teacher and other groups could give comments on their summary which are posted in the blog. Next, in the writing class, these students should collaborate to compose an exposition essay. Formerly, they already had exposition concept on their mind as the results of the reading log blog. In the end of the meeting, one of the members of the group presented the result of their writing in front of the class. They presented the writing products by explaining the generic structure and linguistic features of their exposition essay.

To improve the lower level students’ ability in writing, the teacher needed to find an effective way which could push them to struggle more and drive the upper level students to share their abilities with the lower level students. She assigned specific roles to the members of the group. The students who had the highest English proficiency level should become the leader of the team. They had to make sure that the members were ready to win the competition as well as should share their ability to the members. They were supposed to solve any question and difficulties faced by the members. Unquestionably, the teacher was ready to assist and help them if there was any problem or questions they could not solve. She was open for the consultations time. At the same time, the two other members had the similar chance to be the presenter. The task for presenter was to present the writing result. By chance, one of them should explain the meaning of the text word by word to improve their vocabulary. They also should show the generic structure of the text, the cohesive and the coherence of the texts, and finally explain the grammar used. By this role, the lower level students will have more motivation to learn since the opportunity to win the competition was in their hand. The upper level students were also had a great courage to teach their friends and helped them to solve the problems.

From the observation results, it was found that these students studied hard. They spent more time together to learn and used much more time to read and to practice. They pushed themselves to be ready to win the competition. Many of them said that they struggle hard. Finally, these students became autonomous learners.
In the last meeting, the students should compose their writing individually. The activities in the 2nd cycle spent 6 meetings since all of the writing processes (pre-writing, outlining, drafting, and revising) and also presentations were done.

B. Post-tests’ results

The result of the writing assignment showed that 95% of the students in the study had a good understanding of the generic structure of exposition text. In terms of linguistic features, the students’ writing results had the characteristics of exposition text.

On the second cycle, the improvement of basic level’s writing skill was more visible. This was influenced much on the design of the teaching and learning process where they had distinct assignments. Therefore, they gave higher efforts to prepare the presentation by asking more questions to higher level students, paid more attention, and gave more contributions on the writing processes. As consequences, they had learnt much more things in this cycle. They produced better result on the individual writing processes. The result had little substance but the main idea stands out. The essays were also more cohesive and had more coherent. There were some grammatical slips but not errors. They were also more aware on the mechanics.

The higher level students’ writing results were also improved. It was because they also learnt more things when their friends asked them questions. If they could not answer the question, they would search on book or consult the teacher. They had more detail and coherence essay with accuracy on grammar and mechanics.

C. Observations Result

Teacher observation described the indicators that need to be considered. On the first cycle, it was depicted that the teacher did not organize the class optimally. The teacher could not handle the students who did not contribute to the groups’ reading and writing processes. The teacher also did not ensure whether the students understand or not. However, these three weaknesses were improved in the second cycle. The teacher could organize the class optimally since each of the students had their own role. She also could make sure that each of the students understood the material by having feedback from the students for each question given. She finally adapted with the unexpected situation and could give good response to the students.

From the students’ observation point of view, there were also some improvement of the students’ attention, interest, and participation. On the first cycle, the students’ interest, attention, and participations were not even. The higher levels students had higher attention, interest, and better participations than the lower levels students. On the second cycle, since
there was a competition, the lower levels students’ interest, attention, and participations were increase.

Reading log in which students recorded their thought processes as they read text and wrote a paper can develop greater sense of relationship between reading and writing. However, different with the purpose of the extensive reading, the reading log blog in this study is intended to get the detailed understanding of every grammatical, thematic, and discourse element, as would be done with intensive reading tasks still it allows the students to find pleasure in reading as they gain a general understanding of literary ideas, learn reading strategies, acquire new vocabulary, and increase their English proficiency.

Hence, this study provide an alternative to solve the problems in multilevel class where the teacher could also ensure that in the end of the writing class all of the students can improve the ability through the collaboration with others in the process of reading and writing. The responsibility of each individual in the group triggered them to also become autonomous and active learners. They search and learn together inside and outside the class. They also made use any access to increase their writing capability and to improve their knowledge in writing, for example, they use the consultation time more effectively.

Conclusion
It can be concluded that the teaching writing exposition essay through reading log blog could improve students’ writing ability and motivation.

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Review on the Research in First Language Interference and Cultural Interference in Second Language Learning

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Abstract
The purpose of this paper is to review L1 and cultural interference in L2 learning. The author intends to show research in the topic of L1 interference, and also cultural interference. Each type of interference can affect L2 learning, and it is important to address these notions. Evaluations will also be done on how it affects students learning a second language and educators teaching a second language. There is some important contexts of where the L2 is taught, and the author will comment about these contexts. Teaching a second language at the student’s L1 environment or in the environment where L2 is normally used has implications in both kinds of interference and the author will try to discuss this further. After reviewing the research, the author believes more research is needed in researching cultural interference, and researchers need to find a way to substantiate cultural interference.

Introduction
Culture and a person’s first language play an important role in the acquisition of a second language. But, is it possible for culture to play a bigger role in the learning and fluency of a second language? Can interference by way of culture be the cause for difficulties in learning
a second language? Many of the current literature point to the interference caused by a person’s first language. But few literature show the cause of interference coming from cultural means.

The purpose of this paper is to go over the research in first language, or L1, interference in second language, or L2, learning. There will be reviews of literature and the research literature will be on L1 and/or cultural interference in learning a second language. I will discuss the literature regarding L1 and cultural interference, and I will provide a need for more research needed to answer the questions posed in this paper.

Statement of the Problem

For the purpose of this study, it will be important to evaluate where the students and teachers were learning English. I want to find out if the subjects were studying English in the home country or in an English-speaking country. For example, I would like to find out if Japanese students were learning English in a school in the United States, or in their home country, Japan. I also want to find out if the learning experiences were in a school, or in social situations. It is important to include social situations because learning does not only take place in the classroom. People can learn languages by interacting with native speakers in social environments. I want to find out if where and how a person learns a second language, and the culture represented in the place of learning, can affect or interfere with the learning a second language. The research in the topic will be based on the following questions:

1. Can where you learn a second language cause cultural interference?
2. Can your first language be the only cause for interference in learning a second language?

Literature Reviews

Can where you learn a second language cause cultural interference?

From experiences in teaching in my home country, the United States, and in another country, Japan, have helped me to understand cultural interference as a cause of 2nd language learning difficulties. In an article by Kumagai, she states a reason for failure of Japanese people’s English learning ability is little interaction with native English speakers in the largely homogenous country of Japan (Kumagai, 1994, pp. 10-11). This information is an example of a way to answer the question of where you learn a second language causes cultural interference. In a homogenous country like Japan, the concept of Japanese culture resonates strongly in this country. Learning a second language, like English, would be difficult because the culture and society in Japan is mainly Japanese, with only some English influence. Kumagai goes on to
discuss how a person’s 1st language socio-cultural aspects can lead to interference in 2nd language learning because of the 2nd language’s socio-cultural aspects (Kumagai, 1994, p. 30). This is important to note because if the 2nd language’s socio-cultural aspects are widely different from a person’s 1st language socio-cultural aspects, it only makes sense interference will occur, restricting a learner of fully maximizing their learning efficiency.

In another article by Wei, the discussion on negative culture transfer occurring when the learner doesn’t understand the cultural differences with the culture of L1 and L2. Negative culture transfer can be defined as interference. Wei points out how culture is embedded in us and it is very difficult to remove because how we learn culture is, in a sense, characterized by ethnocentrism (Wei, 2009, p. 3). Wei also cites, from Summer, a definition of ethnocentrism which is the technical name for the view of things in which one’s own group is the center of everything and all other are scaled and rated with reference to it (Wei, 2009, p. 3). Our own culture is ethnocentrically transmitted to us, therefore it is very difficult to accept other cultures. And based on the definition of ethnocentrism, we base the new culture on our own, and that could cause interference. This has relevance in language because language has a strong relationship with culture. This will be explored further in this article.

Litiem and Mebrouki (2012) completed a case study on the effect of cultural interference on the EFL learners’ speaking skill. In their case study, they wanted to explore the possibility of cultural interference on a foreign language learner’s speaking skills. Their subjects were Arab learners of English. They came up with several interesting points regarding language learning. They noted production problems occurring when the learner formulates an idea in Arabic and utters it in English (Litiem and Mebrouki, 2012, p. 59). These production problems are a clear example of cultural interference. Arabic cultural cues are interfering with the production of English. Litiem and Mebrouki go further in their research by incorporating religion, which can be associated with culture, in their research. The noted their subjects are Muslim, which means Arab culture and Islam are inseparable (Litiem and Mebrouki, 2012, p. 59). Because they are inseparable, the Arab students also have been influenced by Muslim religion, which is a cultural significance.

Can First Language cause Second Language Interference?

Research in native language interference is a common occurrence. Bacala included the research of Galasso (2002), Fewell (2010), Ravetta & Brun (1995), Bhela (1999), and Zhang (2009), of which all of them represent the viewpoint of first language (L1) being the cause for
interference from gaining fluency in a second language (Cited in Bacala, 2017, p. 127). For example, it is reported by Bacala regarding Galasso’s premise of the learning format of a person’s primary language affects how they learn another language (Cited in Bacala, 2017).

The previous example of a person’s first language affecting how they learn a second language can be shown in the next example. Take, for instance, a person who is a native Korean speaker, exposed in a predominantly Korean environment. When they try to learn English, they may have a hard time to understand it because throughout their life, they were using mostly Hangul, their native writing structure, and although they do use the Roman alphabet, the grammatical structures of Hangul and English are different. Korean sentence structure does not follow the English sentence structure of subject, verb, and sometimes object. This can cause interference problems.

In Derakhshan and Karimi, their paper on L1 interference goes in to more detail on language interference. They also surmised the role of second language acquisition and the role of first language on it (Derakhsham and Karimi, 2015, p. 2115). They went on to state the many factors of interference such as: similarities and differences in the structures of the two languages, background knowledge of the learner, proficiency of learners on second languages, and the structures of consonant clusters in L1 and L2 (p. 2115). Their reviews on L1 interference seems to be relevant because they had reviewed findings from many researchers who have studied L1 interference.

Conclusion and Implications

Based on the research questions and the literature reviews, there are some answers and several questions that have come about. Where you learn a second language can have an impact on your ability to learn a second language. The example of when you learn a language in the student’s home country analogy could answer the question. When teaching English in Japan, students who don’t have easy access to native English speakers are at a disadvantage because they lose out on the cultural aspects of the language. They are relegated to the superficial aspects of language and may not understand the deeper aspects to certain grammatical or linguistic meanings behind metaphors or cultural idioms. When in the culture where the language is taught, they would gain a wider access to those metaphors and idioms in daily conversations, and then have the ability to develop a clear meaning, based on the cultural contexts. Kumagai (1994) talked about important features in language behaviors and this phenomena is relevant to interference in a cultural standpoint. So it can be surmised if the
person is learning important features in language behavior in the location where the language is primarily used, students can get a better sense of the culture’s role in language in that culture. To answer the question of whether first language can only cause second language interference, there were more questions than answers. In several literature, the feeling is as if language and culture are intertwined to the point language cannot be separated from culture, thus L1 cannot be the only cause for interference. In several article, culture and native language interference are mentioned together. Allard, Bourdeau, and Mizoguchi (2011); Bacala (2017), Hackett-Jones (2016), Jiang (2000), Neagu (1999), and Sangpanasthada (2006) go on to mention language and culture as having some sort of strong association to language interference.

These reviews and research questions lead the researcher to ask even more questions. Could language and culture be separated? Could culture be examined as the ‘only’ method of interference in second language learning? How could someone understand what is ‘culture?’ How can culture be effectively researched since culture changes constantly? These questions must be addressed in order to do adequate research on whether culture alone can influence 2nd language interference. It is hoped future researchers in the field can statistically or qualitatively answer these questions.

References


Hackett-Jones, A.V. (2016). Language and culture interference in plurilingual education. DOI: 10.18454/RULB.7.08


Personality Traits, Leadership Qualities and English Skills of Middle-Level Managers of The University of Southern Philippines Foundation: A Leadership Enhancement Program

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Abstract
Working in a globalized higher education institution requires people to be skilled in speaking and interacting. Even if how culturally diverse the workforce is, what matters is the readiness the way leaders hold different views. People may think differently. Choosing the right words in leading them creates understanding and positioning of agenda in the academe. The world is embracing the fact that English is now the global language of education. Though new trends dictate that Mother Tongue Based (MTB) Education is necessary in the primary and elementary, more and more higher education institutions are geared towards the use of English as the common language for instruction. If the use of English is now a global language policy, adopting it is not easy especially if there is a strong refusal to accept it. One may feel the inconvenience if their English isn’t good. Their function can suffer and their work may be unproductive. To stay alive in an ever competitive world, higher education institutions must triumph over hurdles in English language. Ready or not, it is now!
Introduction

Leaders build excellence. They speak the right language. To be a strong leader, one must have a good character. Excellence in leadership shows drive, energy, determination, self-discipline, willpower, and nerve resulting to a good reputation. One key component to your reputation is your ability to communicate effectively. Communication needs to be in an open, unselfish manner that supports other ideas. It is building a culture that respects the viewpoints of others, and promotes engagement. Being truthful to what you say should match your behavior.

The researcher, being employed at the university since June 2014 as Director for Information and Marketing, sees the need to know the personality traits, leadership qualities and English skills of middle-level managers as perceived by themselves and the students believing that it will help in creating programs for leadership enhancement. He further believes that marketing for any academic institution starts from students. It is therefore necessary to know how students perceived middle-level managers when it comes to personality traits, leadership qualities and English skills.

It is on this premise that the researcher is inspired and challenged to undertake this study.

The study is anchored on the theory of John Maxwell that the key to transforming yourself from someone who understands leadership to a person who successfully leads in the real world is character. Your character qualities activate and empower your leadership ability, or they can stand in the way of your success (Maxwell, 2007). If you can become the leader you ought to become on the inside, you will be able to become the leader that you want to be on the outside. Being a leader means working with people, and that’s not always easy. Whether in your office, church, neighborhood, or elsewhere, your interpersonal relationships can make or break you as a leader.

Middle-level managers like that of a college dean must know essential knowledge areas. Bragg (2002) suggests six core knowledge areas that are essential for a dean. These include; (1) knowledge of the mission, philosophy, and history of the institution, (2) learner-centered orientation, (3) instructional leadership, (4) information and educational technologies, (5) assessment and accountability, and (6) administrative preparation. All of these knowledge areas though cannot remain constant. They need to continue to evolve as an institution evolves. Changes within an institution can encompass not only the institution itself but also changes in faculty, staff, and the student body (Walker, 2000). The dean as a leader must be equipped to
handle such changes.

Personality predicted leadership emergence across a variety of people and settings. Lord (1986) states, “In short, personality traits are associated with leadership emergence to a higher degree and more consistently than popular literature indicates”. In addition, Barrick and Mount (1993) have found a significant association between personality and job performance.

Methodology

Research Design

This study utilized the descriptive normative method of research employing correlation analysis. The study aimed to present facts concerning the personal and professional qualifications, personality traits, and leadership qualities of the middle-level managers of the University of Southern Philippines Foundation during the second semester of the school year 2014-2015. As a descriptive method of research, it emphasized the real status or the conditions that exist in the situations or any phenomena. Through it, middle-level managers’ profiles including age, gender, civil status, experience, educational qualification, and training will be revealed.

The researcher used this method to establish how middle-level managers fared personally and professionally in terms of age, gender, civil status, experience, educational qualification, and training. Moreover, it determined the personality traits, leadership qualities and English skills of middle-level managers. In the area of leadership, the core criteria that have been organized into four constituent components for managers and are incorporated into the standard survey instrument designed to foster the success of managers and enhance their effectiveness in a constructive way.

Research Participants

The participants of this study were the middle-level managers of the University of Southern Philippines Foundation. Students of the same University also participated. The middle-level managers were composed of the deans, departments, directors, and managers.

Research Instruments

Prior to collecting of the data for this study, a mini-lecture was given to the respondents on the purpose of the research. The lecture was given to college students from different
departments within the university. The survey questionnaire for faculty members, staff, students and others is basically a common form just like what other researchers have been using in obtaining profiles. John C. Maxwell’s Assessment of Current Leadership Qualities (for potential leaders). It includes twenty-five characteristics to help you rate and identify a potential leader. In terms of personal and professional profile, age, gender, civil status, experience, educational qualification, and training were asked. In terms of personality traits, the middle-level managers were measured using the standardized Management Development Questionnaire (MDQ). It is a tool for assessing the skills and competencies of managers and professional staff. It is based upon extensive research exploring the skills required to be a successful manager in today's economy and business climate. Because of its unique feedback report, it is especially suited for coaching and training executives and managers.

One major use of the MDQ is for staff development because it is designed to help managers better understand their strengths and weaknesses and identify areas for self-improvement. The MDQ can also be used to assess the self-perceptions of job candidates by providing feedback on those skills necessary for successful managerial performance. The MDQ is comprised of 160 short behavioral statements that the test taker rates on a five-point agree-disagree scale.

A test taker’s assessment on each of the 20 competency scales is presented as a sten score. A report is generated explaining their meaning and the implications they have for a manager’s functioning. Each report is comprised of introduction and summary, competence profile, Belbin team roles, and learning and development. The MDQ is a solid evaluation tool for managers and professionals in supervisory or leadership roles, and its flexibility allows it to be deployed in both selection and development settings.

Another instrument used was the University’s English Proficiency Test.

**Research Procedures**

University of Southern Philippines Foundation has different departments and offices namely College of Accountancy, Athletics and Cultural Affairs, Elementary-Lahug, College of Pharmacy, College of Engineering and Architecture, College of Arts and Sciences, Mabini Campus, College of Education, Human Resource Management and Development, Accounting Department, Testing Center, High School-Lahug, School of Business and Management, Libraries, University Registrar, College of Computer Studies, Center for Research, Physical Plant, Student Affairs Office, College of Nursing, Planning and Development, Alumni
Relations, Business Resource Center, Guidance Center, and Instructional Media Center. The middle-level manager in the above-mentioned departments and offices were made to answer a self-made questionnaire in order to obtain their personal and professional profile. Another questionnaire was answered by the middle-level managers to determine their personality traits. The standardized Management Development Questionnaire (MDQ) was administered by Mella Psychological Consultancy-Psycenter Cebu.

Faculty members, students, office staff, and the rest of the working force assigned in each department and office were made to evaluate the leadership qualities of middle-level managers through a self-made questionnaire patterned after John C. Maxwell’s Assessment of Current Leadership Qualities. For non-academic middle-level managers like directors and department heads, they were evaluated by those who are directly transacting business with them. The same procedure was applied to academic middle-level managers like deans, principals, and officers-in-charge with an additional of twenty percent (20%) from the students’ population belonging to their department and office.

The following procedures were undertaken in gathering the data:

1. The researcher wrote three letters of request to the USPF President asking permission to conduct the survey with the help of an independent body which was the Mella Psychological Consultancy-Psycenter Cebu to administer the questionnaires to the middle-level managers.
2. After the University President’s approval, the researcher gathered the data through an independent body which is the Mella Psychological Consultancy-Psycenter Cebu.
3. The researcher likewise informed the middle-level managers through a letter to conduct the survey among students in their department. It was supported by the approved letter of request from the USPF President.

Findings

The personal and professional statuses of middle-level managers at the University of Southern Philippines Foundation are presented. The personality profile of middle-level managers is determined through the use of Management Development Questionnaire (MDQ) assessing their skills and competencies. This tool is designed to help middle-level managers better understand their strengths and weaknesses and identifying areas of self-improvement. The leadership qualities of middle-level managers are determined through the use of Assessment of Current Leadership Qualities for Potential Leaders, a tool introduced by John
Maxwell.

Twenty-five (25) middle-level managers were surveyed and they’re from the following departments/offices: College of Accountancy, Athletics and Cultural Affairs, Elementary-Lahug, College of Pharmacy, College of Engineering and Architecture, College of Arts and Sciences, Mabini Campus, College of Education, Human Resource Management and Development, Accounting Department, Testing Center, High School-Lahug, School of Business and Management, Libraries, University Registrar, College of Computer Studies, Center for Research, Physical Plant, Student Affairs Office, College of Nursing, Planning and Development, Alumni Relations, Business Resource Center, Guidance Center, and Instructional Media Center.

Profile of Middle-Level Manager Respondents

The profile of middle-level managers includes the personal and professional profile.

Personal Background

Included in the personal and professional profile of middle-level managers are the age and gender, civil status, the highest educational attainment, the number of years in teaching service, and the number of hours of attendance in relevant trainings and seminars.

Age and Gender. From the survey, it revealed that there were eleven (11) or 44 percent male middle-level managers at the University of Southern Philippines Foundation and fourteen (14) or 56 percent were female. The age and gender of these middle-level managers are reflected in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50 and above years old</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49 years old</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-44 years old</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39 years old</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-34 years old</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29 years old</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24 years old</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TOTAL 11 14 25
It was observed that two (2) middle-level managers or 18.18 percent were between 20-24 years old, two (2) or 18.18 percent were between 35-39 years old, two (2) or 18.18 percent were between 40-44 years old, three (3) or 27.27 percent were between 45-49 years old, and two (2) or 18.18 percent were 50 years old and above. One (1) female middle-level manager or 7.14 percent was between 35-39 years old, two (20) or 14.29 percent were between 45-49 years old, and eleven (11) or 78.57 percent were 50 years old and above.

The data revealed that more than 50 percent of the middle-level managers were 50 years old and above. The findings imply that middle-level managers were experienced and had been in the service for a number of years already. Only three (3) or 12 percent of the total number of middle-level managers being surveyed have no teaching experience.

**Civil Status.** The civil status of middle-level managers is depicted in Table 2. As observed, 76 percent of the middle-level managers were married and only six (6) or 24 percent were single. All single middle-level managers were males. Five (5) or 45.45 percent male middle-level managers were married. It is interesting to note that all female middle-level managers were married.

**Table 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CIVIL STATUS</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th></th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th></th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>widow/widower</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>11</strong></td>
<td><strong>44</strong></td>
<td><strong>14</strong></td>
<td><strong>56</strong></td>
<td><strong>25</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This implies that 76 percent of them were doing the dual roles as a middle-level manager and as a father or mother. This suggests, further that these middle-level managers
best understand their subordinates and colleagues because they have children of their own. An interview with those who remained single had their time so much pre-occupied in their career that they forget about getting married.

**Highest Educational Attainment.** The teaching profession requires continuous education not only to keep abreast of the latest trend in education but also as an important requirement for promotion. Table 3 presents the highest educational attainment of middle-level managers at the University of Southern Philippines Foundation. In compliance with the minimum requirements of middle-level managers, all were bachelors degree holders.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest Educational Attainment</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate degree holder</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters degree with Doctorate units</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters degree holder</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors degree holder with Masteral units</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors degree holder</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The two (2) male middle-level managers and another two (2) female middle-level managers were bachelors degree holder. Three (3) male middle-level managers were bachelors degree holder with masteral units. One (1) male middle-level manager and another three (3) female middle-level managers were full-fledge masters degree holder.

Seven (7) middle-level managers were masters degree with doctorate units and another seven (7) were full-fledge doctorate degree holder.

Majority of the middle-level managers, especially those who were only bachelors
degree holders, envisioned to pursue advanced education; however, financial and time constraints were among the hindrances in addition to their heavy workloads. The younger middle-level managers were generally aggressive in pursuing higher education for professional growth and for future promotion of ranks.

**Number of Years in Teaching Service.** As shown in Table 4, the distribution of the number of years of teachers in teaching service was varied. Three (3) or 12 percent middle-level managers had no teaching experience at all.

Three (3) or 12 percent middle-level managers had served for less than five years. Four (4) of 16 percent had served for 11-15 years. One (1) or 4 percent had served for 16-20 years. Fourteen (14) or 56 percent had served for more 20 years.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NUMBER OF YEARS</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IN TEACHING</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERVICE</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 years and above</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-25 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 years and below</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 year</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

More than 50 percent of the middle-level managers had served from 21 years to over 26 years. This implies that many of them had substantial years of teaching experiences that
developed their competence and professional characteristics in teaching and nurturing knowledge to young students. It also implies that middle-level managers love the university.

**Number of Hours of Trainings and Seminars.** The number of hours attended by middle-level managers on relevant trainings and seminars was also determined and the result is shown in Table 5.

It was observed that two (2) or 8 percent middle-level managers had attended 21-30 hours of trainings and seminars. One (1) or 4 percent had attended 31-40 hours of trainings and seminars. Another one (1) or 4 percent middle level manager had attended 51-60 hours of training and seminars.

On relevant trainings and seminars attended by middle-level managers, twenty-one (21) or 84 percent had attended more than 70 hours.

This observation implied that almost all middle-level managers were able to attend relevant trainings and seminars. Middle-level managers with longer length of teaching service usually had more trainings and seminars attended than the new ones.

**Table 5**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NUMBER OF HOURS OF RELEVANT TRAININGS &amp; SEMINARS ATTENDED</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>51-60 hours</strong></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>41-50 hours</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>31-40 hours</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>21-30 hours</strong></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>11-20 hours</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5-10 hours</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>91 hours and above</strong></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>81-90 hours</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>71-80 hours</strong></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>61-70 hours</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>44</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

87
Personality traits of middle-level managers were measured through the use of Management Development Questionnaire (MDQ) which was administered by an independent body, the Mella Psychological Consultancy-PsyCenter Cebu. The individual personality traits were revealed.

The MDQ competence model measures five global management competencies. Each competency can be broken down into four constituent components. Below is the overall sten of each constituent component and its interpretation.

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Global Management Competencies</th>
<th>Overall Sten</th>
<th>Interpretation/Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managing Change</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning and Organizing</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Skills</td>
<td>6.24</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results Oriented</td>
<td>6.16</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>6.20</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td><strong>5.84</strong></td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows that middle-level managers got 5.44 overall sten in managing change which is interpreted as average. Meaning, they know that they must provide help with career transition. They also show care towards their staff. They mark the workforce to identify the critical roles/skills that must be retained and the strategies needed to keep them. In planning and organizing, the overall sten is at 5.16 which is interpreted as average. It means that they generally optimize the use of resources by matching the right people with the right job. They try to complete your projects, but if unable to do so, complete them up to a certain point and
leave them for another day. The overall sten of their interpersonal skills is at 6.24, interpreted as average. They don't interrupt or judge the others. Even if they disagree with what the person is saying, they’re able to understand the person's contribution from his or her point of view. They accept what others say without putting their own bias in the picture. They focus on the problem solving process rather than the problem. Middle-level managers got as overall sten of 6.16 in results oriented, interpreted as average. This means that they are more interested in the final outcome rather that going through a process. In many ways it is a good thing. That is as long as the desired result is a honorable thing and that the process has integrity. You could say it doesn’t matter how you get there as long as you get there. Not good if it has a detrimental effect on other areas. An overall sten of 6.20 was obtained in leadership. This means that their soft skills are as well-developed as their technical or hard skills. Their people skills, organizational skills, and interpersonal skills are well-developed.

There is a need for us to evaluate people’s potential as leaders. In the University of Southern Philippines Foundation middle-level managers were evaluated through John C. Maxwell’s Assessment of Current Leadership Qualities. A list of twenty-five characteristics was presented to help rate and identify leadership qualities. Each characteristic was rated zero (0) for never, one (1) for seldom, two (2) for sometimes, three (3) for usually, and four (4) for always. The total points were obtained and level of leadership quality of each middle-level manager was identified as:

- 90 – 100  Great Leader
- 80 – 89   Good Leader
- 70 – 79   Emerging Leader
- 60 – 69   Bursting with potential
- Below 60  Needs growth

Table 7 shows the result how each middle-level manager was rated by their evaluators.
Of the twenty-five (25) middle-level managers, ten (10) or 40 percent were rated as good leaders. It means that they must keep growing and keep mentoring others. Six (6) or 24 percent middle-level managers were rated as emerging leaders indicative that they focus on growth and begin mentoring others. Seven (7) or 28 percent were rated as bursting with potential. They are excellent persons to be developed. Two (2) or 8 percent was rated needs growth. He/she may not be ready to be mentored as leader.
Table 8

**English Skills of Middle-Level Managers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Middle Level Managers</th>
<th>English Proficiency Test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raw Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Middle-level managers were found to be very proficient in English. Ten (10) or 40 percent registered very proficient. Two (2) or 8 percent registered less proficient.

**Conclusion**

The study was conducted in order to propose leadership enhancement program for an improved personality traits, leadership qualities, and English skills of middle-level managers at University of Southern Philippines Foundation. Specifically this study aims to assess the
profile of middle-level managers personally and professionally. It also determined the degree of relationship between personality traits and leadership qualities.

The study employed the descriptive method of research and normative survey. The research-made questionnaire was used to get the perception of 25 middle-level managers who responded to the invitation. A standardized test was also used to assess the personality traits of middle-level managers. The data were consolidated and analyzed statistically.

**Recommendations**

In order to sustain and develop further the professional capability of middle-level managers, their leadership skill and quality, and enhance their personality traits, it is recommended that the proposed leadership enhancement program be followed. Aside from improving their personality traits, strengthening their leadership style, middle-level managers are recommended to be trained on how to engage in a more challenging roles in on and off-campus activities. Since majority of them were found to have started their masteral degree, it is also recommended that middle-level managers must pursue their advanced studies for professional growth and promotion in the future. Learning and changing are continuous processes which we have to live by over and over again.

All middle-level managers must improve their basic leadership styles, that is:

1. to provide specific instructions and closely supervise task accomplishment.
2. to continue to direct and closely supervise task accomplishment; to explain decisions, solicit suggestions, and support progress.
3. to facilitate and support subordinates’ efforts toward task accomplishment and share responsibility for decision-making with them.
4. to turn over responsibility for decision-making and problem-solving to subordinates.
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Critical Language Awareness As Text-Mediated Language Analysis: Learners as Critical Readers

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Abstract
This research aims at describing the improvement of students critical reading competence in English language education department, Islamic University of Indonesia. There are 77 participants in this research by applying total sampling. The research design is Classroom Action Research of which the researchers also act as the teachers. This study covers two cycles on developing the critical reading competence. Both cycles implement Critical Language Awareness (Wallace, 2009) as the integration of Register Analysis. The reason of choosing CLA as the critical reading strategy is because it has been recommended by some studies (Inglizce, 2014, Patterno 2009) as the most suitable critical reading strategies for English as a Foreign Language context. The results show that there is a significant improvement in cycle 1, confidently presented by 0.00 P value. This coefficient is gained after conducting One Way ANOVA test, and Post Hoc test. As an overall result, there is an improvement of the students’ critical reading competence about 68%. The extent of the improvement is on promoting the critical reading strategies, changing reading habit into more analytical, considering grammar as part of critical reading, and being confident to discuss the text with friends.

Keywords: critical reading, critical language awareness, classroom action research

Introduction
Critical reading competence is perceived to be a demanding subject for it requires more than text comprehension skill. It enables the students logic and linguistic competence, especially grammar, to interact to texts (Wallace, 1998). The term interaction in this case means that
readers conduct three important steps, which are interpretation, analysis, and response. Furthermore, Widdowson in Wallace (1992) suggests that encountering with written text by simply reading the text itself is not as effective in gaining meaning as when written text is functioned extensively. It is when text is introduced to the reader as media of dialogue between reader and writer. That of text is presented within its context and presented by considering readers’ purpose. As a considerable gap that happened in the setting of this study is when the students in the English department admit that they are lack of exposure in reading hypertexts. Moreover, they perceive text itself as a property to support their reading achievement instead of a set of interaction. This perception is then foster the students’ lack of purposeful discussion. Thus, it is considerable that critical reading is a skill that stimulate interaction between the readers and the writers. This interaction should be empowered by providing context and considering readers’ purposes.

To accommodate this required interaction, critical language awareness has been put into concern by educational practitioners. Language awareness emphasizes two basic aspects, which are enhanced consciousness and sensitivity to the language forms and functions (Carter, 2003). To this extent, the approach has been applied to language learning. Most of recent studies imply that language awareness works effectively in reading skill. An action research conducted in one of Turkey’s highschool has proven that critical language awareness is the effective approach to escalate the students’ reading ability (Course, 2014). In one of Philiphines’ higher education, the lecturer provided a design based research to elaborate the combination of literary works and language awareness in enhancing the essay production on feminisim issue (Patterno, 2009). The other studies conducted by Zahibi (2011) and Figueiredo (2011) to identify which reading text books that provide a critical thinking activities. Turns out the research also found that language awareness contributes to the activity design. According to this facts, language awareness is implementative to stimulate critical reading skill for the students in the setting of this study. Thus, this study is aimed at answering on how CLA and to what extent critical language awareness can improve the students’ critical reading skills.

**Critical Language Awareness as Text Mediated Language Analysis**

Carter (2003) explains that language awareness has been introduced by van Essan (1997) who believes that language awareness should be brought into more atomistic analysis such as language drilling and pattern practice. On its movement, language awareness is extended into
larger scope which is characterized by a more holistic and text-based approach to language. Therefore, language awareness is extended to be critical language awareness or CLA. Fairclough (1992) emphasizes that language either discloses or hides the social and ideological characteristics of texts. One of the examples of this approach is identifying passive voice or noun phrase as the agent of concealing (Widdowson, 2000). Throughout its development, this approach is recommended to be applicable in language acquisition practice, especially in relation to teaching grammar (Ellis, 1998). The terminology of CLA is perceived by Wallace (2002) as the arm of critical discourse analysis which covers all aspects of classroom language work. It is also recommended to bring the aim of promoting critical awareness of a text. To this extent, CLA was intended to professional readers in the beginning, yet it is recently more applicable to pedagogical purposes.

Wallace (2002) suggests that CLA to be implemented in teaching reading, especially critical reading for the approach has evoked the importance of three factors in performing CLA, which are the reader, the classroom, and the text itself. The reader in CLA should perform an interaction to the text that they read. Widdowson (as cited in Wallace, 2002) defines the interaction as a purposive reading. It is when the reader can choose their own reading text based on their purpose. On the other hand, Kress, 1989 (as cited in Wallace, 2002) suggests that less individual choice is more preferable because to some extent some people cannot always find their liberty of individual preference. Thus, Wallace (2002) concludes that the term interaction is a sequential process which involves some steps. The first is response at first glance, schema activating, analysis of the language of the text, and the last is interpretation of initial response on textual scrutiny and peer group discussion. As for the role of classroom, Wallace considers the final sequence of interaction, a well-stimulated classroom for group discussion will also affect to the language awareness itself. If the classroom is set to reach a comprehension instead of extracting meaning, thus the discussion will not happen.

The text is functioned as the media to introduce the context and to elaborate the actual relation of language and power. Wallace (2002) adapts the term text to refer any unit of meaning that plays some part in a context of situation (Halliday and Hasan, 1985). This definition, Systemic Functional Grammar, has been acknowledged that many educators take an effort to develop critical attitude to textual analysis. Halliday, 1994 (as cited in Wallace, 2002) constructs the theory of Systemic Functional Grammar (henceforth SFG) as to offer some benefits in text analysis. It provides more specific features instead of general view of texts. The conceptual framework of SFG by Halliday (1994) highlights on a grammar as a
social process instead of mental process. The branch of Systemic Functional Grammar is Register analysis (Banks, 2002). It displays the analysis on how the text is organized and constructed (mode), on how to convey the information in the text (field), and on how the message in the text is implied through the grammar used (tenor). The use of this framework has been integrated to some teaching practices of critical reading (Wallace, 2003; Bennets and Clare, 2008).

**Halliday’s Conceptual Framework of Critical Reading as the Extension of CLA**

In the research conducted by Icmez (2009), critical reading is helpful to improve students’ motivation as long as CLA procedures is implemented. Those are asking the students to decide the texts intended to be analyzed, and to encourage the students to express their positions related to the text that is being analyzed. CLA provides a new concept of grammar which means grammar is no longer used as a descriptive linguistic purpose, or a mental process. In this case, grammar is seen not only as a set of language pattern, but also it evokes as well as conceal social, ideological, and cultural issues. It seems that in this point, Wallace’s suggestion on CLA implementation in critical reading and Ellis’ recommendation on LA implementation in grammar teaching share the similar perspective that grammar has to be brought into a next level in which grammar should be able to abridge text analysis.

The framework of grammar and critical reading relation is explained by Wallace (1992). She mentions the results of comparative case studies of students’ grammatical knowledge to aid the reflection of language choice after reading processes. It was revealed that the foreign language students tend to have well-developed knowledge of key grammatical terms as it is employed as the text analysis tools. Whereas, the native speaker readers who were taught formal grammar instruction instead of the functional ones had no significant development on the effect of language choice. Dar, et.al (2010), Course (2014), and Patterno (2009) also share the same results that critical language awareness has actually adapted the framework of SFG.

Later on These three metafunctions deal more on semantic scope. Whereas in semiotic scope, Banks (2002) and Wallace (2002) adapts the framework of SFG as register analysis. It has three variables of parameters to analyze. Those are field, mode, and tenor. Field is the are of external reality with which the text deals, tenor concerns the relationships between those taking part in the linguistic act, and mode is the means through which the communication takes place. The semiotic framework is considered to be applicable to pedagogical implementation.
Wallace (2003) is one of the scholars who has developed a course of critical reading of which the design is based on Halliday’s semiotic framework as presented below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CRITICAL READING</th>
<th>FIELD OF DISCOURSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Usual Meanings</strong></td>
<td>How the writer describes what is going on in the text, i.e. what the text is about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Participants</strong></td>
<td>WHAT/WHERE talked about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>i.e. what actors are the major participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>who have a functional relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>what objects are involved in the participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>who on whom and facilitative participants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Processes</strong></td>
<td>HOW are the participants talked about, i.e. what actions or events describe what the participants do, i.e. what the participants do to one another or to objects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Causation</strong></td>
<td>How specifically are circumstances indicated, e.g. by adverbs or prepositional phrases</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Previous Studies on the Employment of CLA in Critical Reading**

The first study conducted by Dar, et.al. (2010) who employed critical discourse analysis (CDA) to improve CLA. In this context, CLA is seen as an object instead of the intervention of improvement. It is interesting that this research is published in a journal of criminology and sociology. Dar, et.al. (2010) did not explicitly mention the research design as an action research although it aims at improving CLA of the students. What makes this study interesting is on the procedures of teaching CDA itself. The participants of this study are purposive, whom are selected from a group with an intermediate and advanced proficiency level. Moreover, the participants were able to cope with vocabulary and grammatical points of news articles. They were studying in the fifth and seventh terms. Through this purposive participants, it tends to believe that criticality requires high order thinking. Thus, in order to be successful, it is necessary to set certain criteria in this study. The materials chosen in this study were news report as authentic texts which specifically selected by the researchers. The selected news were

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**Figure 1. The Framework of Syntactic Functional Grammar**
the biased and ideologically loaded ones. It was considered to be authentic because Dar, et.al. believe that news itself is one of the genres surrounded in students’ daily life. Moreover, it is easily manipulated. Thus, news articles are considered to be practical while the students reflect real-life conditions. The articles are also selected from various newspapers around the world, the international famous ones of which the view point of each newspapers are in conflict in political issues. In other words, biased, manipulative, and controversial issues are the criteria of the materials. Duzer and Florez (1999) as cited in Dar, et.al. (2010) encourage teachers who intend to habitualize criticality in the classroom to elicit students’ interpretation as a schema activating, instead of emphasizing a right answer. Thus, in critical reading, the instructions should be in a form of essay instead of multiple choice. The success of this study is claimed affect both the students and the pedagogical reformation. CDA has escalated the students’ confidence in expressing their views and bravery in criticizing writers or speakers, especially the dominant groups. This study also proves that CDA has made the students’ writing abilities improving as well as gaining a deeper understanding of the language surround them.

The second study conducted by Course (2014) in a Turkey highschool. He belives that CLA is an effective intervention to find out the impact of critical reading course on students’ reading. The participants of this study were also purposive. The participants were all the highschool students who were heading to university and their focus were English. The course was designed in two phases for 17 meetings. The first cycle aimed at raising students’ awareness on the issues of context and sociocognitive process to produce interpretation of written texts. The second cycle was designed to introduce Systemic functional grammar in doing textual analysis. Vongkrachang, and Chinwonno (2015) employed CORI or Concept Oriented Reading Instruction framework in accordance with explicit reading instruction to enhance informational text comprehension and reading engagement. It was found that explicit instruction, of which the framework is adapted from Nuttall (2005). The goal was achieved, that the students performed a positive improvement in reading comprehension. As overall conclusion, critical reading indeed requires a strong motivation by the students and the teachers. Authentic materials and schema activating are two key points to facilitate the successful intervention of critical reading.
Research Design
The design of this study is Classroom Action Research. This design is considered to be a matching method for teachers who encounter some problems in their classrooms on a strategy to enhance or improve the students ability in specific type of subjects (Burns, 1999). In this context, the researchers are also the lecturers who teach the participants of this study in Critical Reading and Literacy classes. Since this study is an action research, therefore, the activity plan is based on action research chronollogcal order consisting of two cycles. Action research itself is defined as the research which requires series of cycles, and for each cycle will be started by problem identification and ended by reflective teaching practice (Burns, 1999). Nugent, et.al. (2012) summarize the steps into more comprehensive practices. They are identifying a problem and pose a question, create an action plan, enact the plan, study the plan in action in which data collection and data analysis should be conducted, report results to get feedback, modify the plan, and the last one is try and study it again. The first cycle is on meeting 1-7 by focusing on the register analysis to improve critical reading competence. Whereas the second cycle is for meeting 8-14 as the modified plan based on the feedback and reflection that we experienced in cycle one. To evaluate the proposed program, criteria of success will be determined based on students’ critical reading competence, subject matter understanding, students’ and teachers’ perceptions on the application of collaborative teaching. The detailed assessment criteriais adapted from MISD Thematic Literature Units, 2007 which can be seen in the table below. Whereas for the students engagament, the students are going to be given a questionnaire developed by Indiana University and a survey checklist on scale 1-5 adapted from Edutopia categories of students’ engagament in the class. The comparison of the previous plan and the modified plan is presented in the table below:

Table 1. The Comparison of Plan in Cycle 1 and the Modified Plan in Cycle 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Reflection of Cycle 1</th>
<th>Modified Plan in Cycle 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Worksheet and the classroom activities are not yet authentic and real life used. The</td>
<td>1. It is necessary to adapt the activities which are more contextual for them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>cognitive load and the vocabularies are too high.</td>
<td>2. The students tend to have late submission.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Whereas, based on the students’ pre-test and the</td>
<td>3. It is necessary to make a more real-life used so that the students are able</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
classroom recordings, it is claimed that the students tend to have low to average critical reading ability.

2. Log book → it emphasizes more on reading comprehension instead of critical reading, and the cognitive load is too high.

3. Reading engagement is low

4. The instructions given are not yet ideally schematic.

to employ their background knowledge.

4. The worksheets are given in separated sheets, so that the students more focused on their actual activity.

Population and Sample
There were 77 students participated in this research who were divided in two Critical Reading and Literacy classes. The researchers applied total sampling because the main aim of this research is to describe the improvement of the whole participants of this research. Although there would be a tendency that the data were not normally distributed, it was still acceptable for the qualitative data might reveal the possible outlayers. There are two types of research instruments in this study. The first one is the testing instruments, and non testing instruments. The testing instruments were adopted from Bennet and Clare (2006). To analyze the testing instruments, the researchers employed one way ANOVA test to check the difference of each progress before and after the treatment.

Findings and Discussions
Based on the data collected and the analysis, it is found that there is a significant improvement of the students’ critical reading competence by implementing Critical Language Awareness approach as constructed by Wallace (2009). The improvement is confidently presented by considering the testing instruments. Those are pre-test score, post test score of the first cycle, and the post test score of the second cycle. Over 77 students as the participants of this study, although they have made a significant improvement on the learning process, yet their critical reading milestone has not yet significantly improved.
There are two types of data in order to answer the research questions, the quantitative and qualitative ones. To find the evidence of question number one, of which the researchers expect to describe the improvement of critical reading competence as performed by the students, the score of pre-test and post-test of each cycle were employed in this research. The data were then analyzed by measuring the mean of each test. There are three variables to answer this question, which are the pre-test, post-test cycle 1, and post-test cycle 2.

After that the researcher employed normality test to explore the data either it was normally distributed or not. The next step was that the researcher conducted ANOVA test to check the difference of each progress before and after the treatment. After the researcher got the significant score was gotten. P value is described as if the significance is less than or equal with 0.05 it means that the treatment is significant. If the significance score is more than 0.05 means that it there is no difference about the implementation of the treatment.

The final step was the researchers used LSD test to check which variables that contribute to the wither improvement or reducing attempt. The item that should be checked is the significant score. As for the results, it is presented in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ANOVA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VAR00001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How does Register Analysis improve the students’ critical reading competence of the students? Based on the table above, the significance score is 0.000 which is less than 0.05. It means that there is a difference about the before and after the treatment. However this is not sufficient enough to check which cycle contributes to the students’ critical reading competence. Therefore, the researchers continued to conduct Post Hoc test by employing LSD test, and the result is presented below.

105
### Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: VAR00001

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I)</th>
<th>(J)</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>VAR00003</td>
<td>VAR00003</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>-14.79949*</td>
<td>3.08731</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-20.8828 -8.7162</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>-20.20333*</td>
<td>3.08731</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-26.2866 -14.1200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>14.79949*</td>
<td>3.08731</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>8.7162 20.8828</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>-5.40385</td>
<td>3.05689</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>-11.4272 .6195</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>20.20333*</td>
<td>3.08731</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>14.1200 26.2866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.40385</td>
<td>3.05689</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>-.6195 11.4272</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The significance score of each pairs describe which variable is significant to improve the students’ critical reading competence. In the first row, on the significance score column, it is shown that the significance score is 0.000 for pre-test to posttest 1 and pre-test to posttest 2. Since it is less than 0.05, thus the score of the pre-test is different to other tests’ scores.

Whereas in the second row, it is shown that the significance score for posttest 1 to posttest 2 has 0.078. However, it is more than 0.05, thus it is not significant to improve the students’ critical reading competence.

By also checking the column of mean difference, it is shown that as an overall cycles, there is a difference of the posttest 1 to posttest 2 which about 3.82. The difference is presented in positive number (posttest2 minus posttest1), thus it can be concluded that there is an improvement in cycle 2 although it is not significant. As for the most significant improvement is in cycle 1 which is shown in row 1.

### The First Cycle Reflection

In each meeting, the lecturers implemented some steps. The first was divided the class into several groups that each must only had 5 members at most. The group was always reversed for the sake of refreshment and exposed their ability to share the opinion in diveresed group members. After that, the students were asked to read a bundle of worksheets that enabled them to analyze the texts. The classroom management tend to be the same in the whole cycle, it was
the materials and the teaching technique were sometimes variative. There were some times when the class was easy to read critically, thus the whole class discussion could be formal. Whereas, there were most of the time when the students were helpless by saying that the text was very difficult, thus the lecturer should put some humors. Most of the class were dynamic despite of their difficulties to digest the issue in the given texts.

In the first meeting, the lecturers gave a persuasive text consisted of 150 words about a book review. The book reviewed was the Aussie Bites novella. Firstly, the students were given some vocabularies and they were asked to define the meaning and also find the synonym. After that, the students were asked to discuss and predict what text that they would have. Unfortunately, since the materials were given in a bundling form, thus the predicting session was failed because the students easily flipped the page and found the texts. In the end, the students were then asked to discuss the answers of each questions that were written in a flashcards. The similar activities were conducted in the second meeting when the text was about novel review consisted of 600 words. In this stage, the students started to complain that they were more helpless.

In the third until sixth meeting, again the students were given a bundle of materials, yet the exercise was multiple choice, and the text was only one paragraph for 3 to 4 questions. Apparently, it worked to make the students more interactive and it seemed to be the best way to scaffold their critical thinking while also incorporating language awareness.

“When I was in the class, I felt it difficult because the vocabularies were too difficult. However, by taking this course, I learn a lot on how to comprehend a text and enhancing vocabularies independently”
15322053/students of milestone 1

“After taking CRL class I feel that my understanding on how to be critical when reading a text is improving. It is also supported by the explanation of the lecturers who are very critical. My difficulties are when it is hard to find the clues (the language awareness) in the text and there are some unfamiliar vocabularies.”
15322050/students of milestone 2

By analyzing this interview result, it reflects that vocabularies become the biggest obstacle in cycle one. However, the goal of promoting critical reading strategies has been achieved.
The implementation of this plan was a bit different to the first cycle. The differences are in the term of classroom management, which the students were put in the auditorium. The meetings were fastened from 08.00 am to 12.00 pm at stake. There was coffee break, yet it was only 10 minutes. The reflection of this cycle are although the international lecturer was interesting and interactive, however the management of large class and tight schedule are considered to be ineffective.

“I feel that there is no big difference between the regular class and the class with Dr Allan. Even with him I can also learn grammar and I finally awaken that grammar and structure is important in CRL miss. I feel that Dr Allan’s materials competed the materials that we discussed in the class”....”CRL also affect to my reading habit to keep checking other texts and reread the text. “

15322007/Students of milestone 3
This implies that the confidence of the students are also improving and their reading habit is getting better.

Conclusion
Knowing that the goal to improve students’ critical reading competence by employing Critical Language Awareness has been achieved, of which the improvement is 68.8%, it is concluded that this research is successful. The extent of improvement is that the students feels that they are more confident to analyze the text, their grammar awareness is improving, and they are more eager to interact to the texts that they read by keep questioning and keep reading.

Acknowledgement
We would like to deliver our greatest appraisals to the Board of Acedemic Development, Islamic University of Indonesia, who has funded this research. Furthermore, we expect that this research could bring benefits for educational pratitionaires.
References


Contrastive Analysis on the Linguistic and Rhetorical Patterns of L1 and L2 Writings of Cebuano ESL Learners

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Abstract
This study focused on the possible quantitative and qualitative differences of the linguistic and rhetorical patterns in L1 and L2 writing samples of Cebuano ESL learners. It aims to compare the performance of the students on a single writing task that was written in both Cebuano and English. The study utilized the experimental research design in determining the differences on linguistic and rhetorical patterns of Cebuano ESL learners in L1 and L2.
writing. Inferential statistics such as Pearson Product Moment Correlation and two-tailed T-test were also used to test the research hypotheses.

The study revealed the following findings. First, there is no significant difference on L1 and L2 writing tasks in terms of number of words, sentences, words per sentence, and number of T-units or independent clauses. Second, there is no significant relationship between L1 and L2 writing skill. However, after thorough examining the content of the essays, salient evidences disclose that some L1 writing strategies and patterns are transferred to L2 such as the use of metaphorical statements which include idioms and proverbs; inductive style of writing or delayed introduction of purpose, longer but less effective orientations; no topic sentence and topic changes.

Introduction

Analyzing learner’s text is something writing teachers do all the time. Apparently, its analysis provides the basis for everyday pedagogy in the classroom. Another significant matter to consider is in terms of first and second language compositions. Within this domain, there is a fundamental question over the holistic judgments of the ESL learners’ overall quality in writing strategies.

Writing in a second language is a challenging and complex process. The first language writing process includes producing content, drafting ideas, revising writing, choosing appropriate vocabulary, and editing text, writing in an L2 involves these elements jumbled with second language processing issues. In the case of lower L2 proficiency writers, these L2 issues can overwhelm the writing process, even to the point of a complete breakdown of the process (Bereiter & Scardimalia, 1987).

Several studies have looked at the effect of composing in the L1 and then translating into the L2 (Cohen & Brooks-Carson, 2001; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 1994). These studies have found that the lower L2 proficiency writers benefited from composing in the L1 and then translating into the L2, a result that highlights the importance of using L1 composing strategies for lower L2 proficiency writers. Jones and Tetroe (1987) did a study on the effect of L1 use during L2 writing. They found that the lower L2 proficiency writers who did not use their L1 were less effective in their planning. The writers who did use their L1 produced more details during the planning stage of L2 writing. Furthermore, the L1 facilitated more abstract thought during planning.
The Cebuano language, regularly conversationally alluded on by the clear majority about its speakers essentially concerning illustration Bisaya spoken in the Philippines. Over 20 million people, basically from western parts of eastern Visayas and practically parts of Mindanao. The greater part of whom have a place with the Cebuano Visayan ethnic assembly. Majority of the people living in the municipality of Buug, in the province of Zamboanga Sibugay speaks Cebuano.

In essence, this study aims to look deeper in the writings of the Cebuano ESL learners. By contrasting the Cebuano and English languages, one can conclude some significant realizations in the context of second language teaching. Thus, this study wishes to investigate the potential differences on the linguistic features and rhetorical structures of ESL learners’ L1 and L2 writing strategies. It aims to measure whether there is a correlation between the use of the rhetorical structure and the participants’ overall essay quality.

**Review of Related Literature**

There are relevant literature reviews that are connected to the present work which justify the reason of this study.

The belief of comparing and contrasting L1 and L2 was rooted in the behaviorist theory of language learning whereby learning was equated with ‘habit forming’: the habit of the L1 were believed to be ‘transferred’, and regarded as ‘interfering with’ the newly-acquired habits of the L2. Benson (2002) emphasized that it is now generally accepted that transfer does occur, but is a far more complex phenomenon than hither to believed. Language transfer can be facilitative, in areas where two languages are identical. It can also result in avoidance, where a structure does not exist in the L1. And, it can lead to different rates of development: either delay, when learners whose L1 contains a particular form spend longer at that stage of development than L1 learners or learners whose L1 does not contain that form; or acceleration, for example, learners whose L1 has articles and reflexive pronouns learn these forms faster than learners in whose L1 they do not exist. The transfer can also lead to different routes of acquisition and it could also result to overproduction.

Scarcella (1984) examined the function of initial sentences in native- and non-native English-speaking American university freshman essays and found that non-native speakers tended to use longer but less effective “orientations” Schneider and Fujishima (1995) also claim that, at the discourse level, the Chinese student has learned the technique of starting with a broad topic and gradually narrowing it down to the focus of the paper.
Achieving success in a new culture does not, however, lie solely in learning the grammar and lexicon of the language. Ability to negotiate cultural barriers and develop new ways of learning are also essential. Teachers need to be familiar with the socio-cultural sources of the problems encountered by overseas students writing in a foreign language, including differences in rhetorical styles (Cai, 1993). As most overseas students bring with them linguistic, cultural, attitudinal, and academic experiences. Many of them already possess study skills at an advanced level in their own language, what they actually need is help in transferring these skills to the target language and adjusting them to a different academic environment (Jordan, 1997).

There are five contrastive features between L1 and L2 writing. First is the Presence and Placement of Thesis Statement (Inductive vs. Deductive). British or American preferred to use deductive style in writing while Asians preferred to use inductive pattern (Cortazzi and Jin, 1997).

Second, the number of paragraphs (Start-Sustain-Turn-Sum Vs. Introduction-Body-Conclusion). The English way of structuring an essay, though its structure is flexible, normally includes introduction, body and conclusion. English essays generally place more emphasis on form than do Asian essays.

Third is the Circular vs. Linear (Topic Sentences and Topic Changes). Kaplan (1966) suggested that Anglo-European expository essays follow a linear development, whereas in Asian, the paragraph development may be said to be "turning and turning in a widening gyre."

Fourth, the Metaphorical vs. Straightforward (Use of Metaphors and Proverbs). ESL/EFL teachers often comment that their students use patterns of language and stylistic conventions that they have learnt in their native languages and cultures. This transfer is not just idiosyncratic variation but involves recurring patterns of organization and rhetorical conventions reminiscent of writing in the students' native language and culture (Connor, 1996, p. 3).

Matalene (1985) found that Asian students are fond of fixed patterns such as proverbs, idioms, maxims, literary allusions, and analogies, and also defer to tradition and to the authority of the past. In contrast, Western readers regard these patterns as clichés, and Western teachers of writing encourage students to write in their own voice using their own words.

Lastly, Explicit Discourse Markers (Marks of Coherence and Unity). English essays use explicit discourse markers to signal relations between sentences and parts of texts. These
devices are words or phrases that act as aids to help readers make connections between what has already been stated and what is forthcoming (Connor, 1996).

English readers expect and require landmarks of coherence and unity as they read. They believe that the writer needs to provide transitional statements. In the Philippines, the beauty of writing is believed to lie in delicacy and subtlety, not in its straightforwardness (Shen & Yao, 1999). The Asian language places emphasis on coherence of meaning rather than coherence of form. As long as ideas are flowing, it does not matter whether there is coherent form, for, as the proverb goes, "Every river flows into the sea." This underlying attitude toward writing affects the way textual information is organized and the techniques employed to implement the writing task.

Learning to compose in a foreign language is not an isolated classroom activity, but a social and cultural experience. For example, the rules of English composition encapsulate values that are absent in, or sometimes contradictory to, the values of other societies. Likewise, the rules of Asian writing reflect beliefs and values that may not be found in other societies. Therefore, learning the rules of composition in a foreign language is, to a certain extent, learning the values of the corresponding foreign society (Shen, 1989). The process of learning to write in the target language is a process of creating and defining a new identity and balancing it with the old identity.

In alike manner, learners construct their own interim rules with the use of their L1 knowledge when learning the target language, but only when they believe it will help them in the learning task or when they have become sufficiently proficient in the L2 for transfer to be possible. (Selinker, 1971; Seligar, 1988; and Ellis, 1997).

Given these points, the relationship between the two languages must then be considered. Alber and Obler (1978) claim that people show more lexical interference on similar items. So it may follow that languages with more similar are more susceptible to mutual interference that languages with fewer similar features. On the other hand, we might also expect more learning difficulties and thus more likelihood of performance interference at those points in L2 which are more distant from L1, as the learner would find it difficult to learn and understand a completely new different usage.

Hence the learner would resort to L1 structures for help (Selinker, 1979; Dulay et al, 1982). In essence, there is a need to measure whether there is a correlation between the use of the rhetorical structure and linguistic patterns of L1 and L2 writings to clarify the interferences and influences of both language use.
Methodology

The study utilized the experimental research design in determining the differences on linguistic and rhetorical patterns of Cebuano ESL learners in L1 and L2 writing. Both L1 and L2 compositions were scored by three different raters who are TESL specialists from the Department of Languages & Literature. The total score for each sample serves as the mean of the three raters’ score. In identifying the research participants, this study employed the purposive sampling as the students were ranked according to their average grades in English 1, 2 and 3.

The research participants of the study were the second-year Cebuano ESL students who were enrolled in English 5 (Content and Style) at Mindanao State University- Buug. A total of 20 participants were considered to provide writing samples needed for analyses. The ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs, et. al. 1981) was used to measure students’ L1 and L2 writing performance. The rating was then utilized to score the collected samples in five differently-weighted criteria: Content, Organization, Sentence Construction, Voice, and Mechanics.

The participants were tasked by the instructor to write a composition on the following topic in the classroom: “Is Society too Dependent on Technology?”. In the first session, 10 participants were asked by the instructor to write Cebuano compositions and the rest were asked to write English compositions. In the second session, those who had written in Cebuano in the first session wrote in English and those who had written in English in the first session wrote in Cebuano on the same topic. The topic of “Is Society too Dependent on Technology?” is chosen because it is considered familiar, interesting, and motivating for the participants. They were asked to write for 30-45 minutes.

Analysis of Data

After scoring, the number of words, the number of sentences, the number of T-Units, and mean word per sentence (WPS) for each sample were counted. T-Unit is defined as one independent clause together with whatever dependent clauses were attached to it (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). For comparing L1 and L2, all the above-mentioned variables were summarized using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. Descriptive statistics was utilized to summarize the differences between the Cebuano and English writing samples that produced by the participants under study. Inferential statistics such as Pearson Product Moment Correlation and two-tailed T-test were also used to test the research hypotheses.
Results

Problem 1. Is there any significant difference between the total number of words written by Cebuano ESL learners for an in-class persuasive task in both Cebuano and English?

Problem 2. Is there any significant difference between the total number of sentences written by Cebuano ESL learners for an in-class persuasive task in both Cebuano and English?

Table 1. Paired Difference on the Total Number of Words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Words_C - Words_E</td>
<td>8.550</td>
<td>76.653</td>
<td>17.140</td>
<td>-27.325</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table above shows that there is no significant difference between the total number of words written in Cebuano and in English essays. This proves that the influence of the mother tongue on the other in the writing of bilingual is relevant in the field of second language acquisition. In this sense, knowledge of the first language also serves as a basis.

Table 2 shows that although there is a very slight difference between the total number of sentences written in Cebuano and in English but it is not statistically significant. Thus, it implies that Cebuano learners have utilized almost the same number of sentences in both L1 and L2 writing. This also proves that the process of learning to write in the target language is a process of creating and defining a new identity and balancing it with the old identity. Thus, the awareness of the mother tongue is important because it can contribute and help the students formulate and develop linguistic features in writing compositions.
Table 2. Paired Difference on the Total Number of Sentences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Std. Error Mean</td>
<td>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentences_C</td>
<td>3.604</td>
<td>.806</td>
<td>-2.087</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentences_E</td>
<td>-2.050</td>
<td>7.178</td>
<td>1.605</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Problem 3. Is there any significant difference between the mean number of words per sentence written by Cebuano ESL learners for an in-class persuasive task in both Cebuano and English?

Table 3. Paired Difference on the Number of Words Per Sentence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Std. Error Mean</td>
<td>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MWPS_C</td>
<td>2.050</td>
<td>7.178</td>
<td>1.605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MWPS_E</td>
<td>-2.050</td>
<td>7.178</td>
<td>1.605</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 reveals that learners use almost the same number of Cebuano and English words per sentence on their essays. As claimed by Benda in 1999, their cultural backgrounds influence their organization of writing; what they choose to use as evidence in supporting their main ideas; how they express their main ideas; and how they write in the foreign language. This is also supported by Weinrich (1970) in the general problem of language interference. One of its causes is the disloyalty to the target language which leads the learner to put uncontrolled structure of his first language elements in writing. This is due to the limited background of target language so the learner tends to put words in sentences a sense of his first language.

Problem 4. Is there any significant difference between the total number of T-units written by Cebuano ESL learners for an in-class persuasive task in both Cebuano and English?
Table 4 reveals that the learners use almost the same number of T-units or independent clauses both in Cebuano and in English. This further supports how an individual’s understanding of one language has an impact on his or her understanding of another language, that individual is experiencing language transfer. In terms of writing skills, most of the L2 compositions are related to the transfer of grammatical structures (Alonzo, 1997).

Table 4. Paired Difference on the Total T-Units

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Std. Error Mean</td>
<td>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</td>
<td>Lower</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pair Tunits_C - Tunits_E</td>
<td>-.600</td>
<td>5.897</td>
<td>1.319</td>
<td>-3.360</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 presents the mean scores of twenty (20) Cebuano ESL learners on their first language (Cebuano) and second language (English) writing. This further shows that the mean score of the said participants on writing essay using their first language is 86% which is higher than their mean score on their second language which is 84.30%.

Table 5. Mean Scores of Cebuano ESL Learners on their L1 and L2 Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std.Error Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percent_C</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>86.00</td>
<td>.788</td>
<td>3.524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percent_E</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>84.30</td>
<td>.567</td>
<td>2.536</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Valid N (listwise)</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>84.30</td>
<td>.567</td>
<td>2.536</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This implies that Cebuano learners have better writing skill using mother tongue than in second language. This implies that there may be less access to universal grammar in second language which may reduce the likelihood that second language learners will attain native-like proficiency. On the other hand, first-language learners always attain native proficiency.
Problem 5. Is there any relationship between Cebuano ESL learner’s writing scores on Cebuano and English writing tasks?

Table 6. Correlation Between L1 and L2 Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Percent_C</th>
<th>Percent_E</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>Percent_C</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percent_E</td>
<td>.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>Percent_C</td>
<td>.941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percent_E</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Above results provide some valuable information about the participants who appear to have stronger writing attitudes toward their L1. According to the claim of Bereiter & Scardamalia (1987), it is undoubtedly the act of composing, though, which can create problems for students, especially for those writing in a second language (L2). Formulating new ideas can be difficult because it involves transforming or reworking information, which is much more complex than writing in their L1.

Problem 6. What linguistic and rhetorical writing patterns from Cebuano are transferred to English?

Based on the contents of the essays there are few linguistic and rhetorical patterns that are transferred from Cebuano to English. The use of metaphorical statements such as idioms and proverbs are prevalent in Cebuano but not much in English. The following proverbs that are the commonly found in Cebuano essays support this claim:

“Kung naay gitanom, naay anihunon.”
(If there is planted, there is a harvest.)

“Lihok tawo aron muuswag og mulambo”
(Move people to prospering and to prosper)

“Kaalam og kakugi ang yabi sa kalambuan og kadaugan”
(Wisdom and diligence are the keys to development and victory)

“Unsaon ang sagbot kung wala na ang kabayo”
(What is the use of grass if the horse is gone)
“Mag-antos para mahimong santos”
(To be saint is to sacrifice)
“Ang dili kabalo mutan aw sa iyang ginikanan ky dili makaabot sa iyang padulngan”
(Those who will not value their origin cannot reach their dream)
“Ang tawong tapulan walay padulngan”
(A person who is lazy will not have a good future)
“Bahalag hinay basta kanunay”
(It is fine to be slow but persistent)
“Bahalag maot og panagway basta ang pamuyo hamugaway”
(It is okay even if you are ugly if you live a luxurious life)
“Lami ang bawal”
(Forbidden things are tempting)
“Bahalag mahal basta sosyal”
(It is okay even it’s expensive, so long as you look elegant)
“Walay asu nga makumkum”
(There is no secret that can be kept)
These are the only proverbs that can be found from English essays but are not commonly used:
“The youth is the hope of the nation”
“If there’s a will, there’s a way”
“Do not wait for tomorrow what you can do for today”

This finding reiterates the study of Matalene (1985) that Asian students are fond of fixed patterns such as proverbs, idioms, maxims, literary allusions, and analogies, and defer to tradition and to the authority of the past but did not influence much in their L2 writing. This study found that adorned language use, questions, and anecdotal examples are rooted in L1 culture; however, these may also be used to enrich students’ academic writing and to add creativity as long as these features are used in right amounts without causing interference in communication.

The following is another example of transferred linguistic pattern which is the delayed introduction of purpose in English:
Excerpt 2.

“People nowadays are too dependent on technology because in every little thing we do it involves technology. It is very helpful to us especially in terms of making our household chores easier and faster such as in cooking and washing our laundry. It is also essential to those who are working in different respective offices to perform their duties and responsibilities effectively and efficiently. Furthermore, it gives us entertainment like communicating our friends and relatives using video chats, watching movies and television shows.”

The paragraph above is again misplaced by the learner in the middle of the essay which is supposed to be placed at the beginning for it is the controlling idea of the entire essay. This finding support the study of Matalene (1985) which based on sample essays written by Asian ESL students, that arguments are often delayed and statements sometimes seem unconnected in the eyes of the Western reader.

The following is an example of a topic changes in Cebuano:

Excerpt 3.

“Ang teknolohiya importante kayo og dako ang natabang sa atoa maong nahimo kini nga parte sa atong kinabuhi. Ang mga estudyante dali na magresearch mugamit lang og computer or cellphone. Duna usab mga tawo nga gihimo kining negosyo nga namaligya sa Facebook. Naa pud mga estudyante nga dili na musulod sa ilang mga klasa ky nagsige nalang og tuplok sa ilang mga cellphone og naadik pagdula diha sa mga computeran. Mao nang disiplina ang kinahanglan sa mga tawo.”

Translation of Excerpt 3.

The importance of technologies has greatly contributed to ours that it becomes part of our lives. Students will use a computer or cellphone when they want to research in the internet. There are also those who made this business selling on Facebook. Some students do not attend their classes for they became addicted playing online-games. Hence, people need discipline. The following is an example of topic changes in English:
Excerpt 4.

“Technology helps the community to build houses, hospitals, public schools and other buildings which cater the needs of the society. It also helps us to earn money through selling different products online. However, it is also the source of cheating just like in election and online scammers benefit from it. Technology is not good at all for it is the cause of crime, accident, and other related wretched deeds. But it is very useful and important to humanity and society.”

Both Excerpts 3 and 4 present circular ideas which began presenting the significance of technology to society but ended with giving negative effects to its people especially to the students. This support the study of Kaplan (1966) which suggested that Anglo-European expository essays follow a linear development, whereas in Asian essays, the paragraph development may be said to be "turning and turning in a widening gyre."

Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, the researchers concluded the following:
1. There is no significant difference on L1 and L2 writing tasks in terms of number of words, sentences, words per sentence, and number of T-units or independent clauses.
2. There is no significant relationship between L1 and L2 writing skill.
3. However, after thorough examining the content of the essays, salient evidences disclose that some L1 writing strategies and patterns are transferred to L2.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions of the study, the researchers laid down the following recommendations:

1. English teachers should give more opportunities to their students for them to learn language authentically in a classroom setting.
2. Both teachers and students should be aware that in both first and second language acquisition, learners need comprehensible input and opportunities to learn language in context in order to increase their proficiency.
3. Learners should be able to use more metacognitive processes in their learning.
4. Learners should consciously analyze and manipulate grammatical structures, so that they can explicitly describe how language works.
5. Students should be taught when it is appropriate to implement their L1 strategies and when not to create a balance between expressive, literary or more emotional writing.

References


Teaching Strategies of Selected Filipino EFL Teachers and its Perceived Effects to Thai Students*

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Abstract

In Second Language Learning Acquisition (SLA) motivating strategies are important to increase the interest of the students, particularly in countries where English is not widely spoken or read. Thus, foreign teachers in English speaking countries are encouraged to work in countries such as Thailand, Japan, Korea and Saudi Arabia to mention some.

In 2015 there were a total of 17,921 Filipino migrants. Most job networking sites like Ajarn.com, preferred Filipinos because they speak better English, and received much lower salaries compared to the so-called Native English Speakers. Filipino teachers in Thailand do not just teach English, they also teach Mathematics, Science and Social Studies. Some who are inclined to arts are also teaching elementary levels. Filipino teachers are in prestigious universities and in the deepest villages in Thailand. Despite cultural differences, the Filipinos are able to adapt well in the country.

The four learning areas in EFL are the following: listening, speaking, writing and reading. As an EFL teacher, what are the problems you encountered in the identified areas of learning? What are the strategies employed by the Filipino teachers in these areas? What are the perceived effects of the strategies to the students?

The aim of this study is to determine the Filipino teachers’ strategies in overcoming the difficulties in teaching English and its perceived effects to the students. The study used quantitative and qualitative data to analyze the methods of the Filipino teachers in teaching

English and other subjects to their students in all levels. The author used Google forms in collecting data for easier tabulation and interpretations of the study. The researchers also interviewed personally selected respondents for further clarifications of their strategies.

The result of the study shows that the strategies commonly used by Filipino EFL teachers are playing English songs for listening, oral spelling for speaking, written spelling for writing, and silent reading. English songs, singing and Pictionary are also identified as effective methods in teaching EFL.

**Keywords:** teachers, Filipinos, teaching strategies, foreign workers, EFL

I. Introduction

Gardner and Lambert (1972, in Dornyei, 2005) believed that second languages played a role as ‘mediating factors between different ethno-linguistic communities and thus regarded the motivation to learn the language of the other community as a primary force responsible for enhancing or hindering intercultural communication and affiliation’.

There are two teaching methods commonly applied in TEFL/TESOL which are “PPP” (present, practice and production) or “ESA” (engage, study and activate).

Language acquisition for better communication is an integral part of EFL classroom. Therefore, teaching strategies to motivate the students is crucial in L2 learning. The learners’ ability is also a reflection of the teacher’s ability to teach. This may reflect on the learner’s examination results, his/her ability to communicate and to write effectively.

Intarapanich (2013) found out that in language teaching EFL instructor should also have a positive attitude toward the teaching profession. In her study in Lao schools found out that an ideal EFL instructor should be active, friendly, caring, polite, and adaptable.

The study of Alqahtani (2016) in Saudi Arabia strengthened the above findings of Intrapanich regarding EFL teachers. EFL teachers in Saudi consider the strategies demonstrating proper teacher behavior, familiarize learners with L2 culture and L2 related values, promote learners’ self-confidence, increase learners’ satisfaction, increase learners’ expectancy of success, and promote learners’ autonomy.

Harmer (2007) redefines the categories for the English learners where ethnicity is less important and proficiency matters more. Proficiency circle here is defined as learners who have sufficient knowledge of the English language and culture while low proficiency circle are those who have less or have no knowledge of the English language and culture. Harmer also
adds that “nobody owns the English language anymore and native speakers and non-native speakers of English are alike”.

In learning any language, successful communication in real-life situations is expected. (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Therefore, in EFL and ESL, teachers are expected to devise lessons and apply different methodologies to test which are best suited to their students. Not all EFL classrooms are the same. Students display different levels of understanding in the four core aspects of language learning.

Since 2010, the Ministry of Education in Thailand has been initiating various projects in schools and universities to improve English language. In its website it states: “It will be necessary to accelerate the capacity building of Thai students in terms of knowledge and skills as well as in English and other neighboring language proficiencies and technology. The aforementioned projects consist of the following areas: the Spirit of ASEAN, ASEAN studies curriculum, and educational personnel development in the English language, and quality development of private vocational schools.”

English as Foreign Language or L2 EFL learners in elementary, high school and university students are spending money and hours to learn English language from native speakers and non-native speakers like the Filipinos in tutorial centers across Thailand to complement their regular English classes.

McInnes, et al as mentioned in the study of Pawapatcharaudom (2007) say that in international competitions, new developments in teaching and learning and larger student numbers contribute to a significant change in the landscape of tertiary education. Universities across Thailand are investing on teaching and learning the English language. However, the Thai's level of proficiency is still low in comparison to Malaysia, Singapore and the Philippines. Moreover, the English curriculum in Thai universities cannot meet the demand for English use in the workplace (Wiriyachitra, 2002; Dueraman, 2012).

Learning is a never ending process but could be boring especially in schools where both the teachers and the students do not understand each other much. In the study of Frederiksen (2014a) the result shows that respondents wanted to establish interest in learning English to their pupils by drilling them with vocabulary, game exercises, reading text and speaking interaction. These learners were just beginners so repetition is important in learning the target language. Harmer (2007) states that imitating the words help the learners transfer knowledge. When the learner relates the function and form then the learner have the better chance to remember these words.
Ölmezer Öztürk, E. & Ok, S. (2014) claim that in Turkey English teacher’s make use of certain topics like music, TV, etc. which draw students’ attention. These were seen as a motivating behavior by the students. It means that students become more motivated when their teacher incorporates interesting topics into the course. It might be owing to the fact that the interesting topics draw students’ attention and when students get interested in the course they become more motivated and eager to learn. Teachers play a critical role in motivating the students such as displaying “communicative behaviors” classified as being approachable, lively and comely facial expressions (Christophel, 1990).

Course content is critical in motivating the students as Dörnyei (1994) suggested. Teachers can increase the attractiveness of the course content by incorporating interesting, attractive and motivating topics that affect students positively.

II. Thailand’s low proficiency in English

In 2015, according to English First, a training company, that despite Thailand’s country budget of 31.3% on education English proficiency remains low even with its large tourism industry. Further it disclosed that the “school system performs poorly on international assessments across all subject areas. The average years of schooling there are also lower than the regional average, meaning that Thai adults are less educated than many other Asians”.

Thai culture is recognized as hierarchical and authoritative. Duereman (2012) claimed that culture and language are interrelated, thus, influence the way students relate to their teachers in classroom settings. Teachers are often perceived as knowledgeable and a representative of moral goodness. Therefore students need to believe in what they say. This teacher authority is much likely to promote teacher-centered classrooms which resulted in difficulty to get the ideas and for the students to be expressive. Further, the researcher claims that the students are passive in the presence of the authority.

In Thai classrooms, learning process is very dependent on the teachers who just relay them knowledge, thereby, critical thinking is not promoted nor encouraged (Deveney, 2005 & Dhanarattigannon, 2008, cited in Duereman). In addition to this, most Thai teachers use traditional methods in teaching activities where teachers take authoritative as opposed to supporting role in most language classrooms (Siithitikul, 2010). Thus, inadequate opportunities for the students to exercise critical thinking and problem-solving skills which are crucial to foster independent learning are compromised leading to complex problems in language learning.
Pawapatchar Tudom (2007) claimed that in general educational program (Tamada), the speaking and listening ability in English of Thai students has been minimal because students have little chance to practice speaking in or outside the classroom.

III. The Filipino Teachers

Filipino EFL teachers working abroad can be categorized as native English speaking teachers despite English not their native language. They have learned the language from childhood and use the language fluently (Frederiksen, 2014a). This categorization is relevant to this study as they are given different roles in teaching English in the classroom from many other non-native EFL teachers.

The Philippines is the third largest English speaking society in the world (Bolton and Bautista, 2004). English is the official language of the government and in education and a large part of the media, music, films and televisions. Philippines has high literacy rates of 87% and good English speaking ability (Jinkinson, 2003). In the past ten years, the Philippines has exported approximately four thousand teachers, primarily in the subjects of math, science, English, and special education. Tubeza (2009) enumerates the top destinations as being primarily non-English speaking countries such as Japan, Qatar, United Arab Emirates, and Saudi Arabia. The United States, an English speaking country, imports foreign English teachers and is included as one of the top destinations for Filipino teachers.

The integration of ASEAN nations resulted to the use of English as lingua franca. Longhurst (2008) describes the term as a process of intermeshing world economies, politics and culture into a global system, and ESL/EFL teachers working overseas develop the attitude of reflexivity in the classroom. He mentions that when one seeks to understand and articulate current experiences in relation to previous experiences. ESL/EFL teachers negotiate their cultural and previous experiences to the current cultural and relationships experienced in their new country. Teaching English in non-English speaking countries has effect on the identity of a person as Fredireksen claims (2014b) which is supported by the study of Lightbown and Spada (2006) that when two cultures interact, identities are affected.

IV. Filipino English teachers in Thailand

Former Prime Minister Thaksin Shinawatra opened the country for teaching employment around 2001. This created a new kind of migration. A number of those early migrant teachers were Filipino. (Novio, 12 Feb. 2012, Philippine Daily Inquirer).
There are approximately 17,921 Filipinos in Thailand according to the stock estimate of the Commission on Filipinos Overseas as of December 2015. POEA data shows that the Philippines deployed 8,659 overseas Filipino workers to Thailand in 2013, mostly teachers, engineers, production and related workers, composers, musicians, and singers. In most job networking sites like Ajarn.com, Filipinos are preferred because they speak better English, and received much lower salaries compared to the so-called native English speakers. They do not just teach English, they also teach Mathematics, Science and even Social Studies. Some who are inclined to arts are also teaching Arts to anuban.

In a study of Novio and Cordova (2013), majority of the Filipinos in Thailand rely to other Filipinos in knowing Thai culture, both in the society and in the schools.

Filipinos teach only listening and speaking skills whereas the writing and reading part are delegated to the Thai English teachers. Similar to Japan, learning English in Thailand is compulsory, too.

Students learn English mainly in the classroom. The classes are provided with two English teachers, one who is a native English-speaking teacher or close representative to a native English speaker like the respondents. While the other teacher, is a local born teacher whose job is to assist the foreign teacher.

Filipino teachers easily learn the Thai language. Since Thailand is similar to the Philippines in many ways, Filipinos are not considered “farang” or foreigners in Thailand.

Although most Filipinos in Thailand are qualified teachers in the Philippines, but teaching English to Thai students pose a challenge in terms of culture and the attitudes of the students in English language learning.

V. Statement of the Problem

Despite studying English from kindergarten to universities, researches on the proficiency of the graduates suggests that the English language curriculum in Thai schools and universities has not been meeting the demands for workplace because of the inability to speak and understand English (Wiriyachitra, 2002; Keyurawong, 2002).

Learning foreign language requires innovative strategies to capture the attention of the students. Even in the university setting, such are needed to improve the language acquisition.

The Theory of Second Language Acquisition developed by Stephen Krashen helps us understand the learning process of the students studying English as second language. Krashen says:
"Acquisition requires meaningful interaction in the target language - natural communication - in which speakers are concerned not with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding."

He claimed that "the best methods are therefore those that supply 'comprehensible input' in low anxiety situations containing messages that students really want to hear. These methods do not force early production in the second language, but allow students to produce when they are 'ready', recognizing that improvement comes from supplying communicative and comprehensible input, and not from forcing and correcting production." (Krashen, 1987, 1988).

There are four learning areas identified in teaching EFL. These are: listening, speaking, writing and reading. As an EFL teacher, what are the problems you encountered in the identified areas of learning? What are the strategies employed by the Filipino teachers in these areas? What are the perceived effects of the strategies to the students?

The aim of this study is to determine the Filipino teachers’ strategies in overcoming the difficulties in teaching English and its perceived effects to the students.

VI. Methods and methodologies

This study used the descriptive method. Survey questionnaires were distributed using Google Forms to reach other Filipino teachers in other places of Thailand. To arrive at the findings, the author used frequencies, percentage, cross-tabulations, and weighted mean.

Personal interviews through phone calls and chats to selected respondents were also done to further explain their situations in an EFL environment.

VII. Respondents.

There are total of 100 respondents from different provinces in Thailand teaching in various levels from anuban (pre-elementary), prathom (elementary), matthayom (junior and senior high school), and universities.

Seventy (70) respondents teach in urban areas while 30 respondents teach in rural areas. Fifty-four (54) respondents are college graduates, 26 respondents have MA units or undergoing MA studies, 20 respondents have either MA or PhD degrees. Forty-two (42) respondents teach in high schools, 26 respondents teach in the elementary, 21 respondents teach in the universities, and 11 respondents teach in pre-elementary. Twenty-seven (27) are teaching EFL in Thailand for 6-10 years, 26 respondents are teaching EFL for 1-3 years, 24 respondents are teaching EFL for 3-5 years, 16 respondents teaching EFL for more than 10 years, and seven
respondents are teaching EFL for less than a year. Forty-one (41) respondents are teaching English only. Aside from teaching EFL, 25 respondents are teaching multiple subjects that includes Music and Sports, 11 respondents are teaching General Science, eight are teaching Mathematics, seven are teaching Social Studies, five respondents are teaching Computer, 1 respondent teaches Arts, one respondent teaches Chemistry, and one respondent teaches Nursing.

**VIII. Analysis and results**

The study shows that the strategies commonly used by Filipino EFL teachers in Thailand are playing English songs for listening, role-play for speaking, written spelling for writing, and Pictionary for reading. In addition, combination of multiple strategies played a great role in students’ learning engagement. They perceived that only watching English video clips in YouTube, oral spelling, drama/skit, singing, role-play, written spelling, flash cards, Pictionary, and Find-a-word games are the effective strategies in teaching EFL in all subjects as these could be done without boring the students.

In some cases, Filipino teachers who have been teaching in Thailand for 3 years or more can speak Thai fluently, thus, they are explaining most of the lessons in Thai. However, in some private schools, speaking Thai between Filipinos and the students is prohibited since the students would rely mostly on the translation given by the Filipino teachers rather than studying English by bringing dictionaries or reading English books.

A Filipino teacher teaching Physical Education, Science and English to anuban says that he “sings” the difficult words, so as to motivate the students to follow suit and to make the class enjoyable. After two years, his school was able to join spelling and skit competition in English for the first time and won third place.

**Problems encountered**

The Filipino teachers in urban areas ranked the problems in teaching EFL (listening) as follows: (1) Lacking or no audio equipment, (2) Rowdy students, (3) No speech laboratory, and (4) Noisy surroundings. In rural areas, the problems in teaching TEFL (listening) were: (1) Lacking or no audio equipment, (2) Rowdy students, (3) No permanent classroom, (4) No speech laboratory, and (5) Noisy surroundings.

Filipino teachers in EFL in both urban and rural areas ranked the problems in writing as follows: (1) Some students cannot write in English, (2) Some students are resistant to write
in English, and (3) Grammatical errors. One respondent observed that writing is not given importance compared to other skills.

Filipino teachers of EFL in urban areas ranked the problems in reading as follows: (1) Most students cannot read English, (2) Lack of reading materials in English, (3) Slow in reading, and (4) Some students lack comprehension. Filipino EFL teachers in rural areas ranked the problems in reading as follows: (1) Most students cannot read English, (2) Students lack comprehension, (3) Lack of English reading materials, and (4) slow in reading.

Interestingly, Filipino teachers observed that there is interconnection among the listed-problems. Teachers who are teaching in private schools and big government schools encountered few problems in EFL teaching.

The following tables show the strategies used by Filipino teachers in teaching EFL.
Table 1. Strategies mostly used by Filipino teachers in teaching EFL as to listening vis-à-vis their students’ level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Students</th>
<th>Playing English songs</th>
<th>Playing English video clips through YouTube</th>
<th>Power point presentation</th>
<th>Word Bingo</th>
<th>Watching English movies</th>
<th>Online ESL resources</th>
<th>Playing CDs for listening English</th>
<th>Multi-media book</th>
<th>Flash Cards</th>
<th>Vocabulary/Grammar-Translation</th>
<th>Combination of the listed</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Elementary</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College/University</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>20</strong></td>
<td><strong>10</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
<td><strong>1</strong></td>
<td><strong>58</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2
Strategies mostly used by Filipino teachers in teaching EFL as to speaking vis-à-vis their students’ level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Students</th>
<th>Strategies Used in Speaking</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Role-play</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Drama/ Skit performances</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oral spelling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Singing English songs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oral spelling</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tongue-twister exercises</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Free-talking activities</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Class Participation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Poetry Recital</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Debate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Combination of the listed</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Elementary</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College/University</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3  
Strategies mostly used by Filipino teachers in teaching EFL as to writing vis-à-vis their students’ level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Students</th>
<th>Written spelling</th>
<th>Crossword/Scrabble</th>
<th>Essay Writing</th>
<th>Writing experiences</th>
<th>Blogs</th>
<th>Poetry Writing</th>
<th>Imagery writing</th>
<th>Tracing and Coloring</th>
<th>Guided writing</th>
<th>Writing Weekly Journals</th>
<th>Combin- ation of any of the listed</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Elementary</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College/University</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

136
Table 4. Strategies mostly used by Filipino teachers in teaching EFL as to reading vis-à-vis their students’ level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Students</th>
<th>Strategies Used in Reading</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dictionary Games</td>
<td>DEAR Campaign</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Elementary</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College/University</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Perceived effects of the strategies to the students**

In an interview done to selected respondents, the effects of their strategies showed during the evaluations such as quizzes, examinations and recitations. Evidently, in most English competitions in Phitsanulok, Bangkok and Isaan areas, the coaches of the winning schools were Filipinos. But the best students were chosen and are trained better than their counterparts.

Most of the respondents, however, claim that due to lack of English materials and conversations outside of the school, the students oftentimes forget what they have learned, except the English songs. However, in the classroom settings there is still a need for further research to validate further the effects of these strategies.

**IX. Conclusion.**

Krashen’s Theory of Second Language Acquisition is relevant in this study because in whatever forms or strategies in teaching are helpful in the learning process of the students studying English as second language, be it singing, speaking, spelling, poetry recitation and reading because communication is a two way process. The messages which the teaching strategies would want to convey could be better understood depending also on the types of motivations the teachers employ in the classroom.

Based on the study, the Filipino teachers perceived that playing English songs through Youtube, singing and Pictionary are the effective methods in teaching EFL in all subjects at all levels.

Applying Krashen’s Theory, the strategies of the Filipino teachers in teaching EFL do not force the students to fully comprehend the lesson, instead the readiness of the students to learn and improve their English is more important than merely repetitions of words or phrases in hierarchical methods and conventional teaching which is merely focused on the teacher. Limited English conversations and reading materials outside the schools lessen the effectiveness of the strategies in schools.

It is recommended that a similar study be conducted but based on the respondents’ workplaces, i.e. strategies of TEFL teachers in rural and urban areas of Thailand; strategies in TEFL in Anuban/Prathom/Matthayom/University students vis-à-vis Thamada and English programs; comparative strategies of EFL teachers in public, temple, and private schools of Thailand.
X. Definition of Terms:

Anuban – This is the stage where children aged 3-6 are enrolled to teach basic skills such as identifying letters, singings, and mostly games. In the West, it is known as Nursery (Anuban 1) Kindergarten (Anuban 2) and Preparatory (Anuban 3).

Phrathom – istheequivalent of elementary levels, which is from Grade 1-6.

Matthayom – istheequivalent of Junior High School and Senior High School. In Thailand Junior High School is from Matthayom 1-3 and the Senior High School is from 5-6.

Thamada – it is a regular program in schools where all subjects are taught in Thai language. English is taught once a week. English books used in the program have Thai translations.

ESL – English as Second Language. ESL is taught by English teachers to a migrant students in their country, such as Canada, USA and United Kingdom.

EFL - English as Foreign Language. EFL is the correct term to use when a foreign teacher teaches in a certain non-English speaking country. However, ESL and EFL are interchangeable in Thailand.

References:


Data from the Philippine Embassy in Bangkok, Thailand
Teaching English at Primary School in Japan – Current Situation and the Issues

Keiko Yamauchi
Kobe Shoin Women’s University, Japan

Bio-Profile:

Keiko Yamauchi is an associate professor of English at Kobe Shoin Women’s University, Japan. She teaches English and Culture Studies at university; she is also in teacher training for TEYL. Two colleagues and she have recently been awarded a government grant to investigate effective TEES (age 6-12) in Japan.

Abstract:

Japan is in the middle of education reform: which will be carried out starting in 2020. The main issue among many is the compulsory implementation of English language from the 3rd grade in elementary school. Considering that English is so prevalent in both business and communication, school life expectancy is 15 years for both sexes, the GDP is the 5th largest in the world and Japan is one of the most technologically advanced countries in many fields, why has English not been a compulsory subject before now? Actually, English language first came to Japan about 200 years ago, and the language became a school subject although as an elective in primary school 150 years ago. Since the school system is not the same as in those days, it is not appropriate to compare, however, it shows that the implementation of English language in the early stage of school is nothing new. This study investigates the history and the background of this new implementation, and clarifies the still controversial issues. It will also argue that giving insufficient amount of additional/follow up training to primary school teachers who mostly have not been given training on teaching English to young learners will lead to ineffective teaching. The success or the failure of this reform might depend more on teachers than on teaching materials in Japan.

Keywords: TEYL(Teaching English to Young Learners), TEES(Teaching English at
Introduction

This paper is focusing on the current situation with teaching English at elementary school (TEES) in Japan. The country is in the middle of education reform on 2 pillars – revised Course of Study (Education Guideline) which includes moral education and TEES, and the system of university entrance examination. The reform act 2020 in Japan is perhaps not so drastic as K-12 in the Philippines, but when it comes to English, it certainly attracts huge attention from educators and parents to political and business fields. It may be a wonder why implementing English at elementary school is such an issue as growing use of English by L2 speakers is so prominent worldwide. The point of my making this research is that in spite of the growing demands of communicative English, it hasn’t been taught until the school children get 12 when they go to secondary school, which is very late in the global standard. Yet, when the reform act was planned and promulgated, every time, heated debate arose, and the huge adverse wind blew.

So this paper unravels the controversial issues of TEES in Japan in accordance with the background history, and argues the issues with emphasis on teachers.

1. Japanese school system and the statistics

Before going into details, the basic information about Japanese education system is shown in the chart1 taken from the Ministry of Education (hereafter MEXT). The compulsory education, starting at the age of 6 at elementary school, is 9 years up to the end of lower secondary education, although in reality almost all preschool age children either attend kindergarten or daycare, and the rate of students who attend high school surpassed
Chart 1. *Japanese School System (from Ministry of Education)*

90% in 1974 and keeps its current high rate of 97%. The following statistics are all from the MEXT, showing the changes between 1950 – 2009. The number of schools is in the fig. 2, with the top line showing the primary school with by far the biggest number of 22,258 in 2009 although gradually decreasing (it is 20,852 in 2014), followed by the kindergarten of

![Diagram of Japanese School System](image)

*Figure 2: The number of schools (from MEXT)*

13,516 (12,905 in 2014) and the third 10,864 (10,557 in 2014) of the lower secondary school.

To be noted is the sharp increase of kindergarten which has almost doubled by 1980, also the
significant decrease of miscellaneous schools which started as 3rd place in 1950.

Figure 3: The number of students: unit, 1000 persons (From MEXT)
As for the number of students shown in the fig. 3, the highest figure is elementary school children of 7,064,000 (6,600,006 in 2014), followed by close figure of 3,600,000 (3,504,334 in 2014) lower secondary, and 3,347,000 (3,334,019 in 2014) of upper secondary. The highest figure for the elementary school children was almost 14,000,000 in 1955-60 at its peak and the second peak came at 12,000,000 in the 1980’s but keep decreasing after 1985. Similarly the lower and upper secondary schools are facing the decrease of students in contrast to gentle and steady increase of kindergarten, university and junior college. Those figures very clearly show that Japan is facing a serious population implosion. The fertility rate has been declining accordingly and it is mere 1.41 children born to a mother in 2016. We also need to look at the figure of teachers shown in the fig. 4, which indicates inverse proportion to the number of students. The top line shows 420,000 elementary school
Figure 4. The number of teachers: unit 1,000 persons (from MEXT)

teachers. Then 251,000 lower secondary, and 239,000 upper secondary teachers respectively. Although the elementary school teachers kept increasing towards 80’s then steadily decreased as with the number of the students, but in 2000 the tendency changed and the teachers are again increasing. What is behind shall be discussed later in section 3.

2. Education reform of 2020 in Japan.

In Japanese compulsory education, National Curriculum is set at the Ministry of Education, and the Course of Study (education guideline) goes down to prefectural, then to municipal/district divisions for each local school to follow. This top-down direction applies to all public schools as well as private schools which consist about 10% of entire schools. This is to guarantee the quality of education wherever a school age child is, may she or he be in central Tokyo, or on a remote island, the same content is taught and the quality is to be guaranteed. Although of course, as Sakui (2004) points out “we need to examine in the real context” and not just see the “idealized version”.(abstract)

Since the new post war educational system had been set and the Basic Act on Education was put into effect in 1947, English started to be taught at secondary schools as an elective subject, then from 2003 a compulsory subject. Strangely however, the name of the subject has always been ‘foreign language’ and not specifically shown as English, which means that technically any foreign language could have been taught at secondary schools though of course it has always been English in reality. Apart from those relatively minor changes in
English, no drastic systematic reform has been issued, and the reform has been mostly the revision of the Course of Study to suit the time, conducted almost every 10 years. However, MEXT declared “the circumstances surrounding education have changed greatly in respects such as the progress of science and technology, advanced information technology, internationalization, the ageing society with falling birthrate, and family lifestyles. At the same time, the environment surrounding children has changed significantly, and a variety of issues have come to light. In light of such circumstances, the existing Basic Act on Education was completely revised and the revised law established in December 15, 2006.” (MEXT, Overview)

From then onward demand for earlier start of English accelerated.

The new education reform act of 2020 regarding English is to ‘aim to improve the quality of basic English education, and adequately prepare school children to be ready for middle school, then to higher education. Ultimately make graduates globally competitive in English communication.’ (MEXT, 2017)

The central issue concerning the elementary stage is that English is to be introduced as an “activity” in year 3 and 4 for 1 lesson per week, the total of 35 hours a year, and to be taught as a “formal school subject” for year 5 and 6 for 2 lessons per week, totaling 70 hours a year. All to be taught basically by classroom teachers.

TEES started with ‘Introduction of English’ or ‘Familiarize children with English’ (eigo ni nare-shitashimu) at elementary school in 2011. Then come 2020, English will be a formal subject in all elementary schools. The difference between 2011 reform and 2020 is that in 2011 the English at elementary school is not a formal subject but a rather ambiguous ‘activity’ treated as a ‘sub-subject’ which does not define textbooks, or children are not graded according to their academic performances, whereas the 2020 reform requires meticulous course description and objective to follow, including who to teach, and how to evaluate. The focus of the reform policy is the earlier start of English. Currently English as a proper subject at school is taught from middle school, at the age of 12 onward. Globally, it is considered as ‘too late’ and it may be a wonder ‘why is Japan so retarded?’ This will be discussed in the section 3.

Before that the background of the reform and clarification of the process to the reform both in society and education need to be mentioned.

2.1 Historical Background to Association with Foreign Languages

Japan’s association with foreign languages has been mainly with Portuguese, Spanish or Italian connected with Jesuits and Franciscans in the latter half of 16th century, apart from the Chinese influences from the much earlier time in history. In 1633, Tokugawa bakufu (Shogunate) issued the first national isolation policy, and revised the policy until it completely banned the entry of Portuguese trade ships and Europeans. Then afterwards when Catholicism
was severely banned came the Dutch, strictly for the trade purposes. The national seclusion/isolation, was more like Sea Traffic Ban and it officially continued until “Convention of Peace and Amity between the United States of America and the Empire of Japan” was issued in 1854. The association with English had to wait - with very few exceptions - until in 1853 Commodore Matthew Perry arrived on his Frigate in Kanagawa, near today’s Tokyo.

2.2 Educational Background to the Reform

The starting point of English-language education in Japan is considered 1814 when its first English-Japanese dictionary was compiled in that year. Prior to Commodore Perry’s arrival, when the country was still in isolation, actually a British frigate HMS Phaeton forced to land in Nagasaki in Kyushu in 1808, took hostages, demanded food and supplies, and then left. The only foreign languages known to then Japan had been Chinese and Dutch, so the English ‘invasion’ - however temporary, truly shook the country, not only politically but also emotionally and culturally. Promptly the government urged the necessity of compiling the dictionary. This way, the country has a history of associating with English just over 200 years. From then on, English as well as European languages like French, German, and also Russian with their military and medical advantages flooded into Japan and school English began.

English was desperately needed in a newly modernizing country. Acquisition and good command of English was the passport to ascend the social ladder and be successful, subsequently forming the systematic hierarchy with imperial universities at its top, completing in 1886. English education has been given to elite boys (Erikawa 2006, p13) starting at selected and exclusive elementary schools. In those days, Girls were also given opportunities in 1872 but not as open or as much as for boys. The very first government-run school in Tokyo put focus on English and taught by 3 American women, followed by another school set up in Kyoto in 1874 taught by British women. But apart from those 2 schools no more public schools were established and many girls had to wait for mission schools to arrive from overseas for the English education. (Erikawa 2006, pp13-14) In 1886 English began to be taught at public elementary school - co-ed though mostly boys attended - as an “additional subject” which is equivalent to elective in modern system.(Erikawa 2006, p164) Erikawa (2006) made a thorough and extensive research on the historical background of English education in Japan. According to his findings, it can be divided into 4 periods: the first is when it flourished in the 1880s and the period continued till 1911. The second is a short period of 7 years from 1912 to 1918, and this is considered an extremely stagnant period. However, in 1919 the number of schools that add English as the school subject jumped up, and resurgence of English takes place. Then the fourth is from 1941 till 1946 - the time of great war, thus turbulence, eventually
TEES has been conducted in the past but not for long. The prewar 4 periods starting in 1880’s tell that English as a school subject has been/is very easily affected by economic, political conditions of the time, and also by the achievement-oriented, performance-related educational climate of the country: after some years of study, and the performance is poor, it can be condemned as ‘worthless of study’, then study time gets reduced, or the subject is eliminated completely. This way English has had a turbulent time in Japan until it reappears with great enthusiasm in 1945.

2.3 Current Situation

The educational background to the reform or TEES actually is not a well known fact to the public; rough history of Japan with association of foreign languages, perhaps yes, as it is taught at history class, but not the fact that English has been taught at elementary school in the past, nor the background why it has been abandoned, and yet Japanese are still struggling acquiring communicative or verbal skills with English. The fig.5 showing parental expectation towards English language with children is the result of questionnaires conducted to parents of school age children in 2009 (360 respondents) prior to the heated discussion of TEES as a formal subject.

![Figure 5 Parental Expectation towards TEES (from Edvec Co.2009)](image)

It shows that majority of parents are all supportive of early start of learning English totaling more than 80%, and only 15.0% shown in the dark color express concern that it can wait, that implementing English at elementary level should take time and the effects need to be proven before decision should be made.
After 2011 all year 5 and year 6 students have started ‘English as an activity’, and the fig.6 is showing how the parents are reacting to the ‘activity’. The survey is conducted to 1,565 sets of parents of year 5 and year 6 students, in March 2015. It is very clear that more than half of the parents are not satisfied with the ‘activity’, that they think ‘activity’ is not effective for language learning. It corresponds to 2009 survey that parents are with high hope for their children’s English acquisition at early stage.

In 2013 Japan was 40th place out of 48 countries participated in the TOEIC test. In 2016 it ranked 41st out of 49 countries, with the mean score of 516. With the facts not only from those tests results but also pressures from business field as well as strong parental expectations, Shiobara & Yamauchi (2017) point that MEXT has decided to make English as a formal subject. However, this is not without problems. Issues will be discussed in the next section.

3 Current Issues

Parents and public opinions seem to support TEES, however, there are several problems unavoidable, and they can be divided into three: 1) Japanese cultural element, 2) teachers, and 3) allotment.

3.1 Japanese cultural element toward English

As hinted in the historical and education backgrounds to the reform in 2.1 & 2.2, Japan as a nation has a unique feature: the ethnic group is 98.5% Japanese and the immigrants rate is 1.88%, the population growth is minus 0.2% (-0.2% 2017 estimate), net migration rate is 0.
Life expectancy is 85 (total, female 88.5) and the fertility rate is 1.41 children born per woman. (World fact book 2016).

It has a 200 years period of isolation policy until 19th century, followed by the rapid westernization and modernization within few decades, English and other European languages have been vital. Many ‘elite’ boys contributed to the development of the country but, one more important element should not be ignored. That is since Meiji Era most if not all of the world knowledge, skills have been translated into Japanese producing massive amount of new vocabulary and study fields. If untranslatable, new words or codes were Japanized with pronunciation and inscription and added as borrowed words, or totally new words were invented so that everything could be taught in mother tongue, may it be science, medicine, humanities, literature, art or music, even foreign languages have been translated and taught in Japanese. This prompt translation of anything unknown or new produced otherwise unattainable attainable for anybody. For over a hundred years from nursery stage to utmost modern science it has been and is possible to achieve in Japanese institutions with Japanese language only. As Phyak (2015) states obtaining education in the dominant (mother) language only is the best option, Japanese can be considered lucky. From this translation oriented globalization two things can be assumed: one is that Japanese do not need English skills to acquire new innovative knowledge thus depriving of intrinsic motivation to study. The second one is that a systematic translation system is firmly established, and again depriving Japanese of intrinsic as well as extrinsic, or instrumental or integrative motivations. As for English at secondary schools, traditionally it has been taught as a subject of study or knowledge rather than a skill to ‘use’, so that students have been made to learn grammar, comprehension and translation by rote learning. In reality though, even many ‘wish’ to be able to ‘use’ English, Terawawa (2013) revealed in his statistical study that less than 10% of Japanese workers used English at workplace, and he discussed the validity of foreign language policy. In a very homogeneous, zero land boundary country, with extremely small number of migrants, people can enjoy safe and comfortable, longer life without the benefit of English language.

3.2 The issue of teachers.

Earlier this paper mentioned the inverse proportion of teachers against students, that even though the decrease of elementary school children was prominent, teachers began increasing since 2000. One reason is the introduction of smaller classes. The smaller the class size is, the more teachers are needed as the conventional classes are simply divided into smaller size, thus more classes. Also more teachers are employed for the increasing number of children who need special care. According to the 2014 MEXT data, the number of full time teachers at
elementary school is 416,475, but there are also 34,956 part-timers, totaling 451,431.

Does the increased number of teachers benefit TEES? Basically primary school teachers are not, haven’t been trained for teaching English, apart from their own study at university. They are busy enough with increased workloads; they are required not only teach but be in charge of diverse needs of children and the parents, required to complete multiplied amount of paperwork, with no salary increase. TEES mainly means additional task and responsibility for the teachers. Unlike parents, many elementary school teachers were unwilling to the TEES. However, the strong opposition began to cease and more teachers, especially with the younger generation start accepting the responsibility, more cooperative, but bewildered what to do, and struggling with extra burden of teaching English.

The MEXT insists that it will promote ‘English leaders’ and those leaders subsequently deliver their trained know-hows and navigate the sub-leaders, which sounds reasonable enough except when it comes to the actual figure – MEXT is appointing only 1,000 teachers as leaders to be ready for the coming 2020. There will be 20,000 sub leaders, supplying barely one teacher per school. There are 450,000 elementary school teachers, of them classroom teachers of year 3 and up are more than 144,000. Teaching English license holder is 5%, sub 1 English proficiency qualification holder is 0.8% (‘sub 1’ is the second highest grade of the test, 1 as the best). Practically no special linguists, 1,000 ‘leaders’, and 20,000 sub leaders can not be enough in response to the need to prepare for the 2020 start.

Not only paucity of English teachers in quantity, there are concerns of intellectual as well as psychological aspects. The fig.6 is the result of survey conducted to 100 teachers in charge or year 5 and 6 in 2016 by Mainichi daily newspaper company. It shows half of the teachers are against the TEES as a formal subject even though 2020 is not far away.

Figure.6. Teacher survey (from Mainichi Daily 2016)
The same survey reveals that only 11% of the teachers think the ‘leaders and sub leaders’ are
enough to start the 2020 English. As Lepkowska (2011) quoted when a teacher whose foreign language knowledge was many years old, it was ‘daunting’ and ‘scary’ to teach the elementary class the language. She also quoted that a teacher lacked in confidence and needed reassurance. The same applies to Japanese teachers of TEES.

3.2 The Issue of Allotment

The reform act requires extra 2 classes a week for year 5 and 6, and 1 class for year 3 and 4. Timetable at elementary school is bound strictly by the national Course of Study, usually leaves no time space for additional classes to be inserted in. Yet it has to be done, and there is not set model as MEXT indicates each school to ‘consider and adapt’ to the individual situation and condition. At the moment each school is contriving to allot a class or 2 in a week: ideas vary from applying 15minutes modules, extra 10minutes prior to the 1st period every morning, to negotiating with union for an extended full class in a week. MEXT further imposes of using parts of long vacations, i.e. a week from a summer holiday or a few days off a winter holiday, so as to make up a total of 35 or 70 hours a year. This is a technical problem imposed on teachers.

4. Conclusion

This paper unraveled the conflict of 2020 reform and clarified the 3 issues exclusive in Japan. The cause that Japanese as general are week at communicative English can trace back to the ways English has been taught as well as the influence of Japanese culture. In order to improve the situation the reform act 2020 is put into effect, however evidence shows while parents and public opinions are supportive of TEES, teachers stand at conflictual relation to the dominant public.

To conclude, besides the issues discussed here, more to be focused in an SLA context is the total amount of study for a successful achievement. Jackson and Kaplan (1999) estimated that native English speakers who are highly motivated with prior knowledge of more than one language can become proficient in languages closely cognate with English, such as French or German in about 600 hours. But with extremely distant languages such as Japanese it could take more than 2000 hours. Shiobara insists (Shiobara 2013) that Japanese students need more than 2000 hours if not 10,000, based on the findings by Jackson and Kaplan (1999) and Archibald et al.(2007). Currently Japanese students have a little over 700 hours of learning English in total, elementary school included, which is far less than desired. Elementary teachers are challenged in many ways but they also need to know that TEES can not be the solution to the national improvement of English skills. Teachers must be given more opportunities and
sessions to up-skill their knowledge, which can be more viable through virtual learning environment. They also need to be encouraged so that they can discard their self-consciousness, reluctance or even fear. After all, the success or the failure of this reform and TEES might depend more on teachers than any other elements.

This is an original publication which has not been published elsewhere and is not under consideration elsewhere.

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Conference Proceedings
Phonological Variations in the Speech of Laboratory Science High School Students

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Bio-Profile:

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Abstract

The study attempted to determine the profile of the students in terms of age, sex, grade level, and school type; and uncover the most and least obvious phonological variation in the speech patterns of the students in terms of age, sex, grade level, and school type. Descriptive method was utilized. A total of 122 students participated in the study. Two instruments were used: checklist and interview prompts. Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions were made: (1) Overall, the data collected in this study proved that phonological variation did occur in the speech patterns of the science high school students of Cavite State University-Naic; (2) Thirteen-year-old students were consistent in creating the most obvious substitution or merger of the consonants under study, that is, /v/, /f/, and /z/; (3) Boys were constantly the ones who displayed the most obvious phonological variations in all 3 consonants; (4) Those in grade 8 who happened to be aged 13 exhibited the most obvious variations in all 3 consonants; (5) Students who came from public elementary schools displayed the most obvious variation but only in /f/ and /v/. In /z/, those who graduated from private elementary schools showed the most obvious variation; and (6) The two variables stated in the preceding paragraph, that is, grade level and school type, are probably what set this study apart because these two were not considered as factors affecting phonological variation in the speech patterns of an individual.
Keywords: Philippine English (PE), Phonological variation, Basilectal speakers of PE.

Introduction

The variety of English Filipinos speak is known as Philippine English (PE) which is tagged as one of the “new Englishes” just like Singapore English, Malaysian English, Indian English and Hongkong English (Bautista, 2008). One point of curiosity, however, is how the phonology of PE similar to and different from “older Englishes” most particularly the General American English (GAE) where PE emanated (Tayao, 2004).

It has been noted that as early as the primary grades, students are taught how to produce English sounds based on the phonology of the General American English. In fact, in the new K-12 program of the Department of Education, a student’s exposure to the English language as a medium of instruction in the elementary grades is roughly 943 hours for English and 1010 hours for Math and Science subjects, respectively. In spite of this, Filipinos in general and students in particular, are still pronouncing English words differently, at least in the case of few sounds, especially in casual speech. Could it be a product of merger or assimilation of two sound systems, one of which is American English and the other, Philippine English?

In his article, Llamzon (1997) classified Filipino English speakers as acrolects (roughly resembling the phonological system of GAE), mesolects (falling between the phonological characteristics of acrolects and basilects), and basilects (relying heavily on the phonological features of the mother tongue). This classification was later adapted by Tayao (2004) and Regala-Flores (2014) among others in their own lectal descriptions of PE phonology. In the same manner, Peña (1997) used the above cited classification to describe PE in the classroom. She perceived that “many school people like students, may be construed as … basilectal”.

Research Objectives

The premise of this study is to find out if the conclusion of Peña is still true to the present generation of Filipino students.

Specifically, this study aimed to:

1. determine the profile of the laboratory science high school students in Cavite State University-Naic in terms of age, sex, grade level, and school type; and
2. determine where phonological variation is most and least obvious in terms of age, sex, grade level, and school type as evidenced in the speech patterns of the students.
Literature Review

Phonological variation and social factors

Several studies have examined the influence of social factors such as age, gender, education, origin, social class, religion and occupation on the choice of linguistic variants. One of the pioneering studies is Labov’s (1966). He examines how social factors such as age, style and social class affect r-pronunciation. His results show that r-production increases with social class, consciousness and formality of speech. Following Labov’s footsteps, Trudgill (1974) demonstrates that an increase in social class and formality results in a higher tendency in the occurrence of standard variants. Milroy and Milroy (1978) notice that increases in the strength of social networks lead to increases in the use of certain linguistic features of a vernacular.

In another study conducted by Trudgill (1983), it was discovered that the social variables affect the probability of linguistic variant selection. These variables include, among others, gender, age, social class, social network, education, ethnicity and religion. They differ from one speech community to another because each society has its own social norms. Each factor has been known to influence the probability of variant occurrence. As indicated in most co-relational studies in sociolinguistics, males and females differ within each age group, social class, social network, educational group, ethnicity, race and religion. For instance, females have a higher tendency than males to use the prestigious varieties in their society.

Additionally, the study conducted by Al-Ali and Arafa (2010) revealed how sex and educational setting affect sound variation. Educational system or school background showed a little influence in phonological change. While in sex, women in nature are expected to show softness while men reveal their macho and tough nature.

Phonological features of Philippine English

Philippine English (PE), that is, the English spoken by Filipinos is considered one of the “new Englishes” just like Singapore English, Malaysian English, Indian English and Hongkong English (Bautista, 2008). As such, it is deemed to be a legitimate variety of English.

Bautista (2008), in her article, mentioned that “in not-so-highly-educated PE pronunciation, the consonants /p/ and /f/, /b/ and /v/ have the same pronunciation” (p. 23) such that pour and four, bat and vat are pronounced in a similar manner.

McArthur (1998) also had the same observation because in PE the distinction between /s/, /z/ and /ʃ/, /ʒ/ is not made: azure is ‘ayshure’, pleasure ‘pleshure’, seize ‘sees’, cars ‘karss’.

In a study conducted by Tayao (1999), she found out that Filipinos would substitute consonants /l/ and /v/ for other sounds in their native tongue and the coalesced categories like the sibilant /z/ was replaced by /s/ since it is the only sibilant sound in most Philippine
languages. There were three groups of respondents in Tayao’s study: an acrolect group (whose first or home language is English and whose occupation or profession entails extensive use of English) consisting of 30 respondents; mesolect group (professionals whose work necessitates the use of English and prefer to use their native tongue rather than English in other domains) consisting of 30 respondents; and basilect group (sub-professionals whose use of English is limited to job-related topics or interacting with superiors) consisting of 20 respondents.

Regala-Flores (2016), on the other hand, attempted to make a similar study but concentrated only on the basilectal Philippine English among what she called minimally functionally literate Filipinos like jeepney drivers, nannies, janitors, market vendors from the Visayas region. Results of her study showed that at the segmental and suprasegmental level, the Cebuano speakers do not deviate much from the GAE pattern.

**Interview as tool in sociolinguistics research**

William Labov (1966), an American sociolinguist made a preliminary study which led to the definition of major phonological variables which were to be studied in the presence or absence of consonantal [r]. He found out which departments were on the fourth floor in the three New York department stores. He asked many shop assistants question such as ‘Excuse me, where are children’s coat?’ The answer to each of the queries was ‘On the fourth floor’, which included two words that could each contain an [r].

After this preliminary survey, Labov then examined the speech of each class of person in more detail. Perhaps predictably, he found that [r] was inserted much more frequently in careful speech and in the reading of word list than in casual speech. In this work of Labov, it was revealed that lower-middle-class speakers are more consciously aware of speech as an indicator of social class and are making efforts to improve their status.

This study also made use of interview to elicit data from the students. Unlike the studies enumerated here, the present paper conducted the study in a school setting, specifically in one of the state universities in the southern part of the Philippines using authentic students from a science curriculum which set it apart from the rest.

**Research design**

The descriptive method was used in this study. Descriptive research describes the phenomena being studied. Data are gathered and descriptive statistics are then used to analyze such data. Descriptive research typically describes what appears to be happening and what the important variables seem to be (Lomax & Li, 2013).
In this particular study, possible instances of phonological variations as evidenced in the speech of the students were looked into in terms of age, sex, grade level, and school type.

**Participants**

The participants in the study were 122 science high school students comprising the entire population. The breakdown is as follows: grade 7, 34 students; grade 8, 27 students; grade 9, 31 students; and 4th year, 30 students. In this study, the whole population was used since it is very small in number so sampling was not necessary.

The age of these students ranges from 11 to 16 as shown in Table 1. The table also shows the frequency of students per age.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>22</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>122</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows the breakdown of the participants according to sex. It also reveals that there are more female participants than male participants.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>122</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 illustrates the number of respondents per grade level. Based on the table, grade 7 has the most number of participants and grade 8 has the least.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
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<tr>
<td>Grade 7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Grade 8</td>
<td>27</td>
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<tr>
<td>Grade 9</td>
<td>31</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fourth year</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 indicates the classification of respondents based on school type. Apparently, majority of the participants came from public elementary schools.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>122</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research instrument

The researchers used two sets of instruments. The first was a checklist to determine personal information of students that include age, sex, grade level, and school type. Also in the checklist is the set of consonants under study. The second instrument was a set of questions used in the actual live interview with the students to find out any phonological change in the answers that will be drawn from them.
Data Collection

First, the researcher determined the participants. Afterwards, she sought the permission of the respective subject teachers to conduct an interview with the students via a request letter. Once approved, the researcher assigned her students to get the necessary information from the participants per grade level. The data that were obtained include: name, age, and sex.

Then, interview ensued. The researcher’s students asked the participants questions that would elicit data. Responses of students were recorded using a checklist of consonants under study. Data were subsequently tallied and converted into percentage.

Data analysis

Data were analyzed by determining the tally and percentage of the participants according to age, sex, grade level, and school types.

The formula is:

\[
\text{Percentage} = \frac{F}{N} \times 100
\]

Where:

- \(F\) = Frequency of Participants/Responses
- \(N\) = Total Number of Participants
- 100 = Constant Factor/Value

Findings and Discussion

The following discussion details the profile of the student-participants in terms of age, sex, grade level, and school type.

Table 5 shows the profile of students in terms of their age. Aged 14 is the most numbered with thirty-three (33) comprising 27.05% of students, followed by aged 15 with twenty-seven (27) comprising 22.13%, then age 12 with twenty-five (25) comprising 20.49%, aged 13 with twenty-two (22) comprising 18.03%, aged 16 with twelve (12) comprising 9.84%, and the least numbered is aged 11 with thee (3) comprising 2.46% of students.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>18.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>27.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows the breakdown of the respondents according to sex and the equivalent percentage. Apparently, girls are the most numbered participants with seventy-three (73) covering 59.84% of the total population while boys with forty-nine (49) covering 40.16% of the population.

Table 6  
*Distribution of Participants by Sex*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>40.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>59.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 illustrates the number of respondents per grade level with the corresponding percentage. Grade 7 has the highest number of student-participants with thirty-four (34) which is equivalent to 27.87% of the population, followed by Grade 9 with thirty-one (31) which is equivalent to 25.41%, then Fourth year with thirty (30) students which is equivalent to 24.59%, and the lowest number of population with twenty-seven (27) or 22.13% is Grade 8.

Table 7  
*Distribution of Participants by Grade Level*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade 7</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>27.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 8</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>25.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth year</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>24.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8 indicates the classification of respondents based on school type with the equivalent percentage. Those students who came from public school comprised of ninety-three
(93) or 76.23% of the population. However, those who came from private comprised of twenty-nine (29) students or 21.31% of the population.

Table 8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Type</th>
<th>Tally</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>76.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>21.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The succeeding paragraphs explain where phonological variations are most and least obvious in the production of /f/, /v/, and /z/ in terms of age, sex, grade level, and school type.

Figure 2 shows that phonological variation, that is, the instance where /f/ was merged with /p/ was most obvious in the speech of 13-year old students with the equivalent of 36.36% followed by the 12-year-old students with 32% then by 15-year-old students with 22.22%. Apparently, 14-year old students manifested less phonological variation in /f/ with 6.06%.

Figure 2. Phonological variation in the production of /f/ by age.

In the case of sex, figure 3 indicates that boys were most obvious in merging /f/ and /b/ with 34.69%. On the other hand, girls were least obvious in varying /f/ with /b/ with 16.44%.
Figure 3. *Phonological variation in the production of /f/ by sex.*

For the grade level, the data in figure 4 reveals that grade 8 made the most obvious phonological variation with 29.63% but closely followed by grade 7 with 29.41%. Next was Fourth year with 26.67%.

Seemingly, grade 9 made the least obvious variation with 9.68%.

Figure 4. *Phonological variation in the production of /f/ by grade level.*

As to school type, figure 5 demonstrates that students who came from public schools displayed greater phonological variation with 25.81% than those who came from private schools with 17.24%.
Students aged 13 showed the most obvious variation in the production of /v/ with 36.36%. Following closely were 14-year-old students with 30.03%. Next were students aged 15 with 11.11%. Surprisingly, 16-year-old students did not commit phonological variation in /v/. These data were shown in figure 6.

Between the two sexes, the boys did the most obvious phonological variation in the production of /v/ with 34.61% while the girls had the least obvious with 16.44% as shown in figure 7.
For grade level, grade 8 made the most obvious phonological variation in the production of /v/ with 40.74%. Grade 7 was next with 26.47% then grade 9 with 25.81%. Fourth Year displayed the least obvious variation with 3.33% as shown in figure 8.

Regarding grade level, figure 9 shows that graduates of public schools exhibited the most obvious variation in the production of /v/ with 26.88% while graduates of private schools revealed the least obvious variation with 13.79%.
In terms of age, figure 10 indicates that 13-year old students displayed the most obvious phonological variation in the production of the sibilant /z/ with 45.45% closely followed by students aged 14 with 42.42%. 11-year old students came next with 33.33% then students aged 15-year old with 25.93% which is tightly followed by 16-year-old students with 25%. Students aged 12 showed the least obvious variation with 12%.

With regards sex, figure 11 reveals that boys demonstrated the most obvious phonological variation in the production of /z/ with 32.65%. Girls, however, showed the least obvious variation with 16.44%.
In terms of grade level, grade 8 exhibited the most obvious phonological variation in the production of /z/ with 66.67% which is way far from fourth year with 26.67% and grade 9 with 22.58%. On the other hand, grade 7 displayed the least obvious variation with 14.71%. These data are shown in figure 12.

Finally, as to school type, students from private schools showed the most obvious variation in the production of /z/ with 34.48% while those from public schools displayed the least obvious variation with 30.11% as reflected in figure 13.
Overall, the data collected in this study proved that phonological variation did occur in the speech patterns of the science high school students of Cavite State University-Naic as specified in Table 9. These findings matched with the previous foreign studies pioneered by Labov (1966) and the local works spearheaded by Llamzon (1997) and later adapted by Tayao (2009) and Regala-Flores (2016). The results are also consistent with the observation of Bautista (2008) and McArthur (1998) as revealed in the summary table below.

Table 9

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Phonological Variation /f/</th>
<th>Phonological Variation /v/</th>
<th>Phonological Variation /z/</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Most Obvious: 13</td>
<td>Most Obvious: 13</td>
<td>Most Obvious: 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Least Obvious: 14</td>
<td>Least Obvious: 16</td>
<td>Least Obvious: 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>Boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>Girls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade Level</td>
<td>Grade 8</td>
<td>Grade 8</td>
<td>Grade 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fourth Year</td>
<td>Fourth Year</td>
<td>Fourth Year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Type</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Public</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Private</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interestingly, 13-year-old students were constant in creating the most obvious substitution or merger of the consonants under study. The age of students which manifested
variations differed from one consonant to another with aged 14 for /f/, aged 16 for /v/, and aged 12 for /z/. In Sankoff’s (1995) study, age of an individual showed a small effect on sound variation. The current study, however, found out that phonological variation differs across ages in the correct production of all the consonants under investigation.

As to sex, boys were constantly the ones who displayed the most obvious phonological variations in all three consonants while girls exhibited the least obvious variation. Such result confirmed linguists’ observation that females have a higher tendency than males to use the prestigious varieties in their society as proven in the study of Trudgill (1983).

Just like the 13-year old students, those in grade 8 exhibited the most obvious variations in all three consonants. Apparently, majority of the grade 8 students are aged 13. Regarding school type, students who came from public elementary schools displayed the most obvious variation but only in /f/ and /v/. In /z/, those who graduated from private elementary schools showed the most obvious variation.

The two variables stated in the preceding paragraph, that is, grade level and school type, are probably what set this study apart because these two were not considered as factors affecting phonological variation in the speech patterns of an individual.

This study also proved the absence of /f/, /v/, and /z/ in the consonants of Philippine English in the basilectal level as provided in Tayao’s (2004) paper.

Conclusions
This study attempted to investigate the phonological variation in the speech of science high school students of Cavite State University-Naic, SY 2014-2015.

Descriptive method was utilized. There were 122 students who participated in the study comprising the entire population of science high school. The study tried to determine the profile of the students in terms of age, sex, grade level, and school type. It also uncovered where phonological variation in the speech patterns of the students most and least obvious in terms of the variables enumerated in the preceding statement.

The following were concluded based on the findings of the study: (1) Overall, the data collected in this study proved that phonological variation did occur in the speech patterns of the science high school students of Cavite State University-Naic; (2) Thirteen-year old students were constant in creating the most obvious substitution or merger of the consonants under study. The age of students which manifested variations differed from one consonant to another with aged 14 for /f/, aged 16 for /v/, and aged 12 for /z/; (3) Boys were constantly the ones who
displayed the most obvious phonological variations in all three consonants while girls exhibited the least obvious variation; (4) Those in grade 8 exhibited the most obvious variations in all three consonants. Apparently, majority of the grade 8 students are aged 13. The grade level of students which manifested variations differed from one consonant to another with grade 9 for /f/, Fourth year for /v/, and grade 7 for /z/. These conclusions matched that of age; (5) Students who came from public elementary schools displayed the most obvious variation but only in /f/ and /v/. In /z/, those who graduated from private elementary schools showed the most obvious variation; and (6) The two variables stated in the preceding paragraph, that is, grade level and school type, are probably what set this study apart because these two were not considered as factors affecting phonological variation in the speech patterns of an individual.

**Implications**

The findings of this study imply that phonological awareness instruction which is supposed to be introduced in the early grades in the Philippine setting be revisited so that students who graduate from the basic education will manifest the General American English at least in the classrooms and/or in academic fora. Also, the study suggests that more up-to-date materials on phonological awareness be developed to support instruction. Lastly, this study indicates that extension project in the form of phonological awareness instruction be carried out to back up early grade teachers via remedial or corrective teaching.

**References**


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Teaching English Through Content for Non-English Department College Students: A Perspective Study

Mozes Kurniawan

Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:
Mozes Kurniawan is one of lecturers in Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana, Indonesia. His study background is in English Language Education and Educational Management. He is currently interested in conducting research in the field of Technology-Enhanced Language Learning. He will be glad to be contacted to share experiences via mailbox.mozeskurniawan@gmail.com.

Abstract
English, nowadays, becomes a limelight of all countries in almost all aspect of life. Most of them consider English as their official language while some others do efforts to master it in order to compete internationally. In one hand, English is perceived as something useful and important. In another hand, there are people who still cannot master English optimally because of many reasons. Those who are not English department students face the difficulties of mastering English since there are only a little time allocation of English Language Teaching (ELT) in college curriculum. Regarding the problem, there is an idea of how English is taught through another way of teaching. Here, English is taught through content in certain courses for non-English department college students adapting Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach. This research aims to provide a crystal-clear image of non-English department students’ English language learning, the implementation of CLIL approach in learning English through subject contents and students’ perspectives toward learning English based on CLIL approach. The participants were 22 students from Early Childhood Teacher Education study program at Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana, Indonesia. The result of this study showed that all the participants admitted that English is important and should be mastered,
In 21st century, there appears a new trend that is foreign language learning. It becomes so popular for people all over the world. The trend is grounded by understanding that foreign language mastery brings opportunity to be a part of the global community as well as to catch good chances from it. The most popular foreign language learnt by people in the world is English (Mirabela & Ariana, 2013). English is believed as a key to achieving opportunities and success. Robinson (2012) mentioned a straightforward statement: “If you want a good job, you should be able to speak English.” The word ‘speak’ does not only mean to produce language expression in English but also contains the idea of acquiring English as one of languages used in daily life. The statement sounds so strict and arrogant but tells truth that if people want to develop their career and life’s goodness, they ought to have English proficiency.

To be proficient in English, people among nations require to have an awareness that English is definitely important and valuable. They also need to think of possibilities of teaching it in effective and meaningful ways. Indonesia is one of countries who have already developed English previous learning did not effective and attract students’ interest. CLIL approach was considered as a good and interesting ways for learning and mastering English.
the awareness. In national curriculum of Indonesia, English has been included as one of core subjects in almost all formal education institution (Yulia, 2013). However, Indonesia encounters challenges beyond the prior expectation. English education in Indonesia still encounters problems and dynamics in its real practices. One of the challenges is the strong usage of mother tongue, Bahasa Indonesia, in almost aspects of life. Bahasa Indonesia or Indonesian language as the mother tongue contributes to the restriction of English language development (Megaiab, 2014). Another challenge encountered is limited time allocation of English language learning in formal education curriculum (Yulia, 2013).

Similar condition is also encountered by the researcher in this study. In higher education curriculum of Early Childhood Teacher Education study program at Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana Indonesia, the allocation for English language learning is limited to merely 2 English courses and each course values as many as 2 credit-semester (approximately 2 hours learning in a week). This fact triggered problems to happen such as students’ lack of English proficiency. Students tend to be passive when they are required to speak up English words or expressions. They found difficulties in understanding reading text and spoken words as well as lack of English writing skill. On regard to the fact that English is considered as an important language in this global era, educators as well as practitioners should find and develop meaningful ways to teach English in Indonesia.

Based on the problems found, this is an idea in enlarging Indonesian students’ opportunity to learn English regarding the reality that its time allocation is limited. The idea is derived from Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach. This approach is simply defined as learning content knowledge of a certain subject by using language and learning language features through subject content delivery. This concept is adopted as an alternative way responding the problem of limited time allocation in English language learning. Thus, this research aims to provide a crystal-clear image of non-English department students’ English language learning, the implementation of CLIL approach in learning English through subject contents and students’ perspectives toward learning English based on CLIL approach.

**Literature Review**

**The Importance of English in Global Era**

The 21st century is marked by various significant changes. One of the changes is a shift from ‘imperialism’ to ‘globalization’ (Smith, in Gavran, 2013). The shift brought an effect on the raising demand of English Language Learning (ELL) among nation in this global era. It did not only become popular but also brought up some complex perspectives toward the issue. It
was happened because English is considered as a gate to achieve many opportunities in social life.

People in most of nations around the world urge to learn English due to personal purposes. An example comes from Korea whose people do effort to learn this global language. Korea caught the notion of English as international language and design further action with English as a skill driven their action. Korean people used English as a medium to learn other subject knowledge such as science and technical engineering (Lankov, in Gavran, 2013). Besides, Japan has done similar thing by using English in television commercials. Japanese people believed that English used in their daily life as to promote their local product and market their services, they have joined the international community. By using English in social media and other communication tools, they found their selves participating in global citizenship (Haarmann, in Gavran, 2013).

Furthermore, Mahu (2012) mentioned some reasons why English is so important to be learned. First, English is the first priority of spoken language all over the world. By mastering it, the speakers are able to communicate to people wider than their national zone. Second, English enables its speakers to enjoy English-based performance. The performance using English as the medium are like world-class entertainment, performing arts, and trip across nations. Then, English can also become the foundation of career development. There are many occupations require the applicants to have English proficiency at a certain level. English, moreover, is called by ‘a must’ to learn when someone is intending to raise his/her professional career (Robinson, 2012). Other area requires English proficiency is higher educations. By mastering English, people have chances to win abroad scholarship and develop their knowledge and experience.

**Non-English Department Students’ English Competence**

There were many things grounding the demand of English worldwide as mentioned previously. To be one of those who gain the betterment of life, people need to master English at certain level and in equally English skills. In general, there are four basic English skills namely speaking, listening, reading and writing. Speaking and writing are included in productive or expressive language skill while listening and reading are included in receptive language skill (Megaiab, 2014). To have a holistic English competence, people need to invest their time leaning and developing it continuously.

However, in Indonesia, people tend to have a low level of English language competence particularly those whose background is not from non-international language development program such as English language education, public relation. And international relation. It was
proven by mistakes made by people in using English (Megaiab, 2014). English skills are needed for those who want to develop career in education, mass media, journalistic, and those who want to achieve international grants and scholarships. In addition, non-English department students performed errors in understanding verbal as well as non-verbal English material. A research conducted by Arifin (2016) revealed that non-English department students’ lack of English proficiency was caused by some factors. First, students have less focus on ELL. They did not make English as one of priorities in their education. Though they do not need to dig and deepen the substance, they ought to learn English as what they did to other core courses.

Second, limited time allocation of ELL contributed to students’ lack of English proficiency. Yulia (2013), in a research about Indonesian people’s English competence, explained that time allocation indirectly affected students’ competence. The idea is in line with other research mentioned that ELL in formal education did not have sufficient exposure and environment to practice so researchers worked hard to develop possibilities such as teaching English through mobile devices application to build supported environment and habituation (Kurniawan, 2017). To be able to learn and acquire a proper English, people need a space to practice and expose unlimitedly.

**Content and Language Integrated Approach**

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is an educational approach focusing learning on two aspects i.e. content and language (Coyle et al, 2010). CLIL is also defined as a language learning approach whose target language is used as medium of instruction in delivering content knowledge and content of certain subjects are used to learn language features (Haris & Duibhir, 2011). This approach is believed to benefit pupils in language mastery in this case English and develop their knowledge in their subject area for they will learn subject matter as well as language features in a package.

CLIL approach enhanced the opportunity of learners to learn content and English simultaneously, innovate the ways of learning and shape learners’ English language learning habits. By using English in teaching subject content and teaching English by the content, learners increase their interaction to English and its usage. This kind of habituation is believed to make learners accustomed to English and unconsciously improve their certain skills (Kurniawan, 2017). Liubiniene (in Mourssi, 2014) added that CLIL helped learners integrating their knowledge and personal experience by learning target language through subject content that they are fond of. By choosing the right subject content and materials which potentially answer their needs, internalization of English features and knowledge is accepted and much easier.
Marsh et al (in Bonces, 2012) mentioned five essentials from CLIL approach such as: 1) *culture*, learners are introduced by intercultural learning concept which combine two features in one core discussion in the same instructional setting. By having a new learning culture, it enables learners to know a broader context; 2) *environment*, someone engaged in CLIL is given a larger space in learning target language while they are also learning particular subject content. This environment brings students to have more foreign language exposure; 3) *content*, by adopting CLIL, students are invited in learning subject matter in a new way, different perspectives and innovative delivery; 4) *learning*, those who join in CLIL are equipped by learning strategy suited to their learning style and needs. Grounded by Student-Centered Learning (SCL), CLIL puts more attention on students’ instructional needs and wants; 5) *language*, language is a primary tool in CLIL approach. In order to improve target language skill, particularly English, learners learn the whole and general principles of English namely speaking, listening, reading and writing skill.

**Methodology**

This study used a qualitative method as the core method of research. The aim of this study was to gain college students’ opinion toward ELL they have experienced previously. Twenty-two students who were invited as the participants were coming from Early Childhood Teacher Education program at Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana, Indonesia in their third trimester academic year 2016/2017. They were demanded to respond some questions about time allocation, teaching learning process and recent effect of their past ELL. By implementing CLIL approach in responding to ELL challenge in the research setting, non-English department students’ perspectives were analyzed to get a developed concept and fundamental ideas in a form of descriptive delivery. The primary data was gathered by using triangulation between open-ended questionnaire, focused-group discussion (FGD) and semi-structured interview (if needed). The data gathered, then, was analyzed qualitatively using substantial categories determined by the researcher based on the aims of this study.

**Findings & Discussion**

**Non-English Department Students’ ELL in Higher Education Setting**

Before directing to the real condition of ELL in higher education, it was preceded by the voice of participants about the importance of English based on their point of view. All participants (100%) engaged in this research stated that English is considered as an important language in most aspects of life. They mentioned that English should be one of languages,
besides the mother tongue, that is mastered in this global era. There were some reasons grounding this statement. First, English is viewed as important language since it answers people’s personal needs. Five participants (22.7%) shared their voices that there are things they can achieved only by using English as the medium. This idea is in accordance with Gavran, Lankov and Haarmann mentioning that English can be a supportive tool to get benefits from this globalization. Teaching learning process, especially in higher education setting is believed encouraged significantly by using English as a supportive language. By mastering English, lecturers as well as college students are able to prepare for better education. It is because lecturers can access much broader teaching resources, normally written in English, and develop teaching material accordingly. English helps them to understand a deeper content of knowledge that, later on, will be a reliable source for teaching learning process. At the same time, students can learn language feature from CLIL adopted material by lecturers.

Besides, there were 6 participants (27.3%) stated that English is important since it is a wide-used language or global language. English, used internationally, triggered them to learn it since they have a picture in mine that English is a key to be able to communicate and build relations among nations. On regard to the improvement of education in Indonesia, a well relationship and communication to experts from many countries gives additional insight, inspiration and motivation to make education in Indonesia well developed. To be able to make a dialogue to educational practitioners across nations, people should acquire English. This idea is in line with Mahu’s opinion about English the first spoken language used internationally as a key to participate in global community. The other reason underlining the idea of the importance of English nowadays is English answers the recent demand in daily life. Around 50% of the participants mentioned that English become the requirements to get a better job. At certain levels, English also become the prerequisite for those who want to pursue higher education.

Knowing that English is perceived as an important language based on participants’ voices, it was not in line with the real condition of ELL in higher education setting. Most of participants (86.4%) responded that English, particularly in higher education, possessed a limited time allocation. In Early Childhood Teacher Education program, ELL was only valued by 2 credit semesters for as much as 100 minutes per meeting in a week. Learners need much more time to be able to learn English since they are in a way developing additional skills namely English proficiency, substantial knowledge for early childhood education and some others. They felt that their English proficiency was not sufficient to be able to achieve opportunities from global community. The rest of participants (13.6%) said that time allocation
for ELL in their study program was enough since they thought that English was just an additional language and it cannot be learned in the same route among various students’ characteristic. This statement contradicted to Megaiab’s opinion that the strong use of mother tongue, Bahasa Indonesia, hindered students’ opportunity to learn English by narrowing down the exposure and practical experience. However, the ideas lead to the understanding that English should be taught in different and innovative ways so students with various learning style and characteristics can be accommodate as well.

**The Effects of CLIL Approach in ELL**

Previous part presented the real implementation of ELL in higher education, particularly in Early Childhood Teacher Education program at Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana, Indonesia. It can be seen that ELL in higher education still need to be maintain and develop up to the optimal level. By implementing CLIL approach in educational setting, there were some effect gathered from students’ experience joining CLIL adopted ELL. The presentation of ELL from non-language based program should be considered since those majors does not provide sufficient exposure of the target language. Nowadays, English can be seen as one of emergent requirements that people should acquire and ELL need be presented correctly and sufficiently. Figure 1 presented some effects taken from participants’ perspectives on CLIL adopted ELL.

![The Effects of CLIL Approach in ELL](image)

The data gathered showed that there were 8 positive effects by implementing CLIL approach in college students’ higher education. Students realised that they learned new vocabularies so much by involving to CLIL adopted ELL. Generally, students said that English
enrichment outside of English course hours let them to deeper understanding of vocabulary they never knew before. Some of them said that this kind of learning was “very good, vocabulary knowledge and English acquisition are improved”. They also thought that “there are many things to learn such as: various vocabularies. It helps students a lot in learning and mastering English”. Students were not only learning vocabularies but also technical terminologies of certain subject area. In this case, students learned well about terms used in early childhood education as well as some expressions used in teaching children.

This kind of learning also brought meaningful understanding of spelling, pronunciation and simple English patterns. By giving speaking practice in CLIL adopted ELL, students developed spoken language concept for words/phrases they learned. Students got more confidence on the way spelling or pronouncing English words while they are teaching children. Some said that “CLIL affects the way students’ English speech. It increases English fluency, grammar accuracy and speaking technique”. In addition, participants said that CLIL approach “makes students easier to speak English words and understand simple English pattern fit to their subject knowledge delivered. In other words, students’ English speaking and grammatical skill were sharpened by experiencing CLIL.

Furthermore, students admitted that CLIL adopted ELL made them more active in digging knowledge and practicing their English skill. They were encouraged to autonomously review the material and internalise the essentials. As their reflection, they got bored and confused joining their past English lesson. Some said that “English language education in the past was just learning materials in classroom and much more passive”. In contradiction, students enjoyed learning English by integrating CLIL approach. There was opinion said that “I become more active in speaking English”. They mentioned that CLIL approach made them learning English more frequently and much more in quantity. They also accessed dictionaries, printed versions as well as google translation, more frequently than they previously did. They found that their interest on learning English increased as they joint CLIL adopted ELL. Some students stated that “learning this way got me so enthusiastic”. Students said so since they thought that learning English through subject content was a new thing for them. It helped students building curiosity grounding their enthusiasm to learn English features unconsciously. Teaching learning process seemed to be more interesting and fresh to make students building their positive learning habituation. Triggered by enthusiasm and positive learning habit, students found that their English communication gradually enhanced.

Students’ Perspectives toward CLIL Adopted Language Learning
This section describes the comparison between participants’ past English learning and recent ELL with CLIL approach. To sum up the comparison between two kinds of teaching learning process, Figure 2 presented a brief comparison between those two.

Based on the data presented, there were 7 participants (31.8%) giving positive feedback toward CLIL adopted ELL. However, they said that their past ELL was quite good since they could follow the lesson well. Responding to CLIL adopted ELL, they mentioned that when they joined to a certain subject course, they preferred to learn the subject knowledge without any distraction such as foreign language features. Though English language features delivered through subject course was already in accordance with subject content knowledge and enriched personal subject specific knowledge, those students did not yet feel comfortable with this kind of learning.

Besides, there were 15 participants (68.2%) giving negative feedback toward students’ past ELL. Most of them mentioned that past English lessons possessed many weaknesses resulting students’ English proficiency did not develop optimally. Their opinion supported by arguments that recent demand of English proficiency in this global era was not only knowing vocabularies as what some conventional teachers taught in English course. They also stated that another thing hindering their English proficiency development were limitations and ignorance of English. They have already been aware of the importance of English, recently, especially in their educational setting. The awareness of English appeared when they found that learning availability of certain course within curriculum insufficient. They were demanded to master this international language but there were students behaved as people who do not
need English and show their ignorance. Their past English lesson presented to students was merely by teaching general English understanding without any deeper enrichments. Students, particularly in higher education, became passive when they enrolled ELL before adopting CLIL approach.

Furthermore, there were 21 participants (95.5%) giving positive feedback toward CLIL adopted ELL. Participants, in this group, thought that this kind of learning encouraged them to learn English language features as well as subject knowledge at the same time within a certain course. This kind of learning shaped their positive learning habit in learning consistently, developing learning willingness and accessing instructional resources. This good learning habit was in accordance with a research resulting that learning English through interesting, innovative and creative ways increased students’ learning habituation (Kurniawan, 2017). Actually, students were not only make this kind of learning as a habituation but they also had curiosity. Even though most of the participants viewed CLIL as a good learning approach, there was still a student (4.5%) viewed it differently. The students gave difficulties in learning subject content by stating that when the one learned a certain subject material, there was distraction from English language in understanding deeper meaning of certain knowledge. The use of English frequently in subject course let to confusion.

Conclusions

As summary, English proficiency is really important in this global era to achieve opportunities, develop career, pursue higher education and confess that people are joining global community. English is one of requirements to get those positive offerings. All participants admitted that English should be mastered although some perspectives and desires were not yet in line with the availability of ELL in higher education curriculum especially in Early Childhood Teacher Education program at Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana, Indonesia. Less time allocation and improper teaching strategy/method of ELL in non-English department program perceived as an insufficient presentation. Therefore, Content and Language Integrated Learning was introduced as alternative to enlarge students’ chance to get more English exposure and practice. By implementing CLIL, most of the participants perceived that CLL adopted learning made them more active and communicative, built a new positive learning habit as well as enriched students’ vocabulary knowledge, simple pattern understanding and other language features through subject course.
References


Language Attitude and English Proficiency of ESL Learners

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**Declaration:**

This is an original publication which has not been published elsewhere and is not under consideration elsewhere.

**Abstract**

This study aimed to determine the students’ language attitudes and its relationship to their English proficiency. Specifically, it described the ESL learners’ attitudes toward English language learning in terms of behavioral, cognitive and affective aspects of attitude and
assessed their level of English proficiency along grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension. It also ascertained the relationship between the ESL learners’ attitudes toward English language learning and their level of English proficiency. It made use of descriptive-correlational method through a survey questionnaire and a written English proficiency test. The respondents of the study were Engineering students, and there were 307 sample. Results show that students hold positive overall attitude toward English language learning in all three aspects of language attitude. However, from among the aspects of attitude namely behavioral, cognitive, and affective, it is the behavioral aspect of attitude toward English language learning that received the lowest mean score. Moreover, students’ English proficiency is on the average along grammar and vocabulary but above average in reading comprehension.

**Keywords:** English proficiency, behavioral aspect, ESL learners, language attitude

**Introduction**

Language plays an essential role in every aspect of student learning. Learners receive most of their knowledge and acquire many of their skills through the aid of language. The core objective of learning a second language is to enable learners to participate in class activities efficiently and communicate sensibly. Language learning also serves as a stepping-stone for proficiency in learning all school subjects.

English, as one of the most influential languages, has remarkably achieved the status of a worldwide lingua franca through globalization. English language has become a major language of survival in the world because it is the language of science & technology and communication at international level. This has made the English language indispensable in all professions. In the engineering field, English is used in most international organizations and industries. Hence, the integration of English courses in the Engineering curriculum is necessary. Brookes (1964) as cited by Sasidharan (2012) remarks: “A report or paper must be written. Anyone engaged in scientific work who is incapable of making this kind of report is not a scientist but a technician, not an engineer, but a mechanic. Proficiency in his written and spoken dialect is a badge which cannot be counterfeit”. This statement affirms the value of learning the target language in school, especially for those courses under Science &Technology. Engineering students, in particular, need to have high command in English since they will soon be exposed to international industries and workforce.

Language learning, however, is a complex process. It does not simply require learners to understand some words and successfully use them in everyday conversation. Language
learning is more than that. Besides intellectual and social perspective, language learning also needs the psychological aspect of the learners. Furthermore, the intellectual, social, and psychological growth and maturity of learners is dependent of language. It was likewise concluded in the study of Gardner and Lambert (1972) that the ability of the students to master a second language is not only influenced by the mental competence or, language skills, but also on the students’ attitudes and perceptions towards the target language. Thus, if a learner does not have the interest and tendency in acquiring the target language to communicate with others, this learner will possess a negative attitude and will not be motivated and enthusiastic in language learning (Alzwari, et.al. 2012). The ability to use second language (language proficiency) to help in solving problems is a tool. Language acts as a vehicle for educational development and is vital for the intellectual growth and higher order academic attainment.

However, Lafaye and Tsuda (2002) point out that there is a contradiction between students’ understanding of importance of English and their attitudes toward it. There are several reasons why research on students’ attitudes toward language learning is important. First, attitudes toward learning are believed to influence behaviors, such as selecting and reading books, speaking in a foreign language. Second, a relationship between attitudes and achievement has been shown to exist. Hence, attitudes influence achievement, rather than achievement influencing attitudes. Learners need to have positive attitude to acquire high level of proficiency in the target language. The reason is that attitude influence one’s behaviors, inner mood and therefore learning.

On the contrary, despite the evident significance of the English language in the field of engineering, most of the engineering students who are taking up English courses remain to be uninterested or show little interest in participating in classroom discussions. It seems that they are not so much worried of their English proficiency. This study, therefore, aimed to find out whether engineering students have positive or negative attitude toward English language learning and what English language learning attitude they have in terms of the three aspects of attitude namely behavioral, cognitive, or affective. Furthermore, it wishes to determine the relationship of the language attitude of the respondents to their English proficiency.

**Literature Review**

**Language Attitude**

Learning is a multidimensional process. Learners learn in different ways and in their own distinct pace. In the Principles of Teaching, there are students who are visual learners,
those who learn best when there are pictures or images shown to them or simply they learn when they see their teacher talking. There are also those who learn when they move around or when they are physically active. This affirms that learners are indeed unique individuals. They have to be understood and be taught according to their needs and to their ways. Now, as to learning a second language, there are also things that can affect learners in acquiring the desired skills and knowledge about the target language. When a student is not participative in class, it does not mean that he/she is not a good student. There could be a reason behind it.

According to Padwick (2010), besides the intellectual perspective, the nature of language learning has psychological and social aspects and depends primarily on the learners’ motivation and attitude to learn the target language. More so, Gardner and Lambert (1972) have concluded that the ability of the students to master a second language is not only influenced by the mental competence or, language skills, but also on the students’ attitudes and perceptions towards the target language. They also advocated that attitude concept could enhance the process of language learning, influencing the nature of student’s behaviors and beliefs towards the other language, its culture and community, and this will identify their tendency to acquire that language. In 1992, Baker proposed a comprehensive theoretical model, focusing on the importance of conducting attitudinal research in the field of language learning. Baker (1992, p. 9) states that, “In the life of a language, attitudes to that language appear to be important in language restoration, preservation, decay or death.” Recently, De Bot et al. (2005) assert that language teachers, researchers and students should acknowledge that high motivation and positive attitude of students facilitate second language learning. Thus, if a learner does not have the interest and tendency in acquiring the target language to communicate with others, this learner will possess a negative attitude and will not be motivated and enthusiastic in language learning (Alzwari, et. al. 2012). Therefore, learners’ attitudes could incorporate in language learning because it may influence their performance in acquiring the target language.

Aspects of Attitudes

Education is the powerful tool which helps to modify the behavior of the child according to the needs and expectancy of the society (Gajalakshmi, 2013). Moreover, learning process is regarded as a positive change in the individual’s personality in terms of the emotional, psychomotor (behavioral) as well as cognitive domains, since when one has learned a specific subject, he/she is supposed to think and behave in a different manner and one’s beliefs have been distinguished (Kara, 2009). Furthermore, learning process has social as well
as psychological aspects besides the cognitive approach (Padwick, 2010). Attitude concept can be viewed from these three dimensions. Each one of these dimensions has different features to bring out language attitude results. Accordingly, the attitude concept has three components i.e., behavioral, cognitive and affective. These three attitudinal aspects are based on the three theoretical approaches of behaviorism, cognitivism and humanism respectively. In the following, the three aspects of attitude concept i.e., behavioral, cognitive, and emotional aspects are briefly described.

**Behavioral Aspect of Attitude**

The behavioral aspect of attitude deals with the way one behaves and reacts in particular situations. In fact, the successful language learning enhances the learners to identify themselves with the native speakers of that language and acquire or adopt various aspects of behaviors which characterize the members of the target language community. Kara (2009) stated that, “Positive attitudes lead to the exhibition of positive behaviors toward courses of study, with participants absorbing themselves in courses and striving to learn more. Such students are also observed to be more eager to solve problems, to acquire the information and skills useful for daily life and to engage themselves emotionally.”

**Cognitive Aspect of Attitude**

This aspect of attitude involves the beliefs of the language learners about the knowledge that they receive and their understanding in the process of language learning. The cognitive attitude can be classified into four steps of connecting the previous knowledge and the new one, creating new knowledge, checking new knowledge, and applying the new knowledge in many situations.

**Emotional Aspect of Attitude**

Feng and Chen (2009) stated that, “Learning process is an emotional process. It is affected by different emotional factors. The teacher and his students engage in various emotional activities in it and varied fruits of emotions are yield.” Attitude can help the learners to express whether they like or dislike the objects or surrounding situations. It is agreed that the inner feelings and emotions of FL learners influence their perspectives and their attitudes towards the target language (Choy & Troudi, 2006).
English Proficiency

The ability to use language (language proficiency) to help solve problems is a tool. In this sense, language is a tool for learning and an aid to improve understanding and hence academic achievement. Human learning assumes a specific social perspective and process by which children groom into the intellectual life around them. So we can say that language acts as a vehicle for educational development and is vital for the intellectual growth and higher order academic attainment.

Proficiency in language can be defined the competency level of a learner which makes an individual to use language for both basic communicative purposes and academic tasks. In another way language proficiency is defined by Wikipedia (the free encyclopaedia) that the ability of an individual to speak or perform in an acquired language.

An English language proficiency assessment score is assumed to help teachers and administrators in making a reasonable decision regarding students’ need whether English language instructions support or no longer is such assistance needed. Making such judgment becomes difficult when the language tasks underlying the test score bear little resemblance to the language tasks characteristic of a mainstream classroom.

Methodology

The study made use of the descriptive-correlation design to describe the ESL learners’ language attitude and English proficiency and to ascertain if there exists a relationship between them. This study was conducted specifically to Engineering students in different fields of specialization such as Electronics, Electrical, Agricultural, Computer, Chemical, and Civil Engineering. The study made use of the main instruments such as English proficiency test and survey questionnaire on the language attitude which was partly adopted from the two-part attitudinnaire by Zainol Abidin, et. al. (2012) and Hassan Soleimani and Somayeh Hanfi (2013).

Frequency and percentage distribution were used to determine and categorize the attitudes of the students toward English language learning in terms of behavioral, cognitive and affective aspects. A 4-point Likert scale was used to treat the students’ language attitudes and a five-point Likert scale for the students’ level of English proficiency.
Results and Discussions

Behavioral Attitude of the Respondents toward English Language Learning

Table 1 presents the behavioral attitude of the respondents toward English language learning. As revealed in the table, the overall mean of the respondents’ behavioral attitude is 2.92 which has a descriptive value of “agree”, and which is further interpreted as “positive attitude”. This finding means that the engineering students of Cagayan State University have a positive behavioral attitude towards English language learning.

Among the ten (10) statements listed in the survey questionnaire, the respondents showed highly positive attitude in the statement number 10 “I pay attention when my English teacher is explaining the lesson” with a mean score of 3.38 and a descriptive value of “strongly agree”. Another statement that is not too far from having a highly positive attitude is statement number 8 “When I miss the class, I ask my friends or teachers for the homework on what has been taught” with a mean score of 3.22 and a descriptive value of “agree” which is interpreted to have a positive attitude. Based on the result, it can be inferred that the respondents have high interest in learning the language. They give importance to their English subjects. This finding is contrary to the belief of the English language teachers in the college that engineering students do not care much about their English courses. According to Joseba (2005), English has become de facto the international language of science and technology. Since most of the scientific and technological information is in English, engineering students have to face this fact. Besides, the knowledge of English language is of outmost importance in the labour market.

On the other hand, there are items in the survey questionnaire that received negative attitude from the respondents such as the statements number 6 and number 1, “I am relaxed whenever I have to speak in my English class” and “Speaking English anywhere does not make me feel worried” with mean scores of 2.43 and 2.46, respectively. Both statements have a descriptive value of “disagree” and with an interpretation of “negative attitude”. It can be implied from the result that problem occurs in the confidence of the respondents in using the language in an oral discourse. This result can be the reason why English language teachers in the college claim that their students are passive during class discussions.

The results of the current study are similar to the results of the research of Abidin (2012) about EFL Students’ Attitudes towards English Language: The Case of Libyan Secondary School Students wherein respondents do not feel relaxed whenever they speak in English class.

The negative attitude displayed by the students could be ascribed to their inhibitions in using the English language especially when they are with people who speak English well. They
would rather not speak than to commit mistakes and be laughed at by their interlocutors. Students’ feeling of intimidation could also be spelled from the worries and discomfort they experience both in and out of the classroom.

Table 1. Behavioral attitude of respondents towards English language learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Descriptive Value</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Speaking English anywhere does not make me feel worried.</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Negative Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I like to give opinions during English lessons.</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I am able to make myself pay attention during studying English.</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. When I hear a student in my class speaking English well, I like to practice speaking with him/her.</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Studying English makes me have more confidence in expressing myself.</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I am relaxed whenever I have to speak in my English class.</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Negative Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I like to practice English the way native speakers do.</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. When I miss the class, I ask my friends or teachers for the homework on what has been taught.</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I feel enthusiastic to come to class when the English is being taught.</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I pay any attention when my English teacher is explaining the lesson.</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>Highly Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Overall | 2.92 | 0.69 | Agree | Positive Attitude |

Cognitive Attitude of Respondents toward English Language Learning
Table 2 displays the cognitive attitude of respondents toward English language learning. As shown in the table, the overall mean of the respondents’ cognitive attitude is 2.94 with a descriptive value of “agree” and is further interpreted as “positive attitude”. This reflects that the respondents have a positive thought regarding their English courses. Furthermore, the fact that English is the language of Science and Technology helped the respondents to have a positive disposition in English language learning. This is but a support to the numerous research in the field of engineering studies showed that the English language is an essential tool for any engineer who wants to carry out his professional practice in the international arena (Venkatraman, 2007), (Pritchard, 2004), (Joseba, 2005).

There are items in the survey questionnaire that received a highly positive attitude from the respondents; these are the statements number 11 “Studying English is important because it will make me more educated” and number 17 “Studying English helps me communicate in English effectively” with mean scores of 3.57 and 3.40, respectively. Both have a descriptive value of “strongly agree”. It is clear enough that the respondents are aware of the importance of the language in their profession and in their personal development. They wanted to learn English to develop their communicative and their learning skills, both essential for their personal and professional growth. This is supportive of the idea of Pendergrass et. al. (2001) who pointed out that English is an essential tool in the engineering education and, therefore,” integrating English into engineering, science and math courses is an effective way to improve the performance of engineering students in oral and written communication”.

However, statement number 19 “I am satisfied with my performance in the English subject” got a negative attitude from the respondents. This item has a mean score of 2.32 which has a descriptive value of “disagree”. This finding reveals that the respondents are not satisfied with their performance in their English subjects. This further supports why they do not show confidence in using the English language in class discussions. Students’ lack of satisfaction in their performance could be pointed back to their passivity in classroom interaction which leads to their meager opportunities for language use.

In the study carried out by Abidin (2012) though the cognitive aspect represents the highest mean score of attitudes towards English, the findings still indicate that the majority of the respondents showed negative cognitive attitude and agreed that they could not summarize the important points in the English subject content by themselves. This result is similar to the findings of a study by Boonrangrsri et al. (2004); the descriptive statistics revealed that 121 participants out of 219 from eight streams of study showed a moderate attitude in their ability to summarize the important points in English subject.
In the current study, the respondents believed that people who speak more than one language are very knowledgeable; but this response represented the lowest mean score in the study of Abidin (2012).

**Table 2. Cognitive attitude of respondents towards English language learning.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Descriptive Value</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11. Studying English is important because it will make me more educated.</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>Highly Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I have more knowledge and more understanding when studying English.</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I like my English class so much; I look forward to studying more English in the future.</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I can summarize the important points in the English subject content by myself.</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I do not study English just to pass the exams.</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. In my opinion, people who speak more than one language are very knowledgeable.</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. Studying English helps me communicate in English effectively.</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>Highly Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I am able to think and analyze the content in English language.</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>0.52</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I am satisfied with my performance in the English subject.</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Negative Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. In my opinion, English language is easy and not complicated to learn.</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.94</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.64</strong></td>
<td><strong>Agree</strong></td>
<td><strong>Positive Attitude</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Affective Attitude of Respondents toward English Language Learning**
Table 3 shows the affective attitude of respondents toward English language learning. The affective attitude of respondents toward English language learning has an overall mean of 2.99 with a descriptive value of “agree” and further interpreted as “positive attitude”. This finding speaks of the favorable response of students towards how they feel in learning the language.

As to the items given in the survey questionnaire, the statements that received the highest mean scores of 3.60 and 3.34 respectively are “I wish I could speak English fluently” and “Knowing English is an important goal in my life”. These statements have a descriptive value of “strongly agree” and interpreted as ‘highly positive attitude”. It can be inferred from the statements that the respondents really aim to have fluency in using the language because it can help them a lot in their chosen field of specialization. Fluency in using the language seems to be their goal in studying English subjects. Parallel to the result of the current study, Al-Tamimi & Shuib (2009) found out that the majority (95%) of Petroleum engineering students of Hadhramount University of Science and Technology had great desires towards speaking English well like fluent speakers. Furthermore, in the case of Libyan secondary school students, few of them had a positive attitude and wished to speak English fluently. These findings highlight the importance of encouraging the students to participate in collaborative dialogues and activities in which they can acquire the language effectively and this can enhance learners to observe and assess their progress in learning English language.

The statement, “I really have interest in my English class”, on the other hand received a negative remark from the respondents. The statement got a mean score of 2.47 which has a descriptive value of “disagree” and further interpreted as “negative attitude”. This finding reveals that despite their awareness of the importance of English language in their personal and professional life, the respondents still disagree on having interest in their English class. Certain other studies also showed low interest in learning English language. Turkish students do not have very positive attitudes and are not very anxious to learn English (Karahan, 2007). Also, (Al–Mutawa, 1986) also reported the same for Malaysian students.

It could be inferred from the responses of students that crucial to the development of their proficiency is the role of instruction in the classroom. While students may be positive about learning and becoming English proficient, they would remain passive and uninterested should the most influential factor in their development, their English courses not be helpful and responsive to their language needs. Hence, it is imperative that both students and teachers work out a classroom that is conducive to openness and communication.
Table 3. Affective attitude of respondents towards English language learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Descriptive Value</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21. I feel excited when I communicate in English with others.</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. I don’t get anxious when I have to answer a question in my English class.</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Studying foreign languages like English is enjoyable.</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. Studying English makes me have good emotions (feelings).</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. I enjoy doing activities in English.</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. I like studying English.</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. I wish I could speak English fluently.</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>Highly Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Studying English subject makes me feel more confident.</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. I really have interest in my English class.</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Negative Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. Knowing English is an important goal in my life.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Overall</strong></td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>Highly Positive Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2.99</strong></td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Positive Attitude</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Level of English Proficiency along Grammar**

Table 5 displays the results of respondents’ level of English proficiency along grammar. The level of respondents’ English proficiency along grammar is “good” which has an overall mean of 26.60.
Of the 307 respondents, 165 or 53.75 percent of them got an average score of 25.5 which has a descriptive value of “good” while 4 or 1.30 percent of the respondents got an average score of 45.5 which has a descriptive value of “excellent”.

It can be surmised from the findings of the study that engineering students have not yet fairly mastered the basic points such as the subject-verb agreement which remains to be the sore thumb of grammar. The frequency of those who remain in the average level of performance is indicative as well of good reception of students as regards learning the English language particularly its nuances of grammar. But while majority of the students remain on the average, the data on the frequency of those who are very good and excellent could not also be discounted for these reflect the moving towards mastery of grammar points among engineering students, a movement which is of great advantage to them.

Table 5. Level of respondents’ English proficiency along grammar.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score Interval</th>
<th>Descriptive Value</th>
<th>Frequency (n=307)</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>41 – 50</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31 – 40</td>
<td>Very Good</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>27.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 – 30</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>53.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 – 20</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>15.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 – 10</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Mean</td>
<td>26.20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Deviation</td>
<td>6.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Level of English Proficiency along Vocabulary

Table 6 shows the level of respondents’ English proficiency along vocabulary. As gleaned in the table, the respondents have a “good” level of vocabulary. It is supported by its overall mean which is 12.66.

Furthermore, 170 or 55.37 percent of the 307 respondents got an average score of 13 which has a descriptive value of “good”. This finding means that the respondents have good vocabulary skills. On the other hand, 80 or 26.06 percent got an average score of 7 which has a descriptive value of “fair”. This finding reveals that there are some who find it hard to identify definition of new words which may be attributed to the focus of English instruction in the classroom.

Consistent with the findings of Temporal (2011), the students’ proficiency along vocabulary seemed to be the most difficult area that students develop. It could be inferred that students lack the initiative to enrich their word building and that students have not learned to a great extent how to strategize the learning of vocabulary.
Table 6. Level of respondents’ English proficiency along vocabulary.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score Interval</th>
<th>Descriptive Value</th>
<th>Frequency (n=307)</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21 – 25</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 – 20</td>
<td>Very Good</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>17.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 – 15</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>55.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – 10</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>26.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 – 5</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall Mean = 12.66; Standard Deviation = 3.08; Good

**Level of English Proficiency along Reading Comprehension**

Table 7 projects the result of respondents’ level of English proficiency along reading comprehension. The reading comprehension of the respondents is “very good”; it is evident in its overall mean of 16.01. This finding means that the respondents grammatical and vocabulary skill help them have very good reading comprehension skills.

As gleaned from the table, 158 or 51.47 percent of the respondents got an average score of 18 which means that they have “very good” reading comprehension skills and 106 or 34.53 percent got an average score of 13 which means that they are “good” in reading comprehension. However, there are 5 or 1.63 percent of the respondents got “poor” remarks; their average score is 3.

Based on the results, it can be implied that the respondents, though, they are not so communicative, they have high level of comprehension. They understand written discourse which is their means of acquiring information from books and other written materials provided by their professors. It is also very important for them to have a high reading comprehension skills since most of their reading materials are written in the English language.

In the field of reading, a study by Kamh i-Stein (2003) college readers in Spanish and English, findings show that attitudes seem to affect the reading behavior of the participants. This finding strengthens the relationship of the positive attitude of the respondents toward English language learning and their high level of reading comprehension.
Table 7. Level of respondents’ English proficiency along reading comprehension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score Interval</th>
<th>Descriptive Value</th>
<th>Frequency (n=307)</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21 – 25</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 – 20</td>
<td>Very Good</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>51.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 – 15</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>34.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – 10</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 – 5</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall Mean = 16.01; Standard Deviation = 3.62; Very Good

Overall Level of English Proficiency

Table 8 presents the overall level of respondents’ English proficiency. The level of respondents’ English proficiency is “good” which has an overall mean of 55.18. This finding manifests that despite their field of specialization which focuses more on Mathematics, the respondents still have a good level of English proficiency.

To further discuss, among the 307 respondents, 166 or 54.07 percent receive an average score of 50.5 which means that they have good level of English proficiency. Nonetheless, there are 33 or 10.75 percent of the respondents that receive “fair” remarks; they got an average score of 30.5.

The result of the overall level of respondents’ English proficiency could be due to their positive attitude in learning English language. As researchers Henry & Apelgren (2008), Huguet (2007) and Wright (1999), Meri suo-Storm (2007) affirmed that positive attitude towards a language is an essential ingredient that helps learners excel in their learning while negative attitude hinders the language learning and makes it almost impossible to achieve proficiency. Furthermore, Haimeta (2002) and Saracaloğlu (2000) in their studies reveal that there is a positive relationship between affective characteristics and foreign language achievement.

Table 8. Overall level of English proficiency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score Interval</th>
<th>Descriptive Value</th>
<th>Frequency (n=307)</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>81 – 100</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61 – 80</td>
<td>Very Good</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>35.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 – 60</td>
<td>Good</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>54.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 – 40</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>10.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 – 20</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall Mean = 55.18; Standard Deviation = 11.18; Good
Relationship between Attitudes of Respondents toward English Language Learning and their English Proficiency

Table 9 reveals the relationship between attitudes of respondents toward English language learning and their English proficiency. The results show that behavioral and affective attitudes of respondents toward English language learning have significant relationship to their English proficiency along grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension. Nevertheless, it was found out that cognitive attitude of respondents toward English language learning is significantly correlated to their English proficiency along grammar and vocabulary, but not to their reading comprehension.

Gardner & Lambert (1972, 1985) say that there is a close connection between attitude and achievement; Gardner & Lambert (1972) “The learner’s tendencies and attitude determine how success he will be in learning the new language”. Unlike Gardner & Lambert, Lanara (1999), in her study on Japanese students, indicates that there is no relation between success and positive attitudes and adds: “Many students who were not strongly motivated (therefore had positive attitudes) and were taking English because it was a required course, were expecting good grades and they were looking forward to attending the classes”. Kara ő (1997), points out that there is only a weak relationship between achievement and attitudes. In fact these inconclusive results were also reached by Lambert et al., (1972), (quoted from Lanara 1999) who found out that Francophilia was positively related with the success among beginner students of French, but negatively related among advanced students. Gardner too, found that in some parts of USA there was no correlation between achievement and attitudes”.

Table 9. Relationship between attitudes of the respondents toward English language learning and their level of English proficiency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Proficiency Aspects of Attitude</th>
<th>Grammar</th>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Reading Comprehension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral Aspect</td>
<td>0.2028*</td>
<td>0.1244*</td>
<td>0.1406*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive Aspect</td>
<td>0.2419*</td>
<td>0.1587*</td>
<td>0.0949</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Aspect</td>
<td>0.2388*</td>
<td>0.1406*</td>
<td>0.1840*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at $\alpha = 0.05$
Conclusions and Recommendations

In the light of findings drawn from the study, it is concluded that Engineering students generally display positive attitude toward English language learning along aspects such as behavioral, affective, and cognitive and are generally good in their English proficiency. However, these aspects of language attitude do not significantly relate to their English proficiency.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that more chances for having real language situations be offered to students such as listening to English dialogues regarding their field of specializations, news broadcast about development in engineering, speaking English, reading English publications, and writing journals. Additionally, to increase students’ interest to learn, language teachers should adopt more interesting instructional aids such as, role playing, games, videotapes, video cassettes and computer-aided interactive lesson. It is likewise suggested that language teachers design more activities that can stimulate positive attitude toward learning such as problem-solving and critical thinking skills to encourage students’ participation in class. Teachers are also encouraged to establish a cooperative task or reward structure for students for example by giving a coupon for student who responds using English language. This can reduce anxiety and promote more interaction, thus produce favorable attitude towards learning English. It is recommended that the school conducts various competitions dealing with English learning same as activities conducted during Buwan ng Wika. Activities such as English language panels, English drama, speech, songs, debate, games can be conducted in an annual celebration of English Language Week. Finally, parallel studies exploring other variables such as classroom teaching performance and teaching strategies are also recommended.

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Books


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Measuring Factors that cause Communication Apprehension in an English as Second Language (ESL) setting: Presenting a New Instrument in a Pilot Study

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Shalini Upadhyay

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Zuari Nagar Goa – 403726, India
Abstract

In this paper, the authors describe a scale that is purpose-designed to measure Communication Apprehension (CA) as experienced by Indian undergraduate students in the context of public speaking in English. Communication research in language performance anxiety has often been hindered by a need for validated measures and appropriate tools in the Asian learner’s situation. The paper commences with a brief overview of the various factors that are hypothesized to be associated with communication apprehension. Next, a new scale is presented which is based on the authors’ previous research, where a context-based Conceptual Model was proposed to study the dynamics of Communication Apprehension (CA) in the English as Second Language (ESL) environment in an Asian context. The conceptual model was reviewed and modified under expert advice before using it as the basis for the measurement scale that was used in the pilot study described in this paper. The current study seeks to conduct a preliminary examination of the reliability and validity of the new scale and to report on its reliability, validity and factor structure in this pilot study. In this regard, the authors conducted a study, using fifty undergraduate male and female students from two undergraduate colleges. The paper concludes by indicating that the scale is of sufficient quality for its use in ongoing research purposes on a larger scale. It could also help support further research into devising anxiety-neutralizing means to alleviate communication apprehension.

Keywords: Anxiety, Communication Apprehension, Foreign Language Apprehension.

Introduction

Effective communication has always been understood as necessary for success, whether in personal, professional or academic spheres. Yet anxiety that is caused in the context of communication is almost universally observable. In Asian nations such as India, this communication related anxiety is further compounded by the fact that many college students have a vernacular language as their L₁ but have to use English as their L₂ and as their medium of instruction. This results in internal conflict in the mind of the student, giving rise to anxiety and fear.

The issue of anxiety related to communication has attracted the attention of communication researchers for many decades. Early researchers such as Howard Gilkinson (Gilkinson, 1952), and Gordon Paul (Paul, Gordon L., Shannon, Donald T., 1966) proposed a plethora of anxiety-related concepts that ranged from reticence and shyness to stage-fright and introversion. However, greater definition was brought to conceptual research by Prof. James
McCroskey, who coined the term ‘Communication Apprehension’, and defined it as a “broad based fear or anxiety associated with real or anticipated communication with another person or persons” (McCroskey, 1970).

Such communication related stress is known to significantly affect an individual’s psychological perceptions of her environment, leading to skewed estimations of threat (Ayres, 1986). Ayres also indicates that such fears that related to communication influence cognitive processes as well (Ayres, 1986). In a number of Asian nations, where English is not generally a student’s L1, its required use negatively influences the communicator in various ways. In a previous research endeavour, the writers of this present article had presented a context based analytical model in an attempt at surveying the multidimensionality of language anxiety in the Asian context (Upadhyay & Rodrigues, 2016).

The rest of the paper is structured as follows: First, a brief literature review is presented to locate this paper in the broader framework of reference on this topic. Next, a context based analytical model is proposed, along with explanation of its component factors. This is followed by a description of the new measurement tool that was developed, based on the above-mentioned model. The results of the pilot study are then presented, where this tool was used on a select group of students. In the conclusion, we offer a correlation between the findings of the study and the hypotheses that were proposed. The paper ends with a review.

**Literature review**

That a student’s anxiety has bearing upon her/his academic achievement has long been recognised in educational institutions. In a study conducted by Khalid and Hasan (2009), the levels of test anxiety were found to directly correlate with the individual’s with academic performance. Further, Asian nations have provided huge scope for research in the study of the effects of language related anxiety on students acquiring a second language. Chan & Wu, (2004), for example, opine that difficulties in second language acquisition have clear potential to provoke anxiety. Other researchers, such as Campbell & Ortiz (1991) have found that university students experience a disproportionately raised level of tension with regard to second language acquisition (SLA) as compared to other courses that they are taking. Thus, the levels of interest, motivation and determination towards course completion could all be affected significantly by language-related anxiety. Horwitz (1988) explains that Second Language Anxiety (SLA) is a “distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors
related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process”.

Given the complexity of anxiety related to second language learning, students in Asian educational institutions face particular difficulty when it comes to learning and speaking in English, when English is not their L1. Woodrow (2006) examined English as Second Language (ESL) anxiety among students in Japan, China and Korea, and found that learners in these nations experienced greater levels of anxiety as compared to people of other ethnic groups. Capan & Karaka (2013) studied EFL learners at a Turkish university and found that Second Language Anxiety (SLA) has a debilitating effect on the performance of speakers of English as a second language.

The anxiety that is produced in the language learning process also has complexities that arise from external factors. Samimy and Rardin (1994) claim that that their research shows factors such as interpersonal relational networks, and social /institutional environments of the language learner have a discernible effect on developing second language competence. English language production is significantly hampered by anxiety among EFL learners.

While studying the relationship between anxiety and listening comprehension among EFL students, Dixson (1991) found that anxious students struggled to comprehend the content of a target language message. In particular, foreign language reading difficulties are reinforced by language anxiety, as discovered by Saito & Samimy (1996). Thus, students with high levels of anxiety were less likely to recall less passage content as compared to students with lower anxiety (Sellers, 2000).

In Asian nations, where students learn English as a foreign language, the experience of communication apprehension is heightened in the area of speaking in English. Horwitz (1986), for example, explains the anxiety-provoking possibility linked to speech in foreign language activities. In a study that measured the effects of foreign language anxiety on English learning among senior high school students in Taiwan, Ying (1993) says a small change in classroom atmosphere immediately increased the level of students’ anxiety and influences their language proficiency. Similarly, Djigunovic (2006) studied language anxiety among EFL learners and observed that students with high levels of language anxiety produce smaller amounts of continuous speech in English, and also take longer pauses while speaking compared to students with low levels of language anxiety.
On the other hand, Huang (2004) studied speaking anxiety among EFL non-English university students in Taiwan, and discovered that students experience a high level of speaking anxiety. In addition, Liu and Jackson (2008), in a study that was carried out on 547 Chinese EFL students, concluded that students experience anxiety in speaking and foreign language anxiety is a powerful predictor for unwillingness to communicate in foreign language classes. Ay (2010) opines that students experienced anxiety at advanced level with respect to language productive skills, with individuals saying that language anxiety was heightened when they had to speak extemporaneously.

The brief survey above illustrates the comprehensive nature of research done so far with respect to issues pertaining to foreign language speaking anxiety experienced by learners. However, there remains the need to measure such anxiety in an accurate and reliable manner among college students in the Indian / Asian context, so that adequate understanding of the challenges associated with communication apprehension in the context of foreign language learning.

**Conceptual model and research hypotheses**

In previous research, the authors of this present paper (Upadhyay & Rodrigues, 2016) had presented a conceptual model that examined language anxiety as below:

![Conceptual Model of Context-Based Analysis of Factors causing CA](image)

Fig No: 1    Title: Conceptual Model of Context-Based Analysis of Factors causing CA

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In the above figure, it may be noted that Communication Apprehension is rooted in three theoretical bases:

i. Internal factors - those inner causes that are anxiety-provoking can be traced to various issues, all linked to the individual’s cognitive processes,

ii. Academic factors – factors that could provoke FLA in the mind of the language learner

iii. Socio-cultural factors – factors contributing towards anxiety-provoking for learners during communicative interaction.

Further, each of these three taproot factors have several sub-factors, all of which need to be examined in terms of their individual effect on CA levels of Asian learners.

A purpose designed instrument was created for this study by the authors, with the psychometric technique of self evaluation being the key method of measurement. The instrument used is included as addendum in this paper. The questionnaire itself was taken anonymously, to enable the candidate fill it in with maximum possible honesty. A total of twenty four questions examined communication apprehension across the three dimensions as described in the conceptual model above (Figure 1 above). Questions were purposely designed to be dual directional to achieve greater accuracy of measurement. Fifty undergraduate students from local colleges in Goa were asked to be candidates for this study.

In conducting this pilot study to test the accuracy of the measurement instrument, the authors proposed the following hypotheses:

(1) that self-reported Communication Apprehension as measured by the Communication Apprehension in Public Speaking Questionnaire will be multidimensional in nature.
(2) that the positive attitude of the teacher or instructor will be negatively correlated to the student’s susceptibility to Communication Apprehension in classrooms as far as public speaking situations are concerned.

(3) that students who do not have English as their L1 will significantly experience Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) with regard to public speaking in English.

(4) that factors included in the ‘self’ or ‘internal’ dimension will play a dominant part in contributing to the student’s experiencing Communication Apprehension with respect to public speaking.

**Analysis of results**

The following table is a computation of the results of the pilot study conducted:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question No</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Sometimes agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std Dev.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>12 (25)</td>
<td>29 (60.42)</td>
<td>6 (12.5)</td>
<td>1 (2.08)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1.736</td>
<td>0.858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>15 (29.41)</td>
<td>17 (33.33)</td>
<td>18 (35.29)</td>
<td>1 (1.96)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>2.019</td>
<td>0.930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>15 (30)</td>
<td>19 (38)</td>
<td>14 (28)</td>
<td>1 (2)</td>
<td>1 (2)</td>
<td>1.962</td>
<td>1.018</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>17 (38.64)</td>
<td>18 (40.91)</td>
<td>7 (15.91)</td>
<td>2 (4.55)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1.547</td>
<td>1.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>2 (3.85)</td>
<td>13 (25)</td>
<td>12 (23.08)</td>
<td>21 (40.38)</td>
<td>4 (7.69)</td>
<td>3.226</td>
<td>1.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>16 (32)</td>
<td>18 (36)</td>
<td>12 (24)</td>
<td>4 (8)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>2.038</td>
<td>1.037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>17 (34.69)</td>
<td>17 (34.69)</td>
<td>13 (26.53)</td>
<td>2 (4.08)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1.849</td>
<td>1.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>2 (3.85)</td>
<td>20 (38.46)</td>
<td>11 (21.15)</td>
<td>17 (32.69)</td>
<td>2 (3.85)</td>
<td>2.943</td>
<td>1.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14 (28.57)</td>
<td>24 (48.98)</td>
<td>6 (12.24)</td>
<td>5 (10.2)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1.887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>19 (40.43)</td>
<td>21 (44.68)</td>
<td>7 (14.89)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1.547</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>6 (11.76)</td>
<td>9 (17.65)</td>
<td>16 (31.37)</td>
<td>13 (25.49)</td>
<td>7 (13.73)</td>
<td>3.094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16 (31.37)</td>
<td>25 (49.02)</td>
<td>9 (17.65)</td>
<td>1 (1.96)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1.830</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1 (1.89)</td>
<td>17 (32.08)</td>
<td>18 (33.96)</td>
<td>9 (16.98)</td>
<td>8 (15.09)</td>
<td>3.113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1 (1.92)</td>
<td>11 (21.15)</td>
<td>18 (34.62)</td>
<td>20 (38.46)</td>
<td>2 (3.85)</td>
<td>3.208</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12 (23.53)</td>
<td>23 (45.1)</td>
<td>10 (19.61)</td>
<td>6 (11.76)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>2.113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15 (29.41)</td>
<td>15 (29.41)</td>
<td>8 (15.69)</td>
<td>13 (25.49)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>2.358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>11 (22)</td>
<td>17 (34)</td>
<td>11 (22)</td>
<td>11 (22)</td>
<td>3.491</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18</td>
<td>2 (3.77)</td>
<td>22 (41.51)</td>
<td>13 (24.53)</td>
<td>13 (24.53)</td>
<td>3 (5.66)</td>
<td>2.868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10 (20.41)</td>
<td>18 (36.73)</td>
<td>19 (38.78)</td>
<td>2 (4.08)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>2.094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>21 (41.18)</td>
<td>13 (25.49)</td>
<td>9 (17.65)</td>
<td>6 (11.76)</td>
<td>2 (3.92)</td>
<td>2.113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>6 (11.54)</td>
<td>13 (25)</td>
<td>16 (30.77)</td>
<td>15 (28.85)</td>
<td>2 (3.85)</td>
<td>2.887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5 (9.43)</td>
<td>12 (22.64)</td>
<td>11 (20.75)</td>
<td>18 (33.96)</td>
<td>7 (13.21)</td>
<td>3.151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>22 (43.14)</td>
<td>21 (41.18)</td>
<td>7 (13.73)</td>
<td>1 (1.96)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1.679</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>20 (55.56)</td>
<td>13 (36.11)</td>
<td>3 (8.33)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>0 (0)</td>
<td>1.038</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the results of the test were examined using IBM’s SPSS package to analyse the collated statistical data, it was observed that the purpose-built questionnaire had achieved a reasonable level of accuracy, reaching a Chronbach’s Alpha level of 0.625.
Fig No 2: Title: Examination of Mean values

An examination of mean values (Figure 3, above) reveals that various particular questions on the questionnaire appear to have higher levels of significance. The table below seeks to examine each of the questions that possess a high mean value and root them in the particular dimension and subcategory that they seek to test:

Table No: 2 Title: Examining Significant Questions Related to High Mean values

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Q. number on questionnaire</th>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Sub-factor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>When I make a mistake while delivering a speech, I find it negatively affects the rest of the speech</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>Attitude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If the student who presents before me is visibly nervous, I find anxiety rising in me too</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Internal</td>
<td>Learning style</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
If we attempt to correlate our findings to the original set of hypotheses proposed at the beginning of the study, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- Hypothesis #1 was supported by the fact that responses to questions framed for each of the 3 dimensions – Internal, Academic, Socio-Cultural – indicated that each dimension potentially provoked a student to CA.
- Hypothesis #2 received support from Q13, and shows Mean score of 3.113.
• Hypothesis # 3 was related to Q16, and the latter was found to be problematic. It could not be validated and we will alter it. This will also increase reliability of the scale.
• Hypothesis # 4 was supported by the fact that a proportionately large number (5) of questions with high Mean score were sub-factors of the “Internal / self” dimension.

Conclusion and review
This pilot study has given us important findings as we have sought to test the unique tool that was designed to measure Communication Apprehension among undergraduate students in the Indian context. The findings of this preliminary study have helped validate the model of Communication Apprehension we had proposed promote understanding of its dynamics in the English as Second Language environment in an Asian context. In a bid to sharpen its accuracy and reliability, the questionnaire will now be submitted to experts for their feedback. After possible refinement for both language and content, it will be used for larger scale study in the future.

We expect that this research instrument, designed for the Asian context, will open new dimensions for learners, educators, academicians and practitioners to understand and alleviate Communication Apprehension.

ADDENDUM – UNIQUE MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT THAT WAS DEvised & USED
COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION IN PUBLIC SPEAKING – Master (jumbled Qs)

1. Presently studying.......................... 2. Gender (tick one): M / F  
3. Grew up in (tick one): Urban / Rural setting  4. Medium of instruction at school..........................  

**Directions:** Below are 24 statements that people sometimes make about themselves. Please indicate how you think each statement applies to you by marking whether you:

- Strongly agree = 5,  
- Agree = 4,  
- Sometimes agree = 3,  
- Disagree = 2,  
- Always disagree = 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I am confident in communicating in English before an audience.</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>When delivering a presentation, I am equally confident where addressing a simple or</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sophisticated audience.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Since I was raised in a city I believe that I am confident to speak publicly to a group of</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>diverse people</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>When I am preparing a speech, I envisage myself delivering it with confidence</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>When I make a mistake while delivering a speech, I find it negatively affects the rest of</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>the speech</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>My parents' academic qualifications have given me self-confidence in my own academic work</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The thought of having to speak to a group of people does not make me nervous or tense</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>If the student who presents before me is visibly nervous, I find anxiety rising in me too</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Because I grew up as a child in a rural setting, I feel shy when addressing an urban group</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I'm able to control feelings of fear and speak confidently while doing a presentation</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I feel shy and self-conscious while speaking before an audience made up of the opposite sex</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I usually assume that my audience will support me when I'm delivering a speech to them</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>If my teacher is not warm towards me, I struggle when delivering a presentation</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>When I imagine myself standing before a group of people to address them, I feel anxiety</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>arising from within</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>The thought of podium/lecture/stage/auditorium invigorates me</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I find I struggle to effectively communicate in English in a group setting because English is not my native first language</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>The thought of a large audience seated before me, with all eyes focused on me, frightens me</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I find I am hesitant to address people that I think are of a higher social status than me</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>My speech delivery is not affected by the teacher's body language</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I would have been more confident in public speaking if my parents had better educational qualifications</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Generally, I try to avoid having to address a group of people</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>When I make a mistake while delivering a speech, I find it negatively affects the rest of the speech</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I look forward to addressing an audience which consists of both sexes</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>When I feel passionately committed to the topic I am giving a speech on, I feel fairly self-confident</td>
<td></td>
<td>+</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Bibliography


MOOCs & More: Integrating F2F & Virtual Classes via Blended Learning Approach

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Abstract

Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) are (re)shaping, (re)configuring, and (re)defining the landscape of teaching and learning across the globe. Anchored on TPACK (Koehler & Mishra, 2009) and Connectivism (Siemens, 2004), this study explored the pedagogical viability of integrating MOOCs into an English language classroom using the flex model of Horn and

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Staker’s (2014) Blended Learning Framework. Research participants were 39 senior students in a private university in Manila, Philippines, who were enrolled in a Business Communication class during the first semester of the academic year 2015 – 2016. Using Coursera (www.coursera.org) as the MOOC platform, the student participants took University of California Irvine’s MOOC on High-Impact Business Writing in conjunction with the face-to-face classes for a duration of five weeks. Research data from students’ reflections, survey, and focus group discussions reveal that MOOCs are viewed by students as an innovative, dynamic, and practical way of facilitating learning and enriching subject matter knowledge in today’s digital era. MOOCs are also seen by the students not only as a significant ‘add-on’ to the curriculum but also as a platform in promoting learner autonomy despite some technological limitations and attitudinal issues. Implications for teachers and researchers are provided in the light of these findings.

**Keywords:** Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs); MOOCs in the Philippines; Blended Learning in the Philippines; Connectivism; TPACK

**Introduction**

**The Rise of MOOCs**

Since the inception of CCK08: Connectivism and Connected Knowledge, a massive open online course (MOOC) that was designed and facilitated by George Siemens and Stephen Downes in 2008, offered to 25 tuition-paying students at the University of Manitoba and participated in at the same time by over 2200 students from the different parts of the world at no cost and without earning any credit (Educause, 2011; Decker, 2014; Lowe, 2014), the ‘digital revolution’ in education (Brabon, 2014, p.1) was born. Since then, global education leaders, policy makers, field practitioners, and researchers have turned their gaze to the potentials of MOOCs in reimagining how knowledge can be communicated via this modern platform and in investigating whether MOOCs provide sound instructional design leading to quality outcomes and experiences for the students (Hayes, 2015). MOOC has become 2012’s buzzword in higher education (Daniel, 2012 in Chen, 2014). David Willetts, former U.K. Universities and Science Minister once heralded MOOCs as “the opportunity to widen access to our world-class universities and to meet the global demand for higher education” (Wintrup, Wakefield, & Davis, 2015, p. 6). Billington and Fromueller (2013) and Dyer (2014) stated in Israel (2015) that MOOC is a disruptive innovation to bring reform in higher education.
MOOC is an acronym for **Massive Open Online Course**, a term coined by Dave Cormier after Siemens and Downes’ **CCK08** MOOC; however, Siemens and Downes credit the term to David Wiley and Alec Couros who created their own wiki-based free online courses in 2007 (Decker, 2014). **Massive** pertains to the potential of attracting thousands of enrollees from different parts of the world such as the case in 2011, when a MOOC on Artificial Intelligence developed by Sebastian Thrun who was a professor at Stanford University, was taken by approximately 160,000 students from around the globe with 28,000 students who successfully completed the course. **Open** means that anyone from anywhere in the world, regardless of educational background, socioeconomic status, gender, age, and color, can enroll in a MOOC via the Internet. Liyanagunawardena et al. (2013 in Israel, 2015) noted that the word **Open** implies that people do not require any specific academic qualification, fees, and completion of courses. Others suggest that the term **Open** should refer to **Open Access**, which means that the content of a MOOC is not only free and available to everyone, but is under Creative Commons License allowing anyone to download, save, reuse, remix, retain, and redistribute content to suit his or her purpose and context with proper acknowledgement of the developer (Decker, 2014). **Online** refers to the mode of content delivery, which is accessed by the learner via the Internet using electronic gadgets such as desktop computer, laptop, tablet, phablet, and cellular phone. **Course** entails the format of how a certain course operates with phases such as enrollment, start and end dates, course content, assessment and evaluation.

The MOOC movement in educational landscape was picked up by various institutions and they started establishing MOOC platforms in collaboration with various field experts and organizations. Some of the most notable MOOC providers in the world include the following: **Udacity (www.udacity.com)**, founded in June 2011 by Sebastian Thrun, David Stavens, and Mike Sokolsky and launched in February 2012; **Coursera (www.coursera.org)**, founded by Andrew Ng and Daphne Koller and launched in April 2012; **edX (www.edx.org)**, created by scientists from Harvard University and Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) and launched in May 2012; **Canvas Network (www.canvas.net)**, launched in November 2012 by Instructure which was founded by Brian Whitmer and Devlin Daley in 2008; **Open2Study (www.open2study.com)**, launched in April 2013 by Open Universities Australia; and **Iversity (www.iversity.org)**, created by Jonas Liepmann and Hannes Klöpper and launched in October 2013.

MOOCs gained both appraisals and criticisms. Opinions about MOOCs are divided about their value and importance. MOOCs are seen as ‘significant catalysts’ in education (Bayne & Ross, 2014), as ‘an innovation with great potential to widen participation and promote lifelong
learning’ (QAA, 2014), and as a ‘recent stage in open education’ (Creelman, Ehlers, & Ossiannilsson, 2014). On the other hand, MOOCs are viewed as ‘disruptive technology’ (Christensen, 2010), as merely a ‘marketing exercise’ (Conole, 2013), and as a ‘lousy product’ (Thrun, 2013). And in places like Harvard, several liberal arts professors have been protesting “the rush to embrace MOOCs, which they worry will undermine the personal, intellectual connection inherent to a liberal arts education” (Carr, 2013, p. 2 in Johnson, 2013). Nevertheless, Creelman et al. (2014) emphasize that ‘MOOCs present the possibility of new approaches to education,’ and Wintrup et al. (2015) suggest three key areas for further research on MOOCs: education enhancement focusing on curriculum developers and learners, higher education providers and their marketing teams, and researchers and policy makers.

**MOOCs, Connectivism, TPACK and Blended Learning**

Smith and Eng (2013 in Hayes, 2015) presented two distinct pedagogical forms of MOOCs: cMOOCs and xMOOCs. Likely built on the Community of Practice Model, cMOOCs are considered ‘connectivist’ (Siemens, 2012 in Hayes, 2015) because they concentrate on social interaction, engagement, and mass communication, while xMOOCs are referred to as ‘instructivist’ as it focuses on knowledge transmission through video and mini-lectures (Jona & Naidu, 2014 in Hayes, 2015) such as Coursera, the platform used in this study. George Siemens (2012 in Decker, 2014) offers his own description of these two types of MOOCs: “cMOOCs focus on knowledge creation and generation whereas xMOOCs focus on knowledge duplication.” Furthermore, Jacoby (2014, p. 76) describes MOOCs as being “based on principles of connectivism, openness, and participatory teaching” and which “[emphasizes] human agency, user participation, and creativity through a dynamic network of connections afforded by online technology” (Ebben & Murphy, 2014, p. 333). On the other hand, Hew and Cheung (2014, p. 50) describe MOOCs as “follow[ing] a cognitivist-behaviorist approach” and that they resemble “traditional teacher-directed course[s], yet automated, massive, and online (Kennedy, 2014, p. 8).

The pedagogy underpinning MOOCs is informed by connectivist views of learning, which posit “that knowledge is distributed and learning is the process of navigating, growing, and pruning connections” (Siemens, 2012). Driscoll (2000, p. 11, in Siemens, 2004) defines learning as “a persisting change in human performance or performance potential…[which] must come about as a result of the learner’s experience and interaction with the world.” In describing the nature of learning in the digital age, which is characterized by network
connections, small worlds and ties, George Siemens (2004) proposed a new model of learning which he called “Connectivism”.

Connectivism is the integration of principles explored by chaos, network, and complexity and self-organization theories. Learning is a process that occurs within nebulous environments of shifting core elements – not entirely under the control of the individual. Learning (defined as actionable knowledge) can reside outside of ourselves (within an organization or database), is focused on connecting specialized information sets, and the connections that enable us to learn more are more important than our current state of knowing. (George Siemens, 2004).

Siemens (2005 in Holotescu, 2015) further states that in Connectivism, “knowledge is distributed across a network of connections, and therefore learning consists of the ability to construct and traverse those networks”; knowledge is “the set of connections formed by actions and experience.” “Connectivism is built on an assumption of a constructivist model of learning, with the learner at the centre, connecting and constructing knowledge in a context that includes not only external networks and groups but also his or her own histories and predilections” (Anderson and Dron, 2011 in Holotescu, 2015).

Although MOOCs are commonly designed and delivered as independent or stand-alone courses, several studies have already explored MOOC integration into university classes (Bruff, 2012; Koller, 2012; Bruff et al., 2013; Caulfield et al., 2013; Firmin et al., 2014; Griffiths et al., 2014; Holotescu et al., 2014), indicating the possibility of utilizing MOOC elements in delivering course content as a form of blended learning approach with the aim of enhancing student learning experiences. According to Koller (2012 in Israel, 2015), MOOCs offer opportunities to wrap on-campus courses around existing MOOCs. Integrating MOOCs via blended learning or hybrid format may improve student outcomes and reduce costs (Griffiths, 2014 in Israel, 2015). The approach of integrating MOOCs into face-to-face classes has been referred to as “distributed flip” (Caulfield et al., 2013) or blended / hybrid model (Bruff et al., 2013; Griffiths et al., 2014; Holotescu et al., 2014).

Blended learning is not new. As far as 2,000 years ago, teachers have been ‘blending’ their teaching in the physical classroom with lectures, laboratory activities, books, and handouts. The concept evolved today and provided educators a myriad of teaching approaches (Singh, 2003). Blended learning is rooted on the idea that ‘learning is a continuous process and not just a one-time event’ (Singh, 2003, p.6). Kim (2007 in Johnson, 2013) defined several categories of learning and suggested that they may overlap and sometimes combined to suit any educator’s pedagogical approach. These learning categories are as follows:

- formal, course-scheduled, physical class learning (traditional);
• formal, course-scheduled, face-to-face interaction-based learning;
• formal, class-scheduled and course-scheduled e-learning;
• informal, class-scheduled and course-scheduled physical class learning; and
• informal, unscheduled e-learning.

According to Clayton Christensen Institute (2015), blended learning is a formal education program in which a student learns (1) at least in part through online learning, with some element of student control over time, place, path, and/or pace; (2) at least in part in a supervised brick-and-mortar location away from home; and (3) the modalities along each student’s learning path within a course or subject are connected to provide an integrated learning experience. Horn and Staker (2014) present blended learning models that usually comprise blended-learning programs: rotation, flex, a la carte, and enriched virtual. The rotation model includes four sub-models: station rotation, lab rotation, flipped classroom, and individual rotation. Blended learning mixes face-to-face/in-class activities with online/outside-class activities with the integration of synchronous and asynchronous learning tools (Holotescu et al., 2007; Andone & Vasiu, 2012; Naaji et al., 2013 in Holotescu et al., 2014). Garrison and Vaughan (2008 in Israel, 2015) described the basic principle of blended or hybrid learning as, “face-to-face oral communication and online written communication are optimally integrated such that the strengths of each are blended into a unique learning experience congruent with the context and intended learning purpose” (p. 5).

This study utilizing blended learning model by integrating a MOOC into the classroom is informed by Matthew Koehler and Punya Mishra’s (2009) Technological Pedagogical and Content Knowledge (TPACK) Framework, which underpins the complex interplay and interconnections of the three primary forms of knowledge – Content (C), Pedagogy (P), and Technology – that results in the following intersections: Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK), Technological Content Knowledge (TCK), Technological Pedagogical Knowledge (TPK), and Technological Pedagogical Content Knowledge (TPCK). TPACK guides this study in developing sensitivity to the dynamic and transactional relationship among all three components and in flexibly navigating the spaces defined by these key elements in the utilization of MOOC in the class. Koehler and Mishra (2009) suggest that educators should go beyond the “functional fixedness” of technology and innovate to make it pedagogically viable.

Drawing from the foregoing discussion on the pedagogical potential of integrating MOOCs into the traditional classroom setting, this study investigated the viability of the approach in an English as a second language (ESL) classroom context in a private university in the Philippines,
adapting the principles of Horn and Staker’s (2014) flex model of blended learning and using Coursera (www.coursera.org) as the MOOC platform. While there has been a deluge on MOOC research in western parts of the world particularly North America and Europe (Veletsianos & Shepherdson, 2016), MOOC studies in Asia especially in the Philippines remain to be sparse if not scarce. Furthermore, MOOC research has primarily focused on the needs and perspectives of the greater public (de Waard, 2011; Byerly, 2012; Carey, 2012; Lewin, 2012), the perspectives of faculty and administration (Parry, 2010; Chamberlain & Parish, 2011; Duneier, 2012; Marklein, 2012), yet attention seldom turns to actual users of MOOCs (Cole & Timmerman, 2015) making “learners’ voice to be largely absent in the literature” (Veletsianos & Shepherdson, 2016). Hence, this study aims to explore student MOOCers’ experiences, as well as the applicability, suitability, and viability of MOOCs in the Philippine ESL context.

**Research Questions**

This study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What are the students’ attitudes on learning in a blended/hybrid learning environment of in-class instruction combined with outside-of-class Massive Open Online Course (MOOC)?

2. What are the benefits, challenges, and limitations of integrating a MOOC into a traditional face-to-face class in a university ESL context?

**Methodology**

**Participants**

The participants in this study were 39 college senior students who were taking Bachelor of Science in Accountancy and were enrolled in the required Business Correspondence subject during the first semester of the academic year 2015 – 2016 at the Lyceum of the Philippines University, Manila. The students attended the regular classes twice a week with 1.5 hours per session. They were required to enroll in and take the MOOC on *High-Impact Business Writing* (https://www.coursera.org/learn/business-writing/home/welcome), which was facilitated by the University of California, Irvine via Coursera. The course ran for four weeks and contained the following weekly topics:

- Week 1 - Introduction to Business Writing
- Week 2 – Spelling, Grammar, Sentence and Paragraphs
- Week 3 – Document Types and their Considerations
- Week 4 – Finalizing Formal Document, Informal Written Communication and Social Media

![Figure 1: Screenshot of the MOOC on University of California – Irvine’s High-Impact Business Writing](image)

**Procedure**

The following steps were taken in incorporating MOOC into the Business Correspondence class:

1. Class orientation was conducted to discuss with the students that they were going to take an online class on top of their regular class. The rationale of the online course was given and the guidelines were discussed.
2. Students were required to create a Coursera account.
3. They were required to enroll at the MOOC on University of California – Irvine’s High-Impact Business Writing. To access the course as officially enrolled students without paying the course fee of $49, they applied for Coursera’s ‘financial aid program’.
4. A class Facebook group was created by the teacher to be used a class convener for MOOC-related discussions and other class matters.
5. The authors demonstrated to the class how to use the navigation tools in Coursera particularly in accessing video lectures, posting of assignments, taking online quizzes,
participating in online forum or discussion board, among others. The teacher assisted the class in navigating the platform by themselves using their electronic devices.

6. Students had to take the MOOC outside the class on their free time. The class followed the weekly format outlined by the course. Students were required to post the screenshots of their Coursera quiz scores on the class’ Facebook group as a means to track students’ progress. Weekly Facebook discussions were also conducted to tackle salient points learned from the MOOC.

7. Thirty minutes in every class meeting for twice a week was allotted to summarize the key concepts in the MOOC. Students provided summaries of points learned and shared their individual learning experiences to the class. The students related the lessons from the MOOC to the lessons discussed in the class and made connections with them. Students were asked to compare and contrast the points discussed in the MOOC and the ideas tackled in the class on similar concepts.

8. Upon completion of the class, students were asked to print their statements of accomplishment or course completion certificates to be graded as part of their class project, which was 20% of the final course rating.

**Instruments and Data Analysis**

To unpack students’ experiences in taking the MOOC, students completed a survey questionnaire via Survey Monkey (www.surveymonkey.org) after completing the MOOC. Their responses were analyzed and described qualitatively and were triangulated with the data gathered from the students’ reflections, individual interviews, and focus group discussion (FGD).

**Results**

**Advantages of blended learning with a MOOC**

After four weeks of completing a MOOC in conjunction with the regular class, students took part in a survey relating how they appraised their engagement with learning on a MOOC. All of the 39 students who participated in the MOOC responded to the survey, which consisted 10 questions exploring their demographic profiles, general MOOC experience including perceived advantages and challenges, and their attitudes towards this type of learning. Findings are presented graphically with excerpts from students’ reflections and interviews. The authors do not claim generalizability of the findings as these are contingent, contextualized, situated uniquely in time and place, and particular to the MOOC being taken by the students.
All of the students (n=39, 100%) reported that it was a good and innovative idea to integrate a MOOC into the regular English class. A student commented that with MOOC, “learning is not only limited in the four corners of a classroom, but it can also be extended outside of its domain." Another student also responded, “Coursera has been an excellent avenue to apply the writing skills I learned in class. It is also perfect for students to expand their skills, not only in writing and communication, but in computer literacy as well.” Table 1 lists students’ perceived advantages on learning with a MOOC.

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advantages of learning with a MOOC</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>offers free, accessible and flexible alternative learning resource</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enhances writing skills</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>serves as reviewer of lessons discussed in class</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>provides continuous learning</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>provides enjoyment in learning</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>develops independent learners</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enhances grammar skills</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>allows meaningful use of technology</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>39</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the 39 responses, 28% (n=11) indicated that the students ‘like’ the MOOC that they completed because it provides free, accessible, and flexible alternative learning opportunity for them. This finding substantiates Liyanagunawardena et al.’s (2013 in Israel, 2015) notion of the term ‘open’, which suggests that regardless of the learners’ ability and proficiency in the subject, they can enroll and participate in a course and access its learning modules and materials. Furthermore, MOOCs are delivered online, so learners can study using their internet-capable electronic devices anytime anywhere; and because learning with MOOCs is self-paced, learners can set their learning schedule on their most convenient time. Students in this study reported that MOOCs are excellent learning resource that they can access in order to expand their content knowledge. Nine (23%) responses stated that learning with a MOOC improved their writing skills through practical activities that required them to produce written outputs on different business writing genres. Johnson (2013) also reported a similar finding in her study.
showing that majority of her students preferred writing in a blended learning environment because they perceived it to be more engaging and effective. Seven students (18%) stressed that MOOCs could serve as a reviewer of the lessons and concepts discussed in the class; hence, MOOC topics could reinforce learning and establish connections of ideas. Other students claimed that MOOCs are a good avenue for continuous learning; they make learning enjoyable and allow for technological practice and grammar improvement. Bruffet et al. (2013 in Najafi, Evans, & Federico, 2014) also reported that students responded positively to their MOOC class integration experience and noted that face-to-face class helped them work well in their self-faced MOOC learning outside-of-class, hence providing them a continuous opportunity for learning. Finally, students believed that MOOCs can develop autonomous learners who learn actively without the constant reminder from their teachers, can help them enhance their English grammar, and can facilitate meaningful use of technology. The following students’ avowals validate these findings:

Table 2
Students’ avowals showing the benefits of their MOOC learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived benefits of learning with a MOOC</th>
<th>Interview and FGD transcripts showing the advantages of learning with MOOCs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>offers free, accessible and flexible alternative learning resource</td>
<td>You have more than one source of knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enhances writing skills</td>
<td>It is an accessible and flexible learning style. We can learn when we want to and wherever we are as long as we have internet connection. (S3-M-18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>serves as reviewer of lessons discussed in class</td>
<td>The MOOC enables us to improve our business writing skills. (S22-F-17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>provides continuous learning</td>
<td>We can produce better written outputs. (S30-F-18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>provides enjoyment in learning</td>
<td>It acts as a reviewer of all the things I already know. (S38-M-17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>develops independent learners</td>
<td>We are refreshed of previous lessons. Therefore, more ready English class in the room [sic]. (S17-M-18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Learning is not focused on the four walls of the classroom; thus, it widens the horizon for learning. (S5-F-17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It is fun learning things with MOOC. (S14-M-18)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We are able to learn even without the professor physically present. (S39-F-17)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
enhances grammar skills: You can be able to identify and correct some sentence level grammatical and punctuation errors. (S27-M-17)

allows meaningful use of technology: It helps students to be educated while doing their work on their gadget. (S20-F-17)

Challenges in learning with a MOOC

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Challenges encountered by the students while learning with a MOOC</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>time constraints</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>weak internet connection</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>communication barrier with the MOOC instructor</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lack of personal motivation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unengaging material</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lack of technological resource</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>39</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As with any educational endeavors, learning online with MOOCs in a blended classroom also poses problems and challenges. Majority of the students (54%, n=21) reported that ‘time’ was their main concern in successfully completing the MOOC. Because of their surmounting school tasks, they claimed that they could not concentrate on doing the MOOC; thus, they only tried to ‘insert’ a modicum of MOOC-time amidst their hectic schedule, suggesting that at some point, they felt that it interfered with their regular classes. MOOC’s deadlines on task completion and assignment submission heightened the pressure, and this resulted in low turnout of assessment scores. Time difference also posed a problem when students encountered difficulty in submitting their works because the system declared them overdue. This is a major concern because MOOC is only an add-on in the current class curriculum, which students had to complete on top of the regular class syllabus, and thus demanding more time from them. Furthermore, eight students (21%) complained about poor internet connectivity in the campus and at home. Some areas in the university did not have Wi-Fi access; hence, students could not easily access their Coursera accounts, causing delay in the completion of their learning modules. At home, students also experienced weak internet connection or even lack of access to the internet due to unavailability of internet-capable devices. This finding corroborates with the observations of some authors (Stine, 2004; Van Roekel, 2008; Brandstrom, 2011; Mayes,
Natividad, & Spector, 2015; Rabah, 2015) who consider ‘access problems’ as a barrier to learning in a blended/hybrid learning environment. Six students (15%) narrated that at some point in the course, they could not understand the MOOC instructor because of the latter’s pronunciation, speedy rate of speech, and difficult word choice. Some students also reported that the instructions given by the instructors in doing some tasks were sometimes complicated and difficult to understand. Other students shared that they sometimes lacked motivation in attending to their online course because of unengaging and boring materials. Israel (2015) remarks that fitting MOOCs into the existing classroom setup may pose a huge challenge in ensuring student engagement, satisfaction and effective learning; hence, educators should carefully design its planning, implementation, and assessment phases.

Discussion
The findings in this study suggest that integrating a MOOC into a regular face-to-face ESL writing class may offer both advantages and disadvantages. Potential benefits may include enhanced input for the students as they are afforded an alternative learning opportunity beyond what the in-class instruction provides for them. Participants in this study claim that the blended/hybrid learning enhances their language skills particularly writing and grammar skills, facilitates their continuous and autonomous learning, and offers them an opportunity to experience free and quality online education. These findings corroborate with the results of previous studies (Johnson, 2013; Zutshi, O’Hare, & Rodafinos, 2013; Holotescu et al., 2014; Hayes, 2015; Comer & White, 2016) which delineate the pedagogical potentials of MOOCs in improving students outcomes.

Apart from ‘access problems’ to MOOCs, another major concern is in curating and/or creating MOOCs that tailor-fit when embedded with existing classroom curriculum in order to provide students effective, relevant, and engaging online instructors and materials. Israel (2015) cited Bruff et al. (2014) who argue that “there are varying perquisites and emphasis both in local face-to-face classes and MOOCs.” They further explained that MOOC integration into traditional classroom settings is largely influenced by two important elements, coupling and cohesion, which they described as: “Coupling refers to kinds and extent to the kinds and extent of dependency between online and in-class components of a hybrid course whereas cohesion refers to the relatedness of the course content overall” (p. 195). Participants in this study also reported occasional communication breakdown with the native English MOOC instructor because of the latter’s accent, vocabulary, and pacing. This may implicate educators
planning to integrate MOOCs to develop their own content and appear as MOOC instructors in the video materials for contextualized, clear and connected instruction.

**Conclusion and Future Directions**

This study explored the pedagogical viability of integrating a MOOC into a regular classroom via blended or hybrid learning model. Consistent with the perspective of Hill (2012 in Hayes, 2015), the findings of this study suggest that blended classrooms can be designed utilizing MOOCs for alternative content delivery and for creation of other learning possibilities and pathways. The MOOCs’ massive, open and online nature in communicating knowledge paves way for continuous learning among students, developing them to be autonomous learners beyond the confines of the physical classroom. This echoes QAA’s (2014) notion that MOOCs are a modern educational innovation that has a great potential to promote lifelong learning provided it is designed and delivered carefully and properly. The students’ MOOC experience in this study seems to illustrate that MOOCs can be a ‘disruptive technology’ (Christensen, 2010); however, this disruption may not always be dangerous and destructive. There were shortcomings and challenges of the model utilized, but they were only part of the bigger picture. MOOCs ‘disrupt’ the regular flow of the traditional setting of teaching and learning as it attempts to provide another educational platform, urging the academe to revisit, redefine, and reinvent our age-old pedagogical approaches.

With the potentials and possibilities posed by designing a blended classroom with MOOCs, this study suggests that MOOCs should not be viewed merely as a ‘marketing exercise’ (Conole, 2013) and as a ‘lousy product’ (Thrun, 2013), for a learner can in fact join a class via free access and can increase his or her knowledge base through quality course content from various course providers across the globe.

MOOCs are a glimpse of the future of education, and despite the technological and instructional design limitations that they face at the moment, they remain a significant force to reckon in the current educational paradigm. As a ‘recent stage in open education’ (Creelman, Ehlers, & Ossiannilsson, 2014), we believe that MOOCs will continue to be ‘significant catalysts’ in education (Bayne & Ross, 2014), as they promise limitless possibilities in rethinking, restructuring, and redesigning the way we teach and learn.

Future studies on similar nature in various contexts elsewhere may design or adapt strategic frameworks for course design in blending or hybridizing face-to-face classes with MOOCs to reveal significant impacts in students’ outcomes and explore the use of learning analytics to
guide early interventions to improve engagement, persistence, and outcomes of students (Firmin et al., 2014).

References

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Literature-Based Teaching Reading Strategy, Media Exposure, and Students’ Reading Level

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Abstract
This study evaluated the significant relationship on the use of literature-based teaching reading strategy and media exposure to the students’ reading level. The findings on the interface of the three variables reveal the following: First, the level of practice of literature-based teaching reading strategy of both public and private teachers was categorized as rarely practice. Second, the level of media exposure of public and private students was categorized as high. Third, the students’ reading level from public belongs to instructional while the latter belongs to frustration level which means that students from public schools have higher reading level compared to the students from private schools.

Key words: Literature-based teaching reading strategy, media exposure, and reading level.

This paper is an original one and has never been published elsewhere and is not under consideration elsewhere.
Introduction

One of the most crucial skills that must be developed in the individual’s initial stage of formal education is reading. The nature of present day life is such that a person can hardly exist without being able to read. Everybody knows that reading is the primary avenue to knowledge. One must learn more and reason more. Reading helps to accomplish this. It is the most important task of learning and all lessons in schools need reading. A student who loves to read well becomes well-independent, well-informed and eventually becomes a better citizen. Success in reading therefore, is success in school, and in the future (Nunan, 1989).

According to several researchers, 80 percent of the things people do today involve reading. Some years ago, people considered reading as a leisure time activity, largely for enjoyment. However, nowadays, due to rapid changes, the knowledge explosion and tremendous advance in science and technology call for efficient reading. Conversely, with millions of good books in the libraries, e-books and other reading materials available online, a good reader could hardly resist reading these materials. Consequently, today’s faster living means faster reading.

However, educators around the world aired the reading problems of their students and this does not exempt our country. Thousands of high school students in the Philippines are also struggling with their academic texts. This statement is supported by National Research Council and further emphasized that the educational careers of 25%-40% of the said students are imperiled because they do not read well enough and quickly enough to ensure comprehension in their content courses (Tan, 2010).

Reading problems in the country may be growing worse. As Bag-ao (2012) described the dawning hope of several students in one secondary school in Pagadian City. These students who had spent several years of tedious reading exercises with their teachers had severe reading problems which at the end resulted to successful increase in their reading comprehension.

These issues are echoed by Palermo (2014) after conducting the Academic Performance and the Reading Level of MSU-Buug high school students, her findings reveal that the students’ low performance in English is caused by their poor reading level and may attributed to their lack of exposure, reading materials, interest, and motivation in reading.

Realizing that many teachers complained that many of their high school students who are coming to school have reading problems, the researcher would like to help both teachers and students by introducing literature-based teaching reading strategy since it has a lot of positive results as reported by numerous educators and researchers in Western countries. It is the contention of the researcher that this new strategy with the help of media exposure will
encourage many students to read more which will enable them to improve their reading level especially the students of MSU-Buug where the researcher has been teaching for more than ten years.

**Literature Review**

Literature-Based Reading strategy was based on the concepts of Graves (2001) which disclosed the following key components: reading materials, skills instruction, word recognition, ability grouping, assessment, student-centered orientation, and integrating reading with other concerns. On the other hand, media exposure was sourced from Megee (1997) which emphasized the following key components: access, analysis, evaluation, and production. Lastly, students’ reading level was based on the Philippine Informal Reading Inventory (PHIL-IRI) Silent Reading, a variation of Informal Reading Inventory (IRI) from the Manual of Instruction by the Department of Education which has two key components: reading speed and comprehension.

This study is supported by the schema theory which involves interaction between the readers’ own knowledge and the text, resulting in comprehension. The background knowledge serves as scaffolding to aid in encoding information from the text. From this, one can see that persons with more background knowledge as they expose themselves on English print media can comprehend better than those that have less exposure. Students can relate from this new information to the existing information they have compartmentalized in their minds, adding it to their files for future use. Simply put, the degree of reading comprehension may vary according to their background knowledge which stem from exposure to different media genre in English.

Another theory that has a direct bearing to this undertaking is the cultivation theory which examines the long-term effects of television. The primary proposition of cultivation theory states that the more time people spend living in the television world, the more likely they are to believe social reality portrayed on television. Under this umbrella, perceptions of the world are heavily influenced by the images and ideological messages transmitted through popular television media. People's comprehension of their day-to-day lives to gain a larger understanding of how people perceive their realities. Findings from the message system analysis process convert into the further research and questions regarding social reality.

The concept of media literacy also supported this study which states that children should be taught who is communicating in the media, for what purpose, with what effect, and
on behalf of which individuals. It should be made as an integral part of all traditional disciplines: language, arts, social studies, sciences, and even in Mathematics (Megee, 1997).

Magic bullet theory is also useful to this study since its focus is on the linear model of communication. This theory talks about the audiences directly influence by the mass media and the media's power on the audience. This theory graphically assumes that the media's message is a bullet fired from the "media gun" into the viewer's "head" (1995). Similarly, the "hypodermic needle model" uses the same idea of the "shooting" paradigm. It suggests that the media injects its messages straight into the passive audience (Croteau, Hoynes 1997). This passive audience pertains to the students who are immediately affected by these messages.

Philippine Informal Reading Inventory-(PHIL-IRI) is a variation of IRI. It is an informal measure that assess students’ reading speed and comprehension skills in either oral or silent reading. It consists of graded reading passage either expository or narrative and each is followed by questions with three dimensions: literal, interpretative, and applied. Literal questions whose answers are explicitly stated or given in the story. Interpretative questions require students to read between the lines to find answer. Applied questions draw from the students’ own way of visualizing things based on their own scheme. They are carefully written to ensure that the characters, setting, and plot appeal to the students. They are culture-neutral, gender free and without biases against religion, ethnicity, or race and socio-economic status. They are also laden with values and real life situations. It is adapted from the context of IRI to help teachers determine the reading abilities and needs of their students to provide basis for planning their classroom instruction (Phil-IRI Manual).

Qualitative and quantitative information about students’ reading capabilities can be also determined by Phil-IRI. Qualitative information reveals word recognition, patterns of word errors, comprehension skills, reading behaviors, attitudes, and the measurement of reading growth over time. On the other hand, quantitative information reveals the reading levels: independent, instructional, and frustration. Independent is the highest level at which the students can read independently and with ease without help or guidance of the teacher. Each student is free from tension, finger pointing or lip movement and reads with rhythm and with conversational tone and interprets punctuation correctly. Instructional is the level at which student can profit from instruction though there are some errors but are not excessive and comprehension is adequate. Frustration is the lowest level where student shows evidence of finger pointing or lip movement and also withdraws from the reading situation by refusing to read and commits adequate errors. It is important that the English teachers should know the
reading level of their students so that they could plan appropriate instructions that would enable their students reach their potential reading level.

Methodology

The study utilized descriptive type of research with the survey using questionnaire to gather data on the three variables. Both public and private schools in Buug, Zamboanga Sibugay served as research environments. The researcher chose to get 10 percent from the total population from each school. A total of 41 Grade 11 students served as respondents, 25 from the public schools Mindanao State University-Buug and Buug National High School and 16 from the private schools Saint Paul School of Buug and Western Mindanao Institute. Grade 11 students who are enrolled in the School Year 2016-2017 with the same academic tracks: Sciences, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM); and Humanities, and Social Sciences (HUMSS) are chosen as respondents for they are currently taking the course Reading and Writing Skills wherein the two variables of this study could be additive resources to help them improve their reading level. With the help of probability sampling using the simple random through lottery, student samples were identified. Since only one English teacher who is handling the said course in each school, the researcher finds it insufficient and therefore assigned the students to rate their teachers with her proper guidance.

There are three research instruments used by the researcher. The first was the questionnaire on literature-based teaching reading strategies sourced from Graves (2001); English media exposure questionnaire adopted from Megee (1997) and the Philippine Informal Reading Inventory Silent, Speed and Comprehension Test from the Department of Education (2008). Inferential statistics projected the significant differences of the three variables between the two groups of respondents where Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used, and Pearson coefficient of correlation was utilized to determine the relationship between the two independent variables and the dependent variable.

Results, Analysis and Discussions

Problem 1. To what level do the public and private teachers use the literature-based teaching reading strategy?
As shown in table 1, the highest mean of public school teachers is 2.66 interpreted as often practiced, is posted on integrating reading with other concerns; and the lowest mean is 2.29 interpreted as rarely practiced, is posted on reading materials. The over-all mean of public school teachers is 2.47 interpreted as rarely practiced.

On the other hand, private school teachers’ highest mean is 2.80 interpreted as often practiced is posted on ability grouping; and their lowest mean is 2.23 interpreted as rarely practiced is posted on reading materials. The over-all mean of private school teachers is 2.47 interpreted as rarely practiced.

The finding of the study reveals that both English teachers from public and private who are teaching the course Reading and Writing Skills are similarly categorized to have rarely practiced literature-based teaching reading strategy. This finding may be justified that these English teachers are not so familiar with this strategy though it was stipulated in the Teachers’ Guide by the Department of Education that this reading strategy should be incorporated by the said teachers in their classes.

According to Hester (1999), an essential source of help for low achieving readers is the classroom teacher, often, a well-implemented program will prevent problems. In addition, some struggling readers may not qualify for special services and even if they do they will benefit from the supplemental reinforcement provided by the classroom teacher. However,
when they are discontinued from the corrective program, a well-planned classroom program will build on what they have learned and prevent future future problems.

Problem 2. Is there a significant difference in the level of literature-based teaching reading strategies between the two groups of teachers?

Table 2. Difference in the Level of Use of Literature-Based between Public and Private

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenets</th>
<th>F-stat Value</th>
<th>Probability Value</th>
<th>Decision of Hypothesis</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading Materials</td>
<td>0.1038</td>
<td>0.7490</td>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills Instruction</td>
<td>0.0501</td>
<td>0.8205</td>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word Recognition</td>
<td>2.1938</td>
<td>0.1526</td>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability Grouping</td>
<td>11.0074</td>
<td>0.0061</td>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment</td>
<td>0.1363</td>
<td>0.7190</td>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student-centered</td>
<td>1.9238</td>
<td>0.8922</td>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrating reading</td>
<td>0.0179</td>
<td>0.8922</td>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Testing the hypothesis 1: There is a significant difference in the level of use of literature-based teaching reading strategy between public and private school teachers. This hypothesis was tested using the One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

The finding of the study reveals that only one tenet in literature-based teaching reading strategy, which is ability grouping that there is a significant difference between the two groups of teachers, the rest of the tenets have no significant differences.

Many experts believe that there are essential things to understand about strategies. As Dole, et al. (1991) have argued that the goal of instruction would be to develop students a sense of consciousness control or metacognitive awareness, over a set of strategies.

Problem 3. What is the level of media exposure between the two groups of students?

Table 3. Summary of Students’ Media Exposure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenets</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th>Private</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Int.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over-all Mean</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hypothetical Mean Range: 3.26-4.00 Very High
2.51-3.25 High
1.76-2.50- Low
1.00-1.75- Very Low

As shown in table 3, the highest mean of students from public schools is 3.24 interpreted as high, is posted on evaluation; and their lowest mean is 2.58 interpreted as high, is posted on production. The over-all mean of public school students is 2.97 interpreted as high which indicates that their level of exposure to media is high.

Students from private schools, their highest mean is 3.40 interpreted as very high, is posted on evaluation; and their lowest mean is 2.64 interpreted as high, is posted on production. The over-all mean of the private school students is 3.16 interpreted as high which indicates that their level of exposure to media is also high.

The finding of the study reveals that students both from public and private schools are similarly categorized to have high level of media exposure. This may be justified by the researcher’s observation that students nowadays are readily interested and have their access to media especially on television, computer and internet either at home or in school.

Mary Megee, Director of Media Education Laboratory in Rutgers University, Newark College of Arts and Sciences in Newark, New Jersey, and executive director of On Television, LTD, a non-profit educational organization in New York City, argues that most urgent issue of the time is systematic education reform that effectively prepares young people for citizenship in the Information Age. The effective effort of this scope requires a sea-change in public understanding of the functions, impacts, and educational potential of the media.

Problem 4. Is there a significant difference in the level of media exposure between the two groups of students?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenets</th>
<th>F-stat value</th>
<th>Probability value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
<th>Int.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Access</td>
<td>2.7653</td>
<td>0.1102</td>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Analysis</td>
<td>11.0044</td>
<td>0.0038</td>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Evaluation</td>
<td>4.1892</td>
<td>0.0432</td>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Production</td>
<td>0.0488</td>
<td>0.8221</td>
<td>Reject</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hypothesis 2. There is a significant difference on students’ media exposure between public and private schools. This hypothesis was tested using One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

The finding of this study reveals that two tenets on media exposure such as: analysis and evaluation have established significant differences between the two groups of students. On the other hand, the other two tenets: access and production have established no significant differences between public and private school students.

With growing media literacy movement in the country, there are some specks of hope that every student both from public and private schools shall be appropriately exposed to English media to acquire media literacy. At home and at school, students can practice selective use of available media resources. This may involve learning more about the internet and other new technologies, encouraging those around to get the most out of every media moment, and to produce their own messages in the media of their choice.

Problem 5. What is the reading level of the two groups of students in terms of:
   a. reading speed;
   b. reading comprehension?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 5. Summary of Students’ Reading Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading Level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Independent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Instructional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Frustration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over-all Reading level</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 shows the reading level of the Grade 11 students from public and private schools. Among the 25 public school students, 3 of them or 12% belong to Independent; 10 or 40% belong to instructional, and 12 or 48% belong to frustration. The over-all reading level of public school students is at instructional level which indicates that students can read but with constant guidance from their teachers.

From the 16 private school students, 1 or 6.25% belongs to independent, 3 or 18.75% belong to instructional, and 12 or 75% belong to frustration. The over-all reading level of private school students is at frustration level which indicates that students can barely read a few words without necessarily committing miscues and errors.
What is frustrating is that much of the reading failure could be prevented if schools just applied what is known as the beginning reading instruction. The field of reading is mirrored in contentious debate principally pitting phonics against whole language as the best instructional approach, a powerful and persuasive consensus has developed among educational, cognitive, and medical researchers, as well as best teachers, about the causes and cures of reading level. Although for most students, the reading battle is lost in the early years but the best place to begin the search for remedies is to observe those who have difficulty in the higher grades (Honig, p.16).

Problem 6. Is there a significant difference in the reading level between the two groups of students?

Table 6. Difference on Students’ Reading Level between Public and Private

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameters</th>
<th>Findings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square value</td>
<td>6.0023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree of freedom</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probability</td>
<td>0.0199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision of hypothesis</td>
<td>Accept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpretation</td>
<td>Significant difference</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis 3. There is a significant difference on students’ reading level between public and private schools. This hypothesis was tested using Chi-square.

Table 6 shows the test of significant difference on the students’ reading level from the public and private schools. Using the chi-square, it can be noted that the chi-square value is 6.0023 with 4 degrees of freedom and a probability value of 0.0199 that is lower than 0.05 level of significance and established a significant difference on their reading level. With this fact, the alternative hypothesis is accepted that in deed, there is a significant difference on the reading level of the two groups of students.

Problem 7. Is there a significant relationship between students’ reading level and the following independent variables?

a. literature-based teaching reading strategy;

b. students’ media exposure?
Table 7. Relationship of Students’ Reading Level on Literature-Based and Media Exposure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Pearson’s r</th>
<th>Probability Value</th>
<th>Decision of Hypothesis</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Literature-Based</td>
<td>0.7936</td>
<td>0.0385</td>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Media Exposure</td>
<td>0.7408</td>
<td>0.0496</td>
<td>Accept</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis 4. There is a significant relationship on students’ reading level on their teachers’ level of use of literature-based and media exposure. This hypothesis was tested using Pearson Coefficient of Correlation.

Table 7 shows the test of significant relationship of students’ reading level to literature-based teaching reading strategy and media exposure between public and private school teachers and students. Using Pearson Coefficient of Correlation, the testing for the English teachers’ use of literature-based yielded an F-stat value of 0.7936 and a probability of 0.0385 that is lower than 0.05 level of significance which accepts the alternative hypothesis. This means that there is a significant relationship between the students’ reading level and their teachers’ level of use of literature-based teaching reading strategies.

The testing for students’ media exposure yielded an F-stat value of 0.7408 and a probability of 0.0496 that is lower than 0.05 level of significance which accepts the alternative hypothesis. This means that there is a significant relationship between the students’ reading level and their level of media exposure.

The finding of this study reveals that literature-based teaching reading strategy and students’ media exposure have significant relationship to their reading level, thus the alternative hypothesis was accepted.

This may be explained by the indices posted by the two groups of teachers and students in terms of relationship of literature-based and media literacy that these have significant relationship on the reading level of the students.

Media is equally important in the sheltered, academic area of classrooms where its ability to provide comprehensive input serves as a scaffold to support students as they study academically challenging subject matter.

Conclusions

Based on the strength of the findings on the interfaces of the three variables, the following conclusions are laid down:
1. The level of practice on literature-based teaching reading strategy of both public and private school teachers is categorized as rarely practice. Significant difference on their level of use was only established on one tenet which is the ability grouping and no significant difference was noted on other six tenets: reading materials, skills instruction, word recognition, assessment, student-centered orientation, and integrating reading with other concerns.

2. The level of media exposure of both public and private school students is categorized as high. Significant difference was established in the two tenets: analysis and evaluation and no significant difference was noted on other two tenets: access and production.

3. The reading level of Grade 11 students from public schools is categorized as instructional while students from private schools is categorized as frustration. This means that students from public schools have higher reading level than the private school students.

4. Significant relationship was established between students’ reading level and the two independent variables: literature-based teaching reading strategy and media exposure. This finding has supported the contention of the researcher that there is a significant relationship that would be posted between the two independent variables and the dependent variable.

**Recommendations**

Based on the conclusions, the following recommendations are laid down with the aim of improving this research endeavor and to identify more variables and possible areas for research:

1. Teachers should try to improve their use of this strategy; and refine group interaction and interpersonal skills to improve their students’ reading level.

2. It is on this regard that teachers should guide their students in choosing appropriate and informative media. In the same way, students should develop their critical thinking skills and be exposed not just to any forms of media but to educational English media.
3. A dialogue between the teachers and the students so that the latter may be able to share their reading problems to their English mentors. Grade 11 students should gain a deeper understanding of media so that they could determine which forms are beneficial and helpful to improve their reading level.

4. Similar studies should be conducted utilizing different respondents to correct the shortcomings and flaws of this study.

5. Seminar-workshops on reading shall be designed and be implemented in order to increase the teachers’ level of use of literature-based and other strategies that are essential to improve the respondents’ reading level thus making them worthy and competitive students.

6. Administrators of both public and private schools who offer Senior High should institute some measures that would greatly affect the students’ reading level such as mandating their teachers to incorporate literature-based strategy in their reading classes not only in English but also in other academic subjects. They too should be implementing reading clinics, after-school reading activities, and organizing reading clubs.

References


The Power of Games and Pictures in Teaching EFL Class

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Abstract
Games and pictures are two different medium that can be very useful to be used in EFL class. This study reports on how powerful games and pictures are in teaching vocabulary to EFL class. The first grade students of three rural schools in East Nusa Tenggara Province have been used as the sample of this study. Tests (both pre- and post-tests) have been used to measure the students’ achievement and both observations and interviews have been used to strengthen the data of the students’ scores. Based on the findings, this study has revealed that games and pictures are very useful and powerful in teaching vocabulary to these EFL students. This has been shown by the positive correlation among the results of the tests, the interviews, and the observations. The students’ average scores have improved from pre-test to post-test. The results of observations and interviews are in a line with the tests. They have shown the signs of positive changes in the classroom atmosphere which occur when the students are treated with games and pictures. Both parties, teachers and students, admit that they are interested in teaching and learning using games and pictures which have been really helpful in facilitating a great teaching and learning process.

1. Introduction
Teaching media is a kind of teaching aid aims at helping teachers support teaching and learning activities in the classroom. The good teaching media doesn’t have to be expensive but it has to
serve as a bridge to connect between teaching learning activities and learning objectives and/or outputs. Many good as well as meaningful teaching medium can be adopted and/or created from cheap and available resources for teachers in rural schools to teach English vocabulary, such as the use of games and pictures as the focus of this study.

EFL teachers in rural schools have already encountered difficulty and many problems in teaching English, particularly, vocabulary for years. The major problem lies in the fact that most students in rural schools don’t use Bahasa Indonesia actively but their mother tongue, which is a problem for teachers who don’t share the same language with their students. In this case, teachers have to find good teaching media in order to break down communication barrier that exists in the teaching and learning process in the classroom.

Many kinds of games and pictures can be created to overcome this situation. By using games and pictures in teaching vocabulary, these teachers will be able to convey the meaning of words, whether or not the students understand either English or Bahasa Indonesia. Furthermore, many forms of exercises can use games and pictures to make students remember and memorize the word well. These two kinds of medium have been effectively used in teaching vocabulary based on many authors and researchers (Hansen, 1994; Lee, 1965; 1986; Richard-Amato, 1988; Silvers, 1982; Uberman, 1998; Wierus & Wierus, 1994; Zdybiewska, 1994). However, no detailed discussion has been provided related to how powerful they are in teaching and learning vocabulary to EFL (junior high school) students in rural Indonesian schools. Assessing the power of games and pictures in teaching English vocabulary to EFL Indonesian rural students is the main aim of this study.

2. Literature Review

This writing is dealing with games and pictures in educational setting. Many authors have defined educational games differently. According to Royle (2008), educational games are seen as activities created based on curriculum. Fuszard (2001) and Boyle (2011) see educational games in a deeper meaning, by saying that they are “pedagogical devices” to be used in the classroom to create more or less equal distance between fast learners and slow ones in teaching and learning process. In this writing, educational games are defined as games used in the teaching and learning activities in the classroom for educational purposes. They have been adopted or designed with particular rules to make students able to learn and improve their practical skills in vocabulary enjoyably. Picture is another media classified as a kind of visual aids which are useful for both teacher and students in EFL classes.
Pictures are seen as visual representations of persons, objects or scenes, in the form of painting, drawing, photographs and other features. These are also used to improve the students’ mastery of vocabulary. Teachers can create an excellent tool from pictures to make students enjoy in learning. Besides, effective teaching and learning activities can be achieved by using pictures because students’ motivation in learning can improve (Wright, 1989).

**Games**
Games can be used as main activities in the classroom because many studies have proven that they are effective teaching aids (Lee, 1965; 1986; Richard-Amato, 1988; Hansen, 1994; Wierus & Wierus, 1994, Silvers, 1982; Zdybiewska, 1994; Uberman, 1998). Lee (1986) suggests teachers not to use games only as extra activities but main ones to teach the lessons because games contain of many useful aspects. Basically, games relate to fun activities, and these activities will make the lesson interesting and this will motivate students to learn better (Richard-Amato, 1988). Games as visible and stimulating media can be used to turn a monotonous and boring situation into an interesting and fun one (Lee, 1965). When they are interested and having fun in learning it, they will no longer think about the language but focus on using the language instead (Lee, 1986). Vocabulary, in particular, can be effectively taught by using games (Chen, 2005).

Why are games considered advantageous in teaching English vocabulary to EFL students? Several reasons are revealed by Chen (2005:2), such as, shifting from teacher centered to learner centered learning, promoting communicative competence, creating a meaningful context for language use, increasing students’ motivation in learning and at the same time reducing their learning anxiety, integrating various linguistics skills, encouraging students to use the language creatively and spontaneously, creating a cooperative learning environment, and fostering participatory attitudes of the students. Another advantage of using games is students can use the language without being stressful and afraid of making mistakes because they relax and enjoy the teaching and learning process Deesri (2002).

There are many kinds of games to be applied in the classroom in teaching vocabulary, such as; labeling a diagram, matching definitions, guess the word, hangman, half a crossword, matching pairs activities, alphabet-category game, bingo, memory game, puzzles, (Wealand, 2008; Watcyn-Jones, 1993; Hill, 1995), et cetera with various levels of difficulty and so teachers have to be able to choose the right one for their students.
In teaching vocabulary in EFL classroom, there is a variety of techniques that can be used by teachers in defining words for students (Yun & Cervantes, 2006), and among all, there is the simplest one that is using pictures. The saying, a picture speaks a thousand words, emphasizes how important it is to use pictures in the classroom. The use of pictures as visual representations in the classroom can help teachers to illustrate meaning to students. As with games, pictures can also act as a stimulating and interesting media in the teaching-learning process, and they are considered as a useful and effective media in teaching English as Second or Foreign Language (ESL/EFL).

One of the basic reasons why teachers use pictures in teaching vocabulary is because pictures help students to understand easily, especially in schools where teachers and students do not communicate using the same language. In this case, there will be a gap in communication in the classroom, and pictures can help to bridge the communication gap between teachers and students. Besides, there are some other beneficial things why pictures are needed in teaching and learning process in the classroom, as follows; most of the time, students give well response to pictures because pictures can greatly enhance students’ understanding of what teachers are talking about. Furthermore, pictures can make teachers’ verbal description clearer, which has been supported by Nash (2009:79) by stating that “adding the visual to the verbal clarifies thoughts and brings everything into focus”. Making students active participants in their own learning and teachers as facilitators is another great advantage of using pictures. We can gain other advantages of using pictures in teaching and learning in the classroom because pictures can take the pressure off having to listen to get information and also help to make directions more meaningful. When we are talking about brain system, using pictures can activate different parts of the brain (Boulter, 2002) because there is a close relation between memory and visual images (Harris, 1991). Other reasons for choosing pictures in the classroom are because they are easily found, they can be used for enjoyment, they set the scene or context, they give us information, they interest us, and they are a key resource (Goodman, 2006:1). Pictures can be useful in the classroom for teachers to make directions more meaningful for students. They also can be used in teaching about processes, like how to make something or how to do something. A good technique is also to link pictures with words.

The types of pictures to be used in vocabulary learning in the classroom have to be in line with the teaching material; in this case teachers have to know the objective of the lesson to match
with the pictures which are going to be used (Tuttle, 1975). Moreover, teachers have to make sure that pictures which are going to be used are clear and large enough for the class to look at. Pictures can be taken from different sources, such as magazines, newspapers, books, catalogs, calendars, posters, advertisements, coloring books, comic books, postcards, etc. There are many activities using pictures which can be applied in the classroom by teachers by considering level of students and learning objectives. Games and pictures can be taken from various sources in order to match with the topics from the textbooks prepared by schools and the level of the students’ grade.

3. Methods

Basically, this study has been designed to enable EFL teachers in rural and disadvantaged schools in particular areas in Indonesia to address communication problems in the classroom and at the same time improve students’ vocabulary acquisition. Particularly, this study reports on how powerful games and pictures are in teaching vocabulary to EFL class.

The type of study is a case study of teaching EFL students in rural and disadvantaged areas of Indonesia. The first grade students of Junior High Schools in 3 rural schools in Indonesia have been chosen as the respondents in this study. It’s expected that through this study, the concept of using games and pictures (in teaching vocabulary) can be introduced to English teachers in the rural schools of Indonesia in order to help them improve their students’ vocabulary acquisition. Additionally, they can be informed that games and pictures are two different medium that can be very useful to be used in EFL class.

The study took place in East Nusa Tenggara Province in Indonesia, and the participants were 75 students of the first grade of three different junior high schools in three different rural areas (25 from each school) and their English teachers (3 teachers). The 3 schools have been labeled as school 1, school 2, and school 3 in this writing. There were several particular features of the students who have been involved in this study, as follows; they consisted of both males and females whose ages were between 12 to 14 years old. They have just graduated from elementary schools; and they have never learned English before (neither in elementary schools nor in English course). The three teachers have been teaching in these three rural schools for 5-15 years. They have different academic qualifications; one graduated from diploma, and two others are holding undergraduate degree.
There were eight meetings in four weeks to conduct this study. The first meeting was used to get to know the students and conduct the pre-test. Teaching and learning using games and pictures was held from meeting two to seven. The post-test was given in the eighth meeting. Methodology triangulation was used in this study to validate and strengthen the collected data. The main data was collected from interview and observation, and the results of both tests were used as supporting data.

This study has applied mixed method. However, the main interpretation of this study is presented narratively in qualitative way. Quantitative data has been in the form of simple computation of both tests’ average and a simple analysis has been used to find out the difference of the students’ scores in order to support the findings of interview and observation.

4. **Results and Discussion**

Interview, observation, and tests have been used to collect the data. Interviews have been done after the post-test (in week eight) and students have been observed during the teaching and learning process using games and pictures. Five students from each school and their English teachers have been interviewed to gain information relates to the way they compare teaching vocabulary with vs. without games and pictures. The interview data indicated both teachers’ and students’ opinions about teaching vocabulary before and after using games and pictures in the classroom.

The results of this study have revealed that teachers of the three schools admit that they are interested in teaching and learning using games and pictures which have been really helpful in facilitating a great teaching and learning process. It can be seen from the extracts of interview below.

*Extracts from interviews:*

**School 1**

Interviewer : What do you think about using games and picture in teaching your students?

Teacher : Wow, they are great. Games and pictures are very helpful because eeh,-- I can see that the students become brave to express their opinions orally and answer the questions out loud individually for the questions I give. Even though it’s not that fluent, but that’s okay. To me, it’s a good start.

**School 2**

Interviewer : Do you think the students can actively participate in the classroom using these two medium?
Definitely, they become very active in joining the lesson. I am so happy as a teacher as I don’t need to spend 80 minutes period talking alone in the classroom ((smile)).

Similarly, the students raise the issue that they enjoy learning English using games and pictures and how both of these medium have helped them in learning vocabulary.

**School 2**

Interviewer : Do you like learning English by using games and pictures?

Student : Yes... I really like learning with games and pictures. Because it’s more interesting and easier to understand. I’m not bored as well.

**School 3**

Interviewer : Do you find it difficult to use games and pictures in learning?

Student : No. Pictures help me understand the words easily. I can understand well by looking at the pictures.

In spite of the limited references and facilities in learning, these teachers and students can still enjoy experiencing new way in teaching vocabulary by using games and pictures. Teachers who don’t share the same language as their students can use these two teaching aids to facilitate them in making their students understand the words and expressions they are teaching. The results of the interviews have also been supported by the results of observations.

Actually, the aim of the observations is to reconfirm the comments of teachers and students in the interview by observing directly. The findings have shown that there is a relationship between the interview and observation. Whatever has been stated can be directly seen during the observation. There are three main points noted during the observation period, they are; students have shown the signs of positive changes in the classroom atmosphere which occur when the students are treated with games and pictures, they have shown their enthusiasm and interest in the classroom, and they have participated well during the teaching and learning process. They give positive responses to all the activities and have great enthusiasm for interacting in the teaching and learning process using games and pictures. They answer the questions bravely, although most of the time they have to use Bahasa Indonesia. They also take part in playing the games actively.

Previously, teachers used to talk most of the time and students sit nicely and listen to their teachers passively. When games and pictures are used, most students start talking and answering their teachers’ questions. Teachers are no longer the centre of the teaching-learning
process in the classroom. They’re facilitators and mediators for the students. They don’t spend much time by writing down every single thing on the board or reading the whole text for their students but tell the students what to do and control them working.

These changes have obviously shown that learning vocabulary has to be facilitated by concrete methods, techniques, strategies, and/or medium, especially for students of these ages, because by using this way they can easily store and retain whatever they are learning to be used in the future. Pictures as one of the visual materials aid the retention of information. Using pictures in teaching vocabulary is a good way to make students clearly understand what is being taught and this point has been really supported by Boulter (2002) and Harris (1991) when they come out with their statement that pictures can stimulate the brain to work better. Almost all students can understand the lesson better by using pictures. This can be seen by looking at the students’ performance and the classroom atmosphere during the teaching-learning process using the new ways in the classroom, and based on the information provided by both teachers and students in the interviews.

As the supporting instrument, the results of both pre- and post-tests have already been analyzed to see whether or not they confirm the previous results. The results of analysis have highlighted several good issues that have supported the earlier findings that: the students’ average scores have improved from pre-test to post-test (look at the table below):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Average Pre-test</th>
<th>Average Post-test</th>
<th>Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School 1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>59.01</td>
<td>82.66</td>
<td>23.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School 2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>45.23</td>
<td>52.86</td>
<td>7.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School 3</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>68.91</td>
<td>83.13</td>
<td>14.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Looking at the results, it’s assumed that the difference between the results of the pre-test and post-test among these students occurred because of the treatment given. Based on what the students say in the interview, both games and pictures can help them memorize well and easily, and these two medium give them a higher motivation to learn vocabulary in particular and English in general. This could also be the reason why they have scored more in the post-test.
5. **Conclusions**

In conclusion, it can be said that using games and pictures in EFL class, especially in teaching English vocabulary can be powerful. Teachers can encourage their students to actively participate in EFL class through games and pictures because all students will get involved in that activity. Furthermore, in the situation where both teachers and students don’t share the same language, games and pictures can be good solutions for communication breakdown in the process of teaching and learning. Despite the fact that there are mostly fun activities found in games and pictures, there is “pedagogical value” attached to those fun activities to obtain, store and retrieve what students have learned for the future use.

6. **References**


Archived at http://www.webcitation.org/5cbDTFiih.


The Effect of Absence of Explicit Knowledge on ESL/EFL Stress-Placement Accuracy: A Quasi-Experiment

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Abstract
Past studies suggest explicit pronunciation or phonological instruction improves students’ ability to produce accurate pronunciation (e.g., Alves & Margro, 2011; Ho, 2006; Sardegna, 2011), an aspect much neglected by ESL/EFL teachers nowadays. With neurological evidence revealing more brain effort is necessary when producing L2 speech (Berken et al., 2015), and preliminary evidence indicating the existence of explicit phonological knowledge (EPK) (Hong, 2016), a nonce word quasi-experiment comprising four sections was devised to assess how the lack of explicit knowledge affected L2 speakers’ accuracy in stress placement. The sample consisted of 34 post-graduate Linguistics students. T-tests were used to compare the differences in group performance and between the two main tasks, while descriptive statistics and correlation tests were adopted to check the relationship between English proficiency and task-wise performance. Results indicated that suppression of EPK resulted in poorer stress accuracy in the L2 group, but had negligible influence in the L1 group. It is concluded that explicit knowledge is an indispensable part of L2 phonology, reaffirming the importance of explicit instruction in L2 phonology.

Keywords: explicit knowledge, consciousness, monitoring, L2 phonology, pronunciation teaching, stress placement
Introduction

Before the 1960s, L2 pronunciation or phonological (i.e. rules governing pronunciation) teaching played a central part in L2 teaching (Martha, 2015). However, with the emergence and subsequent prevalence of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach, the role of pronunciation pedagogy evidently subsided (Thomson & Derwing, 2014). Even though researchers suggest interactive means to teach pronunciation and phonology (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 2010), they are admittedly far from the focus of L2 pedagogy.

In the last decade, L2 pronunciation has regained much attention in ESL/EFL research. Plenty of studies, mostly conducted in the form of action research, suggest that L2 phonological instruction brings significant improvement in L2 pronunciation accuracy (e.g. Alves & Margro, 2011; Ho, 2006; Sardegna, 2011). These studies cannot be easily generalised due to pedagogical and methodological limitations. However, as Thomson and Derwing (2014) remarked, the abundant evidence denoting positive effects of explicit instruction indicates “explicit instruction of phonological forms…promotes learning in a way that naturalistic input does not” (p. 14). Apart from the fact that efficacy of phonological instruction is hard to compare, past studies mostly focused on how explicit phonological knowledge improves L2 speakers’ output performance, as illustrated below.

Figure 1: Underlying assumptions of L2 phonological instruction

The current study, on the other hand, attempts to see the reversed effect of lack of explicit phonological knowledge (EPK). Specifically, the current study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. What will happen to L1 speakers’ phonological accuracy when they cannot access their EPK?
2. What will happen to advanced L2 speakers’ phonological accuracy when they cannot access their EPK?
Explicit knowledge

Ellis (2004) defined explicit knowledge as any conscious awareness of a language (p. 229) and came up with eight key characteristics, including consciousness, potential verbalizability, possible inaccuracy, extra monitoring effort, etc. (p. 235-240). The current article takes on these characteristics and define explicit phonological knowledge as metalinguistic knowledge resulted from conscious awareness of any phonological aspects of a language, potentially verbalizable and can only be employed to monitor an utterance when sufficient time and attention are allowed.

One of the earliest proponents to distinguish explicit and implicit linguistic knowledge was Schwartz (1993). She postulated that there are two routes to linguistic output. L1 speakers rely mostly on implicit knowledge (as a result of Universal Grammar) to produce accurate output, while L2 speakers may need to resort to learned knowledge to generate similarly accurate output. Other studies also probed into the role of learned or explicit linguistic knowledge (e.g., Alderson et al., 1997; Butler, 2002) with a focus on L2 learners’ accessibility of Universal Grammar and possibility to reset linguistic parameters. Despite arguments that sequential L2 learners can reset parameters (Archibald, 1993; Pater, 1997), and thus relying only on their innate capabilities to produce L2 phonology, the majority of sequential L2 speakers will not ultimately be able to attain native-like phonology (Golestani, 2009; Birdsong, 2005). Syntactic abilities aside, the way that L2 phonology is acquired and processed is apparently different from L1 phonology. It was observed, for instance, that L2 speakers were less able to produce accurate pronunciations during natural conversations than when reading texts aloud (Dickerson & Dickerson, 1977). The same phenomenon is not observed in L1 speakers. It is possible that conscious knowledge plays a vital role in pronunciation accuracy.

Neurological evidence

Berken and his team (2015) made use of fMRI to examine the neural activation of 47 subjects, comprising simultaneous French (L1)-English (L2) bilinguals, sequential French-English bilinguals and English-speaking monolinguals. The bilingual test groups were
presented blocks of French and English sentences, and the monolingual group English texts. Participants’ brains were scanned using fMRI while they read the texts aloud. Although the two bilingual groups were of the same level of L1 and L2 proficiency, the sequential bilinguals, who starting learning L2 at the age of 5, more strongly activated speech-motor control areas such as the left premotor cortex when they spoke in L2. The same was not observed among the simultaneous bilinguals or the monolinguals. More importantly, compared with the monolingual group, sequential L2ers more strongly activated the anterior temporal cortex (responsible for linguistic memory), the left posterior cerebellum (for fine-tuning muscle movement), as well as the thalamus area (related to consciousness and alertness) when they read in L2. Put simply, for sequential bilinguals, speaking in L2 require a lot more brain effort, including speech-motor control and linguistic awareness, despite a native-like level of L2 proficiency.

Assessing explicit phonological knowledge

To assess the employment of EPK, Hong (2016) conducted a pilot quasi-experiment with 18 postgraduate participants, equally divided into L1 English speakers and two L2 English-speaker groups, one group being university teachers of phonology and the other six had not received any formal teaching in phonology. The participants were tested on whether they would read 11 fabricated words in compliance with four English phonological rules and constraints under a consciousness-suppressed reading task. Their performance was compared with a subsequent read-aloud of isolated nonce words. Results indicated that L1ers complied with the phonological rules over 85% of time, whether they were reading the words from passage or in isolation. The L2 phonology teachers were able to produce high accuracy when reading words in isolation, but not when they read them from the passage. The L2 non-teacher group violated the greatest number of rules in both rounds of read-aloud. The study did not observe a significant correlation between language proficiency and compliance rates of phonological rules. However, phonological knowledge was found to negatively correlate with non-compliance rates when reading words in isolation. In other words, EPK can somehow guarantee better L2 phonological performance, but only when participants were allowed time to process the linguistic items. It was therefore concluded preliminarily that EPK probably constitutes to an indispensable part of L2 phonological success.
Stress-placement tasks

Stress placement tasks are common in phonological experiments. Earlier studies such as Archibald (1993) used multi-syllabic real English words to test the stress production of his Hungarian and Polish L2 English speakers. The words varied in word classes and syllable weight, both being crucial factors to determine stress placement (Burzio, 1994). It was found that Polish speakers decided stress by considering word classes, and the Hungarian speakers had a tendency to put stress in the initial position of English words, a sign taken to indicate L1 transfer as Hungarian words are often stressed initially. However, the use of real words was under criticism because the participants’ lexical knowledge might confound the experiment (Pater, 1997, p. 236).

Following Pater’s (1997) nonsense-word experiment, Altmann (2006) conducted a cross-linguistic study on perception and production of English stress; eight groups of speakers of different L1s were recruited. In particular, those whose L1s were predictable-stress languages (e.g. French) patterned the best with L1 speakers, while groups of non-stress languages (e.g. Chinese) did not pattern with the L1 group. Results indicated that non-stress L1s did not interfere with the decisions of L2 English stress placement. Indeed, it was noted that L1 Chinese speakers in particular use no strategy for English stress (Archibald, 1997).

Apart from the absence of L1 interference, another important reason that stress placement tasks were adopted in the current experiment was the high L1 consistency rate in Hong’s (2016) pilot study. That is, L1 English speakers stressed the same syllables in 95.8% of cases, which in turn contrasted the most with the L2 participants.

Defining stress

Stress is a comparative notion. Cruttenden (2008) remarked that “the syllable or syllables of a word which stand out from the remainder are said to be accented…” (2008, p. 235). Altmann (2006) points out that Chinese speakers may use pitch more than the other two characteristics to express prominence because Mandarin is a tone-language (p. 24). This is taken into consideration during our transcription.

Design of the Quasi-experiment

Rationale

As explicit knowledge is employed to consciously monitor the L2, the speed of output processing must be slower than when using implicit knowledge (Ellis, 2004, p. 238); as such, two key elements are necessary: time and attention. If a speaker is deprived of both,
theoretically, he/she will have minimal access to his/her EPK. In practice, speakers will mostly resort to EPK under pressure (p. 239); any challenging linguistic tasks will therefore naturally elicit existing EPK of speakers.

**Rules of English stress**

English words are known to exhibit no uniform metrical behaviour (Burzio 1994, p. 43), but there are some observable regularities of English stress. For the purposes of this study, three criteria are considered with regard to rules of stress: syllable structure, syntactic category and morphological suffix.

**Syllable structure**

Stress assignment is sensitive to syllable weight and strength. In English, heavier syllables tend to be stressed (p. 4, p. 21).

- Superheavy syllables: CVVC, CVCC
- Heavy syllables: CVV, CVC
- Light syllables: CV
- Weak syllables: Ca, CαC

**Syntactic categories**

Nouns and verbs in English basically conform to the following rules (p. 43):

- Noun: stress the penultimate syllable if heavy (e.g. appendix); otherwise, stress the antepenultimate syllable (e.g. America).
- Verb: stress the final syllable if it is superheavy (e.g. prevent); otherwise, stress the penultimate syllable (e.g. inhabit)

Suffixed adjectives are also used in the experiment; they prevalently follow the noun rule.

**Class I and Class II suffixes**

Class I suffixes attract stress towards them while Class II suffixes cast no effect on the original (unsuffixed) words (Spencer, 1991, p. 79).

- Class I suffixes: -ion, -ity, -al, -ic, -ous, -ive
- Class II suffixes: -ness, -less, -hood, -ful, -like, -ly

In most cases, the main stress is found one syllable left to a Class I suffix; compare: electric and electricity, elicit and elicitation etc.

**Nonsense words**

15 nonsense words were generated based on the stress rules mentioned above, and were then checked against the British National Corpus and Corpus of Contemporary American English. Excluding suffixes, all words were made up of two to four syllables and at least one
of the syllables was heavy/superheavy. Five types of nonce words were therefore created, as listed exhaustively in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>W/ class-I suffix</th>
<th>W/ class-II suffix</th>
<th>No suffix</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>fenosacity</td>
<td>anapasmolist</td>
<td>baigray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>alfunalolsis</td>
<td>verriness</td>
<td>gamarder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>poysaw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>katemba</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>suneeta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>anapasmolic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>destarronious</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>myticative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>biroid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>litombby</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>peray</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The expected main stress of the words were highlighted according to the rules discussed above. The present study only considers the primary stress of these nonce words, since not all speakers pronounce words with a salient secondary stress, and it also reduces difficulties in transcription.

Subjects

A total of 34 university postgraduate students from two UK universities were recruited; all of them majored in Linguistics or Applied Linguistics. Purposive sampling was the method of recruitment as subjects are required to have good knowledge in English phonology.

16 participants (male=4, female=12) were L1 English speakers who came from the UK, US and Canada, while 18 L1 Mandarin and L2 English speakers (male=2, female=16) were all CEFR B2 to C1 English users, having an IELTS scores ranged from 6 to 7.5, mean score 6.7. They were also assessed through the Oxford Quick Placement Test (OQPT). A mean score of 45.2/60 was obtained (CEF R B2). All participants were asked whether they had difficulties in comprehending texts and/or reading them aloud; two L1 participants reported dyslexic and thus withdrew from the experiment.

Procedures

The blinded experiment contained a pre-task practice section, a passage-reading (first) task, a word-reading (second) task and a reflection section. They were recorded using two
mobile devices. Individual participants’ consent, personal information, language background, etc. were obtained prior to the experiment.

Participants were informed that the experiment would investigate how alien words affects reading comprehensibility. To diminish their attention to individual words while being able to process the text and articulate words clearly, participants were instructed to read the passage slowly and try to comprehend the content, but were not allowed to pause in the middle of a sentence. They were also given another passage to practice speaking until all task requirements were met. The task 1 passage was a story specially designed so that 1) the nonce words would not impede understanding of the story, and 2) sentences were short enough to minimize potential mid-way pauses.

In the word-reading task, participants were told that they would read individual words on a computer screen. The words appear with a “click” sound to mark the beginning of response time. Immediately after reading a word, participants were asked to confirm their pronunciation by reading the word again; or if they decided to change their mind, they could also do it in the second time of reading.

The final part was a reflection section. Participants were asked what the strategies they applied to decide stress placement. After the interview, the interviewees were debriefed of the actual purpose of the language test and the experiment.

**Hypotheses**

It was postulated in this study that L1ers would not depend on EPK to provide accurate stress, the change in experimental conditions should have minimal effect on their performance. But the deprivation of time and attention in the passage-reading task may cause the L2ers to perform less well.

- **Hypothesis 1:** If participants are not able to access EPK in the passage-reading task, the L1ers will not observe significant difference between the scores of the two task, but the L2ers will obtain lower scores in the passage-reading task.
- **Hypothesis 2:** If the participants only rely on their phonological competence in the passage-reading task, the L1ers will perform significantly better than the L2ers in the passage-reading task.
- **Hypothesis 3:** If L2ers rely on EPK more than L1ers in the word-reading task, their response time in the word-reading task will be longer.
Results and Data Analysis

Transcription

The recordings were transcribed by the author, one L1 English speaker and one L1 Mandarin speaker, all postgraduates in linguistics. The inter-transcriber reliability was over 95%. Inconsistent stress transcriptions were discussed and debated; if no consensus was reached, the pattern agreed by the majority was taken as the final transcription.

The results of the two tasks were first compared using pair-samples T-tests provided by SPSS20; then the groups were also compared using independent samples T-tests. Finally, Pearsons’ two-tailed correlation tests were used to check if participants’ performance was related to their proficiency in English.

3. The L1 group

In the L1 group, all except three words (myticative, baicady and anapasmolist) fully complied with the rules of English stress. 10 nonce words in both tasks showed over 80% consistency with the expected stress patterns. Apart from the bigger drop (14.3%) in accuracy of the word alfunalosis, the performance between the two tasks regarding all other words was within 8% of difference. Interestingly, myticative was predominantly stressed on the penultimate syllable (78.6%) in the first task but was stressed mostly on the antepenultimate (50%) in the second task. The graphs below indicate all the predominant stress patterns in both tasks. Note that block letters denote stressed syllable.
Figure 3: Predominant stress patterns of L1 speakers in the passage-reading task

Figure 4: Predominant stress patterns of L1ers in the word-reading task
Not only was the accuracy between the words in the two tasks similar, but participants also performed similarly in both tasks (see Figure 5). The 14 L1 participants obtained a mean score of 13.86 (out of 15) (SD=1.1) in the first task; and a mean score of 13.64 (SD=1.08) in the second task. Their overall performance was slightly better in the first task, but a paired-samples T-test showed that the difference was non-significant (t(13)=0.715, p=0.487).

![Figure 5: Individual performance in the L1 group](image)

4. The L2 group

The L2 group performed markedly differently from the L1 speakers. For one thing, their accuracy was much lower; only six words reached 80% consistency with the L1 pronunciation. Data also reveal a generally better performance in the second task, with nine words read more accurately than in the first task.

![Figure 6: L2 group’s stress accuracy in the passage-reading task](image)
In terms of individual performance, 13 L2ers performed better in the second task, two obtained equal scores for both tasks, while three performed better in the first task. There was an overall difference in performance between the first task ($M=9.11$, $SD=0.34$) and the second task ($M=10.17$, $SD=0.47$). A paired-samples T-test showed that the difference was significant ($t(17)=-2.64$, $p=0.017$), which suggests that the L2ers performed less well in the first task.

Figure 7: L2 group’s stress accuracy in the word-reading task

Figure 8: Individual performance in the L2 experimental group 1
Figure 9: **Difference in mean scores between tasks**

**The reflection section**

Participants were only asked to reflect on the second task, considering the reliability of their memory as there was probably too much interference between the first task and the reflection.

Pater (1997) remarked that English-looking nonce words may prompt speakers to compare them with actual words. This method of comparing meets all the features of explicit knowledge proposed by Ellis (2004), and therefore should be classified as *explicit phonological knowledge*. Seven L1 participants and five L2 participants applied comparison strategy. Nonce words with a suffix often reminded speakers of dissimilar real words that ended in the same suffix.

Participants reported three ways they decided the stress placement: 1) by intuition/feelings/habits, 2) by comparing the nonce words with real words, and 3) by resorting to known rules. The first method is considered speakers’ *phonological competence*; none of the speakers could elaborate on it. Interestingly, three L2ers provided wrong rules such as “verbs often have stress on the first syllable” (Sherry) or “if a word has more than two syllables, stress the first syllable” (Luli); their performance was affected by their inaccurate generalization.

Further, many speakers remarked using more than one strategy. Nine participants in the L1 group and 13 participants in the L2 groups used a mixture of intuition, comparison and/or rules. Still, more L2ers reported applying known rules in Task 2.
Table 2: *Number of participants using various strategies (with double counts for multiple strategies)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>L1 group (N=14)</th>
<th>L2 group (N=18)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intuition/feelings</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comparison</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rules</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Reaction time**

*Audacity* was used to track the period of silence, shown as a flat and narrow wavelength, between the end of a ‘click’ and the beginning of a speaker’s utterance. Measurement was counted to 0.1-second accuracy. By averaging speakers’ reaction time and comparing the means among groups, the L1 group (M=1.18, SD=0.36) was found to have responded much quicker than the L2 group (M=2.67, SD=0.77). Paired-samples T-test indicates the between-groups difference is significant (t(15)=-8.7, p<0.001).

![Figure 10: Reaction time to each nonce word in Task 2](image)

**English proficiency and stress performance**

A correlation test was conducted to compare the OQPT, IELTS overall and IELTS speaking scores. It was found that the OQPT scores (M=45.17, SD=3.94) and the IELTS overall scores (M=6.67, SD=0.42) were correlated (r(18)=0.497, p=0.036). However, no correlations were recorded between the three score and the first task and; nor are there correlations with the second task.
Discussions

All three hypothesis were validated. Data showed that individual difference between the first and second task among the L1ers was minimal, and they did not perform consistently better in one task over the other. However, the L2ers performed significantly worse in the first task because they could not use EPK to monitor their oral output. The consistent performance of the L1 group also indicates the learning effect (from reading the words twice) was negligible. It was also true that in a condition where EPK was not accessible, a higher level of implicit competence would guarantee better phonological performance.

Further, data indicated that L2ers were shockingly slower in response than the L1ers. Individual speaking habits aside, L1ers intuitively knew the best syllabus to place stress on, while L2ers naturally resort to EPK to make judgements when feeling challenged in a language task (Ellis, 2004). Further, most L2ers reported applying known rules and comparing the nonce words with real words. In sum, monitoring pronunciation with EPK is likely in clear consciousness.

The lack of correlations between the test scores and the two tasks showed none of the tests could predict L2ers’ ability to stress words correctly. This could be because: 1) the tests were not designed to assess L2ers’ phonological ability and 2) English proficiency and EPK are not necessarily related. Further investigation is needed to understand the relationship between EPK and L2ers’ overall language ability.

Implications of results

Past stress-placement studies suggest if L2ers were able to produce oral output consistent to the metrical rules in English, they was deemed to have reset stress parameters, and therefore share the same L1 innate phonological abilities (Altmann, 2006; Archibald, 1997; Pater, 1997). However, a probable alternative is L2ers access their EPK to achieve high phonological accuracy. The findings of the present study indicate that L2ers take advantage of their EPK when conditions allowed.

In the experiment, some speakers came up with some wrong generalizations, leading them to produce consistently inaccurate output. Luli from the L2 group, for instance, claimed that for a word that had more than two syllables, the first syllable of the word should be stressed, resulting in many misplacements in Task 2. Such consistent mistakes were not observed in Task 1, where her implicit competence actually helped her obtain a higher score. Cases such as Luli are a reminder that EPK does not always improve phonological accuracy; sometimes inaccurate EPK can be as harmful as accurate it is beneficial. If EPK is succumb to mistakes (Ellis, 2004), and if L2ers depend on it whenever possible, it seems utterly necessary that their
EPK be checked, corrected and revised from time to time. Unfortunately, L2 phonology teaching is not in vogue in current ESL/EFL classes. With teaching methods that assume natural development of L2 phonology becoming mainstream approaches, some students can hold on to self-conceived unfounded rules for years.

Conclusions and Limitations

With reference to past stress-placement investigations, the current study provides a novel experimental method to measure the effect of suppressing explicit knowledge in phonology. The performance between L1 English speakers and L2 English speakers was compared under controlled conditions. It was found that L2ers obtained significantly lower scores in the consciousness-deprived task, implying the suppression of EPK was successful, which subsequently resulted in poorer stress-placement performance. It was also suggested that L2ers possessed abundant EPK and it was in active use whenever possible. Contrary to the intuitive/implicit knowledge, most L2ers were able to explain how they came to certain stress decisions, a sign taken as the employment of EPK. In response to the research question, an absence of EPK affects L2 speakers’ phonological accuracy, but not for L1 speakers.

Moreover, it was found that speakers’ level of English proficiency was a poor predictor of their accuracy in stress. While EPK improves accuracy, it is probably unrelated to L2 speakers’ real linguistic/phonological competence.

Admittedly, the results of this quasi-experiment should be viewed with caution. The sample size of the present study was constrained due to the choice of participants with high English proficiency and good knowledge in English phonology. Also, linguistics programmes were predominantly studied by females, resulting in a serious gender imbalance. Nonetheless, the consistent female predominance in both test groups did not cause gender to be a confounding factor when conducting group comparisons. The study is advised to be replicated with a larger sample size to confirm the present findings.

References


Teaching Spoken English to EFL Learners using “Finding Nemo” Movie

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Abstract

This study examines the teaching of spoken English in an EFL classroom using the movie, “Finding Nemo”. The teaching is conducted to a group of third semester post-graduate students of Muhammadiyah University of Sumatera Barat, Indonesia. The study is limited only to similarities of spoken form between Indonesian and English. The study results in that students feel that: (a) English used by characters in speaking is authentic English that is much easier to be understood and practiced in conversation, (b) the structure of English spoken form in the movie is almost similar to that of their mother tongue so that English is not complicated and confusing to be used in speaking, (c) when speaking, English speaking-structure must not be like conventional English, and (d) the students become brave in speaking, (e) the students’ difficulty in speaking is mainly caused by the anxiety of making mistake on grammar, and (f) teaching English should begin by focusing on fluency (speaking) rather than on accuracy (grammar).

Keywords: Indonesian and English spoken form, English of Finding Nemo-Movie, and Indonesia Mother-Tongue.

1. INTRODUCTION

In Indonesia, English is a foreign language which has been taught to learners from kindergarten to university, meaning that university graduates study English for about 14 years, and those of high school graduates do English for 13 years. The Indonesian proficiency, however, as surveyed by EF English Proficiency Index (2016), is low with the score 52.91 and position 32 of the 72 surveyed countries (EF EPI, 2016). Additionally, my experience as English teacher indicates that most of English learners feel so anxious of taking English subject
that it leads them to having a low proficiency in English. The strange one is that most educated people like non-English teachers, university students, and civil servants are not brave or cannot speak with foreigners. On the other hand, even though not all, persons like porters, drivers of motor cycle-taxi, hand-taking and walking food retailers, and people who did not receive formal education in the English subject, who have contact with foreigners can communicate in English confidently.

The studies by Sakai & Kikuchi (2009) and Ushioda (1996) quoted by Hasan (2016) show that one of factors which bothers English learners is teaching methods. As found by Trang & Baldauf Jr (2007), teacher’s language proficiency can also cause the learners to fail in comprehension. Observing learners’ attitude and based on my experience in studying English, the low proficiency is strongly assumed due to the teaching-method based only on English grammar without teaching spoken English rule (structure) to the learners through authentic material like movie. The grammar-based teaching method might cause the learners low proficiency in speaking. Based on library study, in West Sumatra, Indonesia, there has been no previous research examining the use of literary product, like a movie, to teach spoken English. The paper examines teaching spoken English to Indonesian learners based on the literature, “Finding Nemo” movie. The study focused its discussion on similarities of spoken form between Indonesian and English.

2. MATERIALS AND METHOD

Materials which are used in this study are dialogue-transcript of movie Finding Nemo, with instruments: questionnaires, papers of observation, and interview-questions. Method of the study is realized in several steps. The first one is that before Finding Nemo is used as teaching material to teach English speaking, the learners are instructed to answer a 33-item questionnaire. The questions deal with learners’ feeling of learning English speaking based on grammar: worried, anxious, nervous, confused, overwhelmed, pressure, embarrassed, panicky, getting upset, afraid, laughed, mocked, and blamed. The method is applied to collect data on learners’ attitude on learning English speaking based on grammar.

The next one, English speaking is taught by using utterances spoken by characters of the movie like Nemo, Coral, Marlin, Bob, Ted, Bill, and Mr. Johanssen. The utterances are discussed based on contrastive analysis of similarities (Thyab, 2016), mother tongue learning (Xhemaili, 2013), and anxiety (Horwitz ,1986)). The English utterances are compared to that of Indonesian language to find the similarities. The discussion runs for half semester, and then it is continued with the step of filling the second questionnaire. The questionnaire covers the
questions on the learners’ feeling; but there are few additional questions on structure of spoken English, feeling on spoken English, and the time of studying English speaking. Data from both questionnaires are used to study result of studying English speaking through movie. The collected data are enriched by conducting observation and interview, and then analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively.

3. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

3.1. The Learners Attitude on Grammar-Based English Teaching

As indicated by the following Figure 1, it is found that most of the Indonesian learners never feel quite sure of themselves when they are speaking in their English class. Their feeling is caused by the anxiety of making mistake. For them, it is a must to speak in English based on standard grammar. The language must formally involve subject, predicate, and object or adverb. Questions must be made formally as well. Verb to-be or modals auxiliary must be placed in front of subject of a sentence like “Do you understand it?”, “Can you go with me?”, “Are you happy to speak English?”, “When did you came?”. The questions must be answered in formal form such as “Yes I do, Yes I did, Yes I am, Yes I was, Yes I can”. They do not want to use the informal forms in a daily conversation like “You understand?”, “Understand?” and the answers like “Yes”, “No”. They think such forms are wrong. The reason beyond the attitude is that since the first time they study English at elementary school, they get such teaching from their teachers.

English teachers in Indonesia teach English to the learners purely based on grammar. The English class generally begins with formulas like formula of simple tense, past tense, and other sentence formulas with the number of rules. They learners feel that English class is the same as math, physics, and chemistry which are full of formulas. As indicated at Figure 1, they feel overwhelmed by the number of English rules they have to learn to speak English. Language is really so abstract like the math class that the learners get upset when they do not understand what their English teachers are correcting. Some learners are truant, leave the English or sleepy when studying in the class. The English rules make them feel pressure to prepare for English class.

When the learners try to talk in English using English spoken form like the one used by movie characters on TV, the teachers respond their English negatively. It is a broken language, porter’s language, servant’s language or street language which is not used by educated persons. It is not an assumption, but a fact. Teachers suggested students to avoid such English. The teachers emphasize that such English is bad one which should be truly avoided, and not be used
by educated persons. The response is cognitively planted on their mind which in turn becomes their mind set on English. For the English teachers, language is form. They ignore meaning. According to them, English utterances in conversation spoken by movie stars or characters are wrong, because the utterances have one element of a sentence – subject, adverb, or verb (predicate) only. Strangely, they teach their students English conversation in which there are some utterances without subject or predicate (verb) like “Nice to meet you”, “Me too”, “fine”, etc. They do not explain and introduce the spoken forms to their students. The students memorize the form regardless of understanding the forms. It is hard for them to speak spontaneously; they have to make preparation before speaking English. The English spoken form of the movie character as indicated at Table 1 and 2 is accepted in conversation. The form is also accepted in Indonesian. It is a form which is something less than a complete sentence called “lexicalized sentence stem” (Aijmer, 1996).

Until now, since long time ago, or perhaps since English is taught formally at schools to the learners in Indonesia, the grammar-oriented manner is used to teach English. As a consequence, the learners always think the English formula (grammar) while speaking. It is natural they start to panic when they have to speak without preparation. The manner of teaching goes less to improving the learners’ competency in speaking; they get much rules they feel so complicated; and they lack practice either in or out of the class. They seldom speak and listen to English. They listen to English while watching English movie on TV at home, unfortunately they are not brave to practice English like that of being used on TV. Additionally, they worry their English to be blamed by teachers or mocked by friends; it is wrong English.

Blaming and mocking have become a “culture” which really bothers students, mainly experienced by language students. The “culture” embarrasses the students to volunteer answer in the class. Even though they are well prepared for English class, they keep feeling anxious about English. They join English class for mark only – not for being able to speak. They worry about failing in English class.
3.2. The Learners Attitude on Speaking-Based English Teaching

Movie Finding Nemo is a literary product the characters of which use English utterances of daily communication. The form of spoken English (utterances used in the communication)
in the movie is almost the same as that of Indonesian language (mother tongue of the learners).

Some similarities for example are presented in the following Table 1 and 2.

Table 1. Similarities Between Form of Spoken English and Indonesian

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Short Answer</th>
<th>Shortening</th>
<th>Addressing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What Marlin?</td>
<td>Apa Marlin?</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Saya tak ngin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You remember how we met?</td>
<td>kita begaimana</td>
<td>Oh, right</td>
<td>Oh, baik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You feel a break?</td>
<td>Kamu merasa lelah?</td>
<td>Right</td>
<td>Baik</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What?</td>
<td>Apa?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where?</td>
<td>Dimana?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sea turtles?</td>
<td>Penyu laut?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Similarities Between Form of Spoken English and Indonesian

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Imperative</th>
<th>Prohibition</th>
<th>Response/Comment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I like Nemo</td>
<td>Saya suka</td>
<td>Aww, lihat!</td>
<td>Stop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nemo</td>
<td>Nemo</td>
<td>look!</td>
<td>Berhenti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I'll pick you up</td>
<td>Saya akan menjepit</td>
<td>Get</td>
<td>Menjauhlah!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you after school</td>
<td>kamu pulang</td>
<td>away!</td>
<td>No!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He looks funny</td>
<td>Dia kelihatan</td>
<td>Get!</td>
<td>Bangun!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 and 2 shows general similarities between English spoken form and Indonesian. The similarities are on question, short answer, shortening, addressing, statement, imperative, prohibition and response or comment. In addition, similarities are also on sequence of subject-predicate-object (structure) and use of part of speech (noun, verb, adjective). The similarities lead the learners to understanding spoken English based on their mother tongue. The similar
forms make most of the learners feel quite sure when they are speaking in or outside the English class as pictured at Figure 3. Because of the similarity in structure, they better understand utterances in English and can speak better in the language. According to Iqbal (2016) and Thyab (2016), mother tongue can have negative influence, but as stated by Odlin (1989) as cited by Xhemaili (2013), mother tongue has role in second language; most learners transfer knowledge from their mother tongue to the second language. With contrastive study, similarities and differences can be known (Thyab, 2016). It can be helpful for the learners to understand second language. In the case, mother tongue has role as a tool to understand the second language. They do not worry about making mistake on rules in speaking English, because they know in reality that native English speakers through movie characters of Finding Nemo use the spoken English like that of their mother tongue. Learning difference is also important due to that the difference between English and Indonesian makes most of Indonesian learners face difficulties in understanding spoken English (Ragayu, 2015), and so is vocabulary (Joe, 1996). Since the paper is limited only to the similarities, the difference, vocabulary and other topics like pronunciation and listening are necessarily important to be discussed by other researchers.

As previously presented at Figure 1, the learners are afraid of making mistake on speaking due to that thinking of grammar. By giving them daily conversation-based spoken English through movie Finding Nemo, they become aware that they can speak English like native English speakers in the movie. The forms of spoken English in the movie which has similarity to that of mother tongue make the learners brave to start speaking English. They (80%) are not overwhelmed by English rules (Figure 4). The English rule (grammar) does not bother their mind to speak. The introduction of the spoken English based on the movie to the learners leaves out their nervousness and confusion to speak English.
Statistic data in the figure 4 show that 75% of the learners do not get nervous and confused in speaking. Referred to Hasan (2013), getting nervous, confused, and other anxieties deals with communication apprehension that causes listeners to feel shy and fearful of speaking with others, which in turn manifest as both oral communication anxiety, such as difficulty inspeaking in groups; and receiver anxiety, such as problems listening to spoken messages.

Another result of teaching English based on the movie is that most of the learners begin not to feel bothered by social behavior like laugh, mock, and blame. In Indonesian environment in which the study is held, the behavior has negative effect on English learners. The learners speaking English are mocked, especially those in the social ayes making mistake on grammar will be blamed; and also the society will laugh at them. But, with the learners’ knowledge on the movie-based teaching, they have had self-confidence; they are aware that their English is not wrong. Their self-confidence also drives them to be brave to volunteer answer in the class, even though it is only 50% of them (Figure 4). Besides, they have no feeling pressure to make preparation of speaking, because English speaking is not foreign or new to them. It has similarity with their mother tongue (Indonesian) which is helpful to make preparation. Grammar-based teaching (Figure 2) shows that more learners (60%) are still anxious to speak even though they have made preparation. On the contrary, the speaking-based teaching makes more learners confident with their preparation.
The interesting results of the speaking-based English using movie as material are the learners’ attitude on English in general. As indicated in the following Figure 5, more learners state that almost of spoken English rules (structures) are basically the same as those of mother tongue, Indonesian language; it is helpful to understand spoken English. Movie shows the learners the real English as used by native English speakers through movie characters. Such positive of learning speaking English through movie is also experienced by Indonesian EFL students of Public University in Jambi (Abrar, 2018). His students stated that “books, songs, and movies were fruitful media to improve their speaking proficiency. Additionally, movie is one of web-based technologies have been used to enrich students with various sources of information in learning (Cahyani, 2012). Further more, Hartatik (2016) who studied the use of video (movie) for speaking class said that students feel interested, motivated, provided with the information on how the language used and how English culture is, raising students’ feeling of confidence.

![Figure 4. Learners Attitude on English Teaching Based on Movie](image)

FIGURE 4. Learners Attitude on English Teaching Based on Movie
- Not getting Nervous & Confused in Speaking
- Not afraid of Being Laughed, Mocked, & Blamed
- Not embarrassed to volunteer answer
- Not feeling pressure to prepare
- Not overwhelmed by English rule
- Not anxious after having good preparation
4. CONCLUSION

Speaking-based English teaching method supported by mother tongue knowledge has positive effect on the Indonesian learners in understanding English, especially speaking. By using authentic material like movie, they feel that: (a) English used by characters in speaking is authentic English that is much easier to be understood and practiced in conversation, (b) the structure of spoken English on the movie is almost similar to that of their mother tongue so that English is not complicated and confusing to be used in speaking, (c) when speaking, English speaking-structure must not be like standard English, and (d) the students become brave in speaking, (e) the students’ difficulty in speaking is mainly caused by feeling anxious of making mistake on grammar, and (f) teaching English should begin by focusing on fluency (speaking) rather than on accuracy (grammar).

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