

The background of the cover features a complex, repeating geometric pattern. It consists of concentric circles and squares, creating a sense of depth and movement. The pattern is rendered in a lighter shade of blue against the darker blue background.

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Foreword

This issue of TESOL International Journal contains thirteen papers. In the first paper, **Mantasiah, Yusri and Jufri** developed an English grammar teaching material that focused on error and contrastive analysis. They posited that the effectiveness of instructional materials can significantly increase students' level of academic performance.

Anwar Jawad Kadhim investigated on the effectiveness of the integration of games in classroom instruction to students' aural phonological awareness. Using games in the classroom makes it more conducive to learning without the stress of too much academic rigour.

In the paper of **Mawardin Said and Sukardi Weda**, they explored on factors affecting students' oral communication competence and found that anxiety plays a big role in students' academic performance.

Phillip Queroda understands the necessity of being able to write skillfully and further looked at how students write their essays focusing on the observance of the effective theme writing characteristics namely, sentence construction, support, unity and coherence.

Also a study on writing, **Ma. Joahna Mante – Estacio and Gina Ugalingan** studied the feelings of students towards research proposal and proposal writing and further investigated on students' reflection towards research writing.

Wachiraporn Kijpoonphol and Wichian Phumchanin compared the effectiveness of the traditional and gamified teaching methodology in providing lessons on phrasal verbs. It was found that a gamified classroom supported much of the acquisition of knowledge and skills on phrasal verbs versus that of a traditional methodology.

In their study, **Furqanul Aziez and Feisal Aziez** looked at how textbooks and national examinations contribute to the lexical resource of junior and senior high school students. It was found that textbooks' language isn't suitable to the language level of students thus leading to low readability index.

Hendra on the other hand investigated the effectiveness of video games as a tool for vocabulary building. It was found that continuous encounter of the same text by a gamer actually developed contextual comprehension.

English was introduced in the Philippines in 1898 and since then, academics saw the advantages of using it in classroom instruction. **Arriane Kris Maramag – Manalastas and Boyet Batang** studied the effectiveness of using the English language as the sole medium of instruction in a bilingual classroom and found that students' level of confidence is low and that students in a multi-lingual class speak English better than those students exposed in the target language.

Eun Young Jeon developed a learner-centered instruction model for EFL writing that incorporated four activities that triggered learners' participation in the writing process. It was further known that this model could serve as a useful means to decreasing English learners' writing anxiety.

In the paper of **Remy Tulabut, Roberto Guzman, Jr., Precie Rose Abaring, Avegaile Armada, Monica Jane Torda and Angelique Ilustre**, they analyzed the common preposition errors committed by students and found that students' most common error is on preposition of direction. They suggested that teachers should review their students on how to make distinction among the rules of different prepositions apply effective learning strategies in teaching them.

Syarifuddin Dollah and Sukardi Weda's study explored the practices of students' group presentation in an EFL classroom using videotaping. Videotaping is employed to activate students' motivation in a variety of activities in a group presentation. They concluded that the use of videotaping made students very active in expressing their ideas and thoughts in the classroom discussion which ultimately enhanced their language performance.

Ericson Alieto's paper determined the language attitude of teachers and their willingness to teach in the Mother Tongue (MT) as substitute of English as medium of instruction (MoI) in the early stages of education. He further explained that attitude is indeed an enabling and disabling factor in instruction in that for the successful implementation of the MTB-MLE, it is necessary to ascertain positive attitude of the implementers of the language policy.

Readers who are actively engaged in research or have done research related to English language education are encouraged to contact us about the possibility of publishing with *TESOL International Journal*. Apart from individual paper submissions, we also welcome proposals for special issues.

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The Development of Grammar Teaching Material Using Error and Contrastive Analysis (A Linguistic Approach in Foreign Language Teaching)

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to develop an English grammar teaching material for Indonesian learner with a linguistics approach consisting of error and contrastive analysis. This was a research and development study which applied five steps: 1) analysis, 2) design, 3) development, 4) implementation and 5) evaluation. Some experts were involved in validating the teaching material before implemented to the participants. The research data were the student's test scores in translation and writing test. The teaching materials were delivered during six meetings. Data technique analysis was the paired sample t-test which compared pre-test and post-test score. The results showed that student's score in translation and writing test increased significantly. There were three advantages of this teaching material which had triggered student's academic performance, namely easy to learn, composed based on the student's needs, and implementing linguistics theory

Keywords: Applied Linguistics, Error analysis, Contrastive Analysis, Indonesian Learner, English Grammar Teaching Material

Introduction

Various studies have been conducted to increase the quality of English language learning process for non-native English speaker (Bui & Balsamo, 2018; Dekeyser, 2018; Amir, 2018; Cadierno & Eskildsen, 2018; Hawkins, 2018). Intrinsically, these studies were conducted to solve student's or teacher's problems in learning and teaching process. There are some problems in English language learning like the lack of teacher's skill in organizing class (Rafique, 2018; Riazi, 2018), the use of ineffective learning method (Yusri, 2018; Calderon & Slakk, 2018; Shih & Reynolds, 2018; Mantasiah & Yusri, 2018), the lack of student's academic motivation (Romadloni, 2017; Daniel, 2018), and the inadequate learning facilities (Farid & Saifuddin, 2018; Yu, 2018). Dealing with these problems needs different methods depending on the case. Therefore, the teacher should be able to analyze the problems during the learning process and to find a solution related to the problems.

One of the issues in English language learning, especially in Indonesia, is the influence of the first language (L1) in the use of English (L2) that is called interference (Jannah & Setiawan, 2018; Agustia, 2018; Abdullah & Lulita, 2018; Gayo & Widodo, 2018). In teaching grammar, students in Indonesia tend to use the grammar rules of Bahasa in producing English. This problem occurs in writing, translation, speaking and grammar class. It is supported by Cook (2016) who said that a learner had difficulties in learning the second language due to the interference of habits from L1 and L2. To deal with the problem, students must grasp the grammar rule of English meticulously. Therefore, in teaching a particular material, it should be contrasted with the students' first language. It is called contrastive analysis

which is one of the approaches in linguistics. McDonough (2017), Litosseliti (2017), Aronoff (2017), Linares & Morton (2017), Aydinli & Ortactepe (2018), Christoffersen (2016) reported that linguistics cannot be ignored in foreign language teaching and learning process. One of the approaches in linguistics which can be implemented in the learning process is the contrastive analysis approach.

In fact, few English textbooks used by Indonesian learners are written by Indonesian speaker, and the teaching approaches are mainly the traditional ones. They do not implement the theories of applied linguistics in composing the English grammar textbooks. Therefore, the textbooks focused only on explaining the grammar rule of English without contrasting with the grammar rule of the Indonesian language (Bahasa). Davies (2004) said that there should be an alternative approach used in composing teaching material. The integration of contrastive analysis approach in composing grammar teaching material makes it possible to solve the student's problem in foreign language learning. The effectiveness of this approach in foreign language teaching had been proven by some studies (Khalifa, 2018; Pichette & Lesniewska, 2018; Genc, 2018; Munro, 2018; Liu & McCabe, 2018; Fernandez & Banguis, 2018). By comparing the grammar rule of L1 and L2, students could easier grasp the rule of the second language being studied (Richards, 2014; Granger, 2015; Myles & Mitchell, 2014; Qiufang, 2014). Moreover, by using this approach, students could understand or predict their mistakes in writing or in translating L1 to L2 and vice versa (Munro, 2018; Shimanskaya & Slabakova, 2017; Choi, 2017; Liu & McCabe, 2018; Fernandez & Banguis, 2018).

Another approach in linguistics which can be implemented in foreign language teaching is error analysis. This branch of applied linguistics focuses on studying and analyzing the errors made by students who learn their second language and investigating aspects of second language acquisition (Hinkel, 2018; Song, 2018; Pangaribuan et al., 2018). The effectiveness of error analysis approach in foreign language teaching has been proven by some studies like Richard (2015), Saville & Barto (2016), Cook (2016), Song (2018), Lardiere (2017), and they consider this approach as truly pivotal in teaching the second language since student's weaknesses in studying the second language can be grasped clearly. Therefore, the teaching material should be composed based on the student's weaknesses.

This study focused on developing a teaching material on English grammar for Indonesian learner by using contrastive and error analysis approaches. The initial step in composing the teaching material was analyzing the mistakes done by students in studying English grammar using error analysis approach. The results of this analysis showed the kind of mistakes made by students and the percentage of mistake categories. The mistakes with the highest percentage would be explained more deeply than other topics. The second step was contrasting the grammar rule of English and Bahasa using contrastive analysis. The results of both analyses were used as the main references to compose the teaching material.

Research Method

This study applied research and development approach using the ADDIE model. ADDIE model has been used by previous researchers who focused to develop learning media or teaching material (Kristanto et al., 2018; Patel et al., 2018; Lee & Kim, 2017; Greer & Hess, 2017; Kamariah et al., 2017). This model consists of 5 steps: 1) analyse, 2) design, 3) development, 4) implementation, and 5) evaluation. The advantage of this model is, it is open to change and correction, and Patel et al. (2018) says that instructional design approaches such as ADDIE may offer implementation scientists and practitioners a flexible and systematic approach for the development studies.

Student's pre-test data were analyzed using error analysis approach. The result of this analysis was employed to design the teaching material. The method used to explain the grammar concept of English was contrastive analysis approach between English and Bahasa. This study involved some experts in validating the teaching material before implemented. Data collection techniques in this study consisted of observation, interview, and test. An observation was used to collect students' responses during the learning process, and the translation and writing tests were to assess students' learning achievement. In translation test, students were asked to translate an essay in Bahasa into English

and in writing test, students were given a topic to be developed an essay.

The participants were the students of English Literature Department who were studying in the second semester. The total number of participants was 40 students (24 women and 16 men). The participants had been given consent form to participate on this study. This teaching material was delivered in six meetings. Based on the presence list, all students attended the meetings fully. The data analysis technique consisted of descriptive and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics aimed to describe the students learning achievement level. The learning achievement categorization was based on Arikunto's (2005) as shown in Table 1.

Table 1.

Categorization of Student's Academic Performance

Learning Achievement	Score	Categorization
90% - 100%	90-100	Very High
80% - 89%	80-89	High
65% - 79%	65-79	Middle
55% - 64%	55-64	Low
0% - 54%	0-54	Very Low

Another data analysis technique used in this study was the paired sample t-test which was a part of inferential statistics. It aimed to know whether the teaching material implemented could increase student's learning achievement significantly both in writing and translation class. Qualitative data which consist of student's responses and observation result during the learning process was analyzed using a qualitative descriptive approach.

Finding and Discussion

Development of Teaching Material

One of the approaches used to develop this teaching material was error analysis. The results of student's pre-test in writing and translation test were analysed by using this approach. The types of error could be divided into two categories based on where they are found, namely errors at the sentential level and errors at the word level. However, this study focused on describing the errors at the sentential level only. The further information related to the errors that were found in student's writing and translation result could be seen in below table:

Table 2.

Types of Errors found in Student's Writing Result

Types of Errors	Frequency	Percentage
Errors at Sentential Level		

Tense	65	26.10
Subject-Verb Agreement	73	29.31
Gerund and To Infinitive	43	17.30
Word Order	37	14.85
Passive Voice	31	12.44
Total	249	100

Table 2 showed that there were five kinds of error at the sentential level and the errors which had the highest percentage were tense and subject-verb agreement. Present perfect tense was the hardest to be understood by students among other tenses (simple present 13%, simple past 17 %, simple future 9%, present continuous 13%, present perfect 48%). The result of the interview with students showed that the Present Perfect Tense had been a problem in every test in both writing and translation. In the use of Bahasa, present perfect tense is not common to be used in the communication process and it is one of the main factors which has caused the problem. It is different from other tenses (simple present, past, future, and continuous) which exist in Bahasa.

Another error was found in subject-verb-agreement. This study showed that students had always faced difficulty in understanding subject-verb agreement (SVA). Interference of Bahasa as the first language was the main factor of this problem as there are differences in the rule of SVA between Bahasa and English. In Bahasa, the verb is not required to agree with the subject in a sentence. In that language, the subjects in the sentences do not influence the verb, whereas, the subjects in the sentences written in English do. For example, in English, if a subject is singular, its verb must also be singular; if a subject is a plural, its verb must also be plural. Also, the concept of intransitive sentence between both languages is different. "Mereka Bahagia" is acceptable in Indonesian language, it does not need a verb, but when it is translated into English, students tend to write "They Happy" which should be written, "They are happy".

The errors found in student's writing and translation showed a few differences. The further information could be seen in table 3.

Table 3.

Types of Errors found in Student's Translation Result

Types of Errors	Frequency	Percentage
Errors at Sentential Level		
Tense	55	20.70
Subject-Verb Agreement	35	13.15

Gerund and To Infinitive	71	26.70
Word Order	23	8.64
Passive Voice	82	30.81
Total	266	100

Table 3 showed that the topics which had the biggest percentage of errors were gerunds and to-infinitives and passive voice. Following sentence samples shows that students lack understanding in the structure that they produced inaccurately:

- Develop a learning model is one of the skills which must be owned by the teacher (It should be written “developing”)
- Watch movies is my favourite activity (It should be written “watching”)
- They want visit their hometown (It should be written “to visit”)
- The book is wrote by him (It should be written “the book is written by him”)
- The cake eaten by us (It should be written “the cake is eaten by us”)

The errors showed that students needed a deeper explanation related to the topics. Interference of Bahasa as the first language also had caused the errors. After listing the kinds of error produced by students both in writing and in the translation test, the teacher could grasp the students’ weaknesses and the causes of the errors. Therefore, in the learning process, the teacher explained deeply the topic which was not understood or mastered well by students. It is the main concept of error analysis approach (Song, 2018; Hinkel, 2018; Mayer, 2018). This teaching material had tried to implement the concept and topics which were considered more difficult were explained more deeply than other topics. Therefore it could be concluded that this teaching material was composed based on the student’s need. The error analysis showed that the main factor which has caused the errors is the interference factor. To deal with the problem, a contrastive analysis approach was needed to be implemented in the teaching process. Studies conducted by Rivers, 2018; Sa’diah & Rahmanadia, 2018 found that the effect of the interference factor could be minimized, and students could predict their errors or mistakes by using this approach. This studies also showed that the best language-teaching materials were based on a contrast between the two languages (L1) and (L2), as it would trigger students to grasp the related topic meticulously. This teaching material had tried to implement the concept of contrastive analysis. Therefore, not only did students study the English grammar but also studied the differences and similarities of English and Indonesian language.

The Implementation of Teaching Material

In implementing the developed teaching material, there were some steps to be observed meticulously. Before starting the learning process, students’ learning achievements in translation and writing class were calculated as pre-test data. After analyzing the pre-test data, they were then divided into five groups based on the Arikunto’s categorization which can be seen on the table 4:

Table 4.
Student's Pre-Test Score Result

Score	Categorization	Translation Class		Writing Class	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
90-100	Very High	0	0	0	0
80-89	High	0	0	0	0
65-79	Moderate	12	30	13	32.5
55-64	Low	22	55	24	60
0-54	Very Low	6	15	3	7,5
Total		40	100%	40	100

Table 4 shows that the majority of students were in the low and moderate categories with the percentages of 55% and 30%, respectively. It also indicates that no student got a high score. Generally, the students' average score was 56,87%, and it was in a low category. A similar trend was shown in the writing pre-test result reporting that the majority of students were in the low category by the percentage of 60,87%. The score was collected before starting the learning process. After attending six-meeting learning activities, student's learning achievement was re-measured, and the result of the test can be seen in table 5.

Table 5.
Student's Post-Test Score Result

Score	Categorization	Translation Class		Writing Class	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
90-100	Very High	0	0	0	0
80-89	High	8	20	7	17.5
65-79	Moderate	24	60	32	80
55-64	Low	8	20	1	2.5
0-54	Very Low	0	0	0	0
Total		40	100	40	100

Table 5 showed that the majority of students were in moderate and high category both in translation and writing test result. The result of the translation test showed that most of the students were in the moderate category (60%). Generally, students average score was 68,5, and there was an increase of 11,63 from the pre-test. The similar trend

was also shown in writing class as 80% of the total of students were in the moderate category. The student's average score was 71,12. It showed also an increase of 10,25. To evaluate whether there was a significant increase in student's learning achievement after following six-meetings of lectures delivering this teaching material, the scores were analysed using a paired sample t-test. The analysis result is shown in table 6.

Table 6.

Paired Samples T-Test of Writing Test Result

	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence				
				Interval of the				
				Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Post-Test – Pre-Test	10,250	4,378	,692	8,850	11,650	14,807	39	,000

Table 6 showed that there was an increase of 10,25 after joining six meetings of lectures. Based on Table 5, the significance value (0,00) was lower than 0,05 (significance standard). It means that there was a significant increase in the student's learning achievement by presenting this teaching material. Moreover, the analysis result showed that the t-table was 14,80 and t-count was 1,680. It proved that the difference between the pre-test and post-test score was significant. Therefore, this teaching material was proved to be effective in increasing student's learning achievement especially in writing class. The similar result can be seen in the writing result (Table 7).

Table 7.

Paired Samples T-Test of Translation Test Result

Paired Differences								
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				Lower	Upper			
Post-Test – Pre-Test	11,625	4,295	,679	10,251	12,999	17,119	39	,000

Table 7 showed that there was an increase of 11,62. Table 3 showed that before starting the learning process, most students were in a low category, and after attending six meetings (Table 4), the majority of students were in the moderate category. Another data showed that the significant value of the table (0,00) was lower than the significance standard (0,05). It means that there was a significant increase in the student's translation test result.

Moreover, the analysis result shows that t-table was 17,11 and t-count was 1,680 and it means that student's pre-test and post-test scores were significantly different.

There were some strengths of this teaching material which had triggered the students' learning achievement. The first one was that it was composed based on the student's needs. In another word, in designing this teaching material, the weaknesses of students became the main focus. Therefore, it was explained in more detail than other topics. Student's perspectives became a pivotal data in composing this teaching material. The previous studies conducted by Kauffman et al. (2018), Brookhart (2017), Tinto (2017), Luthans & Doh (2018) showed the similar result regarding the importance of student involvement in arranging teaching material or learning media which had been used in the learning process generally. The involvement of students had influenced positively to the student's academic performance.

The second advantage was that it was easier to be grasped by students meticulously. The use of contrastive analysis approach in composing this teaching material helped students to grasp the grammar rule of English since it was contrasted directly with the learners' first language. By using this approach, students and teachers could predict the errors that they might produce during the learning process. The previous studies conducted by Pichette & Lesniewska (2018), Genc (2018), and Munro (2018) showed a similar result regarding the positive effect of the use of contrastive analysis approach in foreign language teaching. Aijmer (2017) and Johansson (2008) said that the principle of contrastive analysis was to identify what was required by learners to learn in the target language (TL) and what is not. The identification process showed the familiar characteristic owned by the languages contrasted, and it indicated that the learner might have difficulty in learning the TL. By understanding the difficulties faced by students, a teacher could anticipate them by explaining the topics more meticulously.

The third advantage was that by using delivering teaching material, students were enabled to learn the linguistic aspect of the L1 and L2, as it was composed by using linguistics approach. This advantage was not offered by some textbooks used by English learner, as they did not use linguistic aspects in composing the textbooks. In fact, the previous studies showed that the role of linguistic understanding was truly pivotal in the foreign language learning process. Linguistics cannot be ignored or separated in language teaching (McDonough, 2017; Litosseliti, 2017; Aronoff, 2017) as there are some approaches in linguistics which should be implemented in language teaching processes like the error and contrastive analysis approach.

The findings of this study can be applicable globally as interference problem is not only faced by Indonesian learners but also faced by other English learners from other countries and the problem has been a pivotal issue in teaching English as a foreign language and as a second language. (Chandra & Hayati, 2018; Akbar & Ali, 2018; Ryan & Eric, 2018; Castilo & Yamel, 2018). Therefore, the development of grammar teaching material using error and contrastive analysis can be an alternative approach in dealing with the interference problem faced by students.

Conclusion

Composing a grammar teaching material by observing the linguistic aspects of language, like error and contrastive analysis, is one of the approaches which can be implemented in the English teaching to Non-native English speakers globally, as interference problem has been faced by most of English learners from different countries who have different first languages. The effectiveness of this teaching material can be seen based on the scores of the post-tests conducted after attending six meetings of lectures delivering the modified teaching materials. There was a significant increase on the student's academic performance, especially in writing and translation subject. It was proven through a paired sample t-test analysis result which showed that sig. value (0,00) was lower than 0,05 (significance standard). Three main strengths owned by this teaching materials which had positively influenced the student's academic performance were that 1) it was developed based on the student's needs because the use of error

analysis, 2) it was easy to grasp by students because the use of contrastive analysis and 3) it enables students to learn linguistics aspect of the L1 and L2.

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Using Recordings & Brainstorming Board Race for Promoting Students' Aural Phonological Awareness

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Abstract

Pronunciation is important in all spoken communication in English because if we mispronounce a word, people will likely to misunderstand us. This paper is about teaching diphthongs by using recordings and brainstorming board race in Iraqi private colleges as well as how audio-visual media and games are used in learning. The integration of games in the classroom is important as it creates a fun and relaxing situation to students during the learning process, therefore engaging students to answer teacher's questions and to promptly provide suggestions during the class.

Keywords: Teaching Pronunciation, Diphthongs, Brainstorming Board, Recordings

1- Introduction

Pronunciation is no longer a neglected part of language learning courses and all who work in this field realize "it's essential roles in oral communication, listener's perception and speaker's identity" (Liu, 2008). Maybe it seems too strange, but if we have a precise look at the roles of pronunciation, we see the large effects of it on many aspects of our life. It has many central roles both in our personal and social life. The roles such as promoting our social status and rhetoric, power of words, covering of our lacks and weaknesses. As individuals, we create our personality via our speaking and show our dependence to a social group in a society. Pronunciation as an important aspect of speaking ability can influence social status of speakers, especially non-natives, in ESL context. Good pronunciation creates a strong sense of identity for learner in the community of target language, but poor pronunciation leads to the loss of identity.

As Arslan (2013) concluded "in non-native EFL settings, poor pronunciation skills may result in failure in spoken communication".

Objectives of the Study:

The aims of the present study were to see: (a) what techniques do language teachers prefer most in teaching diphthong vowel sounds to their students;(b) To find if brainstorming board race technique has positive impact in teaching diphthong vowel sounds or not); and (c)How to use brainstorming to find out what students know about pronunciation of English diphthong sounds ?

Pedagogical Impact of the Study:

This study is one of the few studies which deals with important issues in development of strategies for promoting aural phonological awareness. The purpose of this research is to engage language teachers in a process of continual professional development. It provides the means for teachers to take the initiative themselves in pedagogic planning. An ability to speak well, persuasively is something that most of learners would hope to achieve in their first language. It is also an objective for many learners of a foreign language, especially those who wish to study or travel to English speaking countries.

Hypotheses of the study:

It is hypothesized that:

- 1- Using recordings & brainstorming race for teaching diphthongs can promote students' aural phonological awareness.
- 2- There is a significant difference between the mean scores of the students who are taught by using brainstorming race sounds and recordings, and the mean scores of the students who are taught by traditional method.

2. Review of Literature

In many English language classrooms, teaching pronunciation diphthong sounds are granted the least attention, because there are many students who have not been able to pronounce English vowels properly. There are many definitions of pronunciation: Celce-Murcia as cited by Goodwin (2006) states that pronunciation is the language feature that most readily identifies speakers as non-native. Since it can identify us as non-native, we do not need to pronounce like the way native speaker do. However, we need to be minimally intelligible while speaking. She added that when we find students that find difficulty in speaking, we as teachers need to assist them through improving their pronunciation (Celce Murcia et. al. 2010).

Seidlhofer (1995 cited in Celce-Murcia 2010, p. 117) says “Pronunciation is never an end in itself but a mean so negotiating meaning in discourse, embedded in a specific socio cultural and interpersonal context.” Producing sentences will have different meaning related to the way people pronounce sentences. Indeed, pronunciation needs to be taught to students. Here, pronunciation is merely treated as the act that happens in speaking and listening. Pronunciation is the act or manner of pronouncing words, utterance of speech. In other words, it can also be said that it is a way of speaking a word, especially a way that is accepted or generally understood.

English pronunciation has problems as well, for example with non-native learners of English the predominant problem is usually how to pronounce an unknown word in a written text. According to Ken Worthy Joanne et.al. (2002) that “The English spelling system is rich in both regularities and irregularities which present problems to non-native learners (and to English-speaking children learning to write their language)”. General observation suggests that it is those who start to learn English after their school years are most likely to have serious difficulties in acquiring intelligible pronunciation, with the degree of difficulty increasing markedly with age.

Pronunciation as one of the sub skills is very important in EFL classes and different teachers try to help their learners in the best way. Knowing the way of pronouncing a sample word is useful to transfer the information because mispronouncing a word may mislead the learners to transfer and obtain the information. It is believed that pronunciation is a manner the individuals pronounce a sample word, especially in a manner that is understood or accepted. It is also emphasized that pronunciation involves attending to the especial sounds of a language and also different aspects of speech like stress, intonation, vowel, consonants, rhythm and voice, and voiceless of different sounds. It is stated that the context of pronunciation teaching and also the importance of teaching the pronunciation in different EFL and ESL classes have seen important changes over the 50 years (Farm and & Pourgharib, 2013).

Pronunciation and its Role in EFL Classes

(Pourhosein Gilakjani and Ahmadi, 2011) considered the importance of listening as one of the most important main skills in EFL classes. They claimed that listening is now considered as much more essential in both SLA papers and EFL classes that includes different process of creating meaning and also deciphering from the messages of verbal and also non – verbal ones. They believed that listening skill instruction is not paid attention in the process of English language instruction. EFL students have important problems to comprehend English listening. Speaking and listening are not necessary parts of different curricula and course books and also the instructors do not seem to have taken care of the mentioned skills while they are designing their lessons. EFL learners have short information to understand and comprehend the listening.

Approaches for Teaching Pronunciation:

It is stated that there are three significant approaches to teach pronunciation namely analytic-linguistic approach, intuitive-imitative approach and integrative approach. The mentioned approaches are associated with different methods of language teaching. They are discussed as follows.

1-The intuitive-imitative approach

In the intuitive-imitative approach, it is supposed that a learner skill to imitate and listen to the sounds

and rhythms of the foreign language will give rise to the expanding of an agreeable frame of pronunciation without the intervening of each explicit data. Especial tools, like videos, websites, videotapes, computer-based programs, videos are enjoyed today for the present approach (Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu, 2010).

2- The analytic-linguistic approach

This approach considers explicit intervening of pedagogy related to pronunciation is in focus. The students are delivered with explicit data on pronunciation enjoying articulatory descriptions, phonetic alphabet, and vocal charts (Adibpour & Jam, 2014). The explicit data can be stated in various interactive speech websites and software. The analytic-linguistic approach was developed to concentrate on imitation and listening; however, it added using different aids like the phonetic alphabet (Terminsuppats, 2008).

3-The integrative approach

Pronunciation is considered as an integral part of communication, rather than a separate drill. Pronunciation is studied within meaningful task-based exercise. Students enjoy pronunciation concentrated listening actions to facilitate the pronunciation learning. There is more concentration on the suprasegmentals of rhythm, stress, and intonation as studied in extended discourse over the phoneme and word level. Pronunciation is worked to satisfy the students' special needs. There is a dual-focus oral program of communication where the micro level teaching is concentrated on linguistic (i.e. phonetic phonological) competence by the use of segmental practices and the suprasegmentals, and the macro level attends to more universal elements of communicability, with the aim of developing sociolinguistics, discourse, and strategic competence by enjoying language for communicative goals.

Brainstorm Relay

The teacher can divide his class into teams of five to six students. Have each team stand in a line, and designate part of his front board for each team. Then tell his class the target sound they will be looking to include in the words they brainstorm. It might be a certain vowel sound, a consonant blend, or any other sound he wants them to be aware of. On go, one person from each team runs up to the board and writes down a word with that sound before returning to the back of his team's line. Then the next person goes. Continue for two to three minutes. The team which has the most correct words on its list at the end of the time wins the round (Alex Case, 2008).

Value Added Benefits of Games

Not only do games motivate students in a fun way offering interactive competitive learning environments, they also provide many other positive features. Games lighten the mood and this facilitates greater creativity and boost student's morale and interest (Shatz & Loschiavo, 2005). (Wyckoff and Pryor, 2003) say that a lightened mood can negate communication apprehension. Another key spin off from using games as a teaching methodology is the formative assessment element. Students are in a position to monitor their own progress and understanding of the subject material in a non-invasive manner (Wyckoff & Pryor, 2003). Games provide instant feedback for students and guidance in terms where to focus their learning effort and time. Shanahan et.al. (2006) note that 'Games [also] provide immediate feedback on student learning sufficiency prior to, rather than after, an exam'. In addition to students receiving instant feedback on their learning, teachers are also able to see clearly where learning gaps exist and allow this to inform their next class or revision sessions (Shanahan et.al. 2006).

Related Studies:

Media Erisa Kurniati (2014) claimed that Teaching Pronunciation by Using Games and Audio Visual develop students' pronunciation, the researcher hopes to know how to used games and audio visual media then combine it in learning. While Kumis Iwasaki and Riesa Ikeda (2012) sought to introduce successful examples of games and activities for teaching pronunciation in an intermediate to advanced-level University setting. Also mgr. Hanna WiniewskaIn (2012) present an overview of the traditional

and time-tested techniques as well as the new directions in pronunciation teaching. Finally, Ahmed Alsuhaimeh (2017) present his research “Teaching Pronunciation via Computer Technology: Principles and Best Practices” the researcher sheds light on the case of integrating computer technology to teach pronunciation to EFL learners, precisely, Arab learners. It explores different computer programs that have been discussed in the literature and suggests best practices and principles for teaching pronunciation via computer software. While my study differs from studies above, it sheds the light on the combining of recordings and brainstorming board race technique in teaching pronunciation-diphthong sounds to develop students’ performance.

3. Procedure and Design

Two section have been selected from the first year (35 students) of Al-Yarmouk College University one of them is experimental group and other is controlled. The instructional material has been selected for this study consists of diphthong vowel sounds in: Better English Pronunciation by: J.D. O’Connor, Cambridge University Press. The instructions of the two groups have started on 23/2/2018, and have lasted for two weeks. At these two weeks the researcher taught the controlled group by traditional method while the experimental group were taught by using audio visual media (recordings) and the most important technique of teaching pronunciation, “sounds brainstorming board race” The data of the present study was obtained by using written test for students, see appendix (1).

4. Result and Analysis

The study reached at the following results :

1-Distinction of the experimental group to the controlled in the use of recordings & Brainstorming Board Race as an average students achievement of experimental group is (78.828), it’s higher than the collection of their peers in the controlled group who achievement is (71.285) only. This result confirms the first hypothesis adopted by the study which says that ‘Using recordings & brainstorming race sounds for teaching diphthongs can promote students’ aural phonological awareness. See table (1)

2-There is a significant difference in the scores of experimental and controlled group during their means achievement in the pre-posttest. As an average of experimental students mean achievement (56.971) in pre-test while in post-test is (78.828). While controlled group students means achievement are: (64.685) in pre-test while the post-test is (71.285). This result confirms the second hypothesis adopted by the study which says that ‘There is a significant difference between the mean scores of the students who are taught by using brainstorming race sounds and recordings, and the mean scores of the students who are taught by traditional method’. See appendix (2)

Table (1)

The Mean, Standard Deviation and “T” Value of the post-test Scores

<i>Group</i>	<i>No. of subjects</i>	<i>X</i> <i>Mean</i>	<i>Standard</i> <i>Deviation</i>	<i>“T”</i> <i>Value</i>
Experimental	17	78.828	9.602	3.211
Controlled	18	71.285	11.917	
	35			

5. Conclusion

The conclusions below are drawn in the light of the study results and the researcher's own observations throughout her investigation

- 1- There is a significant difference in the scores of experimental and control group during their means achievement in the post-test. It can be concluded that teaching method play very important role in the class.
- 2- Recordings and Brainstorming board race techniques are more favorable for learning than the traditional techniques.
- 3-Using recordings & brainstorming board race can promote students' phonological awareness.

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Appendix (1)**Test for Students**

Question (1): Watch the video and choose the correct sound

1- /aʊ/ /oʊ/

2- /eə/ /lə/

3- /ʊə/ /ɔl/

4- /əʊ/ /aʊ/

5- /aɪ/ /eɪ/

Question (2): Listen and choose the correct word

Oh How

Three Toy

Wait Lied

Know Now

Are Hair

Beer Bare

Question (3): Listen and choose the correct sound

/əʊ/ /aʊ/

/eɪ/ /ɔl/

/aɪ/ /ʊə/

Question (4): Write the phonetic transcription of the following words

Words	Phonetic Transcription
1-snow	
2-Fierce	
3-Hoist	
4-My own	
5-Coke	

Appendix (2)

Table (2) The Mean, Standard Deviation and “T” Value of the Pre-test and Post-Test Scores of the Experimental Group.

<i>Group</i>	<i>No. of subjects</i>	<i>X Mean</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>	<i>“T” Value</i>
Pre-test	17	56.971	12.688	8.680
Post-test	17	78.828	9.602	

Table (3) The Mean, Standard Deviation and “T” Value of the Pre-test and Post-Test Scores of the Controlled Group.

<i>Group</i>	<i>No. of subjects</i>	<i>X Mean</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>	<i>“T” Value</i>
Pre-test	18	64.685	10.576	5.611
Post-test	18	71.828	11.917	

About the Author

Anwar Jawad Kadhim completed a PhD in Curriculum and English teaching methods, her research interests in employing speech acts theory to promote students’ EFL communicative competence. She worked as instructor in Iraqi Colleges. She's been teaching English language to Iraqi students since 2015.

English Language Anxiety and its Impacts on Students' Oral Communication among Indonesian Students: A Case Study at Tadulako University and Universitas Negeri Makassar

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Abstract

There are a variety of factors that might influence foreign language learning faced by a number of students when learning a foreign language; attitude, motivation, anxiety, and beliefs (Trang & Karen - Baldauf (2012). Anxiety has become the most intriguing issue in language teaching and learning and it has correlation on students' academic performance. This paper aims to investigate the effects of English language anxiety and its impact on students' oral communication at English Education Study Program, Department of Language and Art Education, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education Tadulako University, Palu Central Sulawesi Indonesia and English Department, Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia. A total 80 students, 54 females and 26 males participated in this study. There were two types of instruments employed in this study, a questionnaire and a test. The study anxiety level was measured using Sansgiry and Sail's Test Anxiety Measurement (TAM) which has been modified by the researchers. Meanwhile, students' oral communication was measured using students' score of speaking skill subject. The results of the study illustrated that there was a significant correlation of high level anxiety and low academic performance among English students at English Education Study Program, Department of Language and Art Education, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education Tadulako University and English Department Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar.

Keywords: English language anxiety, impact, oral communication, higher education

Introduction

Nowadays, someone who masters English as an international language can get information easily. Someone who has second or foreign language proficiency can access information from around the globe. A high level of a second language or foreign language proficiency gives young people an opportunity to study abroad, read textbooks in the original language, get acquainted with other peoples' culture, and communicate both in virtual space and in live face-to-face interaction in the classroom settings (Selivanova et al., 2018, p. 218). As an international language, English has a vital role in a variety of purposes and activities. Based upon this reason, English has become mandatory subject at secondary schools to universities in Indonesia. The target of English teaching at schools and universities in Indonesia is to achieve English language communicative competence. To achieve the curriculum target as stated in the Indonesian curriculum policy seems to be difficult, even though the norms have been employed in the classroom setting by the teachers (Weda & Sakti, 2018).

English has been taught from secondary schools as a compulsory subject until universities, the graduate English communicative competence is low. This in keeping with Nasiruddin and Sahril's study on students' academic achievement which reveals that English taught in Indonesian classrooms for many years (Nasiruddin & Sahril, 2018, p. 3) but the students' English academic achievement is low. Bellen in Weda (2018, p. 405) states that English proficiency of secondary school graduates was very low. Accordingly, Nur in Weda (2018, p. 405) reports that the result of the teaching of English in Indonesia has long been considered unsatisfactory. Dealing with the quality of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) in Indonesia, many researchers reported that the quality of teaching English is still low (Weda & Sakti, 2018, p. 718).

Learning English as a foreign language in Indonesia demands cognitive, psychological, and emotional efforts by the language learners. One of the affective variables addressed lately in these efforts is the "anxiety of FL learning"

(Abu-Rabia, 2004, p. 711). Researchers had to accept the fact that personality traits such as self-esteem, inhibition, anxiety, risk-taking and extraversion, may well shape the ultimate success in mastering a foreign language (Dorney cited in Kralova, 2017, p. 110).

Students with anxiety disorder exhibit a passive attitude in their studies such as lack of interest in learning, poor performance in exams, and do poorly on assignments (Vitasari, et al, 2010, p. 490). Therefore, as a facilitator and manager in the classroom, the teacher needs to minimize students' anxiety and he needs to improve students' motivation to take part in all activities in the classroom.

Review of Literature

Previous Related Findings on Anxiety

Saito & Samimy (1996, p. 239) conducted a research on foreign language anxiety and language performance in Japanese context showed that the influence of foreign language anxiety becomes more important as Japanese learners' instructional levels increase. It is clear that in order to reduce the debilitating effect of language class anxiety, teachers of Japanese need to become aware of these differences in terms of the learners' affective states and respond to them accordingly.

Another research conducted by Oya, et al., (2004) reported that participants who were more extraverted produced better global impressions during their oral performance, and those who were experiencing higher levels of state anxiety made more errors in their spoken use of clauses.

Steinberg (Oya, et al., 2004, p. 844) argued that the role of anxiety on second language oral performance by inducing anxiety in half of her participants, and comparing oral performance of that group with another group with no induced anxiety. She found that low anxiety was associated with more anxious students tended to provide shorter oral descriptions about themselves in a second language they were studying (French) – an effect that they did not find in the participants' first language (English).

Vitasari, et al., (2010, p. 496) reported that there is a significant correlation between study anxiety and academic performance. Students who have high level anxiety achieve low academic performance. Arjanggi & Kusumaningsih (2016, p. 106) argued that the lower the students' social anxiety, the more students' academic adjustment will be. The research report in Indonesian context conducted by Weda & Sakti revealed that there was a significant correlation of high level anxiety and low academic performance among English students at Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar (Weda & Sakti, 2018, p. 718).

Pertinent Ideas Anxiety

Trang & Karen - Baldauf cited in Weda & Sakti (2012, p. 718) reveal that there is a variety of factors that might influence foreign language learning faced by a number of students when learning a foreign language; attitude, motivation, anxiety, and beliefs. Anxiety is one important factor to highly influence the success or the failure of students' academic performance. High anxiety plays a somewhat debilitating role in high school students' language learning (Na, Zhao, 2007, p. 22).

Anxiety, one of the prominent and pervasive emotions, was defined as a feeling of uneasy suspense by Rahman in Liu & Huang (2011, p. 1) and has been a focus of research in foreign language education since early 1970s (Liu & Huang, 2011, p. 11).

Cohen & Norst in Liu (2006, p. 13) argues that the speech of anxious students is often accompanied by blushing, trembling hands, a pounding heart, and headaches. Accordingly, Ely (Liu, 2006, p. 13) reveals that anxious students are less likely volunteer answers or participate in oral classroom activities. In keeping with Cohen & Norst and Ely in their studies, Tobias in Liu (2006, p. 13) states that some students with high levels of language anxiety may even have a mental block.

Thieda (2013, p. 8) argues that anxiety is considered as an emotion, and like most emotions, it can vary in intensity.

Thieda therefore adds that anxiety can be observed in two levels. At low levels, anxiety is adaptive, meaning that it drives positive outcomes, such as encouraging you to pay your bills on time or to work a few extra hours in order to meet a deadline. Higher anxiety levels, on the other hand, can set off a chain of events that can have significant negative physical and psychological effects. Physical signs of anxiety are marked with many things. Thieda (2013, p. 9) claims that common physical symptoms of anxiety include a racing heart, excessive perspiration, trembling or shaking, feeling restless or keyed up, fatigue or problems sleeping, shortness of breath, chest pain or tightness, nausea or diarrhea, upset stomach or butterflies in the stomach, dizziness, chills or hot flushes, and numbness.

Swift, et al. (2014, p. 9) report that everyone has feelings of anxiety at some point in their life, whether it is about preparing for a job interview, meeting a partner's family for the first time, or the prospect of parenthood. Swift et al. (2014, p. 9) therefore add that anxiety is therefore one of a range of emotions that serves the positive function of alerting us to things we might need to worry about: things that are potentially harmful. More importantly, these emotions help us to evaluate potential threats and respond to them in an appropriate way, perhaps by quickening our reflexes or focusing our attention. High-anxious people are more reluctant to speak in L2 classroom activities and this often hinders their learning (Liu, M and Jackson, J, 2011).

Oral Communication

Since the speakers or the learners are anxious, they cannot express ideas and thoughts fluently. Horowitz, et al in Abu-Rabia (2004, p. 712) argue that oral communication skills are more likely to be affected by language anxiety where the learner is afraid of spontaneous communication in the FL. Horowitz & Young in Abu-Rabia (2004, p. 712) state that anxiety is perceived as state anxiety that arises in a situation or event: public speaking, exams, and class participation. This shows that students' anxiety occurs in various activities and situations in the classroom setting.

Situation anxiety develops if learners develop negative expectations based on bad learning experience and poor performance and continued bad learning performance result in increased anxiety (Abu-Rabia, 2004, p. 712). Woodrew (2006, p. 308) argues that the most frequent source of anxiety was interacting with native speakers. This occurs because the language learners do not frequently meet and practice their English with native speakers of English.

Using English fluently and accurately in a variety of purposes and settings becomes a priority of English language learners. Fluency as the ability to converse with others, much more than to read, write, or comprehend oral language (Nasiruddin & Sahril, 2018, p. 3). According to Nasiruddin & Sahril, the teachers regard speaking or oral communication as the most important skill to acquire; further, they assess students' progress regarding their accomplishments in oral or spoken communication (Nasiruddin & Sahril, 2018, p. 3). As an important language skill, speaking skill needs additional time to practice it.

Methodology

Participants

Participants in this study were 50 English majors, 23 or 46% male and 23 or 54% female. The age of the participants ranged from 19 - 26. There were thirty two participants from English Education Tadulako University, Central Sulawesi Indonesia and there were 18 participants from English Department of Universitas Negeri Makassar, Makassar Indonesia.

Instruments and Procedure

The instrument used to assess the students' perception on the study anxiety in the EFL classroom is Sansgiry and Sail's Test Anxiety Measurement (TAM). The instrument aimed to find out the students' perception on study anxiety at the English education department Tadulako University and English Department Universitas Negeri Makassar. Data about students' perception on study anxiety were collected in July and August 2018. The students were asked to fill in the questionnaire which consisted of 15 items. In this research, the participants were asked to rate their perceptions to test their perception on study anxiety on a 5-point scale on which 1 = Not at all typical of

me; 2 = Not very typical of me; 3 = Somewhat typical of me; 4 = Fairly typical of me and 5 = Very much typical of me.

Data of students' oral communication were obtained from English speaking subject (Speaking 1, Speaking 2, and Speaking 3). Results of the test were used to find out the correlation between English language anxiety and students' oral communication.

Data analysis

Data were coded and analyzed using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) Statistics 9.0 which showed the mean, Standard Deviation (SD), and percentage. The correlation of English language anxiety and students' oral communication was examined by Pearson moment correlation.

Findings and Discussion

The demographic of participants is illustrated in table 1 below.

Table 1: Demographic of Participants

<i>Demographic Information</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Gender		
1. Female	27	54
2. Male	23	46
Major		
1. English Education (Undergraduate)	40	80
2. English Literature (Undergraduate)	10	20
Age		
1. 18 – 20	14	28
2. 21 – 29	36	72

Table 2. Frequencies and rank of each of students' perception on study anxiety in the EFL classroom

No.	Students' Study Anxiety	Not at all typical of me	Not very typical of me	Somewhat typical of me	Fairly typical of	Very much typical of	Sum	Mean	SD	Weight (%)
1	During a test, I frequently get nervous that I forget facts I really now.	6.0	24.0	44.0	10.0	16.0	153.00	3.0600	1.11410	26.0
2	While taking a test, I perspire a great deal.	12.0	20.0	36.0	26.0	6.0	147.00	2.9400	1.09563	32.0
3	During exams, I find myself	6.0	34.0	24.0	18.0	18.0	154.00	3.0800	1.22624	36.0

	thinking of things unrelated to the actual study material.									
4	I feel very panicky when I have to take a test.	18.0	24.0	30.0	10.0	18.0	143.00	2.8600	1.34027	28.0
5	After tests, I am frequently so tense that my stomach gets upset.	24.0	36.0	30.0	6.0	4.0	115.00	2.3000	1.03510	10.0
6	I usually feel my heart beating very fast during a test.	8.0	14.0	34.0	28.0	16.0	165.00	3.3000	1.14731	44.0
7	I usually get very depressed after taking a test.	12.0	34.0	32.0	10.0	12.0	138.00	2.7600	1.17038	22.0
8	I wish tests did not bother me so much.	2.0	14.0	42.0	18.0	24.0	174.00	3.4800	1.07362	42.0
9	Even when I well prepared for a test, I feel very anxious about it.	4.0	18.0	36.0	28.0	14.0	165.00	3.3000	1.05463	42.0
10	I get upset when someone speaks English to me.	18.0	40.0	22.0	12.0	8.0	126.00	2.5200	1.16479	20
11	I become anxious when someone asks difficult questions in English.	10.0	30.0	38.0	14.0	8.0	140.00	2.8000	1.06904	22.0
12	I always get nervous when answering lecturers' questions in the classroom.	8.0	20.0	36.0	20.0	14.0	155.00	3.1000	1.14731	34.0
13	I feel tense when I have to answer the questions from my friends in classroom discussion.	22.0	26.0	32.0	14.0	6.0	128.00	2.5600	1.16339	20
14	I get upset when my lecturer speaks too quickly.	6.0	20.0	42.0	20.0	12.0	156.00	3.1200	1.06215	32.0

15	I feel nervous if the lecturer is a native speaker of English.	12.0	28.0	28.0	20.0	12.0	146.00	2.9200	1.20949	32.0
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There were approximately 26.0% of students revealed experiencing with the statement “During a test, I frequently get nervous that I forget facts I really now.” Approximately 32.0% of students experienced to the statement “While taking a test, I perspire a great deal.” There were 36.0% of students experiencing to the statement “During exams, I find myself thinking of things unrelated to the actual study material.” There were 28.0% of students experienced to the statement “I feel very panicky when I have to take a test.” Only 10.0% of students gave opinion that “After tests, I am frequently so tense that my stomach gets upset.” There were 44.0% of students responded that “I usually feel my heart beating very fast.” Approximately 22.0% of the students gave comments that “I usually get very depressed after taking a test.” There were 42.0% of students experienced respectively to the statement “I wish tests did not bother me so much,” and “Even when I well prepared for a test, I feel very anxious about it.” There were 20% of the students gave comments on “I get upset when someone speaks English to me.” Approximately 22.0% of students experienced to the statement “I become anxious when someone asks difficult questions in English.” There were 34.0% of students gave comment on “I always get nervous when answering lecturers’ questions in the classroom.” Approximately 20% of students gave comment on “I feel tense when I have to answer the questions from my friends in classroom discussion.” There were 32.0% of the students experienced respectively to the statement “I get upset when my lecturer speaks too quickly,” and “I feel nervous if the lecturer is a native speaker of English.”

Table 3. Results of students’ oral communication

Descriptive Statistics	Average Score of Speaking 1	Average Score of Speaking 2	Average Score of Speaking 3
Mean	3.3200	3.1800	3.3400
SD	.65278	.59556	.59281

Table 4. Results of correlation between English language anxiety and students’ oral communication

Measures	Mean	SD	r	p
TAM	44.1000	9.37049		
Oral Com.	9.8400	1.51671		
TAM-Oral Com.			.045	.000

Note. $P < 0.01$

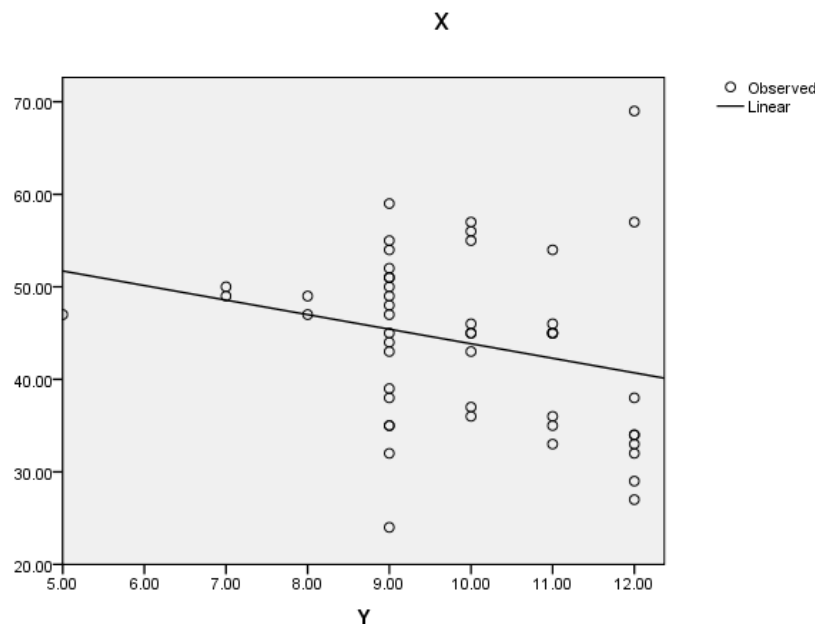


Figure 1. Scatter Plot of Correlation between English Language Anxiety and Students' Oral Communication

The Pearson moment correlation examines the correlation between English language anxiety and students' oral communication. The results indicate that mean score and standard deviation (SD) of TAM ($M = 44.1000$) out of possible maximum of 5 (very much typical of me); $SD = 9.37049$ and Oral Communication ($M = 9.8400$; $SD = 1.51671$), a significant correlation ($p = .000$), the correlation coefficient is small with $r = .045$, and the size yield $n = 50$. Therefore, the findings imply that there is a significant correlation between English language anxiety and students' oral communication among students of English department at Universitas Negeri Makassar, Indonesia and students of English Education at Tadulako University, Central Sulawesi Indonesia.

This study is consistently with some previous studies on anxiety which reported that there was a significant relationship between high level of anxiety and low academic performance. Woodrow (2006) claims that a second language speaking anxiety is a significant predictor of oral achievement. In keeping with Woodrow, Weda & Sakti (2018) argue that there was a significant correlation of high level anxiety and low academic performance among English students at Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar (UNM).

Conclusion

This present study represents an attempt to explore the relationship between English language anxiety and its impact on students' oral communication. The results indicated that there was a significant correlation between English language learning anxiety and students' oral communication among students of English department at Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar and students of English education Tadulako University, with significant correlation ($p = 0.000$) and the correlation coefficient is small with $r = 0.045$. The result of this present study is consistently with Vitasari, et al., (2010, p. 496) who reported that students who have high level anxiety achieve low academic performance in language learning. Arjanggih & Kusumaningsih (2016, p. 106) argued that the lower the students' social anxiety, the more students' academic adjustment will be. Weda & Sakti (2018, p. 718) revealed that there was a significant correlation of high level anxiety and low academic performance among English students at Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar.

Implications

Based upon the effects of anxiety on language achievements in a variety of skills, it needs to be positioned as one of crucial attributes in language learning. The language practitioners and lecturers at the university should reduce students' anxiety. Students' anxiety can be reduced in all levels of language learning by implementing good atmosphere and relaxed situation to attract students' involvement in the language learning process.

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Respondent Identity:

Name :
 Sex :
 Age :
 Study Program:
 Semester :

Questionnaire

For the following statements, please rate yourself according to how well each statement describes you:

1 = Not at all typical of me; 2 = Not very typical of me; 3 = Somewhat typical of me; 4 = Fairly typical of me; and 5 = Very much typical of me

- (1) Not at all typical of me
- (2) Not very typical of me
- (3) Somewhat typical of me
- (4) Fairly typical of me
- (5) Very much typical of me

No.	Students' Study Anxiety	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.	During a test, I frequently get nervous that I forget facts I really now.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	While taking a test, I perspire a great deal.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	During exams, I find myself thinking of things unrelated to the actual study material.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I feel very panicky when I have to take a test.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	After tests, I am frequently so tense that my stomach gets upset.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I usually feel my heart beating very fast during a test.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I usually get very depressed after taking a test.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I wish tests did not bother me so much.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Even when I well prepared for a test, I feel very anxious about it.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I get upset when someone speaks English to me.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I become anxious when someone asks difficult questions in English.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I always get nervous when answering lecturers' questions in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5

13.	I feel tense when I have to answer the questions from my friends in classroom discussion.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I get upset when my lecturer speaks too quickly.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I feel nervous if the lecturer is a native speaker of English.	1	2	3	4	5

Adapted from Sansgiry and Sail's Test Anxiety Measurement (TAM)

Choose one of the following scores from three speaking subjects by circling around.

A = 4

B = 3

C = 2

D = 1

No.	Subject	SCORE			
1.	Speaking 1	A	B	C	D
2.	Speaking 2	A	B	C	D
3.	Speaking 3	A	B	C	D

About the Authors

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Theme Writing Skills of Pangasinan State University (PSU) Education Students

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Abstract

This study was conducted to determine the theme writing skills of Bachelor of Secondary Education (BSEd) students in Pangasinan State University – Lingayen Campus, Philippines. Its specific problems centered on: (1) the profile of students; (2) the extent of observance of the characteristics of an effective theme to the students as perceived by the teachers; (3) the extent of contribution of pre-writing activities to the development of the theme writing skills of the students as perceived by them; (4) the extent of seriousness of the problems encountered by the students and the teachers in theme writing; and (5) the significant difference in the extent of observance of the characteristics of an effective theme to the students as perceived by the teachers across their profile variables. The descriptive-correlational method of research was utilized in this study. The questionnaire was employed in gathering the data. The data gathered were analyzed and interpreted using frequency counts, percentages, mean, standard deviation, independent sample t-test, one-way ANOVA and two-way ANOVA. Salient findings of the study were as follows: (1) the extent of observance of the characteristics of an effective theme to the students is moderately high; (2) the extent of contribution of pre-writing activities to development of theme writing skills of the students is also moderately high; and (3) there is no significant difference in the extent of observance of characteristics of an effective theme to the students across their profile variables.

Keywords: theme writing, theme writing skills, characteristics of effective theme, pre-writing activities

Introduction

Theme Writing

Theme-writing refers to the conventional writing assignments required in many composition classes since the late-19th century according to Nordquist (2018). It is also called school writing. In the book *The Plural I: The Teaching of Writing* by Coles, Jr. (1978), the term *themewriting* (one word) was used to characterize empty, formulaic writing that is not meant to be read but corrected. Coles, Jr. (1978) further said that textbook authors present writing as a trick that can be played, a device that can be put into operation just as one can be taught or learn to run an adding machine or pour concrete.

Characteristics of an Effective Theme

Skill in writing is somehow manifested in students' outputs such as themes or essays. Langan (2003) disclosed that an effective theme or brief essay is characterized by unity, support, coherence and sentence construction. To make this happen, one should follow the steps in writing such as (1) begin with a point or thesis, (2) support the thesis with specific, (3) organize and connect the specific evidence, and (4) write clear sentences.

The first characteristic of a good theme is unity. According to Wasko (2012), unity means oneness. It describes writing that sticks to a central idea, theme, or story. Good writing doesn't wander around like gossip at a dinner party, it stays focused like an astronomer at his telescope.

The second characteristic is support. It means supporting an idea or thesis for specific reasons or details. Specific details are valuable because it excites the reader's interest and explains the writer's points. To make the support adequate, the student write down a brief version of thesis idea and work out and jot down the three points that will support the thesis. Planning out the steps that logically supports the thesis will make an excellent position to go on to write an effective theme (Langan, 2003).

The third characteristic is coherence. According to Noorda (n.d.), coherence in writing is the logical bridge between words, sentences, and paragraphs. Coherent writing uses devices to connect ideas within each sentence and paragraph. Main ideas and meaning can be difficult for the reader to follow if the writing lacks coherence.

The last characteristic is sentence construction. The last step in writing is to make the sentence flows smoothly and clearly by checking the sentence construction. The strategies to help the students write a theme effectively are to use parallelism, a consistent point of view, active verbs, spelling, capitalization, and punctuation. Parallelism in writing a theme means a balanced series of –ing words, descriptive words, and to verbs. The consistent verb tenses and pronouns. The use of active verbs is also important to give the writing a simpler and more vigorous style. When the subject of a sentence acts as the verb, the verb is in the active voice (Langan, 2003).

Pre-writing Activities

Another possible thing that may affect the theme writing skills of a student is the pre-writing activities being integrated such as freewriting, collaborative brainstorming, clustering and idea mapping. According to Lahl (2008), prewriting is a term that describes any kind of preliminary work that precedes the actual paper writing. It doesn't necessarily have to be writing. In fact, prewriting can just be concentrated thinking about what you want to write your paper on.

The first activity in pre-writing is freewriting. According to Firestone (n.d.), freewriting is the practice of writing down all your thoughts without stopping, and without regard for spelling, grammar, or any of the usual rules for writing. It might include a topic as a general guide, or it might not. The purpose of the exercise varies, but it can be used to generate ideas and to clear out distracting thoughts. There are various possible forms of freewriting, such as journals, essays, and fiction writing.

The second activity is collaborative brainstorming. Rouse (2017) defines brainstorming as a group problem-solving method that involves the spontaneous contribution of creative ideas and solutions. This technique requires intensive, freewheeling discussion in which every member of the group is encouraged to think aloud and suggest as many ideas as possible based on their diverse knowledge. Further, it combines an informal approach to problem-solving with lateral thinking, which is a method for developing new concepts to solve problems by looking at them in innovative ways. Some of these ideas can be built into original, creative solutions to a problem, while others can generate additional ideas.

The third activity is clustering. Clustering is a method of invention more visual and nonlinear than freewriting. It generates material for a theme and helps writers who like to do their thinking in a visual way (Langan, 2003).

The fourth and final activity is idea mapping. Idea mapping is a powerful whole-brained visual thinking tool that enhances memory, note-taking skills, thought organization, planning, creativity, and communication. It uses color, keywords, lines, and images to connect thoughts associatively. Idea Maps are the natural expression of the way the brain processes information associatively ("Idea mapping success," 2006).

The Contribution of Theme Writing

In general, good writing makes a special contribution to success in college and on the job. The students who write confidently will learn more and earn better grades. Their writing skills are often one of the bases of which instructors have for evaluation. After graduation, students who are now employees must be able to communicate effectively with their employers and customers. Indeed, whatever career paths the students choose, they will need strong writing and critical thinking skills. The students need to look at the importance of developing their skill in writing.

Further, writing makes a special contribution to the way people think. When the students write, they compose meanings. They put together facts and ideas and make something new. They create an intricate web of meaning in which sentences have special relationships with each other.

Advanced writing skills are an important aspect of academic performance as well as of subsequent work-related

performance. Hence, it is in the hands of the teachers on how they will execute the teaching-learning process as far as theme writing skills are concerned. (Kellogg & Raulerson, 2007).

Objectives of the Study

This study determined the theme writing skills of Pangasinan State University education students. Specifically, the study was conducted to determine the: (1) profile of the students in terms of the following: type of high school they graduated from; parents' average monthly salary; grades in English subject; materials read at home; and exposure to various media; (2) extent of observance of the following characteristics of an effective theme by the students in terms of: unity; support; coherence; and sentence construction; (3) extent of contribution of pre-writing activities to the development of theme writing skills of the students, such as: freewriting; collaborative brainstorming; clustering; and idea mapping; (4) the extent of seriousness of the problems encountered by the students and the teachers in theme writing; and (5) the significant difference in the observance of the characteristics of an effective theme to the students across their profile variables.

Methodology

The descriptive-correlational method of research was employed in this study. Descriptive research is designed to create a snapshot of the current thoughts, feelings, or behavior of individuals. It provides a relatively complete picture of what is occurring at a given time, and it allows the development of questions for further study (Stangor, 2011). On the other hand, correlational research is designed to assess the relationships between and among two or more variable. It allows testing of expected relationships between and among variables and the making of predictions and it can assess these relationships in everyday life events (Stangor, 2011).

Quantitative data collection method is used in the study particularly questionnaire. Quantitative data collection methods are based on random sampling and structured data collection instruments. Findings of quantitative studies are usually easy to present, summarize, compare and generalize (Research Methodology, 2018). The data gathered were analyzed and interpreted using frequency counts, percentages, mean, standard deviation, independent sample t-test, one-way ANOVA and two-way ANOVA.

Results and Discussion

Profile of Faculty Members

The findings of the study disclosed that majority of the students graduated from public high schools. Most of their parents' average monthly salary ranges from five – ten thousand pesos (P5,000 – P10,000). Most of their English subject grades range from 88-90 (1.75). In addition, most of them read magazines at home and are exposed to media through the internet and television.

Extent of Observance of Unity to the Themes Written by the Students

Table 1: *Extent of Observance of Unity to the Themes Written by the Students*

Indicators	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1. The theme contains one idea.	2.00	Moderately High
2. The theme is not a simple fact that does not require much support.	1.83	Moderately High
3. The theme is not narrow to need support of development.	1.83	Moderately High
4. The theme is not too broad to be adequately supported in the theme.	1.83	Moderately High
5. The theme advances a point about a limited subject.	1.67	Low
6. The theme can be found in the introductory paragraph.	1.67	Low
7. The theme is something that one would agree with just by reading it.	1.67	Low
8. The theme asserts something that can plausibly support in the next paragraphs.	1.67	Low
Weighted Mean	1.77	Moderately High

Scale: 2.31 – 3.00 = High; 1.71 – 2.30 = Moderately High; 1.00 – 1.70 = Low

Table 1 shows the perception of teachers on the extent of observance of unity to the themes written by the students which is moderately high with a weighted mean value of 1.77. Unity is one of the characteristics of an effective theme according to Langan (2003).

Specifically, the teachers perceived moderately high on the following indicators: *the theme contains one idea* with a mean value of 2.00; *the theme is not a simple fact that does not require much support* with a mean value of 1.83; *the theme is not narrow to need support of development* with a mean value of 1.83; and *the theme is not too broad to be adequately supported in the theme* with a mean value of 1.83. On the other hand, they perceived low on the following indicators, such as: *the theme advances a point about a limited subject* with a mean value of 1.67; *the theme can be found in the introductory paragraph* with a mean value of 1.67; *the theme is something that one would agree with just by reading it* with a mean value of 1.67; *the theme asserts something that can plausibly support in the next paragraphs* with a mean value of 1.76.

*Extent of Observance of Support to
the Themes Written by the Students*

Table 2: *Extent of Observance of Support to the Themes Written by the Students*

Indicators	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1. The details are enough.	2.00	Moderately High
2. The details support the point with specific evidence.	2.00	Moderately High
3. The specific details give the evidence needed for the readers to see and understand general ideas.	2.00	Moderately High
4. The shorter examples for each main point are present.	1.83	Low
5. The specific details are relevant.	1.67	Low
6. The supporting paragraphs have a clear topic sentence.	1.67	Low
7. The specific details make the theme pleasurable to read.	1.67	Low
Weighted Mean	1.83	Moderately High

Scale: 2.31 – 3.00 = High; 1.71 – 2.30 = Moderately High; 1.00 – 1.70 = Low

Table 2 presents the perception of teachers on the extent of observance of support to the themes written by the students which is moderately high with a weighted mean value of 1.83. Support is one of the characteristics of an effective theme according to Langan (2003).

Specifically, the teachers perceived moderately high on the following indicators: *the details are enough* with a mean value of 2.00; *the details support the point with specific evidence* with a mean value of 2.00; and *the specific details give the evidence needed for the readers to see and understand general ideas* with a mean value of 2.00. On the other hand, they perceived low on the following indicators, such as: *the shorter examples for each main point are present* with a mean value of 1.86; *the specific details are relevant* with a mean value of 1.67; *the supporting paragraphs*

have a clear topic sentence with a mean value of 1.67; and the specific details make the theme pleasurable to read with a mean value of 1.67

Extent of Observance of Coherence to the Themes Written by the Students

Table 3: *Extent of Observance of Coherence to the Themes Written by the Students*

Indicators	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1. The transitions help readers follow the train of thought.	1.67	Low
2. The linking sentences between paragraphs help tie those paragraphs together.	1.67	Low
3. The introduction begins with broad and general statements.	1.50	Low
4. The introduction is inviting and raises expectations.	1.50	Low
5. The connecting words are there to help connect details.	1.50	Low
6. The theme uses time or emphatic order.	1.33	Low
7. The concluding paragraph provides a summary or final thought.	1.17	Low
8. The concluding paragraph captures interest and set up the right expectation.	1.17	Low
Weighted Mean	1.44	Low

Scale: 2.31 – 3.00 = High; 1.71 – 2.30 = Moderately High; 1.00 – 1.70 = Low

Table 3 reveals the perception of teachers on the extent of observance of coherence to the themes written by the students which is low with a mean value of 1.44. Coherence is one of the characteristics of an effective theme according to Langan (2003).

Specifically, the teachers perceived moderately high on the following indicators: *the transitions help readers follow the train of thought* with a mean value of 1.67; *the linking sentences between paragraphs help tie those paragraphs together* with a mean value of 1.76; *the introduction begins with broad and general statements* with a mean value of 1.50; *the introduction is inviting and raises expectations* with a mean value of 1.50; *the connecting words are there to help connect details* with a mean value of 1.50; *the theme uses time or emphatic words* with a mean value of 1.33; *the concluding paragraph provides a summary or final thought* with a mean value of 1.17; and *the concluding paragraph captures interest and set up the right expectation* with a mean value of 1.17.

Extent of Observance of Sentence Construction to the Themes Written by the Students

Table 4: *Extent of Observance of Sentence Construction to the Themes Written by the Students*

Indicators	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1. There is right use of punctuation.	2.50	High
2. There is consistent use of pronouns.	2.50	High
3. There is correct use of capitalization.	2.33	High
4. There is correct spelling of words.	2.17	Moderately High
5. There is right subject-verb agreement.	1.83	Moderately High
6. There is consistent use of verb tenses.	1.67	Low
7. There is parallelism.	1.50	Low
8. There is correct use of active verbs	1.50	Low
Weighted Mean	2.00	Moderately High

Scale: 2.31 – 3.00 = High; 1.71 – 2.30 = Moderately High; 1.00 – 1.70 = Low

Table 4 exhibits the perception of teachers on the extent of observance of sentence construction to the themes written by the students which is high with a weighted mean value of 2.00. Sentence construction is one of the characteristics of an effective theme according to Langan (2003).

Specifically, the teachers perceived high on the following indicators: *there is right use of punctuation* with a mean value of 2.50; *there is consistent use of pronouns* with a mean value of 2.50; and *there is correct use of capitalization* with a mean value of 2.33. On the other hand, the teachers perceived moderately high on the following: *there is correct spelling of word* with a mean value of 2.17 and *there is right subject-verb agreement* with a mean value of 1.83. Further, the teachers perceived low on the following indicators: *there is consistent use of verb tenses* with a mean value of 1.67; *there is parallelism* with a mean value of 1.50; and *there is correct use of active verbs* with a mean value of 1.50.

The Extent of Observance of Characteristics of an Effective Theme to Students

Table 5: *The Extent of Observance of Characteristics of Effective Theme to Students*

Characteristics of Effective Theme	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1. Sentence Construction	2.00	Moderately High
2. Support	1.83	Moderately High
3. Unity	1.77	Moderately High
4. Coherence	1.44	Low

Weighted Mean 1.76

Scale: 2.31 – 3.00 = High; 1.71 – 2.30 = Moderate; 1.00 – 1.70 = Low

Table 5 displays the perception of teachers on the extent of observance of the characteristics of an effective theme to the students which is moderately high with a weighted mean value of 1.76. Specifically, the teachers perceived moderately high on *sentence construction* with a mean value of 2.00, *support* with a mean value of 1.83; and *unity* with a mean value of 1.77. On the other hand, the teachers perceived low on *coherence* with a mean value of 1.44.

Garing (2014) made a study on coherence. In his study, the textual features of coherence which consist of focus, organization, cohesion, support, and elaboration, and convention were analyzed in the argumentative essays of first-year College of Liberal Arts students at De La Salle University. The convention textual feature which consists of the command in spelling, capitalization, punctuation, grammar, usage, and sentence structure received the highest rating among the argumentative essays of the students. However, the support and elaboration textual feature which consist of the thoughtful or insightful presentation of ideas received the lowest rating among the argumentative essays of the first-year College of Liberal Arts students. On the other hand, the students' argumentative essays holistic rating are leaning towards comprehensible but are considered moderately comprehensible. Since textual features of coherence can affect the comprehensibility of students' essays, the ENGLCOM program should consider the areas to improve to promote higher comprehensibility among student writers. Both results suggest that continuous study on students' writing skills is encouraged for effective methods, strategies, and activities of teaching in theme writing.

The Extent of Contribution of Freewriting to the Development of Theme Writing Skills of the Students

Table 6: *The Extent of Contribution of Freewriting to the Development of Theme Writing Skills of the Students.*

Freewriting Indicators	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1. I understand the written ideas clearly.	2.28	Moderately High
2. I focus on one subject or topic.	2.15	Moderately High
3. I revise the ideas easily.	2.10	Moderately High
4. I write more ideas instantly.	2.03	Moderately High
5. I construct paragraph smoothly.	1.93	Moderately High
Weighted Mean	2.20	Moderately High

Scale: 2.31 – 3.00 = High; 1.71 – 2.30 = Moderately High 1.00 – 1.70 = Low

Table 6 shows the perception of the students of the extent of contribution of freewriting (one of the pre-writing activities) to the development of their theme writing skills which is moderately high with a weighted mean value of 2.20.

Specifically, the students perceived moderately high on the following indicators, as follows: *I understand the written ideas clearly* with a mean value of 2.28; *I focus on one subject or topic* with a mean value of 2.15; *I revise the ideas easily* with a mean value of 2.10; *I write more ideas instantly* with a mean value of 2.03; and *I construct paragraph smoothly* with a mean value of 1.93.

Freewriting have contributed to the development of the writing skills of the students because it really helps in concentrating the brain before they write their themes. Students simply write in rough sentences or phrase everything that comes out their mind a couple of attainable topic for 10 minutes or more. They do not worry about spelling or punctuating correctly, about erasing mistakes and organizing materials, or about finding exact words.

The Extent of Contribution of Collaborative Brainstorming to the Development of Theme Writing Skills of the Students

Table 7: *The Extent of Contribution of Collaborative Brainstorming to the Development of Theme Writing Skills of the Students.*

Collaborative Brainstorming Indicators	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1. We fix or correct mistakes directly.	2.45	High
2. We work in developing ideas in pairs or small groups efficiently.	2.43	High
3. We figure out major and minor ideas and details readily.	2.15	Moderately High
4. We organize ideas easily.	2.15	Moderately High
5. We solicit more observations and questions instantly.	2.03	Moderately High
Weighted Mean	2.24	Moderately High

Scale: 2.31 – 3.00 = High; 1.71 – 2.30 = Moderately High 1.00 – 1.70 = Low

Table 7 indicates the perception of the students of the extent of contribution of collaborative brainstorming (one of the pre-writing activities) to the development of their theme writing skills which is moderately high with a weighted mean value of 2.24.

Specifically, the students perceived high on the following indicators, such as: *we fix or correct mistakes directly* with a mean value of 2.45 and *we work in developing ideas in pairs or small groups efficiently* with a mean value of 2.43. On the other hand, the students perceived moderately high on the following indicators, namely: *we figure out major and minor ideas and details readily* with a mean value of 2.15; *we organize ideas easily* with a mean value of 2.15; and *we solicit more observations and questions instantly* with a mean value of 2.03.

Collaborative brainstorming have contributed to the development of theme writing skills of the students as it brings the creativity and full experience of all the members of the group during the writing activity. Once individual group members mire with a plan, another member's ability and knowledge will take the thought to the subsequent stage. Therefore, group brainstorming can develop their skills and ideas in writing in more depth level.

The Extent of Contribution of Clustering to the Development of Theme Writing Skills of the Students

Table 8: *The Extent of Contribution of Clustering to the Development of Theme Writing Skills of the Students.*

Clustering Indicators	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1. I think or imagine in a visual way.	2.45	High
2. I learn new ways of dividing or grouping information.	2.43	High
3. I discover possible relations among facts and ideas.	2.28	Moderately High
4. I see at a glance whether the plan is appropriate.	2.05	Moderately High
5. I use pattern in connected circles.	1.80	Moderately High
Weighted Mean	2.20	Moderately High

Scale: 2.31 – 3.00 = High; 1.71 – 2.30 = Moderately High 1.00 – 1.70 = Low

Table 8 reveals the perception of the students of the extent of contribution of clustering (one of the pre-writing activities) to the development of their theme writing skills which is moderately high with a weighted mean value of 2.20.

Specifically, the students perceived high on the following indicators, such as: *I think or imagine in a visual way* with a mean value of 2.45 and *I learn new ways of dividing or grouping information* with a mean value of 2.43. On the other hand, the students perceive moderately high on the following indicators, such as: *I discover possible relations among facts and ideas* with a mean value of 2.28; *I see at a glance whether the plan is appropriate* with a mean value of 2.05; and *I use pattern in connected circles* with a mean value of 1.80.

Clustering have contributed to the development of writing skills of the students as it is one of the best alternative ways in exploring ideas that reveals possible relations among facts. The students merely write a word or phrase within the set and closely study it. Then, they branch out, writing down new words and concepts as they go along. Furthermore, Axelrod and Cooper (1991) stated that clustering can be useful for any kind of writing. It can be used in the early stages of planning an essay in order to find subtopics and to organize information that may contribute to students' writing skills.

The Extent of Contribution of Idea Mapping to the Development of Theme Writing Skills of the Students

Table 9: *The Extent of Contribution of Idea Mapping to the Development of Theme Writing Skills of the Students.*

Idea Mapping Indicators	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1. I observe ideas, details, and facts easily.	2.45	High
2. I associate ideas freely.	2.40	High
3. I sort the ideas physically.	2.30	Moderately High
4. I literally rearrange ideas to find the most effective format.	2.25	Moderately High
5. I notice an informal graphic display of ideas.	2.23	Moderately High
Weighted Mean	2.33	High

Scale: 2.31 – 3.00 = High; 1.71 – 2.30 = Moderately High 1.00 – 1.70 = Low

Table 9 discloses the perception of the students of the extent of contribution of idea mapping (one of the pre-writing activities) to the development of their theme writing skills which is high with a weighted mean value of 2.33.

Specifically, the students perceived high on the following indicators, such as: *I observe ideas, details, and facts easily* with a mean value of 2.45 and *I associate ideas freely* with a mean value of 2.40. On the other hand, *I sort the ideas physically* with a mean value of 2.30; *I literally rearrange ideas to find the most effective format* with a mean value of 2.25; and *I notice an informal graphic display of ideas* with a mean value of 2.23.

Axelrod and Cooper (1991) indeed put great emphasis on idea mapping which involves making a visual record on invention and inquiry as contributory to the development of the writing skills of the students. Many writers, also stressed, find that mapping helps think about a topic. They said too that in making maps, writers usually use key words and phrases to record material they want to remember, questions they need to answer, and even new sources of information they want to check.

The Extent of Contribution of Pre-Writing Activities to the Development of Theme Writing Skills of the Students

Table 10: *The Extent of Contribution of Pre-Writing Activities to the Development of Theme Writing Skills of the Students.*

Pre-Writing Activities	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1. Idea Mapping	2.33	High
2. Collaborative Brainstorming	2.24	Moderately High
3. Clustering	2.20	Moderately High
4. Freewriting	2.10	Moderately High
Weighted Mean	2.22	Moderately High

Scale: 2.31 – 3.00 = High; 1.71 – 2.30 = Moderately High; 1.00 – 1.70 = Low

Table 10 shows the perception of students on the extent of contribution of pre-writing activities to the development of their writing skills which is moderately high with a weighted mean value of 2.22.

Specifically, the students perceived high on idea mapping with a mean value of 2.33. On the other hand, the students perceived moderately high on collaborative brainstorming with a mean value of 2.24; clustering with a mean scale value of 2.20; and freewriting with a mean scale value of 2.10.

The study of Mogahed (2013) somehow supported the findings. He found out that it is vital for learners to plan out prewriting correctly, whether invention activities or arrangement activities within the proposed framework. In such a way, prewriting would become a key stage in the writing process. Besides, learners should try more than one activity until they know what works well for them. It goes without saying that writing instructors should be fully aware of all these activities and how to teach them. There is a need for the suggested framework as beginning writers usually mix the invention section for generating ideas with the arrangement section for organizing these ideas. Both results imply that pre-writing activities are necessary and relevant to the development of students as far as writing skills are concerned.

On the other hand, a study of Parina (2011) contradicts to the findings. She found out that majority of the students agree that the pre-writing stage is useless ($n=41$) and/or rarely helpful ($n=36$), with only 17 viewing it as always helpful. Seven of the respondents even commented that the process approach should directly start with outlining for the prewriting stage did not help them at all in generating new ideas for some of them relied only with what they already know.

Nepomuceno (2011) suggests that blogging can be used as an additional or alternative writing activity which would motivate learners to view writing as a means of expressing meaning and not merely as a requirement in language classes. Blogging has the elements of all the characteristics of an effective theme. Another activity that enhances the writing skills of students is through online peer review. In a study conducted by Aydawati (2018), the results indicated that in conducting online peer review, students focused more on grammar than on content. Moreover, it improved students' writing skills, both grammar and content although they did not make of use all the comments. However, they made self-revisions which suggested that online peer review can help EFL students realize their potential effective revision in their final assignment.

The Extent of Seriousness of the Problems Encountered by the Students in Theme Writing as Perceived by Themselves

Table 11: *The Extent of Seriousness of the Problems Encountered by the Students in Theme Writing as Perceived by Themselves.*

Problems	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1. I am irritated because of congested and noisy classroom.	2.58	Serious
2. I am bothered because of limited or insufficient time in doing the theme.	2.18	Moderately Serious
3. I am unfocused because I'm sleepy.	2.00	Moderately Serious
4. I have complexity in choosing the right words.	2.00	Moderately Serious
5. I am distracted because I'm hungry.	1.80	Moderately Serious
6. I have intricacy in correct grammar.	1.80	Moderately Serious
7. I am troubled because of personal problems.	1.63	Slightly Serious
8. I have obscurity in spelling.	1.60	Slightly Serious
9. I am disturbed because I use a mobile phone and other portable gaming gadgets while writing.	1.60	Slightly Serious
10. I have difficulty in using punctuations.	1.45	Slightly Serious
Weighted Mean	1.86	Moderately Serious

Scale: 2.31 – 3.00 = High; 1.71 – 2.30 = Moderate High; 1.00 - 1.70 = Low

Table 11 indicates the extent of seriousness of the problems encountered by the students in theme writing as perceived by them which is moderately serious with a weighted mean value of 1.86.

In particular, the students perceived serious to the problem, *I am irritated because of congested and noisy classroom*, with the mean value of 2.58.

On the other hand, the students perceived moderately serious to the following problems, such as: *I am bothered because of limited or insufficient time in doing the theme*; *I am unfocused because I am sleep*; *I have complexity in choosing the right words*; *I am distracted because I'm hungry*; and *I have intricacy in correct grammar* with mean values of 2.18, 2.00, 2.00, 1.80 and 1.80 respectively.

Further, the students perceived slightly serious on the following problems, namely: *I am troubled because of personal problems*; *I have obscurity in spelling*; *I am disturbed because I use mobile phone and other portable gaming gadgets while writing*; and *I have difficulty in using punctuations* with mean values of 1.63, 1.60, 1.60, and 1.45 respectively.

The Extent of Seriousness of the Problems Encountered by the Students in Theme Writing as Perceived by Teachers

Table 12 indicates the extent of seriousness of the problems encountered by the students in theme writing as perceived by the teachers which is moderately serious with a weighted mean value of 2.00.

In particular, the teachers perceived serious on the following problems, namely: *students have problems in constructing supporting details*; *students have convolution in organizing and connecting details*; and *students have intricacy in the construction of unity* with mean values of 2.50, 2.50 and 2.33 respectively.

The table also reveals that the teachers perceived moderately serious to the following problems, such as: *students have a complication in the correct use of verb tenses*; *students have complexity in the use of parallelism*; and *students have inconvenience in writing neatly and presentably* with mean values of 2.17, 2.17, and 2.17 respectively.

Further, the table reveals perceived slightly serious to the following problems, such as: *students have obscurity in correct spelling of words*; *students have difficulty in the right use of punctuations*; and *students have difficulty in the use of pronouns* with mean values of 1.67, 1.17 and 1.33 respectively.

The findings above imply that the serious problems of the students in theme writing as perceived by the teachers were related to supporting, organizing and connecting details and construction of unity which are the main characteristics of an effective theme writing.

Table 12: *The Extent of Seriousness of the Problems Encountered by the Students in Theme Writing as Perceived by Teachers*

Problems	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
1. Students have a problem in constructing supporting details.	2.50	Serious
2. Students have a convolution in organizing and connecting details.	2.50	Serious
3. Students have intricacy in the construction of unity.	2.33	Serious
4. Students have complexity in the use of parallelism.	2.17	Moderately Serious
5. Students have a complication in the correct use of verb tenses.	2.17	Moderately Serious
6. Students have inconvenience in writing neatly and presentably.	2.17	Moderately Serious
7. Students have obscurity in correct spelling of words.	1.67	Slightly Serious
8. Students have difficulty in the use of pronouns.	1.33	Slightly Serious
9. Students have difficulty in the right use of punctuations.	1.17	Slightly Serious
Weighted Mean	2.00	Moderately Serious

Scale: 2.31 – 3.00 = High; 1.71 – 2.30 = Moderate; 1.00 - 1.70 = Low

Based on the findings, the moderately serious problems of the students in theme writing as perceived by the teachers are related to sentence construction which is one of the characteristics of effective theme, such as: correct usage of verb tenses, use of parallelism and writing neatly and presentably. And still, based on the findings, the students have slightly serious problems dealing with the use of punctuations, correct spelling of words and use of pronouns.

Significant Difference in the Observance of the Characteristics of an Effective Theme to the Students Across Their Profile Variables

There is no significant difference in the observance of characteristics of an effective theme to the students across profile variables, namely: type of high school they graduated from (0.749 Sig.), parents' monthly salary (0.505 Sig.), grades in the English subject (0.072 Sig.), materials read at home (0.505 Sig.) and exposure to various media (0.890 Sig.). This means that the difference is not significant at .05 level.

Conclusions

(1) There is no significant difference in the extent of observance of the characteristics of an effective theme to students across their profile variables, namely: type of high school they graduated from, parents' monthly salary, grades in the English subject, materials read at home and exposure to various media. (2) Education students are competent as far as theme writing skills particularly in the aspects of unity, support and sentence construction. (3) Primarily, idea mapping, one of the pre-writing activities, highly contributes to the development of the theme writing skills of students. On the other hand, freewriting, collaborative brainstorming, and clustering moderately contribute to the development of theme writing skills of the respondents. (4) The primary problem of the students perceived by students in theme writing was irritation because of the congested and noisy classroom. Alternatively, the major problems of the students perceived by the teachers in theme writing were related to supporting, organizing and connecting details and construction of unity.

Recommendations

Based on the findings mentioned above and conclusions, the following recommendations are hereby presented: (1) The English teachers should integrate more strategies, activities or exercises that will enhance the theme writing skills of the students most especially in coherence or the organization and connection of details. (2) The English teachers should always see to it that the students accomplish pre-writing activities, especially in idea mapping, before writing their themes as a requirement. (3) School administrators should maintain a healthy environment and conducive classroom for teachers and students. (4) Other studies should be conducted closely related to the development of theme writing skills of students.

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Pre-Service ESL Teachers' Reflections on their Feelings toward Action Research Writing

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Abstract

A productive skill, writing has also been viewed as a demanding process, especially in a second language setting mainly due to the students' difficulty in using a second language in expressing their thoughts. Since writing requirements at the college level are more complex, many college students are more anxious as they are initiated into library research for instance (Mellon, 1986) because the activity is something new to them (Daly & Hailey, 1980). The task is likewise deemed demanding (Rose, 1980), and at the same time, compulsory (Powers, Cook & Meyer, 1979). To make it worse, negative attitudes about writing appear to be self-fulfilling (Daly, 1977). This study is motivated by the need to further understand what students feel about the research process as they do a research proposal and their reflection about their own emotions toward doing research. Participants were 25 Education (major in English) students who were in their junior year in the program at the time of data gathering. Data came from four sets of reflective logs written by the students after each major research task (finding a research focus, planning the methodology, consulting with the professor, revising and presenting the proposal) in their pre-thesis writing class. Analyzing the reflective logs using thematic analysis, the researchers were able to identify emerging themes which were evaluated and subsequently confirmed by two inter coders with 95% agreement. Results show that the students reported both positive and negative emotions focused on themselves as researchers (feeling good about themselves and their skills), on the particular research task (perceived ease or difficulty and usefulness), or of other people (frustration and appreciation of their group mates and of the teacher). Their emotions at various stages of four research writing tasks were reported as well.

Keywords: pre-service teachers, feelings, affect, research writing

Introduction

Writing is perhaps the most important skill that learners must possess for it requires certain level of linguistic competence (Erkan & Saban, 2011) and because students' level of English proficiency is mainly evaluated based on how they could express their thoughts in written discourse. These requirements are not easily fulfilled by many, especially by ESL/EFL students because they need to remember and observe many rules of a language which is not their own. ESL/EFL students who have not mastered the English language usually struggle to meet the expectations to produce well-constructed and meaningful academic written outputs. Their writing skills are seemingly deficient since some may not be familiar on how to translate their ideas in the target language, observe grammatical rules, present evidence, cite credible sources using the library and online resources, and arrange their arguments or ideas in a logical and coherent manner (Powers, Cook & Meyer, 1979; Daly & Hailey, 1980; Rose, 1980; Mellon, 1986).

Due to its demanding process, writing has caused many negative emotions among ESL/EFL students when they write. Moreover, they experience writing apprehension which hinders students to perform well since their level of anxiety is very high (Daly & Miller, 1975, as cited in Erkan & Saban, 2011). This feeling toward the activity negatively contribute to how they perform in any written academic task.

One specific group of students who experience writing apprehension is the EFL/ESL pre-service teachers (PSTs hereafter) (Gurbuz, 2012). They are group of learners who are transitioning from being learners to becoming teachers. It is expected that as future teachers, they are competent if not excellent writers. However, as any other learners, PSTs do not always meet this assumption that they are already skilled writers. Most PSTs, like any other learners, feel

insecure about their writing abilities (Gurbuz, 2012; Butt & Shams, 2013; Elmas & Aydin, 2017). There may be PSTs who have reached a certain level of confidence as writers, but there are those who still experience negative emotions toward writing.

Because of these mixed emotions toward writing, EFL/ESL PSTs' feeling must be examined to further understand how they will teach writing in the future. Their experiences as writers are factors that shape their set of writing beliefs that they will carry on in their classroom as teachers. Borg (2009) explains that this belief system may not be seen but manifested in classroom practices. Moreover, these belief systems are personal stance of PSTs shaped by their own academic background, training, culture, and personal experiences. For example, when a PST holds a positive belief that writing is important, her emotions are mostly positive like being excited and confident in completing a written task. This is why it is important to foster positive writing environment especially to PSTs as high writing anxiety might negatively affect their teaching practices in the future (Atay & Kurt, 2006). This set of beliefs will likely reflect how s/he provides positive writing environment and opportunities to his/her students.

Pre-service Teachers and Action Research

Among the academic genres that PSTs need to accomplish, action research is one of the written outputs that they have to be familiar with. Action Research has been a tool to validate or contradict existing practices and trends in language teaching-learning process as it allows teachers to gain evidence-based knowledge to become better (Palak, 2013; Willemse & Boie, 2013; Blakemore, 2012; Conroy, 2017; Yan, 2017). It paves way for teachers and future teachers to keep discovering and reflecting ways on how to help their students learn better. In addition, language teachers engage in research outputs as part of their academic requirement, professional development, group collaboration, or personal pursuit (Ubaque & Castaneda-Pena, 2017; Ulla, Barrerra, & Acompañado, 2017; Bai, 2018; Burns & Westmacott, 2018).

Despite the many benefits of writing and doing an Action Research, PSTs avoid it due to their feeling of inadequacy (Gurbuz, 2012; Butt & Shams, 2013; Elmas & Aydin, 2017). Most PSTs feel that the discipline and requirements involved are too burdensome (Butt & Shams, 2013). To accomplish the task of writing a research paper entails reading and writing skills, personal or group discipline, time management, patience, and collaboration. The steps in accomplishing this academic genre involves reading related literature, writing a comprehensive review, formulating a question, choosing a sound methodology, implementing an intervention, analyzing the data, and reporting the results. Even after presenting the results, PSTs may still be required to revise the content and/or structure of the paper; these requirements may be overwhelming for novice writers like the PSTs (Butt & Shams, 2013; Elmas & Aydin, 2017).

To address the concerns mentioned, various teacher education curricula have allotted specific research courses to PSTs to prepare, train, immerse, and empower them to do research in the future (Medwell & Wray, 2014; Guilbert, Lane, & Van Bergen, 2016). They are aimed to help PSTs acquire, develop, and improve the necessary research skills. When they become teachers, they might encounter issues and challenges in their own classrooms and conducting an action research will be one of the tools to resolve them. These courses also foster the opportunity for PSTs to be actively engaged in the research community which is strongly encouraged in many educational institutions. Moreover, research courses allow PSTs to appreciate and make the connection of the theories and principles of teaching-learning process into actual classroom scenarios (Medwell & Wray, 2014). Guilbert, et al. (2016) suggest that providing research experience to PSTs allows them to overcome their fears and reservations of research.

Related Studies of Pre-service Teachers and Action Research

A number of studies (Butt & Shams, 2013; Medwell & Wray, 2014; Demirbulak, 2011; Guilbert et al., 2016; Conroy, 2017; Elmas & Aydin, 2017; Yan, 2017; Yancovic-Allen, 2018) examined the beliefs, perceptions, and feelings of PSTs toward research writing as they provide information on how they valued classroom research.

Butt and Shams (2013) and Yancovic-Allen (2018) examined how PSTs perceived and felt toward research. On one hand, some PSTs find it too difficult that they would have no time to conduct it in the future (Yancovic-Allen, 2018).

They have negative feelings toward research since most perceive it as a difficult process, not relevant to their lives, and is a stressful experience (Butt & Shams, 2013). On the other hand, there are those who view research positively and find it useful as source of information to help them address future classroom issues, a tool to help them solve classroom problems, and a powerful activity to generate new knowledge (Yancovic-Allen, 2018).

Some studies (Demirbulak, 2011; Medwell & Wray, 2014; Conroy, 2017; Yan, 2017) were conducted while PSTs were doing actual classroom research. Providing Actual Research activities allowed them to discover the usefulness of data-based practices. Results showed that through actual Action Research, they understood the importance of the said type of research as they realize what it meant to be a reflective teacher. They became intentional with their teaching in improving students' learning outcomes as they perceive Action Research as a valuable and practical activity (Demirbulak, 2011; Medwell & Wray, 2014; Conroy, 2017; Yan, 2017). They also realize the importance of collaboration as they accomplish the research project with others (Yan, 2017).

In addition, there were some studies (Guilbert et al., 2016; Elmas & Aydin, 2017) that focused on how PSTs perceived their own research skills. Results show that pre-service teachers believe that research activities allow them to gain knowledge about their research topic, learn to perform the steps of a scientific research, improve their grammar, vocabulary, and reading skills. They also realize how to collaborate and cooperate with their peers. Results also show that there were PSTs who have positive feelings and are intrinsically-motivated toward research. A number of participants support the idea that PSTs should participate on research projects in their undergraduate studies (Guilbert et al., 2016). However, some PSTs experienced problems during the process like their lack of information about their topic, heavy workload, time pressure, lack of collaboration with peers/advisors, and personal problems with their group members (Elmas & Aydin, 2017).

The findings of these studies show the importance of examining PSTs' feelings toward Action Research. As future writing-teachers, their writing beliefs, confidence, and motivation are shaped and/or influenced by their personal experiences and interaction with their peers and teachers. Examining these feelings would provide rich information in helping them become better writers, teachers, and eventually, researchers.

Moreover, the use of reflections is found to be an effective methodology in examining the feelings of the PSTs (Medwell & Wray, 2014; Conroy, 2017; Elmas & Aydin, 2017; Yan, 2017). Medwell and Wray (2014) utilized weekly reflections, while Conroy (2017) utilized daily reflective journal during a project. Similarly, this current study utilizes reflections as its data gathering method. As future writing-teachers, their reflections would provide information as to how they feel toward writing a research paper.

Theoretical Framework

In research education, affect is a broad term to describe emotions, beliefs, and moods and that the term emotion is synonymous to feelings (McLeod, 1991). In the current study, the term emotions and feelings are used interchangeably to describe the subjective quality of the experiences reported by the PSTs in their journals. These feelings are believed to have the ability to enable or disable writers in the different stages of research writing (Brand & Powell, 2015). These positive or negative feelings are factors that influence the subjective judgment of PSTs about their ability toward writing.

One theory that best describes the principle behind the relationship of feelings and beliefs is Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1997). The concept of self-belief, self-efficacy, and confidence are terms used interchangeably to explain the emotions or feelings that enable a learner to accomplish a given task. The term feelings as used in this paper are the emotions that Bandura (1997) points out as a source of self-efficacy. The terms emotions and feelings are used interchangeably in this paper as the "unseen" belief system that explains "why" learners do what they do (Borg, 2009). These beliefs influence how one's feelings, thoughts, and actions toward a given task like research writing. Self-efficacy beliefs are created and strengthened through these four main sources, namely: mastery experiences, positive similar experiences from others, social persuasion, and one's physiological and emotional conditions (Bandura, 1997).

First, PSTs' self-efficacy beliefs toward research writing are created and strengthened by their previous experiences, like past success in writing a research paper. Achieving success in academic writing does not come easy since the tasks of formulating a question, reading related literature, drafting, and revising may be overwhelming to hurdle. When negative emotions are too high, PSTs question and doubt their capacity to write. However, when positive emotions are intensified, they may gain positive experience toward research writing. If these tasks are completed successfully, their self-efficacy increases. As a result, PSTs' self-efficacy is strengthened and that they feel more confident to write future Action Research.

Another source of self-efficacy is the vicarious experience of observing their models like peers, teachers, and other student-researchers. When PSTs have low self-efficacy and limited experiences in research writing, they gain confidence especially if they feel that their models have similar capabilities as theirs. In a group collaboration, PSTs tend to admire and emulate their peers who could accomplish the tasks successfully. As PSTs observe their models, they learn how to use their own specific skills and strategies when faced with similar tasks. The positive desire to emulate the success of their models enables PST to accomplish their task as well.

The third source of self-efficacy is the social persuasion they receive from their peers, group mates, and teachers. Receiving verbal and written praises, encouragement and motivation help PSTs strengthen their self-belief that they are capable writers. Because of these, PSTs' confidence increases to combat the doubts that they feel toward their abilities to finish the research tasks. When they feel discouraged toward their outputs, these social persuasions are effective source as they improve, change, or revise. Positive encouragements are powerful sources to boost the moral and self-efficacy of both novice and expert writers.

Lastly, PSTs' positive physiological and emotional conditions help them create and strengthen their self-efficacy beliefs toward research writing. The positive and negative emotions that they go through in the entire process of research writing allow them to strengthen or weaken their self-efficacy beliefs. The negative writing environment triggers negative emotions that might negatively affect their writing, while fostering positive environment generates positive emotions that enable PSTs to write better (Brand & Powell, 2015). For example, feeling confident in choosing a topic leads to a stronger self-efficacy that will enable them to accomplish it, while feeling anxious in formulating a research question leads to a lower self-efficacy that hinders good writing performance.

In the current study, these four sources especially feelings and emotions are examined as they create and strengthen self-efficacy beliefs of PSTs. Their positive or negative feelings toward the different research writing tasks provide information on how these emotions enable or hinder them as good writers. Identifying these different emotions would allow teachers and institutions to take appropriate steps to address issues and ensure that PSTs are being prepared, trained, immersed, and empowered to become skilled writing teachers and researchers.

Research Goal

The current study aims to present themes/patterns emerging from the participants' reflections on their emotions as they proceed with each research task leading to an Action Research proposal. The researchers aim to identify and describe the emotions disclosed in the different stages (before, during, and after) of each task.

Methodology

Participants

Participants were 25 Education (major in English) students (17 female, 8 male) in a private university in Manila who were in their junior year in the program at the time of data gathering. They were between 18-20 years old. On the average, the participants have at least 12 years of formal ESL instruction.

Procedure

Data came from four sets of reflective logs written by the students after each major research task (finding a research focus, planning the methodology, consulting with the professor, revising and presenting the proposal) in their class SPTOPC1. This subject introduces the students to the nature and process of Action Research, and the final requirement

in this class is to write an Action Research proposal in groups. One of the researchers is their professor in this subject. The prompt given to the students at the start of every journal writing is *What are your thoughts and feelings before, during, and after _____ (research task)? Give details to explain these thoughts and feelings.* This open-ended prompt allowed the participants to recall and reflect as much ideas and feelings as possible that they have had from the very beginning until the end of the research task. The journals was done outside the class and were submitted in class a week after the prompts were given.

Data Analysis

The reflective logs were read several times by one of the researchers to note the statements that reveal the participants' reflections on their feelings as they do the research tasks. From the statements, codes were created. The codes were then organized and sorted that enabled the researcher to identify emerging themes. These codes and themes were evaluated and subsequently confirmed by two inter coders (the other researcher and one colleague) with 95% agreement.

Results and Discussion

1. *There are feelings which are focused on how the students feel about themselves* as they do the action research proposal. These are the students' reflections about their personal feelings which reveal their sentiments related to their self-efficacy, self-concept, self-beliefs, and motivation in relation to the various tasks included in the research proposal writing. How a student feels about his writing abilities (research writing in this case) may very well affect how he/she looks at the task and his performance later on which makes this theme significant as previous studies point to self-efficacy beliefs as strong predictors of academic success (Lent, Brown, & Larkin, 1984, in Erkan & Saban, 2011). Moreover, self-efficacy is affected by one's self evaluation of his or her personal accomplishments, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and physiological indicators (Schunk, 2010). From the data, it could be seen that positive feelings about themselves include optimism and hopefulness that they will get through the task, determination to produce a good output, and enjoyment as one is doing the task. It has to be noted too that from their journals, the participants seem to be constantly doing self-evaluation of their writing skills throughout the writing process. The positive feelings related to this are feeling accomplished, happy, and successful. However, it appears that this happiness is a calculated one because most of the reflections reveal that they expect the next steps to be more difficult than the one they have just done. The negative self-evaluation feelings are that of sadness, worry, failure, and disappointment that they are not skilled enough to accomplish the task. Below are excerpts from some journals related to this discussion.

Monique: I'm *excited* since I get to apply what I have learned from my previous subjects.

Rianne: I'm *hopeful* that I would improve in the succeeding activities and I feel motivated to explore our topic (grammar). I'm excited to write again though I must say, I feel that I'm having a hard time warming up.

Cheska: I *doubt* if I could finish my part of the paper on time.

Lily: I was *uncertain* of what I was writing.

2. *There are feelings which are focused on their experiences of action research and of particular research writing task at hand.* These reflect the participants' sentiments related to the value of the task, appreciation, dislike, difficulty, and manageability of the task, enjoyment, patience, and interest on the task. Therefore, these may be considered collectively as activity-related feelings. The importance of this group of feelings comes from results of previous studies like that of McLeod (1987, in Erkan & Saban, 2011) who argued that the affective components of writing strongly influence all phases of the writing process (McLeod, 1987, in Erkan & Saban, 2011), Ho (2016) who explains that the different patterns required by the various research paper sections result to different anxiety levels among the writers, and Beswick (2006, in Hall & Grisham-Brown (2011) who reports that negative attitudes toward writing among college students may decrease when they encounter positive experiences. Below are excerpts from the students' journals showing their feelings related to the research tasks.

Samantha: I'm *overwhelmed* by the many things that has to be changed, the things that have to be removed,

and the ones we need to add.

Jan: I was *worried* about the proposal presentation.

John: I feel *confident* with the way we organized and wrote our review of related literature.

Adrienne: I felt *relieved* hearing that we have a chance to have a consultation before we present our proposal.

There were reflections revealing obvious connections between activity-related feelings and personal feelings which could mean that some students' feelings are caused both by the task at hand and how they view themselves. Below are some examples:

Clara: I was *anxious* during the proposal presentation because I'm not a good speaker and I know we will be graded at that time.

Nicole: I was *excited* to write the intervention because my previous writing was successful.

3. *There are feelings which are focused on other people who work with them and the persons who have a say on their performance.* These reflect their sentiments of confidence, disappointment toward their groupmate/s, happiness over the comments received from the professor, confusion with comments given, fear during consultation, feeling lost during discussions. Collectively, these may be labeled as social feelings. Previous studies argue that teachers need to provide positive writing experiences that promote student enjoyment, as well as to help students to express themselves with clarity and power (Elbow, 2000, in Daisey, 2009). Likewise, the potential value of peer interaction and feedback in improving learning has been established in research as well. For instance, Johnson and Johnson (2005) argue that collaborative learning maximizes students' learning. Here are examples of the feelings toward other people expressed by the participants.

Clara: I really *appreciate* my group mates because they helped me at times when I was discouraged to do research.

Cheska: I *felt* more relaxed because our professor was not intimidating.

Fernando: We were *nervous* that we will not meet the expectations of our professor.

Angela: I'm *frustrated* over a group mate who did not give much effort to our paper.

It is worthy to mention that there are emotions which could not be labeled immediately as positive or negative, but may be classified instead as facilitating emotions such as feeling challenged and wonders if the next task would be manageable. Similar to facilitating anxiety defined by Williams, (2008, p.1) as "the type of anxiety which has a positive effect", facilitating emotions by the students allow them to accept the tasks as challenges and parts of the course requirements. Knowing this, they were able to convert the negative view and emotion to something productive.

Arianna: We felt *challenged* to write a good paper as a group.

Alexia: It was *challenging* to consider many possible interventions for our topic.

Betty: I *wonder* at the thought of presenting a proposal in front of a panel.

John: I *wonder* if the next step is like this one.

Aside from identifying and describing the participants' feelings based on their focus, it is likewise interesting to discuss the patterns emerging from the students' reflections of how they felt in the various stages (pre, during, and after) of each research task. As Brand and Powell (1986) put it

writer's emotions change significantly when they write. Typically, positive feelings of writers intensify over the course of composing. Positive emotions most amenable to increase are inspiration, satisfaction, and relief. Negative Active emotions stay relatively constant or weaken slightly during writing (p.283).

Therefore, it would be interesting to know the current participants' affective experiences in the various stages of the research writing process to further solidify the claim that although writing is mainly a cognitive activity, it is

to a considerable extent, influenced by affect. Moreover, previous studies looking at the role of affect in writing have mainly focused on writer's block, self-efficacy, anxiety, and apprehension, but only very few aimed to report emotions at different stages of writing.

To further appreciate the feelings reflected upon by the participants, it is good to briefly discuss first the four major research tasks covered by this research.

1. *Finding research focus*- The first major research activity is finding the research literature review and proposing research questions.
2. *Planning the Methodology*- The second reflective journal of the participants included the class activities connected with proposing a sound and appropriate methodology for their research focus. Here, they have visualized how the questions may be answered in the best way possible by triangulation, which is a key element of an Action Research. They have likewise described their target participants, the instruments they will use to gather data, the procedure to be undertaken, and the method/s of data analysis to be used.
3. *Consultation*- This activity is when the professor commented on the draft of every group. This was a face-to-face, one-group-at-a-time dialogue where the students and the professor exchanged ideas in order to improve the paper in its current format and content. Students had a chance to clarify on various points related to the writing requirement and to explain certain parts of their proposal to the professor.
4. *Presentation and Revising the proposal*- The last in-class activity requires the students to show and describe to the entire class, professor and a guest panel member (a former professor of English of the students). Each group was given 15-20 minutes to present which was followed by a 10-minute Question and Answer. The students were instructed to divide their presentation equally among the members of a group and that every member should answer a question during the Q&A.

1. *Feelings before starting a major research task are mainly those that relate to how the students perceive the task (difficulty and importance), and their efficacy to accomplish it (based on their assessment of their relevant knowledge, skills and previous experiences).* Excitement and willingness to learn are the dominant positive feelings while anxiety and lack of confidence are the top negative feelings at this stage. At this stage too, there were reflections focused on the participants' feeling toward other people who work with them and those who have a say on their performance.

Dwayne: "I'm *overwhelmed* by the task after the lecture/instructions given by the teacher."

Mylene: "I *don't feel confident* because I had problems with methodology in our previous research class.

DaHye: "We were *happy* with our new topic because all of us in the group are quite familiar with it, so we had a lot of ideas going on as we discussed our plans." "I'm interested to start our methodology now."

2. *Negative and positive feelings during the major research tasks were almost equal.* Many wrote in their journal how they struggled and grappled with the demands of the different tasks. They also felt pressured and frustrated especially when they compared their performance with other people (their group mates especially). On the other hand, most of the positive feelings point to the participants' appreciation of their group mates, those revealing confidence and motivation since their topic is interesting for them and because they have done the task successfully before, and from the participants' willingness to learn new and apply previously taught research concepts and skills and their interest with their specific topics.

Anna: "I felt that the load is lighter because there are more minds to think and different perspectives could generate a handful of ideas" "I feel *confident* and ready since I know that my research group mates are with me and supporting me along the way as I do for them."

Nicole: "I feel I *had an easier time* to do the task after I understood what triangulation is."

George: "I felt *frustrated* as I was listening to the many things we have to improve on."

John: "I was *not confident* while I was presenting."

3. *At the end of each major research task, it is very obvious that there were more positive feelings reported by the participants than the negative ones.* These emotions point to their satisfaction with their outputs, and of the support given by their group mates. There were those who enjoyed the task and that they look forward to the next task. There were students who wrote about their feelings of relief, thankfulness, and happiness that the stage is over and that new learning gained. The negative feeling expressed was mainly the feeling of exhaustion, worry and concern on the quantity and quality of revisions needed by their papers. Few students raised their frustration over the conflicts they had in the groups that affected their output.

Alexia: "I feel a sense of *relief* knowing that my group mates are with me along the way."

Anna: "I feel *exhausted*."

Arianne: "I'm *excited* to work on the next stages." "I'm confident and ready to work on the next part."

George: "I was *disappointed* with myself since I know that I am better than this."

Conclusions

The present study was able to identify and discuss the emerging themes and patterns that describe the feelings of the student-participants as they write an Action Research proposal. Results reveal that their feelings are focused on themselves, the task at hand, and on people who are working with them and who have a say in the task and their performance. Also, there are feelings that are difficult to categorize as either positive or negative. These may be labeled as *facilitating feelings*. Furthermore, there are patterns that emerged as well based on the stage of the research process. Negative feelings have slightly prevailed over the positive ones at the pre-writing stage; positive and negative feelings were almost equal during writing; however, the former dominated the after writing stage. It is worthy to mention that many feelings were repeated throughout the research process, and that more sentiments were evident in the last two major research tasks.

Pedagogical and Research Implications

Especially in ESL/EFL settings, the results of the current study point to various pedagogical implications that teachers and learning institutions must attend to. Pointing to the importance of having positive feelings as one writes research, the results pose a challenge to teachers to be aware of their role to facilitate activities that would mitigate the pressure, anxiety, and other negative emotions among their students. The researchers believe that this role begins when teachers plan and visualize concrete ways on how they could help their students to have positive research experiences. Knowing that writing (research writing in this case) is already a cognitively-demanding task, teachers need to present the task as something achievable and attainable. First, in teaching research and research writing in particular, teachers should ensure that students clearly understand and appreciate the entire research process; this way, "fear of the unknown" is decreased because misconceptions are corrected. Second, it seems essential too for teachers to know the prior research and research writing experiences of their students. By explicitly asking questions like "Have you synthesized journal articles before?" or by administering a teacher-made questionnaire on students' knowledge of basic research concepts and principles, teachers are doing simple diagnosis on what students already know and what they still need to know. This way, class time will be spent more productively on developing the skills needed by the students to produce decent research papers. Moreover, doing this allows the teacher to capitalize on the students' previous positive experiences and minimize the students' chances of experiencing negative experiences again. Third, technical concepts and procedures should also be explained at the start of every writing task and clarified again at any point when needed. Updating the students on where they are currently in the research cycle and on what is the goal for a particular class meeting is very likely to be appreciated.

The results of the current study imply that research writing is made manageable when the entire task is broken into smaller, manageable tasks. Instead of requiring the students to produce a complete draft at an instant, asking them to submit one chapter at a time would most likely be more reasonable that will lessen the likelihood of negative feelings among students as they do the task. Grouping or pairing the students to work on a research paper appears to be appreciated than making students write research papers individually. In connection, allowing the

students to revise their paper teaches the students the important principle that writing is a recursive process and not something linear.

Along this line, formative assessment should be valued and stressed by the teachers and not just the summative evaluation (which is the final paper). Doing this teaches the students that the process of coming up with a decent research paper is as important (if not more important) than the end-product itself. Hopefully, this will also make them enjoy the various stages and phases of research writing. Still on assessment, it may also be good to consider both individual and group assessment in research writing classes. Some tasks like the presentation and gathering of references may be graded individually, while writing the research questions and proposing a methodology are likely to be assessed more accurately as a product of the group. Lastly, this paper was able to show that writing indeed is a social and collaborative activity; hence, the feelings of the persons involved must be valued and considered at all times. This may also mean that teachers should be approachable and sensitive to students' needs and problems as they are writing their research paper and must monitor that all students strive to contribute in accomplishing the writing task.

For future research, having other sources of data to complement those coming from journals such as questionnaires, FGDs, interviews, and observation could reveal more interesting phases of students' feelings toward research writing. Moreover, a longitudinal study on this topic is also interesting and fruitful to do. Using variables like interest in writing, gender, attitude toward writing, skills and aptitude in writing would likely provide valuable results as well.

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A Comparison between Traditional and Gamified Teaching Methods for Phrasal Verb: A Case of Grade 10 Students

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Abstract

In English teaching classes, teachers use some teaching methods that may have positive or negative impacts on students' learning attitudes. The purposes of this study were 1) to compare the differences between a traditional and gamified teaching methods in terms of understanding and remembering phrasal verbs and 2) to investigate students' learning satisfaction in learning with two different teaching styles and to discover which game was more satisfactory and appropriate helping the students memorize the phrasal verbs. Two classes of 10th grade students studying at a secondary school in Thailand were chosen from 15 classes by considering the mean scores of the preliminary test. Class 1 was a control group; Class 2 was an experimental group. Pre-post tests and a questionnaire were used to collect the data. Due to two different styles of teaching, the number of questions of both groups was different. Four more questions were included on the questionnaire for the experimental group. There were three lessons which last one hour each provided to each group. The results of the tests showed that Class 2 performed better than Class 1. The mean score of the control group was 5.50 while the higher mean score of the experimental group was 8.14. The significant difference between both groups was at 0.01 level. The results from the questionnaire illustrated that they were more satisfied with the traditional teaching method than the experimental group even though the posttest scores of the control group were lower than the experimental group's. The results also indicated that the two games could be effective materials for teaching phrasal verbs. In addition, the gamified teaching style obviously encouraged the 10th grade students to understand more phrasal verbs.

Keywords: game teaching method, phrasal verb, vocabulary learning, grade 10 students

Introduction

English has been widely taught in Thai educational system from year to year. Nowadays, this language is still considered as an important and compulsory subject for all Thai students at different levels of Thai education. It can be said that they are required to study it since attending the first grade at school. However, most of them are still not successful in learning English. In fact, there are a wide range of factors or influences toward their English skills. One of those is that they do not have adequate knowledge of vocabulary. According to Huyen and Nga (2003), in terms of learning a foreign language, the knowledge of vocabulary is an important element which links the four English skills. They also added that students are supposed to acquire a proper number of words and also know how they are used in various contexts appropriately.

When learning a word, the learners are required to realize what they are supposed to think of. According to Darfilal (2014), vocabulary is a basic skill in learning English, particularly for beginners who try to put their effort into knowing words as much as they can. The teacher might use all his or her experience to teach this skill in different styles. However, it is very important for him or her to consider teaching methods that will facilitate students' learning. This is the reason why the knowledge of vocabulary of phrasal verbs is also very important part for Thai students to understand more English sentences. That is, when some English verbs are combined with a preposition or an adverb, the meaning of the word could be different from its original meaning. Thus, the phrasal verbs create an important aspect of the English language and are inevitable part of everyday English (Walter, 1997). If the students have more knowledge of phrasal verbs, they will be able to adapt it to their English examination or daily lives. However, as Bronshteyn and Gustafson (2015) mentioned the phrasal verbs are unpredictable because the meanings can sometimes

be literal, aspectual, or idiomatic. Moreover, they are inherently difficult for learners to master.

Short and long term memories in language learning

Basically, language input becomes an intake or element of the short-term memory of learners. This is consciously attended and learned by the language learner. When structures and vocabulary become an uptake or part of the long-term memory, it is considered as sub-consciousness and acquirement. Thus, the uptake means the proficiency level of the learner. For one important thing to do, teachers should provide the comprehensible input as much as possible to the students, that is, both listening and reading. The more the students are exposed to the comprehensible input, the more likely the language will become uptake and make its way to the long-term memory. It also means using some techniques to teach students English is very necessary helping them deeply understand what they have studied in the class. Technically, the teachers are supposed to somewhat make the students' knowledge of new vocabulary become uptake which is part of the long-term memory.

Phrasal verbs

Phrasal verbs are a combination of "a verb + particle" which functions as a single verb (Bronshsteyn & Gustafson, 2015). They are categorized in many ways by several scholars. For instance, Hook (1981) and Walter (1997) classified them into two major types: intransitive phrasal verbs that do not need an object and transitive phrasal verbs that need an object for complete meaning. In contrast, in term of meaning, phrasal verbs are classified into literal and figurative or idiomatic meanings (McArthur, 1992).

Using games in English teaching class

Greenall (1990) defined 'game' as an element of competition between individual students or teams in a language activity. Games are, in this case, emphasized to encourage students' solidarity in teamwork in which they have to try their best to do the tasks or maybe to code any requirements given in the games for their team spirit. Byrne (1995) argued that a game is a form of playing which is controlled by rules. They are supposed to be enjoyable and fun. They are not just a diversion or a break from routines, but a way of getting the learners to use the language in the course. The games were used in the study to make the students try their best to compete with their friends and have more creativity of using language. Games encourage creative and spontaneous use of language)Chen, 2005(. In addition, teachers are also motivated by games to create contexts in which the language is meaningful and useful)Wright, Betteridge & Buckby, 2005(.

Language games can be classified into several ways. One of the interesting classifications was from Hadfield)1984(which classified them into two types. The first one emphasized on linguistic: accuracy and communicative games. By using these games, the focus was on exchanging information. Moreover, the games were classified into more detailed forms. The first group is related to sorting, ordering or arranging games. The teacher gives students a set of cards with months; they have to arrange those cards in order. The second is related to information gap games. Students having information have to exchange it with those who do not have it to complete a task. The third is about guessing games. Students with a flash card must mime it to others who try to guess the word. The fourth is searching games. By using these games, every student is given a clue to find out who the criminal is. They ask and reply to solve the problem. The fifth is matching games. Students need to find a correct match for a word, picture or card. The sixth is labeling games. It is a form of matching games; the only difference is that they match labels and pictures. The seventh is exchanging games. Students barter cards, objectives or ideas. The eighth is board games. The last one is role playing games: students play roles that they might not do in their real life.

According to Darfilal)2014(, language games are classified into four categories: listening games, speaking games, kinetic games and experimental games. For listening games, to make students enjoy listening, the teacher needs to bring it closer to them. A good way for the use of listening games is to maintain the student's attention and interest. For speaking games, they can be used at any time, especially as a follow-up to the previous listening to reinforce vocabulary and expression heard earlier. Their main aim is to make speaking and expressing ideas orally enjoyable. For kinetic games, they provide refreshment in the class, especially when students are getting tired and find it difficult to concentrate. They always need to be joined with another activity of reading, listening or speaking. The last one is

experimental games. Their real aim is not to win or complete a language task but to experience the process and learn from it.

Typically, most of the games require the students to work in group. However, two types of games – a matching game and a search game – were adapted to use in the study. These two types of games are involved with students' visual, auditory and kinesthetic. As Florea (2011) mentioned, the most common methods of student learning are these modalities. By using them, the teacher facilitates better learning. Especially for the students who are kinesthetic, allowing students to have actions are the best method of learning. The teacher prepares the reading text on the card for visual students and also reads aloud for the auditory students.

Previous studies

Huyen and Nga (2003) conducted the research on learning vocabulary through games in Vietnam by applying games in their own classes, observing other teachers' classes and interviewing both teachers and learners to explore the students' reactions, feeling and effectiveness of games in vocabulary learning. Twenty participants were participated in the study. The games used were Hangman (guessing words that related to the topic of jobs), Animal squares (words puzzle) and Advertisement poster competition (making an advertisement for a travel tour). The study was based on the communicative language teaching (CLT). The results showed that learning vocabulary through games is an effective and interesting way which can be applied in any classrooms. In addition, the researchers suggested that games are used not only for joy, but for the useful practice and review of language lessons.

The next study was relatively similar to the study of Huyen and Nga (2003) but there were some differences of procedure. Chirandon et al (2009) studied the effects of teaching English through games on Thai students who studied in grade six at a high school in Thailand. There were 30 students who were selected by purposive sampling. The instruments consisted of a test and a questionnaire. Fourteen lesson plans were used to teach six different topics. In addition, nine types of games were implemented, for example, Hello Game and Nice to meet you, Who am I and missing information, Quick questions and answers and Searching questions and answers (conversation games) as well as Whispering games, Giving clues and fishing and Fishing (vocabulary games). The findings revealed that the students had significantly improved the vocabulary knowledge and had ability to communicate. Furthermore, they tended to have more positive attitudes toward learning English through games. It was recommended that using games in teaching English is beneficial to beginners. However, teachers are supposed to consider deliberately when selecting appropriate games to be used. This is because students with different learning styles and English ability performed differently when many types of games were used differently.

Wang et al (2011) studied the effects of using games on the improvement of children's English proficiency in relation to motivation; vocabulary acquisition; and anxiety due to peer pressure. Fifty grade six EFL students studying at an elementary school in Taiwan were participated in the study. A questionnaire, interviews, and document collection were used. The major findings revealed that students had significant improvements in their learning motivation and vocabulary acquisition. In addition, their anxiety levels because of friend pressure were decreased when learning with games in the class. Other findings revealed that there was a significant relationship or difference in the usage of games and students' English performance, most notably with regards to proficiency levels. It was recommended that a control group which was covered by the traditional instruction and an experimental group should be inclusive to the next studies.

From the previous studies, it was found that using games in the language class is beneficial to the students. However, in choosing games, the teachers have to be very careful. Some games are suitable for some student levels. Too many games may make the students overwhelmed. This study was limited to two games in order to know their effects on students' learning. Therefore, the games which can enhance students' memorization and communicative skills were chosen. The first game, "Matching Game", adapted from Huyen and Nga (2003) was selected. Another game named "Search Game" adapted from the study of Chirandon et al (2009) was also used. These two games were used to find out how effective they could help 10th grade students understand and remember the phrasal verbs. Moreover, the recommendation of Wang et al (2011) was also concerned. This study then included a control group and an

experimental group.

Research Questions

1. What are the differences between the traditional and gamified teaching methods in terms of understanding and remembering phrasal verbs?
2. What are the students' learning satisfaction in learning with traditional and gamified teaching methods? Which game is more satisfactory?

Methodology

Participants

The participants were students studying in grade 10 at a secondary school in Thailand. Initially, the students from 15 classes took a test for class selection. In every class, the students were mixed in terms of their proficiency and learning styles: visual, auditory and kinesthetic. Afterwards, two classes were chosen by considering the classes which received similar mean scores. Class 1 was a control group treated by the traditional teaching method; Class 2 was an experimental group run by the gamified teaching style.

Research instruments

Three research instruments were employed: a test for class selection, a pre-posttest and a questionnaire.

A test for class selection

The test was used to select the two classes as mentioned earlier. There were 20 items excerpted from the General Aptitude Test (GAT) in 2016 and 2017.

A pre-post test

To compare the students' improvement in terms of their phrasal verb knowledge and ability to understand and remember the phrasal verbs, the pre-posttest was used. The test consisted of 12 items with three sets of phrasal verbs given in two different boxes. In other words, the four phrasal verbs were randomly selected from three categories of phrasal verbs "take", "look" and "get". The students had to choose the most appropriate phrasal verb for each item. The test was proved by an English native speaker and a university lecturer.

A questionnaire

The questionnaire was used to check students' learning satisfaction in learning phrasal verbs. There were six same basic questions on both questionnaires. The questions were based on five factors of Topalaa and Tomozii (2013). The five factors used as indicators of learning satisfaction and the research purposes were: individual characteristics, material conditions and learning facilities, the teacher and the instructional activity, learning outcomes and learning environment. Due to two different styles of teaching, four more questions were included on the questionnaire for the experimental group. The questionnaire was tried out with a group of five students in order to see whether the questions were understandable. It provided five satisfaction levels: 5 = most satisfied, 4 = more satisfied, 3 = fairly satisfied, 2 = less satisfied and 1 = least satisfied so that the students could express their satisfaction scales differently.

Research Treatment

First, the two classes were asked to take pretest. All of them had 20 minutes to complete their test. After the pretest was completed, three lessons based on phrasal verbs with "take," "look," and "get" were used in both groups. In the control and the experimental groups, method for teaching English known as 3Ps or PPP – presentation, practice, production – was used. During the first 15-minute part, there was the explanation of each phrasal verb along with the given examples in order that the students could learn how to use them correctly. For the next 5-minute time, they practiced pronouncing each phrasal verb by repeating up to the teacher. They were also randomly asked to give their own sentence with a provided phrasal verb.

Then, each group was participated in class activities that were the production part.

- Activities for the control group

When finishing each lesson, the students did two given exercises. The first exercise included one passage which was the story made up by the researcher. The students had to decide which phrasal verb was the most suitable and put it in eight given blanks. There were three different stories, namely, David's Routine, The Summer Vacation and A Student's Life for the three lessons. For the second one, the students had to choose the most appropriate adverb or preposition and put it in eight given blanks.

- Activities for the experimental group

For the experimental group, the two games were used. The first game called "Matching Game" provided the same content as in the first exercise of Class 1. Starting the game, the students had to work in groups of five. Each group got one set of phrasal verb cards. While playing the game, the sentence cards of phrasal verbs were shown up. Each group had to discuss with their teammates and make a decision choosing the most appropriate answer. One representative of the groups had to show up the answer. Then the correct answers were marked. The second game called "Search Game" was used to encourage the students to have communicative skill. A set of question cards containing phrasal verbs for each pair was carried. One of each pair had to choose a card and asked his or her partner question showing on the card. At the same time, the other tried to answer the partner as much as possible. Both students were needed to work together so that they could practice communicating more with each other.

As for the last process, the posttest was distributed to all the students of two classes. After the posttest process was completed, the questionnaire was also completed by the students.

Data analysis

In terms of marking the pretest and posttest, one correct answer is worth one mark. In both tests, there are 12 items entirely. The marks were analyzed to indicate the whole results of both tests and to find the mean scores, standard deviation and t-value. Aside from this, the questionnaire was also analyzed as percentages and mean scores to interpret the students' satisfaction levels of both groups. The interpretation was as follow.

- 4.21 – 5.00 = Very satisfied
- 3.41 – 4.20 = More than satisfied
- 2.61 – 3.40 = Satisfied
- 1.80 – 2.60 = Partly satisfied
- 1.00 – 1.80 = Not at all satisfied

Results

To choose two classes for the teaching experiment, 15 classes of grade 10 students were evaluated by using the test for class selection. After comparing the scores of the entire classes, the two classes were finally selected for the treatment. As mentioned earlier, the students in each class were mixed in term of their learning styles: visual, auditory and kinesthetic. The scores of two classes were presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Scores of the test for class selection of two classes

Classes	N	Mean	SD	T-value	Sig.)2 tailed(
1	35	3.89	1.762	0.489	0.626
2	38	3.68	1.757		

Table 1 showed that the mean scores of two classes were relatively close. In other words, the results showed no significant difference between the two classes.

In order to answer the first research question, the pretest and posttest scores were statistically compared to see how different the results of both groups were before the pretest and after the posttest.

Table 2 Pretest and posttest scores of Class 1 (The control group)

Tests	Mean	SD	T-Value	Sig.)2 tailed(
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Pretest	1.25	1.164	-12.119	0.000*
Posttest	5.50	1.796		

N = 32, * Significant at 0.01 level

Table 2 showed that most of the students had some improvement in learning the phrasal verbs with the higher scores on the posttest. According to Table 2, the mean score of pretest was 1.25 out of 12. After the treatment, the mean score of test was higher with 5.50. Although most of the students got higher scores on the posttest, 47% of the students passed the posttest but the 53% still failed it. Since the p-value was lower than 0.05, the students showed measurable improvement in their phrasal verb knowledge after being taught.

Table 3 Pretest and posttest scores of Class 2 (The experimental group)

Tests	Mean	SD	T-Value	Sig. tailed()2
Pretest	1.65	1.211	-18.223	0.000*
Posttest	8.14	1.478		

N = 35, * Significant at 0.01 level

According to Table 3, the students' improvement apparently increased after finishing all the lessons. The mean score of the pretest was 1.65 out of 12 which was also below the average score, similar to the control group while the one of the posttest was 8.14 which was greatly higher by 6.49. The scores indicated that every student could understand and remember more phrasal verbs so they performed very well and gained higher scores on the posttest. As the p-value was lower than 0.01, it can be said that the students showed improvement in their phrasal verb knowledge after learning in Class 2.

Table 4 Differences between Class 1 and Class 2 pretest scores

Tests	Classes	N	Mean	SD	T-Value	Sig. tailed()2
Pretest	1	32	1.25	1.164	-1.400	0.166
	2	35	1.65	1.211		

Comparing the results of pretest, either the control group or the experimental group had the ability of English at the same level. As shown in Table 4, the mean score of the control group was 1.25 and the experimental group was 1.66. In other words, there was no the significant difference between both groups. This shows that both groups' knowledge of phrasal verbs was no very different for the specific treatment. It could be also said that both classes were taught by the same teaching methods from their high school English teachers.

Table 5 Differences between Class 1 and Class 2 posttest scores

Tests	Classes	N	Mean	SD	T-Value	Sig. tailed()2
Posttest	1	32	5.50	1.796	-6.599	0.000*
	2	35	8.14	1.478		

* Significant at 0.01 level

It was found that the experimental group with the gamified teaching style performed better than another class with the traditional teaching method. According to Table 5, the mean score of the control group was 5.50 while the higher mean score of the experimental group was 8.14. The difference between the two groups in the posttest mean scores were highly significant ($p < .01$). Thus, it could be concluded that the game-teaching method could enhance students' knowledge of phrasal verbs rather than students who were treated by using the traditional teaching style.

To answer the research question 2, the questionnaire was collected to find the differences of satisfaction levels between the control group and the experimental group as well as which game was more satisfactory.

Table 6 Numbers of student responses and average rating

N o	Questions	Cla sses	Satisfaction Levels					M e a n
			5	4	3	2	1	
1	You like this style of teaching.	1	5	18	8	1	0	3.84
		2	5	12	15	3	0	3.54
2	This class is useful for your daily life.	1	18	10	3	1	0	4.40
		2	10	18	7	0	0	4.08
3	This class made you understood more phrasal verbs.	1	11	14	6	1	0	4.09
		2	9	13	12	1	0	3.85
4	You want to have more sets of phrasal verbs.	1	8	17	6	1	0	4.00
		2	5	12	13	4	1	3.45
5	You are satisfied with studying 8 phrasal verbs for each lesson.	1	16	10	5	1	0	4.28
		2	12	10	13	0	0	3.97
6	You want to have the next session of teaching.	1	15	12	4	1	0	4.28
		2	11	18	5	1	0	4.11

From Table 6, it was found that the students in Class 1 was satisfied with the traditional teaching style at a more than satisfied level (average mean score = 3.84). The satisfaction level of Class 2 students was at the same level as Class 1. However, the average mean score was lower than Class 1 (average mean score = 3.54). Most of Class 1 students agreed that the class was beneficial for their daily life with the mean score of 4.40. For Class 2, the mean score was lower with 4.08.

The satisfaction percentage of understanding more phrasal verbs in Class 1 was 78% while the fewer students of another group thought that they understood more with 63%. It showed that Class 1 students thought that the traditional exercises helped them learned more. In term of the number of phrasal verb sets, 78% of the students were satisfied

with having more sets of phrasal verbs while the experimental group's percentage was 48%. It indicated that Class 1 students agreed that there should be more sets of phrasal verbs. Even though their scores of posttest were lower, it seemed like they wanted to study more than the experimental group.

On the fifth question, the mean score for Class 1 students' satisfaction toward studying 8 phrasal verbs for each lesson was at the very satisfied level with the mean score of 4.28. For Class 2, the students' satisfaction was lower. Their satisfaction toward studying 8 phrasal verbs for each lesson was at more than satisfied level with the mean score of 3.97. Lastly, Class 1 students who were satisfied with having this kind of teaching class were at very satisfied level. The mean score was 4.28. However, Class 2 students' satisfaction was at more than satisfied level. It was much lower than Class 1 students' mean score.

Table 7 Numbers of Class 2 student responses and average rating

No	Questions	Satisfaction Levels					Mean
		5	4	3	2	1	
1	You like the first game of each lesson.	9	1 8	7	1	0	4.00
2	You like the second game of each lesson.	8	1 6	1 1	0	0	3.91
3	You prefer studying phrasal verbs in a traditional class to in a gamified teaching class.	4	5	1 6	9	1	3.05
4	You prefer studying phrasal verbs in a gamified teaching class to a traditional class.	9	1 7	9	0	0	4.00

To answer which game was more satisfactory, there were four additional questions in the questionnaire of the experimental group aside from the seven same questions used in both groups as shown in Table 7. For the first game of each lesson, the mean score for Class 2 students was 4.00. There were 77% of them who was satisfied with the game. The mean score for Class 2 students liking the second game of each lesson was 3.91 while the mean score for the second game preference was 3.91 which was lower than the first one. It could be concluded that most of the students preferred the 'Matching Game' to the 'Search Game.' It was possibly because they worked in group unlike the second game that they needed to actively work in pair.

Asking about which type of class they preferred, the mean score for Class 2 students who preferred studying phrasal verbs in a traditional class was 3.05. In an enjoyable way of learning, the mean score for Class 2 students who preferred studying phrasal verbs in a gamified teaching class was 4.00. This certainly confirmed that most of the students preferred studying the phrasal verbs with games.

Discussion

The study showed that the mean score of the experimental group's posttest was significantly higher than the pretest. This result reflected that most of the students could understand and remember more phrasal verbs after finishing all the lessons. Hence, the two games were part of helping them gaining the higher scores on the posttest. The first game named 'Matching Game' implemented in the experimental group was adapted from the study of Huyen and Nga (2003). The results of the present study supported their results. According to their study, students successfully performed on their study. In addition, the students of both studies were collaborating relatively actively while playing the game that required the group work, even the quiet students. This was because the students had a chance to use their creativity and imagination during the activity. Therefore, they were motivated to learn (Domke, 1991). For the second game of the study adapted from the study of Chirandon et al (2009), the students relatively performed well. Comparatively, the results of this study supported the results of Chirandon et al (2009)'s study. Both studies' results

were going to the same positive way. Thus, it can be stated that the two games were effective for the students' phrasal verb learning and should be strongly recommended and considered for using in the English class.

Comparing between the game which was used to promote students' memorization and students' communicative skills, the first one was more preferable. It may be caused from in the Matching Game the students had to help each other to find the best answer, compete with other groups and share their ideas with friends. As Florea (2011) emphasized, the four modalities of learning are important in learning the language. In the real classroom setting, the gamified teaching involved with students' visual, auditory and kinesthetic may be one of the best choices that suits the class of students with different modalities of learning.

With the traditional style of teaching in the control group, the students could not perform well on the posttest with the mean score of 5.5 out of 12. The result differed from the experimental group that had the mean score of 8.14. However, although the posttest scores of the control group were lower than the experimental group's, the mean score of Class 1 on the method of teaching was higher. When comparing with the opposite group, although their posttest scores were higher, the mean score of their satisfaction for studying in the game teaching class was lower. This implied that the mean score of satisfaction may be from the students' familiarity of the learning method. Also the students in Class 1 may have only one perspective of the teaching method. When the students in the experimental group rated each question in the questionnaire, they may compare it with the traditional way of learning. As they were familiar with the traditional teaching, they may not be familiar with the new teaching style.

However, considering the results from the Class 2 students in Table 7, it was found that the students were more satisfied with learning with the gamified teaching method than the traditional method. While learning with the game teaching style, the students had to be active and creative and spontaneously use of language (Chen, 2005).

Recommendations for further studies

As the study was conducted, there are some points that are supposed to be discovered. First, there should be more sets of phrasal verbs in the next study to find out how different the results might change. Furthermore, the next study could be adapted by using other games to discover the differences of both groups' results and the effectiveness of the games used in the study. Finally, the study was taught for a short period of time and did not measure the students' long-term memory. The next study is supposed to be evaluated based on the long-term memory.

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The Vocabulary Input of Indonesia's English Textbooks and National Examination Texts for Junior and Senior High Schools

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Abstract

This study was designed to firstly develop a corpus of Indonesia's junior high school (JHS) and senior high school (SHS) English textbooks (TB) and national examination (NE) texts. By means of corpus analysis, this study then attempted (1) to find out the vocabulary levels (i.e. distribution among the K1 – K20, where K refers to 1000-word band in the BNC word frequency list) of JHS and SHS TBs and JHS and SHS NE texts; (2) to compare the lexical variety of JHS and SHS TBs and NE texts, (3) the number of interdisciplinary academic words, and (4) the number of words beyond the 2,000 high frequency English words the texts contained. Research results reveal that (1) JHS TBs belonged to K-4, K-5, and K-4 levels (i.e. knowing 4,000-5,000 words is necessary for the 95% comprehension of these texts) for Grades 7-9 respectively and SHS TBs belonged to K-4, K6, and K5 levels for Grades 10, 11, and 12 respectively; while the vocabulary levels of JHS NE texts belonged to K4-K5 and SHS NE texts belonged to K3-K5; on average the vocabulary levels of JHS TBs were lower than those of SHS TBs, whereas JHS NE texts levels were slightly higher than those of SHS NE texts; (2) the lexical variety of JHS TBs was the same as that of SHS TBs with the average index of 0,23; while the lexical variety of JHS NE texts was 0,27, which was lower than the SHS NE texts with 0,38; (3) for the words beyond the 2,000 basic words, the JHS and SHS NE texts covered 11.20% and 15.10% of the entire words, or higher than those of JHS and SHS TBs, which covered only 7.89% and 11.87% respectively; and (4) the same profile appeared in the interdisciplinary academic words (Coxhead's AWL), where JHS and SHS TBs contained 1.75% and 3.56% respectively, or lower than JHS and SHS NE texts, which contained only 3.26% and 5.65% respectively of all the tokens in the texts.

Keywords: vocabulary levels, examination texts, textbooks, academic words

Introduction

In the current Indonesian curriculum for junior and senior high schools, teachers are freed from the work of preparing teaching materials. The Ministry of Education provides textbook, which includes instructional materials and the broad lesson programs. This follows that textbook becomes the main tool in the teaching of any subjects including English. Textbook plays a facilitating and even central tool for both teachers and students. It provides not only well-structured texts, but also exercises. Teachers do not have to prepare framework for discussions and homework either. In short, as Jimenez and Mancebo (2008) call, these textbooks are “containers of information and guides to the study of the target language”. What Indonesian teachers need to do then is just to plan the lesson on the basis of the textbook, which suit his or her actual context. So influential is the centrality of the textbook in Indonesia that even the ever growing use of electronic device for instructional purposes cannot take over the role the textbooks have so far played in the classroom.

Therefore the quality of an instruction relies very much on the the quality of the textbooks, where the quality of textbooks themselves is among other things affected by the quantity and the quality of the language input contained in them (Orio, 2014). A study (Donzeli, 2007) on the language input and its effect on learners' learning achievements, for example, showed that there was a close relationship between vocabulary input of a textbook and learners' vocabulary uptake. Flogenfeldt and Lund (2016) further stress the relationship between textbooks and vocabulary when saying that what teachers want through the textbooks is that learners are able to express themselves as effectively as possible and to get their messages across to their listeners or readers; and to accomplish this the textbooks need to

provide them with variety of English words.

Even though vocabulary research indicate that vocabulary is fundamental in language instruction, most classroom activities and textbooks do not reflect the significance. The vocabulary and grammar input contained in textbooks is far from being sufficient. In an Indonesian English textbook, *Developing English Competencies for Senior High School* (Doddy, Sugeng, Effendi, 2008), for instance, vocabulary activities appear only in reading section, in which it is given in one of the nine activities in the chapter. The activity is to find synonyms of words (around ten items) taken from one of the texts discussed in the chapter. This type of activity is apparently traditional since it comprises of closed or open tasks only and emphasizes semantic sets (Jimenez, 2014). Besides, no vocabulary learning strategies are present and no recycling is found in all the chapters.

This lack of attention to the vocabulary component of textbooks is even more worse when it comes to the selection and grading of the target words to be taught. Factors such as the number of words, which words, proficiency level, and semantic fields do not seem to be considered well in the selection. Research on vocabulary input in Indonesian high school textbooks is if any still very rare. However, a study by Aziez (2011) on the vocabulary levels of texts used in English national exams, which were administered during the period of 2005-2009 in Indonesia, may help understand this. Aziez's study revealed that the vocabulary of the junior and senior high school English NE texts was at the 4,000-word level, which was of course too high for students at those education levels. However, a more surprising finding was that the 4,000-word level covered 95.96% of the running words in senior high school (SHS) national exam (NE) texts, but only 95.80% of the junior high school (JHS) national exam (NE) texts. This finding is especially surprising because JHS leavers are believed to know less English words than the SHS leavers.

Information regarding the vocabulary input in textbooks is especially important because without prudent consideration of the selection and grading of the words they contain the textbooks would have readability problems. As assured by Nation (2001), if a text contains unknown words more than five percent of the entire running vocabulary items, then it is very likely that there will not be anymore meaning-focused reading activity because too much attention is given to handling language features. As a matter of fact, meaningful reading involves more than just being able to derive meaning from words in a text, but a lack of knowledge of more than 5% of the words in a text can cause reading to be a daunting task (Laufer, 1989). In other words, if learners know less than 95% of the words in a textbook, they would be unable to read the textbook independently. This 95% 'coverage' as the threshold for independent reading was confirmed by some researchers (Hatori, 1979; Laufer, 1989; and Tono *et al*, 1997). Hence, it is quite clear that it is impreative to examine the vocabulary input of the textbooks the learners have to work on and then to determine whether they have the 95% of the running words in the texts (Schmitt and McCarthy 1997, Read 2000, and Hayashi 2002). Without taking this into consideration, learners would have to encounter a discouraging amount of dictionary work (Chujo, 2004).

For the reason, the aim of this study was to generate a corpus of Indonesia's junior high school (JHS) and senior high school (SHS) English textbooks (TB) and national examination (NE) texts used in the 2011-2015 administration as the basis of analysis, and to examine the vocabulary input of the TBs and NE texts, namely the vocabulary levels, the lexical variety, the number of interdisciplinary academic words, and the amount of words which are beyond the first 2,000-word band the texts contain.

Method

This study investigated the vocabulary input of Indonesia's JHS and SHS English TBs and NE texts. Through analysis of those texts, this research attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What are the vocabulary levels of JHS and SHS English textbooks and NE texts?
2. What is the lexical variety of JHS and SHS English textbooks and NE texts?
3. What is the number of interdisciplinary academic words the JHS and SHS English textbooks and NE texts contained?
4. What is the number of words beyond the 2,000-word bands that the JHS and SHS English textbooks and NE texts contained?

To approach the research questions, three main steps were taken. First, English NE texts from administration years of 2011- 2015 and six textbooks representing six grades were selected as the basis for corpus creation. Second, corpus was created following criteria set in advance. Third, the vocabulary input of the JHS and SHS English NE texts was explored using Web VocabProfilers program developed by Cobb (2009) from UQAM.

The instrument

This study used Web VocabProfiler program developed by Cobb (2001) to analyse the texts. Cobb's program was inspired and based on RANGE program, which was created by Heatly, Nation, and Coxhead. RANGE program incorporates the General Service List (GSL) of English Words, the Academic Word List (AWL), and the British National Corpus High Frequency Word List (BNC HFWL). Web VocabProfilers has some sub-programs and this study used two of them.

The first sub-program is VocabProfile BNC, which examines and compares targeted texts with 20 1000-word bands (K1-K20). The output of this sub-program comprises the number of word families, types, tokens, text coverage, cumulative coverage, type-token ration, tokens per type, tokens per family and types per family.

The second sub-program involved is VocabProfile Classic, which examines and compares targeted texts with the 2,000 basic English words (K1-K2) and Academic Word List (AWL). This sub-program produces the number of word families, types, tokens, and percentage that the K1 and K-2 levels and AWL cover.

Creating corpus

Before creating the corpus as the basis of analysis, the first step to take was selecting which textbooks and national examination administration which were used at the same time and encompassing the transition period of the previous and current curriculums. Taking this into consideration, the exam documents taken as samples were those from administration years of 2011 until 2015, while the textbooks which were still in use were as in the following table.

Table 1 Textbooks and examination texts used during the transition period

Levels	Examination texts	Textbooks
JHS	2011 – 2015	<i>English in Focus</i>
SHS	2011 – 2015	<i>Developing English Competencies</i>

Since the previous curriculum started in 2006 and the current curriculum started in 2013, the last two years of administration were taken from the previous (2011-2012) and the first three years of administration were taken from the current (2013-2015). In fact, the difference between the previous and the current curriculum lies principally on the teaching method, not on the teaching material, so the selection of the two textbook series were still relevant with both curriculums. Therefore, there were ten exam documents and six textbooks used as the basis for creating the corpus.

In developing corpus of examination texts, the questions (test items) and listening section were excluded and the passages were scanned into ten electronic files and proofread for completeness. The same steps were taken for textbooks, except that the texts taken from the books were not only reading passages but also exercises. After creating the raw corpus, deletion of some words was then carried out (see Table 2). This was done so because otherwise the vocabulary size might inflate and text coverage on the other hand would shrink.

Table 2. Words excluded from the raw corpus

Part of speech		Examples
1.	Proper nouns	Shinta, East Java
2.	Numerals	2010, 11
3.	Interjections	Wow, Oh
4.	Unclassified	Ehm, err.,
5.	Alphabetical symbols	GMT,
6.	Units	Kg, cm. Etc., eg.

The exclusion criteria of uncounted words from the raw corpus was rather different from that of Chujo's (2004), where in this study days of the week, months of the year, numerals in words, and prepositional phrases were not excluded. The inclusion of those words in the corpus was merely based on the fact that the words were parts of the English instructional goals at the JHS and SHS curriculums. After the exclusion of the words the number of tokens and types of the JHS and SHS textbooks corpus was as in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Types and tokens in JHS and SHS English Textbook corpus

Texts		Tokens	Types
JHS TBs	Grade VII	4415	998
	Grade VIII	8385	
	Grade IX	5259	
SHS TBs	Grade X	7561	1640
	Grade XI	8134	
	Grade XII	7081	

Meanwhile the number of tokens and types of the JHS and SHS NE texts through the five years of administration was as shown in the following table.

Table 4. Types and tokens in JHS and SHS English NE text corpus

Texts		Tokens	Types
JHS NE	2011	3551	1142
	2012	3999	1119
	2013	7932	1917
	2014	4669	1203
	2015	4484	1251
SHS NE	2011	1473	631
	2012	2080	855
	2013	1826	780
	2014	9633	2527
	2015	2790	1095

As shown in Table 4 above there were more words in JHS NE texts than in SHS NE texts. This was because there were more texts in JHS NE texts than in SHS NE texts, not because there were more words in each text.

Profiling vocabulary input

After creating the corpus, the next step was to profile the vocabulary input of both NE texts and textbooks. This step was done by comparing each text with the 20 1000-word bands using Cobb's Web VocabProfilers program, which were partly taken from the BNC HFWL. There were four profiles of the vocabulary input measured through the program: the vocabulary level, the lexical variety, the interdisciplinary academic words, and the number of words beyond the 2000-word band to reach the 95% comprehension.

To measure the vocabulary levels, the percentage level of comprehension coverage was established first. The comprehension level targeted followed some research results in this field. It was confirmed that for the readers to achieve sufficient comprehension and to successfully guess meaning from context they would have to know at least 95% of the running words covered in the text (Nation 2001, Laufer 1989, Schmitt & McCarthy 1997, and Read 2000). To measure the 95% coverage of the words contained in the texts the 20 1000-word bands in the BNC HFWL were used. This was done by measuring how many words from the top of the bands that a reader would need to know in order to achieve a roughly 95% coverage of the targeted words (Aziez, 2011). That is to say, the vocabulary level of each target text was determined by how many words in the text counted from the top of the BNC HFWL account for more or less 95% of the running words in the text. The coverage of each 1000-word band over the target text was decided by counting how many word bands needed until the coverage reached approximately 95%.

To put it in other words, the vocabulary level of each target text can be measured following these steps: (1) count how many percent of the words in the text can be found in the first 1000-word band, (2) then count how many percent of the remaining words can be found in the second 1000-word band, (3) then how many percent of the remaining words outside the first and the second 1000-word band can be found in the third 1000-word band, (4) and so forth until the cumulative percentage reached more or less 95%. To make it clear look at the following table.

Table 4. Coverage count of a junior high school text

Vocabulary levels	Coverage	Cummulative Coverage
K1 Words (First 1000-word band)	85.62%	85.62%
K2 Words (Second 1000-word band)	7.33%	92.95%
K3 Words (Third 1000-word band)	2.21%	95.16%

As seen at the table, the first 1000-word band cover 85.62% of the words in the passage or in other words 85.62% of the words in the text can be found the first 1000-word band. And then, 7.33% of the words in the text can be found in the second word band; and then 2.21% of the words in the text are found in the third band. Up to this level (K3 or Level-3) the cumulative coverage has already reached 95.16%, which means that the knowledge of the 3000 words (or Level3) is large enough to enable the learners to comprehend the text independently.

In fact, the text coverage cannot be determined precisely because the number of words within one band may cover more than 1% of the words in the text. For instance, a text may reach 94.10% comprehension coverage at 3,000-word level, but at level 4,000-word level its comprehension coverage has touched 97.20%. The same steps were taken to measure the words beyond the 2000-word level and AWL coverage. As for the lexical variety index was obtained by dividing the types by the tokens of each text. The VocabProfilers program generated the index as well.

Results and discussions

Vocabulary levels of JHS and SHS textbooks and NE texts

According to Hsu (2009) vocabulary level was defined as the number of words counted from the top of BNC HFWL which accounted for 95% of the running words in a text, assuming that for a successful independent reading, where he could guess meanings of unknown words from context and gain reasonable comprehension, a learner needed to know at least 95% of the words in a text. The text level of each text was measured by calculating the number 1000-word bands

needed to reach the total coverage of approximately 95%.

Table 5. Vocabulary Levels of JHS and SHS TBs

Texts		Vocab Levels	Coverage (%)
JHS TB	Grade 7	K-4	95.26%
	Grade 8	K-5	95.43%
	Grade 9	K-4	96.16%
Average		K-4.33	95.62%
SHS TB	Grade 10	K-4	95.73%
	Grade 11	K-6	94.78%
	Grade 12	K-5	95.38%
Average		K-5	95.30%

After profiling all the textbook corpus one by one on the base words (the BNC HFWL 20), the results indicated that the vocabulary levels of English textbooks for JHS varied at each grade, where grade VII reached level 4,000 (K-4), grade VIII raised at level 5,000, and grade IX dropped at level 4,000. However, even though grade VII and grade IX belonged to the same level (K-4), the cumulated text coverage for grade IX already reached 96.16%, while grade VII only 95.26%. That means, by knowing the same amount of words (4,000) a learner would know 96.16% of the total words in grade IX textbook but only 95.26% in grade VII textbook. For textbook grade VIII, the total words needed to know 95.43% of the entire words in the book was 5,000 (Level 5000), almost the same number needed to know the words of grade 12 textbook.

Senior high school textbooks showed similar profile, where textbook for the first year students was at level 4,000, then raised one level at the second year, and dropped one level at the third year. The difference was that senior high school textbook raised two levels at the second year and dropped one level level after that. On average the vocabulary level of junior high school textbooks was at 4,000 and that of senior high school was 5,000. If we take a look at Tabel 7, there were three points worth highlighting in vocabulary levels of the textbooks: (1) there was an increasing tendency from junior to senior (average: K-4.33 to K-5), (2) the books showed similar patterns, where there was an increase in year two but slope in year three, and (3) the vocabulary level of year two was always the highest for each level of education. For senior high school level grade two students needed the largest number of vocabulary, where even with 6,000 words students would only know 94.78% of the entire words. With such vocabulary levels the textbooks have reading them would mean working on quite a number of new words.

Table 6. Vocabulary Levels of JHS and SHS NE texts

Texts		Vocab Levels	Coverage (%)
JHS NE	2011	K-4	94.92%
	2012	K-4	96.10%
	2013	K-4	95.74%
	2014	K-4	95.25%
	2015	K-4	95.33%
Average		K-4	95.46%
SHS NE	2011	K-4	96.07%
	2012	K-3	95.41%
	2013	K-4	96.24%
	2014	K-4	95.12%
	2015	K-5	95.12%
Average		K-4	95.60%

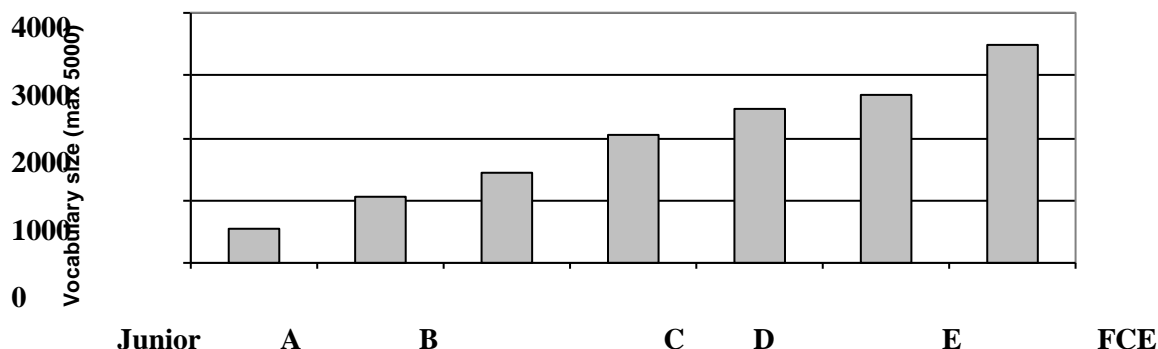
Similar picture is seen in the national examination texts, where the high vocabulary levels and unsystematic pattern of vocabulary level among the years of administration and levels of education were apparent. In year 2011 the vocabulary level for JHS NE texts reached K-4 with 95.46% coverage, which meant Indonesian junior high students at that year needed to know at least 4,000 words to attain 95.46% comprehension, and in the following years the level was the same but with varying degrees of coverage. In 2012, the texts for senior high school examination were at K-3, which was lower than the texts for junior high school examination in the same year. On average the vocabulary level of junior high school examination texts throughout five years of administration was more or less the same as that of the high school.

If comparison was to be made between the vocabulary input of TBs and NE texts some interesting points were worth highlighting. First, on average the vocabulary level of TBs was higher than that of NE texts, where the average level for JHS TBs was at K-4.33 while for the JHS NE texts the level was at K-4.20; and for SHS level of education, the SHS TBs was at K-5 while SHS NE texts was at 4. Secondly, despite the fluctuation among grades the vocabulary levels of TBs showed an increasing tendency from the lower JHS to the higher SHS. This could particularly be seen from the average K-4.33 for JHS TBs and the average K-5 for the JHS TBs. Thirdly, when TBs showed a slight increase in the vocabulary levels from the lower JHS TBs to the higher SHS TBs, NE texts showed a slight decrease, where the JHS NE texts reached K-4.20 but SHS NE texts only K-4. This was because during the five years of administration there was one year when the texts level dropped to K-3 (year 2012), while the other years remained stable similar to those of JHS.

The high levels and fluctuating patterns among the grades in the vocabulary input of Indonesia's textbooks might hint that the books were developed without proper consideration of language components. This suggests the fact signalled by Richards (1976: 76) when stating that issues on the vocabulary teaching and learning have never attracted the same extent of interest within the realm of language instruction as have other issues like grammatical competence, speaking, reading, or writing. In lexical domain, aspects such as the selection of words (how many and which words), their organization, presentation, practice, and review of the words were not given sufficient attention.

As demonstrated by Milton's (2006) research result on Greek learners of English as a foreign language across all the classes, about 500 words are learned every year in around 100 meeting hours (see Figure 1). The data on learners' vocabulary uptake was collected using a test developed using the most frequent 5000 words in English. As seen in Figure 1 below the Junior class acquired around 500 words within one year study, and so did the other classes, and at the end of the sixth year study (Class E), the learners had known about 2750 words.

Figure 1. Vocabulary growth among Greek learners of EFL (Milton 2006)



When it comes to how many words are to be presented to the learners, Nation (2001) asserts that the first 2000 most frequent words are imperative to language learning. This view is supported by Milton (2009) who contends that the systematic teaching of the words is worth the instructional time since this number accounts for around 80% of a text coverage, while the next 2000 frequent words account for a mere 8% coverage. To this point, McCarten (2007) concludes that firstly, the 2,000 up to 5,000 most frequent vocabulary items are a moderate amount to be presented to English learners in classrooms; secondly, considering the huge number of words that the learners need

to know to become self-sufficient readers it is equally essential to help them cope with *how* to learn the words as well as with *what* to learn. She also recommends that teachers identify which words among the 2,000 to 5,000 are to be selected and give them priority in teaching. In other words, after the selection of the target words on a certain criteria like culture and needs, the teacher needs to distribute the target words among the classes on priority basis as well.

Given the information above, it was quite obvious that Indonesian textbooks did not pay adequate attention to the vocabulary selection criteria, organization or arrangement of the vocabulary, presentation techniques, practice to use the vocabulary items, recycling of the items throughout the classes, and word learning strategies. The textbooks concentrated on building the language skills, listening, speaking, reading and writing, on which the books were organized. Each chapter comprised of listening, speaking, reading, and writing sections and vocabulary was introduced only in reading section in the form of an exercise.

The exercise required the students to find out synonyms of ten difficult words. There were no instructions of how to find the synonyms or of what to do with the words other than finding the synonyms.

Lexical variety of JHS and SHS TBs and NE texts

One of the measures of text difficulty level other than vocabulary level is lexical variety. This measure refers to the proportion of different words (type) to the entire running words in a text (token). The smaller the lexical variety index a text holds the easier the text is assumed, because there are more repeated words in the text. Table 7 below shows that the average lexical variety of all textbooks across grades and across education levels is at the same index 0.23. One interesting case occurred in textbook for Grade IX, where its index reached 0.26, or the highest of all classes. This again supports the fact that the books were not developed with ample attention to vocabulary input.

Table 7. Lexical variety of JHS and SHS textbooks

Texts		Lexical Variety
JHS TBs	Grade VII	0.23
	Grade VIII	0.21
	Grade IX	0.26
	Average	0.23
SHS TBs	Grade X	0.22
	Grade XI	0.23
	Grade XII	0.25
	Average	0.23

A sound picture in this study appears in the lexical variety of NE texts, where the average index for SHS was higher than that of JHS. If we see the pattern one by one education level, we can see a U-shaped curve in the JHS data and a rather sloping line in the SHS.

Table 8. Lexical variety of JHS and SHS NE texts

Texts		Lexical Variety
JHS NE	2011	0.32
	2012	0.28
	2013	0.24
	2014	0.26
	2015	0.28
Average		0.27

SHS NE	2011	0.43
	2012	0.41
	2013	0.43
	2014	0.26
	2015	0.39
Average		0.38

If we see Table 8 above we may conclude that SHS NE texts are slightly more difficult because the average index of lexical variety is higher, even though the vocabulary items belong to the same level. This is in part because in SHS NE texts there were less repeated words.

Interdisciplinary Academic words in JHS and SHS textbooks

Because Coxhead's (2000) academic words in the AWL are assumed to reach nearly 10% coverage of the whole words in general academic texts, they definitely "gives more return to learners who wish to pursue further study than the next 1,000 words after the 2,000 basic English words" (Aziez 2011: 24).

Table 9. Academic words and words beyond the 2000-word level in JHS and SHS textbooks

Texts		Academic words	Words beyond 2000-word band
JHS TBs	Grade 7	2.35%	2.35%
	Grade 8	1.39%	1.39%
	Grade 9	1.53%	1.53%
Average		1.75%	1.75%
SHS TBs	Grade 10	2.11%	2.11%
	Grade 11	2.90%	2.90%
	Grade 12	5.67%	5.67%
Average		3.56%	11.87%

Table 9 above displays the coverage of interdisciplinary academic words in each English textbook for both levels of education. The table proves that SHS TBs bore more academic words than the JHS TBs. A normal pattern was shown in SHS TBs in which the percentage tended to raise from the lower to the higher grade. The table shows that Grade 12 textbook bore the most academic words across levels of education (5.67%) and Grade 8 TBs the least (1.39%). A divergent index occurred in Grade 7 (2.35%), where it was not only the highest in the education level, but also higher than that of Grade 9 (2.11%). In conclusion, on average the vocabulary items in terms of academic words in JHS and SHS TBs demonstrate a normal profile. Besides, the vocabulary input in terms of academic words coverage of the TBs shows that there was a correlating pattern between the academic words and words beyond the 2000-word level: the indices seem to correlate quite well. Furthermore, though not exactly the same, the pattern also applied to the JHS and SHS NE texts.

Table 10. Academic words and words beyond the 2000-word level in JHS and SHS NE texts

Texts		Academic words	Words beyond the 2000-word band
JHS NE	2011	3.77%	13.15%
	2012	2.55%	9.00%
	2013	3.73%	11.46%
	2014	3.73%	11.78%
	2015	2.53%	10.62%
Average		3.26%	11.20%
SHS NE	2011	4.70%	13.56%
	2012	6.13%	13.94%
	2013	6.26%	15.93%

	2014	5.42%	15.33%
	2015	5.72%	16.73%
Average		5.65%	15.10%

As Table 10 shows, the fall and raise of academic word indices are followed by the fall and raise of the words beyond 2000-word band indices. For instance, for JHS NE texts in 2011 the academic words reached 3.77% coverage and in 2012 the index dropped to 2.55% coverage. The same case happened to words beyond 2000-word band with the drop from 13.15% to 9.00%. the same pattern appeared in other years of administration.

Table 10 above also demonstrated that NE texts contained more academic words than TBs, where throughout the five years of administration on average JHS NE texts contained 3.26% compared to JHS TBs, which contained only 1.75%; and SHS NE texts contained 5.65% compared to SHS TBs which only contained 3.56%.

Words beyond the 2000-word band

For the words beyond the 2000-word level (using BNC HFWL) a question which can lead to our discussion here is “How many more words would Indonesian students need to know in order to satisfactorily comprehend the texts they encounter in their classes and examination rooms?”.

As stated in the instrumentation part of this paper the word list used in this study was BNC HFWL, which listed exactly 2000 word families. Assumed that the 2000 word families are the target number of words for junior and senior high school students, how many more new words the students would meet in their textbooks and how many of them would enable them to read the texts successfully. Table 10 above shows that the junior high school students across grades in Indonesia on average were not familiar with around 7.89% of the words in the textbooks, while the senior high school students were not familiar with on average 11.87%. That implies for the JHS students to know 95% of the running words the texts they would have to learn about 2000 more words.

Table 10 above also suggests that when JHS students still needed to know 2000 more words to attain around 95% comprehension SHS students would have to know many more vocabulary items to reach the same level of comprehension. Using Milton’s approach to the text coverage beyond the 2000-word band, SHS students had to know more about 3000 words to attain 95% or more comprehension.

The national examination texts show a significantly rising profile, in which NE texts for both JHS and SHS contained more words beyond the 2000 most frequent word families than the textbooks. The words beyond 2000-word band in JHS textbooks covered 7.89%, while in JHS TBs amounted up to 11.20%. In SHS TBs the coverage reached 11.87%, whereas in SHS NE texts the coverage amounted up to 15.10%.

Pedagogical implication

The results of this study suggest that the textbook authors and examination constructors take the following into consideration. First, determining the amount of the target vocabulary input is imperative if the textbooks, and consequently the examination texts, are to be within the learners’ assumed linguistic development. The decision on the ultimate target for the whole six year period can then be broken down into yearly target then followed even into semesterly. Second, the decision of the number of words to be taught can then be followed by grading them by level of education. Grading means also distributing words by frequency, the vocabulary levels. Third, selecting the words to be taught using criteria as the ones proposed by some educators like Stahl & Nagy (2006) is crucial: how important are the words for the students to learn in order to be able to communicate at their level (*importance*), whether the words are useful in other contexts (*transferability*), and do the words contain root, base word, and affix that can be used to learn related words (*usefulness for generative study*). Fourth, when using authentic material for the textbooks, adoption and adaptation principles must be put into practice. The adoption of authentic material without adaptation will only result in daunting texts as many of the them were written by and for native speakers.

Finally, the presentation of the target vocabulary must take the *what* and *how* into consideration. Concerning the *what*, Qi Pan and Runjiang Xu (2011) stated that there were three parts of vocabulary that needed to be taught: pronunciation

and spelling, grammar, and word formation. Students need to know what a word looks like and what it sounds like; they should also know the change of form of the word in certain grammatical context; and they should also be aware that many words can be broken broken down into its components. As to the *how*, Qi Pan and Runjiang Xu suggested the use of some strategies: teaching in context, employing semantic field, expanding vocabulary through word formation, creating mental linkages through mental association, and teaching cultural connotation and cultural differences. Through implementation of these principles in organizing the vocabulary presentation it is hoped that students would get better vocabulary uptake.

Conclusion

There are several important findings obtained from this study: (1) on the average, JHS and SHS textbooks belonged to level K-4 and K-5 respectively; (2) in both education levels year two constantly held the highest vocabulary levels; (3) the lexical variety of both JHS and SHS textbooks was the same; (4) SHS textbooks contained more academic words than the JHS textbooks; and (5) SHS textbooks had more words beyond the 2000-word band than JHS TBs; (5) through the five years of administration JHS and SHS NE texts belonged to the same level of K-4, though JHS NE indicated lower coverage, which meant a little bit more difficult; (6) lexical variety of NE texts was higher than that of TBs; (7) lexical variety of SHS NE texts was higher than that of JHS NE texts; (8) SHS NE texts contained more academic words than JHS NE texts; (9) NE texts contained more academic words than TBs; and (10) SHS NE texts held more words beyond the 2000-word band than JHS NE texts;

To this point, the findings suggest that first the vocabulary levels of both JHS and SHS textbooks were too high. The findings above also indicated that Indonesian textbooks were not developed through a careful consideration in the area of vocabulary organization. This of course is different from Taiwanese English textbooks, where the Taiwanese Ministry of Education set the vocabulary goal of merely 2000 words for primary and secondary school students (Hsu, 2009), which means that the textbooks are organized around, and projected towards the acquisition of, the first 2000 high frequency words.

The findings also reflect some contrasts with the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) Performance Descriptors for Language Learners (2015). According to the descriptors novice learners, who are at similar level to the students of primary and secondary schools, are expected to be able to produce only a number of high frequency words and formulaic expressions and able to use a limited variety of vocabulary on familiar topics, which all are at the K-2 or below. Furthermore, if we follow the research finding on Greek learners' vocabulary knowledge (Milton, 2006), where the average vocabulary uptake of Greek students was about 500 words for every study year, the vocabulary levels of Indonesian textbooks are also too high. Actually, if Indonesian textbook authors set 500 new words in every textbook for each education level the vocabulary level would be much more manageable. Provided the number, at the end of the secondary school period students would have learned around 3000 words.

However, with the findings of the study, it is quite clear that Indonesian English textbooks may fail to carry out the missions both as guides to the teaching and learning activities and as sources of words. The high vocabulary levels the textbooks set for the texts, practices, and instructions, may lead to the low readability index the textbooks have. And, as claimed by Thornbury (2002) the realization of textbooks as sources of words can be found in the content of the books by means of segregated vocabulary activities, integrated text-based activities, grammar explanation, and task instruction. These vocabulary presentation strategies are apparently not present in the textbooks studied.

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English Vocabulary Improvement of a Young Gamer in Kota Serang (A Case Study Analysis)

Hendra

Abstract

In the digital era, some people must use technology to support their works or even their pleasure time. A game is one of the digital applications for some people to spend their leisure time, including children. However, indirectly, a game also can be an educational tool for children, especially for language. Based on the description, the discussion of indirect language acquisition especially occurred outside of the classroom is rare to discuss. This paper investigates the effect of a video game on a young gamer toward English Vocabulary Improvement. As it is a case study, the boy in the study is a ten years old young gamer, named Khalifatul Fajriatil Fattah. Commonly, some young students cannot speak English or even do not have some English vocabularies in their mind. Data taken included vocabulary size and word recognition tests followed by writing vocabularies and translating the meaning test. In addition to this data, qualitative data in the form of interviews were included to support the findings of the vocabulary tests. The data will be taken on how the young gamer can conclude the meaning based on the context and not based on the dictionary. It has resulted that incidental encounters with the same word and phrase may have played a part in the above-mentioned benefits. Then, the child also can know the meaning based on the performance of the game itself. Motivation to play the game was also upheld according to the qualitative data.

Keywords: English Vocabulary Improvement, Young Gamer, Video Games

Introduction

In ASEAN countries, English is so important for a communication because some ASEAN countries are undergoing ASEAN Economic Community. ASEAN Economic Community is the agenda of some ASEAN countries to open some opportunities to get the market in ASEAN. It means that there is a process of free trade in Indonesia and other ASEAN countries (ASEAN Secretariat, 2015). Therefore, language can be a problem for making an interaction or for making an assimilation to gain the purpose. For realizing the purpose, English as one of the priorities is chosen as the standard tool for communication (Tien and Cuong, 2015). It means the people integrated into ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) should speak English. Even, some people integrated into AES that do not use English or non-Native speakers have to speak English while working with the others. That is why English also can be called the “working language” (Deerajviset, 2015). While assimilating, people do not use their own languages (mother tongues); they must use English for communicating with each other (Hrehova, 2010). The assimilation will make them have a direct communication in English.

Therefore, English should be used in some ASEAN countries, such as Indonesia. However, English has a position as a foreign language as not all people in Indonesia can speak English. This fact is similar to Vietnam, Cambodia, and Thailand (Tien and Cuong, 2015). It is so different to other ASEAN countries, such as Philippines, Malaysia, Singapore, etc. Even, there is such a trend for some teenagers in the countries to speak and study English (Deerajviset, 2015). Thus, the position of English in Indonesia is as a foreign language; it is not as a second language as other many ASEAN countries use it.

Because of that, it is really hard for some Indonesian people to speak English because it is not deeply taught in some schools. As a standard tool for global communication, it is rarely taught in SD (Sekolah Dasar/ Elementary School); there are just a few elementary schools teaching English in Indonesia. As the impact, there are some young students that cannot pronounce English words well. Basically, the focus of English language learning in SD (Sekolah Dasar or elementary school) is on pronunciation and vocabularies (Choi and Mantik, 2010). It means the children in very young age should have the ability to pronounce and memorize some English vocabularies well. Tenses are not the main focus

of English language learning in elementary schools. Although it is taught, there is just a simple tense; such as Simple Present Tense.

Before the Curriculum of 2013, English was not a compulsory subject in Indonesia. It means English was taken as extra curriculum for elementary school (Arif, 2015). As a result, some elementary schools do not teach English to students. It is so contrary to the purpose of ASEAN Economic Community that English is one of the priorities for communicating and assimilating.

As impact, some young students do not know English or do not understand English. Even some Indonesian people cannot speak English. There are some factors that has brought English is hard to study by some Indonesian students; a). The focus of English is still on grammar; b). Big class sizes; c). Lack of Local qualified teacher; d). Time allocations for English learning (Tien and Cuong, 2015). In SMP (Sekolah Menengah Pertama/ Junior High School), the focus is on grammar and not based on communicative. Grammar in Indonesia has some patterns that will make some students confused. There will be some mistakes for the grammar that the students will make. Therefore, the mistake for the grammar will make such a exolinguaphobia for the students if they make a mistake (Lauder, 2008).

Basically, for some elementary students in Kota Serang (Serang City), mostly do not know some English vocabularies. Especially the elementary school near the writer's area does not have English as the intracurriculum subject in the classroom. It is also the factor why some young children do not know English and even they still do not have a desire to study English. However, there is a young child in Serang, in this case the writer's son, that can mention some English words and then even he also can recognize the meaning of the words and can arrange English phrases to become Bahasa Indonesian phrases.

At first, it was surprising when the child could translate some titles of some movies or even some English phrases that he could find. Sometimes, he would ask some meanings to the writer and then the meanings could be stored into the child's memory; he could recall the words. After that, the writer observed the child why he could memorize the words or even he also could translate the words without opening a dictionary.

The writer found that the child likes to play some online games. Even, he also likes to chat while playing games. It is like the theory of learning proposed by Skinner as a new theory of behaviorism. As the previous behaviorism, Pavlov has described a dog, named Ginger, that will follow its desire to eat. Pavlov had made an experiment that a hungry dog would salivate when it found its dinner. The saliva can be called as "Unconditional Response" and the dinner can be called as "Unconditional Stimulus" (Catania and Laties, 1999). Pavlov examined it from time to time. Therefore, Pavlov found another experiment; he found that an opened bag containing of food would make the other salivation. It means the stimulus had changed to become the opened bag. Even, when the dog heard the opened bag although it is empty, it would produce more saliva. After that, Pavlov concluded that the dog had recognized the sound of an opened box as the "Neutral Stimulus" (Friedman, 2017). Then, the saliva will show larger when Pavlov opened any bigger size of food box. Even, Ginger would show more hopefully and followed Pavlov. The experiment done by Pavlov also has modified with the neutral stimulus with the bell. Therefore, Ginger would recognize the bell as the stimulus or as a sign for it to eat. It has shown such a behaviorism. However, it just gives the lesson of behaviorism based on the stimulus. It does not give the lesson to Ginger for finding the food (Killeen, 2014).

Therefore, Skinner developed the theory of behaviorism to Operant conditioning. Skinner had made a box with a lever that it would open the small tray contained of some food. Skinner does not teach the way of the rat can open the tray. The rat just put around and insidentally put the lever and it opened the food. Then, the rat would be always near the lever. The rat discovered that the lever could open the food when it got hungry. Then Skinner can call the behavior change as *Operant Conditioning*. The pellet can be called as the *reinforcement* and lever pressing is as the *operant*. The theory proposed by Pavlov and Skinner about Behaviorism described about how a stimulus can stimulate someone to learn (Seifert and Sutton, 2009).

If it is related to the condition of the child that can memorize some English words or even he also can arrange the

simple phrases, the child has a need of something in this case the desire to play some games to waste the time. Game is the reinforcement based on Skinner. It means the child has a desire to play the game. At first, the child always tried to access the game without knowing how to play game. Then, there are some clues in this case the icon on the game such as “start.” The child said that he tried all the lever to access the game without knowing the meaning. When he tried the same icon and succeeded, he would press the same icon. It can be said as the “operant” referred to theory of Skinner. Then, the process of learning from not knowing to become knowing can be called as “Operant Conditioning.” Therefore, it also can be said as indirect language acquisition. It means he incidentally learns English from the thing that he needs, in this case, Video Game.

Video game today is not an unfamiliar thing for people. Some people can play a video game for fun, wasting time or even for education. Video game itself also has a mean for education. Although, sometimes a Video game also was made for a destruction; the contents are crimes, sadism, etc. Even, there are some negative effects also such as addiction, laziness, etc. However, besides the negative sides, there are also some positive effects of Video games. As it has been described above, English is positive for education. It will make the user to think a lot for how to win the game. Even, today a videogame is so attractive; it is 3D that will make the user like being in a real life. A Video game be the reinforcement for people to study based on the theory conducted by Skinner. It means a person will have a strong motivation to play the game or intrinsic motivation.

Then, in an online video game, there is an interaction of the user around the world. The users can communicate to the other users related to the game they play. There is a chat column in the game. For playing it, English must be a language used by the users because the users are not from Indonesia only. The language used must be a stimulation for a person to study. Therefore, it also can be a language acquisition for the users. The users also can study four skills of language acquisition; reading, listening, speaking and even speaking. In reading, the users can read all the instruction of the game. In the game itself, there are some instructions that should be run by the users. The instructions are also in English (Eskelinen, 2012). In this case, the child sometimes like to read how to cheat the game that the instructions are in English. Then, in listening, the game also has the voice of the characters played. The characters, sometimes not always, will speak English. It also can make the user think of the meaning and also try to follow the voice. In speaking, the user also tries to speak English with the other users whether in chatting or even in an online conversation. Chatting is the way of the user can write in English (Tudini, 2003). Chatting is believed as a media for students to have a flexibility in their study of language. Therefore, a videogame also can be a potential learning device for language acquisition. It means language acquisition in the game is about the interaction of a person in the target language in a communicative ways and the person does not see the correct form of the expressed language (Khatibi and Cowie, 2013).

The statements above can be the reason for the writer analysed the child, Khalifatul Fajriatil Fattah. Since in the second grade, he likes to play some video games, mostly the 3D Video games. What makes the researcher is surprised, he can recall so many English words. The reason for investigating it is to shed more light upon the benefits of playing video games in a foreign language and possibly gain a more complete picture of how student can gain some vocabularies through video games. This finding also can be applicable to a global SLA audience because it can explain why a game is also can improve the vocabulary of a child because there are some context that can make the child conclude the meaning of the vocabularies. Even, it can make the child or other players can understand the meaning without opening a dictionary or “Word Inference.” In pedagogic, the teacher can use some medias for attracting students to learn English as has an interest to learn. As it explained above, the students will be more relax while learning and gaming. Then, the teacher can use simple game to make the students can acquire the words incidentally.

Literature Review

A "Video Game"

A Video Game is not a new thing for people. It has been known for several decades until it has reached the perfection as today. The first interactive video game was written by Steve Russell on a Digital Equipment PDP-1 computer. The name of video game itself was *Spacewar*. However, the first video game that was for people, Pong, released in 1972 (Gentile, D.A. & Anderson, C. A, 2006; Hadsinzky, 2014). It was played in “Arcade” mode or in traditional mode.

Then, there are some companies released some games, such as “Nintendo”, “sony”, “Sega”, etc. Then, the graphic was made more perfect with polygons that the numbers of polygons can be played for seconds (Gentile, D.A. & Anderson, C. A. (2006). The contents of video games also has changed. Mostly, starting in 1976, some game developer changed the content to become more sadistic. The first sadistic video game is Death Race (Gentile, D.A. & Anderson, C. A. (2006). Of course, it will affect some users to do some violent behaviors (Prot, et al, 2004). However, besides the negative impacts, there are some positive impacts of Video Games, such as an Educational tool.

Video Games as a Media for Foreign Language Education

Based on the explanation above, it can be seen that Video Games are also as a media of leaning. It means it is as a tool for education too. It is also as an effective media for learning as it is fun and engaging. It also requires deep thinking. It means the player will think deeper while playing game for winning the game. In other words, the player will use the higher thinking skill while playing game (Anderson, et al, 2008).

As it is played as a stimulation and simulation, some students will have higher interest on playing the game. The students will have an intrinsic motivation to play the game and then they will accidentally learn the language on the game (Anderson, et al, 2008). Video games will interest some people to study English instead of watching television, read a book, or even listen to the radio. It is caused by the video games have an interactivity and the facilitation of communication (Rudis and Poštić, 2017). Therefore, since the player can be attractive in playing the game, they will have such have an attractive learning environment and then they will also study the language on the video game (Campos, et al, 2013).

Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition

There are some methods of teacher to make some students to improve their vocabulary size, such as memorizing and recognizing. In Indonesia, some teachers always instruct the students to memorize some words in dictionary. Even, the teacher likes to give a punishment if the students forget the words. Of course, the students will memorize or remember some words in such a time. However, they will forget for the following time. It can be called as short term memory (Cahyono and Widiati, 2008). Short term memory happened because human’s memory is limited. They easily forget the words because they just remember the words but they do not know the relationship of the words to other words (Ortega, 2009). In other words, the do not need the words for their daily activity or their daily needs.

Of course, need is so important in improving vocabularies. Need of some vocabularies will store the words into the long term memory. Need is so important in words recognizing. It means the students will see the unfamiliar words and recognize the meaning. Therefore, it requires motivation (Yu, 2011). The need of the word recognition will see the related words and then the student will see the context of the words. Last, the student will conclude the meaning. Therefore, context is so important for knowing the meaning of some words and then even after knowing the context of the words, it will become the long term memory for some people, in this case children (Manning, et al, 2013).

Based on the previous explanation, there are such stages for the people, in this case the player of a game that can store some English words. Based on the theory proposed by Skinner, the user should have the motivation at first. The motivation here is the internal motivation. The internal motivation is the desire of the player to know the game. The player has been interested to see other people playing games; he has such fun. If the player has observed from the beginning, he or she will imitate like the previous gamer did. It is a natural of learning for acquiring basic task (Greer et al, 2006). Then he will think for playing the game. The game is the need of the player or it is as the reinforcement. Then, before playing the game, there are so many tools that should be learnt by the player. The player should recognize the tools that can bring him or her to play the game, such as mousepad or touch pad. Mousepad or the touchpad is the media for connecting the player to the game. It can be called as the operant. After knowing the function of the mousepad or the touchpad, the player will also try to find the function of the features of the game laid on the screen. Features of the game are several icons for starting the game such as start, setup or others. Then, the player will conduct trial and error; he or she will try some icons of the game. The effect can be success or even fail. When he or she finds the success, he or she will know the meaning of the game. Even, there will be some repetitions based on the success. It is like the theory of Skinners about operant conditioning; the behavior changes. Actually, the player does not have

an intention to know the meaning of the word but because he or she can know the context from the picture, trial and error, etc, he or she does the incidental vocabulary acquisition (Brown, et al, 2008). The incidental vocabulary acquisition occurs because the child can conclude the meaning based on the context appeared in the game or “word inference” (Hamada and Park, 2011). Therefore, the role of context in the videogame is so important for some people to get the meaning based on the conclusion.

Multi Modal for Language Acquisition

Today, some video games are made for an online activity. It means the player can communicate to other players in the same time but in other places. The activity can be supported by the existence of internet that can provide everything that some people want. Thus, it is not hard for some people to find some information, including some online games. As internet is an online activity and as the international activity, English still holds an important role for some people to use.

Before the time at present, people just know one media on internet just for chatting, for gaming only, and even for listening to the music. At the time, people just know the thing called as multimedia; it is as a media for playing video, music, picture, etc. However, as the improvement of technology and Information, communication Technology (ICT), now people can know the combination of multimedia and ICT (Gilakjani et al, 2012). The Incidental Vocabulary acquisition happens in the era of internet as people will get some information in English. It means now people can interact each others by using the combination of video, sound, chatting at one time. Therefore, multimodality is a new thing for people but several people use it all the time.

Even, the incidental vocabulary acquisition happens all the time because people are assisted not the word only but it is also provided with pictures, video and sound. It means Audio Visual hold an important thing for multimodal can be understood by the user (Domingo et al, 2014). An online videogame is also a multimodal that can assist the user to develop an incidental vocabulary acquisition (Galimberti et al, 2018). As it is provided with audiovisual, it is easier for the user recognize the words based on the context in audio and visual. Therefore, the user can easily conclude the meaning (Nallaya, 2010).

Method

Since the research is only discussing one single boy, in this case, the boy can recall and memorize some English vocabularies, the researcher uses one of qualitative studies; case study research (Cresswell, 2014: 96). This method is useful to discuss a phenomena happens on a boy who likes to play some videogames. Through the video games, he can memorize and recall some English vocabularies. The data got is by interviewing the boy and test the boy to recall some English words. Then, the writer will examine and observe the child's behavior while playing game, in this case some new online games. The writer will observe why the child can improve his vocabularies through the game (Marczyk et al, 2005).

Since the case study discusses about how and why, the writer will discuss how the child can prove some vocabularies he has and how the child can describe the meaning of the words (Yin 2003). Then, the writer will observe the process how incidental vocabularis could happen on the behavior of the child while playing game.

Results

Vocabulary Improvement as the Impact of Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition

One of the most favorite game played by Khalif, the child's name is “Minecraft.” Besides, the child also has played “Mobile Legend”, “Counter Strike”, “Asphalt”, etc. “Minecraft” is a game for building and destroying a building. There is such an adventure there.

Then, if it is referred to the theory of Skinner, the child has a strong motivation to play the game. The child said that it is fun to play the game and then it also can waste the leisure time. Then, the child said that sometimes he wants to stay at home rather than to play outside of the home. There is an implication that he needs to play the game. “Need” can be used as a basic motivation for someone to learn or intrinsic motivation. The need of something that is related to the innate psychological need will make someone to do more or having an intrinsic motivation (Ryan and Deci,

2000). Making fun is also included to innate psychological need as it is said enjoyment (Cutre et al, 2016). Therefore, since long time ago people will seek such an enjoyment after working to fulfill their need or it also can be said as the basic need. Then, since enjoyment is an intrinsic motivation, it will make the person to know more about what he wants to be involved. Then, the need of enjoyment will make the child to observe the game to fulfill the game. The game itself is the reinforcement why the child wants to play the game. It is the purpose of the child and then he will have an effort to play and win the game. In this case, the reinforcement here is a stimulus that can change the child's behavior; the child has a desire to play the game (Sutton and Barto, 2017). The other stimulus that exists on the game is the performance of the game; the game has some attractive design, plot, and even the characters. It is called as the secondary stimulus (Sutton and Barto, 2017). The child also experienced a short periods of engagement (Sun, 2016). Based on the stimulus, the child will try and try some features of the video game. It also can be called as trial and error (Young, 2009). Trial and error is a strategy used by some players to play a game. Trial and error is also a learning condition for the child because the player will experience some errors in the first and in the second type (Young, 2009).

It also has caused the repetition in applying the game. Repetition here requires the ability of reading (Mohamed, 2015). The error made has resulted several repetition and then even it has caused the child can recognize the words and can remember the spelling of several words appeared in the game (Mohamed, 2015). Even, because of the need and trial and error done by the child has made the words going to the long term memory (Ghanbaran and Ketaby, 2014). The effort of the child or the condition from unknowing the word to become "knowing" can be called as "operant conditioning" and the features of the game also can be called as "operant" (Staddon and Cerruti, 2003). It means there is an effort of the child rather than receiving the stimulus or conditioned response proposed by Pavlov (Boakes, 2003).

For knowing the ability of the child in vocabulary, the writer made such a test to the child. The child should write some English word in a half hour without seeing a dictionary. Surprisingly, the child succeeded to write 280 words. Mostly, the child makes some words in the right spelling. Then, the writer asked the child to pronounce some words. There are a few mistakes in spelling the words but the meaning is based on the child himself. Then, there are some unfamiliar words that the child can translate, such as the word "ocelot." Even, the writer does not know the meaning of "ocelot." He said that "Ocelot" is "Kucing Hutan" or "Wild Cat." Actually, it is new for the writer and then the writer searched the meaning on a dictionary. There are meanings or the definitions of Ocelot in some dictionaries. Therefore, the writer tried to find it in some websites. The writer could find the meaning on the website. The meaning of "Acelot" is not so different based on the child's translation. The child said that it is as the wild cat but it is not a common wild cat. It is an endemic wild cat that can be found in southern Texas through South America (Laguna Atascosa, 2017). Such a cat is not from Indonesia but the child knew the cat. Therefore, it could happen because the child guessed the meaning as it is one of the characters in a Video Game "Minecraft." Based on the interview, the child showed the character of "Ocelot" that it is hard to catch.

Then there are other unfamiliar words, such as "nether" and "aether." Based on the explanation of the child, the child said that "nether" and "aether". The writer surprised that the child said that "nether" means "hell" (neraka) and "aether" means "surga" or "heaven." He said that he concluded the meaning based on the place (dimension) in the game "Minecraft." The child said that he found a difficulty in making such a portal in the game for attacking the enemies. Then, there is a hidden clue for making the nether. He said that in the game the place contains of some lava that can kill. Therefore, the writer tried to find on a dictionary the meaning. However, the writer could not find the meaning. Then, the writer still searched the meaning on the game itself. The writer found the meaning of the discussion of some player that it is "hell." After that, the writer explained the meaning of "neraka" in English is "hell"; "Nether" is an unfamiliar word. Because of the curiosity, the writer found the meaning of "Nether" in the online dictionary. Merriam-Webster states that nether is "situated down or below" or "situated or believed to be situated beneath the earth's surface." Therefore, it can be concluded that the location is beneath the earth and near the lava so the child can conclude that it is as hell.

The other unfamiliar word is "aether." At first, the child said that "aether" is "surga" or "heaven." It is also a word

that the writer does not know. The writer also asked why the child can conclude the meaning. The child explained that it is also said that it was from the same game, Minecraft. After that, the writer found the meaning based on the discussion of the player. In the discussion, it is said as “heaven.” Then, the writer tried to search on the online dictionary, Encyclopedia of Britannica (2018) states aether sometimes spelled as “ether” as “a theoretical universal substance believed during the 19th century to act as the medium for transmission of [electromagnetic waves](#) (e.g., [light](#) and [X-rays](#)), much as [sound](#) waves are transmitted by [elastic](#) media such as [air](#).” Therefore, it is why it is in the dimension of air in the game “Minecraft.” Because of the dimension, the child can conclude that it is as “heaven.”

After that, there is a mistake in translating the word “lava.” He said that lava as “air panas.” Based on the interview, the child concluded because “lava” came from the mountain. Some people will die if they got touched by the lava. The writer said that it is a bad conclusion because it is not water although it looks like water.

The other wrong conclusion is in the word “pack.” He said that the word “pack” means “hadiah” or “gift.” He also concluded based on the game (still in Minecraft). The child concluded that the word “pack” as “hadiah” because he always accepted the “pack” from other player. Even, he also said that it is as “surprise.”

The other wrong meaning is in the word “completed.” He said that “completed” as “menang” (win). Actually, that is wrong conclusion. He said it as the game always said “the game is completed” after winning the goal of the game. The child has passed some steps of the game until he reached the end of the game with the sentence.

Based on the interview, the boy explains that the inclusion of graphics and animations in the video game seemed to promote comprehension of the text. This can suggest a shift towards more visual-based formats as being desirable by the boy. The boy stated that when he first read an explanation for an item or event, he often did not understand the more complex vocabulary words if he were not also looking at the screen.

Multimodal for Knowing the Context of the Words

After discussing the vocabulary size had by the child, the writer will observe how the child can learn some new language in the game. Not like the previous game; many games are in arcade mode. Arcade mode is the adventure mode that is has a goal to win the game; it does not have the competitors. However in the online game, the child will have some competitors. At first before playing game, the child has tried “trial and error” before playing game. There, the child find the phrase “sign in.” At first, the child thought that he had an access to play the game. However, the access was refused by the game. The child once again tried to insert his own email and his own password. Then, there was a sentence “the user is not registered.” The child knew that he could not access the game. Then, suddenly he knew what to do. In this case, because he was not still registered yet, he chose the phrase “Sign up.” Then, there was a form for the child to fill. Then, the child pressed the word “subscribe.” Based on the behavior that the child did, “trial and error” can be a clue for a child to know the meaning of the phrase. He knew that when he pressed the word “sign in” there would be an error. Then, it can add the vocabulary of the child about the meaning of “sign in.” He concluded that “sign in” is the phrase for the registered player after he tried it many times. Therefore, “trial and error” will make some repetitions for gaining the new vocabularies (Cera et al, 2010). Repetition is also a good strategy for a child can recognize the word such as meaning and spelling. That is also why the children has a few mistakes while writing some English words.

The role of modality also appears when the child can know the context of the words and also can conclude the meaning of the words. As an example, when there are some options how the character can reach another place, there is a picture of wings. When the curser get near the picture of the wings, there is a sudden word “wing.” Thus, there is a relationship of the picture to the sudden text in the game. However, the meaning of some words will be based on the context conclusion and not based on lexical meaning. It is also occurred in the previous discussion that the child guessed the meaning of the word and it is not the lexical meaning although the meanings are true. Actually, although contextual meaning, a child should know the lexical meaning because it will make some ambiguity in using the words in different context (Luo, 2011). As an example, the child has concluded the meaning of a word just based on the context of the

game, that is “have/ has.” The child said the meaning of “have/ has” is “sudah” or “participle.” However, there are other meaning of the word “have/ has.”

The performance of the game has made the child experience “incidental vocabulary acquisition” through the context appeared in the video game (Alghamdi, 2016). The context of the word refer to some situations or even the pictures integrated to the game. Then, as it is appeared many times and then it is also described in a good picture has made the child attracted and can acquire the meaning.

Conclusion

The incidental vocabulary acquisition through videogame as experienced by the child in this case study will be stored in his memory for a long time. In this case, it can be called as long term memory. The incidental vocabulary acquisition happened due to the factor of need. Because of the need to play the game, the child has tried some features in the game although will make some errors. However, when he succeeded, the words or even phrases and the related word will be stored in the memory. Therefore, the game itself is the reinforcement for the child based on the theory of Skinner. The period of words appeared is also the factor of incidental vocabulary acquisition; more frequent of the word appeared on the game, it will be remembered by the children.

The weaknesses of the incidental vocabulary acquisition here is the child seldom got the lexical meaning of the word because he just concluded based on the context. Even, the game has given the child some unfamiliar words that cannot be understood by other people. Then, the conversation is always in the chat mode not in the speaking mode. Thus, it will make the child recognize the word or the text mostly, but sometimes there are some errors while making the speaking. There are also some errors in pronouncing the words. Besides, there are words and phrases mostly; the sentences rarely exist in the game. It also has resulted the child cannot speak English well.

Then, based on the discussion above, the writer suggested for some game artists to produce the game for education, especially the game for English acquisition as a game can easily be processed in the child’s mind. It is not the game containing of some sadistic content such as Mobile Legend, zombie, etc. Then, it is better if children can play a game with limited time and accompanied by parents. It is the task of parents to explain the meaning and how to pronounce the words.

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Medium of Instruction on Student Achievement and Confidence in English

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Abstract

This study aimed to determine the effectiveness of English language as the sole medium of instruction in teaching English subjects by comparing the achievement and confidence of two classes under two different teaching modalities. The study used the two- group Pre-test/ Post-test Quasi-experimental Design. The teaching modalities were the use of English Only and Multi- Lingual medium of instruction.

Based on the data gathered, the findings showed that the medium of instruction in English class does not affect the achievement of students in English. The students aged 19 and above got a higher score than the students aged 15- 18, but the age of the students does not affect their achievement in English. The male students from English Only Class and Multi- Lingual Class got a higher achievement score than the female students; however, the achievement of male and female students is relatively the same. The confidence of the English Only Class and the Multi- Lingual Class are significantly different, however, the age and sex of the students does not affect their confidence in English. The confidence of the Multi Lingual Class students is higher than those students in the English Only Class because the students can express themselves better in their English class than the students in the English Only Class.

The findings of the study indicate that the English Only Class achievement is relatively the same than Multi- Lingual Class; though, the confidence of the Multi Lingual Class students is higher than those students in the English Only Class, thus it implies that the higher the level of confidence of students does not necessarily imply that they would achieve better and the lower the confidence level of students in English class does not necessarily mean that the students will achieve lower; however, this study implied that Filipino students should be exposed to as much English as possible in English classrooms and English teachers should decide in the kind of learning atmosphere that will be established in the classroom, thus increasing the confidence of the students in English language learning.

Keywords: medium of instruction, student achievement, confidence, classroom language preference, profile

Introduction

English is arguably the most important subject in the Philippine school curriculum and to be able to understand his or her teachers in all other subjects effectively, a student needs at least fair knowledge of the English language. English language is referred to as the key to all other subjects. To be eligible for admission to universities and other higher institutions of learning, a student must pass English language at credit or distinction level. English is also the sole medium of communication in the university communities in the Southeast Asia, particularly in the Philippines (Kirkpatrick, 2014).

The Philippine education system has been using English as a medium of instruction from elementary to university level for decades (Gonzalez, 2003). This has also reinforced the notion that English is easy - even a child can do it - and available. It is a tool for learning and a medium of communication. More than this, English is the language of power and progress. In the Philippines, it is highly valued not only because it is functional and practical and washes over us constantly, but more importantly, because it is an affordable item, a skill that can be used to increase one's position, respectability and marketability. In most cases, the greater one's ability to understand and use English, the

better chances of career advancement.

In today's global world, the importance of English cannot be denied and ignored since English is the most common language spoken everywhere (Crystal, 2003; Antimoon, 2012). With the help of developing technology, English has been playing a major role in many sectors including medicine, engineering, and education, which is the most important arena where English is needed (Muyijento, et. al., 2010). Particularly, as a developing country, Philippines needs to make use of this world-wide spoken language in order to prove its international power. This can merely be based on the efficiency of tertiary education; however, English language learning is a distressing experience of many learners, knowing that language is the most efficacious way of communicating and in expressing our thoughts and opinion with others. Many learners perform well in other subject areas, but they felt anxious in the English language and described as underachievers; thus, English language educators have long been in search of answers to account for the vast difficulty faced by some students (Chen and Chang, 2004 and Grigorenko, 2002). Furthermore, MacIntyre, et. al., (2002) stated that language use anxiety is often related to the learning situation. If pupils fear being laughed at for making a mistake, it can hinder them from their normal behavior. Consequently this can cause emotional stress which lowers their linguistic self-confidence.

Mwinsheikhe (2002) conducted quasi- experiment classes one treatment group was taught in Kiswahili and another control group was taught in English and she found out that a large number of students agree that language is the major factor that contributes to poor performance. Wong (2009) had also investigated the effectiveness of English as the sole medium of instruction in Hong Kong by comparing the preferences of two non-native English language classes under two different teaching policies, while also examining both classes for any potential correlations with improved English proficiency. Results revealed that not only did the class under the strict policy have a stronger preference for English as the sole medium of instruction, but their English proficiency had also become higher than that of the more Cantonese-tolerant class.

Adolfo (2011) stated that the Filipinos were behind other Asian countries in terms of English language communication because the value of dedication was neglected. There are a lot of factors why we can't surpass, conquer or overcome weaknesses in communication skills, and can't attempt to work out by degrees the reasons behind of such a poor communication. He also proposed that teaching should be adjusted to the needs of the learners. Because of this, it is imperative to determine first their difficulties and needs so that whatever materials a teacher purports to design should be in accordance with these needs. A study made by Aina, et. al. (2013) concluded that the proficiency in English language is strongly related to students' academic performance in science and technical education. It is therefore very important to always ensure that students who are admitted into these courses have good English language proficiency.

Many studies have been conducted to examine the issue of medium of instruction however, research on the effectiveness of using English as the sole medium of instruction in Philippine English classrooms from the student perspective is limited. Therefore, this paper is intended to fill this research gap and enrich this area of language and educational research.

This study examined the effectiveness of strict English-only medium of instruction policy in English classes, and its relationship to English achievement and confidence gained. Specifically, it attempted to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a difference in the achievement in English of students in the English Only Class (EOC) and Multi-Lingual Class (MLC) when grouped according to age and sex?
2. Is there a difference in the confidence in English of students in the English Only Class (EOC) and Multi-Lingual Class (MLC) when grouped according to age and sex?

Conceptual Framework

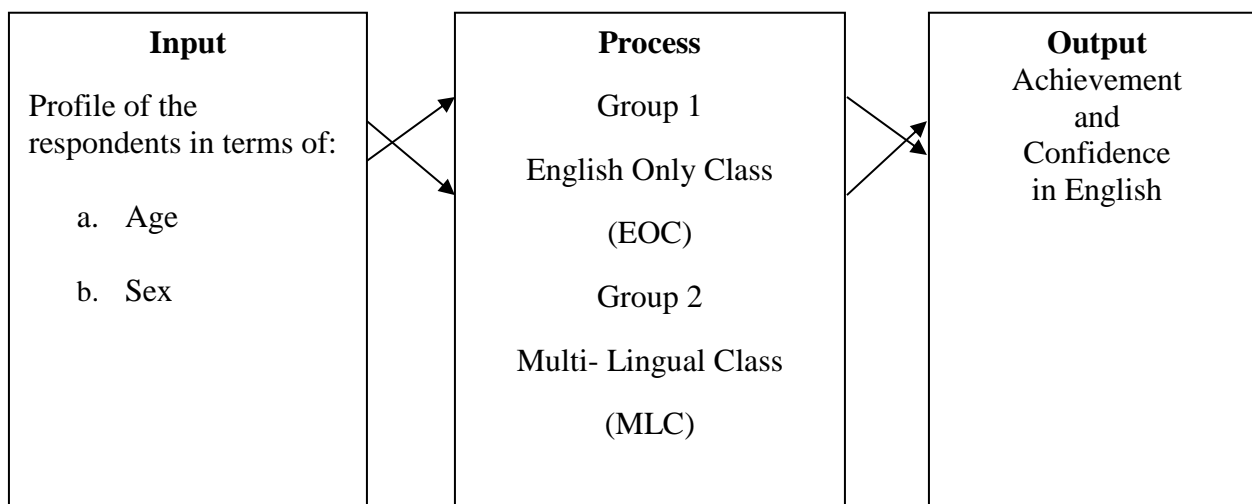


Figure 1. The Research Paradigm

There are three steps being followed: Input, Process, and Output.

The Input Box consists of the profile of the respondents in terms of age and sex. The students, being the center of this study were exposed to the use of English as the sole medium of instruction. The Process Box contains the use of English-only medium of instruction policy in English Only Class (EOC) and the use of Multi- lingual medium of instruction in Multi- Lingual Class (MLC), and the policy's relationship to English proficiency and confidence gained from students' responses. The effectiveness of using English as the sole medium of instruction will be evaluated by using different measuring tools: questionnaires on students' confidence and English Achievement Test. Finally, the Output Box shows the expected result of the input and process steps: Achievement and Confidence in English.

Research Methodology

Research Design

A two- group Pre-test/ Post-test Quasi-experimental Design is used in order to investigate the effectiveness of using English as a sole medium of instruction in student achievement and confidence in English class of the first year Bachelor of Science in Hotel and Restaurant Management (BSHRM).

Respondents of the Study

The participants of the study were the 83 first year students from two sections enrolled in English 13b (Communication Arts and Skills 02) for the second semester of the school year 2014- 2015 at the Isabela State University- Cauayan Campus, Cauayan City, Isabela.

Research Instruments

Two instruments were used to collect data for this study. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz, et al (1986) was used to measure the student's confidence in using English as a medium of instruction in the English classrooms. A 100-item English achievement test was developed by the researcher and validated by two English language teachers to measure the level of student's achievement in English.

Data Gathering Procedure

The researcher coordinated with the BSHRM Program Chair for the arrangement of the class schedules in favor with the viability of the participants for English Proficiency Test and distribution of questionnaire. In employing the Quasi-experimental Method, one class (EOC) was exposed to the use of English as the sole medium of instruction, while the other class (MLC) was exposed to the use of Multi- Lingual medium of instruction. The experiment was conducted within six weeks. The EOC and MLC were taught with the same subject and lesson by the same teacher, who also

implemented the English-only classroom language policy. In achieving equality of student's English Proficiency between the two groups, the researcher administered a pre- test peer validated English Proficiency Test before the conduct of the study.

A 100 item English achievement test was developed by the researcher to measure the level of the student's achievement in English. The test was divided into 5 parts: Reading, Writing, Listening, Viewing, and Speaking. After the conduct of the experiment, the researcher personally administered a peer- validated English Proficiency Post-test. The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz, et. al. (1986) was used to measure the student's confidence in using English as a medium of instruction in the English classrooms. Retrieval followed immediately in order to observe the utmost confidentiality of information among the respondents. The data gathered were tabulated, analyzed and interpreted.

Data Analysis Procedure

Descriptive statistics (simple frequency count and percentage) was used to describe the profile of the students in terms of their age and sex. In analyzing the result of FLCAS, the ratings of the students in the negative statements were reversed, from 5 to 1, from 4 to 2, or vice versa. To describe the achievement level of the English Only class and Multi- Lingual class, the arbitrary level was used.

Weighted Mean	Descriptive Interpretation
100- 80	Very Satisfactory
60- 79	Satisfactory
40- 59	Average
20- 39	Low
0- 19	Very Low

To describe the confidence level of the English Only class and Multi- Lingual class, the arbitrary level was used.

Weighted Mean	Descriptive Interpretation
1.00- 1.50	Very High
1.51- 2.50	High
2.51- 3.50	Moderately High
3.51- 4.50	Low
4.51- 5.00	Very Low

To measure the difference of the student achievement and confidence in English when grouped according to their age and sex, two-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used. Mean scores and standard deviations were used to calculate the students' response in using English as the sole medium of instruction in English classes. An Independent T-test was also used to measure the difference between the English class language policy and the students' confidence in English.

Results and Discussion

Table 1. Achievement Mean Scores of English Only Class and Multi-Lingual Class Grouped by Age

Age	Class						Total				
	English Only			Multi-Lingual			M ea n	S D	D I	f- va lu e	p- val ue
	Me an	SD	D I	Me an	SD	D I					

15-18	65. 33	16. 89	S	63. 25	15. 73	S	64 .3 5	16 .2 6	S	0. 01 3	.91 ns
19 and above	65. 00	20. 37	S	64. 56	22. 10	S	64 .7 2	21 .0 6	S		
Mean	65. 27	17. 39	S	63. 69	17. 87	S					
f-value	.08										
p-value	.77 ns										
ns- not significant S- Satisfactory											

Table 1 shows the Achievement Mean Scores of the English Only Class (EOC) and Multi- Lingual Class (MLC) when grouped by age.

The students aged 15- 18 got an achievement mean score of 64.35 (SD= 16.26), with a descriptive interpretation of Satisfactory, and the students aged 19 and above got an achievement mean score of 64.72 (SD= 21.06), with a descriptive interpretation of Satisfactory, but the difference between their scores is not significant.

The EOC got an achievement mean score of 65.27 (SD= 17.39), with a descriptive interpretation of Satisfactory, and the MLC got an achievement mean score of 63.29 (SD= 17.87), with a descriptive interpretation of Satisfactory, however, the difference between their score is not significant.

Table 2. Achievement Scores of the English Only Class and Multi-Lingual Class Grouped by Sex

Sex	Class						Total				
	English Only			Multi- Lingual							
	Me an	SD	D I	Me an	SD	D I	M ea n	S D	D I	f- va lu e	p- val ue
Male	70. 00	18. 18	S	67. 43	21. 27	S	68 .4 8	1 9 7 4	S	1. 67	.19 ns

Fem ale	64. 08	17. 24	S	62. 15	16. 37	S	62 .1 4	1 6 . 7 3	S
Mea n	65. 27	17. 39	S	63. 69	17. 87	S			

f-
valu
e

.27

p-
valu
e

.60
ns

ns- not significant

S- Satisfactory

Table 2 shows the Achievement Scores of the English Only Class (EOC) and Multi-Lingual Class (MLC) grouped by sex.

The male students got an achievement mean score of 64.48 (SD= 19.74), with a descriptive interpretation of Satisfactory, which is higher than the female students with an achievement score of 62.14 (SD= 16.73), with a descriptive interpretation of Satisfactory. However, the difference on the achievement mean scores of male and female students is not significant.

The EOC got an achievement mean score of 65.27 (SD= 17.39), with a descriptive interpretation of Satisfactory, and the MLC got an achievement mean score of 63.29 (SD= 17.87), with a descriptive interpretation of Satisfactory, though, the difference between their score is not significant.

Table 3. English Only Class and Multi- Lingual Class Confidence in English Class

STATEMENTS ON CONFIDENCE IN ENGLISH	Class					
	Mea n	English Only SD	DI	Mea n	Multi-Lingual SD	DI
1. Communication Apprehension	2.63	.33	MH	2.79	.37	MH
2. Fear of Negative Evaluation						
a. Anxiety of being called on	2.37	.63	H	2.45	.75	H
b. Feeling of being less competent than the	2.51	.64	H	2.89	.66	MH

others in the target language						
c. Self- perceived anxiety level in the English class	2.62	.32	MH	2.77	.41	MH
3. Test Anxiety	2.66	.47	MH	2.87	.48	MH
Mean	2.60	.30	MH	2.77	.37	MH
f-value	-2.48					
p-value	0.02					
	s					
s- significant	MH- Moderately High	H- High				

Table 3 shows the English Only Class (EOC) and Multi- Lingual Class (MLC) confidence in using English as a medium of instruction in the English classrooms based on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale.

The EOC had a high confidence in terms of “Anxiety of being called on” (M= 2.37, SD= .63) and “Feeling of being less competent than the others in the target language” (M= 2.51, SD= .64). The MLC had a high confidence in terms of “Anxiety of being called on” (M= 2.45, SD= .75). The EOC had a moderately high confidence in terms of “Communication Apprehension” (M= 2.63, SD= .33), “Self- perceived anxiety level in the English class” (M= 2.62, SD= .32), and “Test anxiety” (M= 2.66, SD= .47). The MLC had a moderately high confidence in terms of “Communication Apprehension” (M= 2.79, SD= .37), “Feeling of being less competent than the others in the target language” (M= 2.89, SD= .66), “Self- perceived anxiety level in the English class” (M= 2.77, SD= .41), and “Test Anxiety” (M= 2.87, SD= .48).

The EOC had a confidence mean score of 2.60 (SD= .30) with a descriptive interpretation of Moderately High, and the MLC has a confidence mean score of 2.77 (SD=.37) with a descriptive interpretation of Moderately High. The result shows that there is a significant difference in the confidence of the two classes.

Table 4. Confidence Mean Scores of English Only Class and Multi-Lingual Class Grouped by Age

Age	Class		Total
	English Only	Multi- Lingual	

	M e a n	S D	D I	M e a n	S D	D I	M e a n	S D	D I	F- v a l u e	p- v a l u e
15-18	2. 60	. 3 1	M H	2.7 3	.3 9	M H	2.6 6	.3 6	M H	.5 9	.4 4 ns
19 and above	2. 59	. 3 0	M H	2.8 6	.3 2	M H	2.7 7	.3 4	M H		
Mean	2. 60	. 3 0	M H	2.7 7	.3 7	M H					

ns- not significant s-significant MH- Moderately High

Table 4 shows the Confidence Mean scores of English Only Class (EOC) and Multi- Lingual Class (MLC) grouped by age.

The table shows that the students aged 15- 18 had a confidence mean score of 2.66 (SD= .36) with a descriptive interpretation on Moderately High, and the students aged 19 and above has a confidence mean score of 2.77 (SD= .34) with a descriptive interpretation of Moderately High. The analysis of the data shows that there is no significant difference between the confidence scores of the students when grouped according to age.

Table 5. Confidence Mean Scores of the English Only Class and Multi-Lingual Class Grouped by Sex.

Se x	Class						Total				
	English Only			Multi- Lingual			M	S	D	F	p
	M	S	DI	M	S	D	e	D	I	-	-
	a			a	D	I	a			v	v
	n			n			n			u	a
										e	

Male	2.69	.32	Moderately High	2.74	.36	Moderately High	2.67	.35	Moderately High	.72
Female	2.57	.30	H	2.77	.33	Moderately High	2.67	.35	H	
Mean	2.60	.30	Moderately High	2.77	.33	Moderately High				

ns- not significant MH- Moderately High H- High

Table 5 shows the Confidence mean scores of the English Only Class (EOC) and Multi-Lingual Class (MLC) grouped by sex.

The Male students had a confidence mean score of 2.74 (SD= .36) with a descriptive interpretation of Moderately High, and the Female students had a confidence mean score of 2.67 (SD= .35) with a descriptive interpretation of Moderately High. The difference between the confidence scores of the male and female students is not significant. This shows that the confidence of male in female students in English are relatively the same.

Discussion of Results

The difference between the achievement scores of students when grouped according to age is not significant. This implies that age did not play a significant role in increasing their achievement in English because most of the students were of the same age and they were exposed on the same lessons and teaching techniques.

The difference on the achievement mean scores of male and female students is not significant. This implies that sex did not have any significant role in increasing the students' achievement in English because both male and female students were exposed to the same lessons and teaching techniques. The result of age and sex in relation to English proficiency disprove the study of Dutchworth and Selingman (1997) which explain that as age increases, proficiency progresses and that males are more advanced in academic than girls or vice versa.

The English Only Class got a higher achievement score than that of the Multi- Lingual Class; however the difference between their scores is not significant. This implies that the medium of instruction of the class where the students belong did not play a role in increasing their achievement in English. This further shows that even though both classes have a different classroom language policy, the lesson and the teaching techniques were the same.

The confidence of the Multi Lingual Class students is higher because the students can express themselves better in their English class than the students in the English Only Class, thus using Multi- Lingual during classroom discussions gives students more confidence in expressing their thoughts and ideas regarding the lessons. Sharma (2004) revealed that English proficiency among most learners is due to two factors: internal factors such as lack of confidence when using English, negative attitude towards the English language and external factor like the limited opportunities to use English outside the classroom. She concluded that most learners have lack of confidence when using English language. The person that has low self-confidence may refuse to use the language in public. Tanveer (2007) also concluded that language anxiety can dramatically influence the process of language learning and teaching. Therefore, it is necessary that language teachers not only recognize that anxiety is a major cause of students' lack of success in the new language but also assist them to tackle the feelings of unease and discomfort. Consideration of language

learners' anxiety reactions by a language teacher is deemed highly important in order to assist them to achieve the intended performance goals in the target language.

Age did not play a significant role in the student's confidence in English because the students were relatively of the same age.

The confidence of students in English is relatively the same when grouped according to sex. This finding indicates that the sex of the students does not affect their confidence in English. This result is in accordance with Okan and Dugyu's (2009) study that explored that talented students were very enthusiastic and they had very high motivation and positive attitudes towards learning English. They were more inclined towards bilingualism and interactively motivated to study second language and there was no significant differences in student's motivation related to sex, parent's proficiency and level of study.

The result also shows that even though the confidence of the Multi- Lingual Class students is higher than the confidence of the English Only Class, their achievement scores are relatively the same, thus disapproving the findings of Martin (2008) that learning a language becomes more effective when emotional barriers are eliminated; and Han's (2007) study wherein it was stated that the L2 students' lack of English proficiency inhibits class discussion participation and that lack of confidence is a barrier in the students' second language skills. The result is also in contrary to the findings of Ferris (1998 as cited in Han 2007) that the learners' speaking ability and aural comprehension can hinder their achievement when the students do not have confidence in their class participation.

Conclusions

This research study investigated the effectiveness of English as the medium of instruction in the Philippine classroom by comparing the achievement and confidence of two classes under two different teaching methods while also examining both classes for any potential correlations with improved English proficiency and based on the aforementioned findings, the following conclusions were drawn:

The age of the students does not affect their achievement in English.

The English Only Class got a higher achievement score than that of the Multi- Lingual Class; thus implying that Filipino students should be exposed to English as much as possible in English classrooms; however, the medium of instruction in English Only Class and Multi- Lingual Class did not play a role in increasing the students' achievement in English and the classroom intervention in using different mode of instruction is not enough for the development and sustainability of achievement in English.

The achievement of male and female students is relatively the same.

The confidence of the English Only Class and the Multi- Lingual Class are significantly different. The confidence of the Multi- Lingual Class students is higher than those students in the English Only Class because the students can express themselves better using multi- language in their class than the students in the English Only class; therefore the English teachers should select the kind of English learning setting that will be established in the English classroom, thus avoiding anxiousness on the student's part.

The age and sex of the students does not affect their confidence in English.

The higher the level of confidence of students does not necessarily imply that they would achieve better and the lower the confidence level of students in English class does not necessarily mean that the students will achieve lower.

Implication of the Study

The goal of the study is to determine the effectiveness of using English as a medium of instruction in Philippine English classrooms and its relationship to English achievement and confidence gained with results that lead to the following implications:

First, the study shows that English as a medium of instruction in Philippine classrooms would help in improving the English achievement of the students; second, there has been much discussion on the global spread of English as a medium of instruction, and this study has led to the notion that English as a medium of instruction would enhance the students' appreciation of the role and benefits of English as a language of globalization by being exposed to it; and lastly, due to the fact that when the medium of instruction is not the first language of the majority of learners, the confidence of a student in an English classroom is suggested to be an important factor towards attaining achievement in learning the English language.

The findings from this study will be a significant endeavor towards the enhancement of the English teachers' competencies by gaining new insights that will help to determine the best way to implement the English classroom-language policy. Likewise, this study will help the teachers to decide on the medium of instruction to be used in the classroom by understanding the needs of the students. Moreover, as the universities and colleges across the globe are offering an increased number of courses taught in English language, the decision to use English as a medium of instruction has very important implications to the achievement of learners in non-English speaking countries, thus, the result of this study will serve as a guide for the school administrators in the development of the school's English program adapted to the needs, interests, and problems of the students.

Recommendations

From the foregoing conclusions, the following are recommended:

1. English should be used as much as possible in English lessons, as English proficiency is the main objective of English teaching and learning.
2. English Language teachers should maximize the effort of using English as a medium of instruction in English classrooms.
3. English Language teachers should not only recognize anxiety as a major cause of students' lack of success but also assist them to be confident in the classroom.
4. English Language teachers should play the deciding role in what kind of English-learning atmosphere will be established in the English classroom, thus avoiding anxiety on the student's part.
5. Studies on the use of English as a Medium of Instruction on other subject areas (Mathematics, Social Science, and Literature) may be conducted to further measure the effectiveness of the sole use of English in the classrooms.

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The Effect of Learner-Centered EFL Writing Instruction on Korean University Students' Writing Anxiety and Perception

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Abstract

The current educational trend strongly encourages students' active participation in learning. However, EFL writing instructions in Korea are so far detached from this approach. That is, most English writing classes in Korea are still teacher-centered and most learners remain passive throughout the classroom period. In order to bring about change in the classroom atmosphere and to foster active student engagements in the EFL writing class, the current study developed a learner-centered instruction model for EFL writing based on the relevant literatures. Specifically, the model incorporated four activities which inevitably triggered the learners' participations in the writing process: modified LDF (Learner-Driven Feedback), portfolio, peer feedback, and group writing. Then, its effect on students' anxiety and perception was solicited via surveys and in-depth interviews. The participants of the study were 29 Korean university students enrolled in Practical English Writing course in the spring semester, 2018. The paired t-test on pre- and post- writing anxiety showed that the model was effective in significantly decreasing students' writing anxiety, particularly, somatic anxiety. Moreover, the students' perception on the learner-centered writing instruction model turned out to be quite positive in the order of LDF (4.69), portfolio (3.93), peer feedback (3.62), and group writing (3.34). The contribution of the study is discussed in relation to cultural issues (e.g. Confucianism) and its pedagogical implications.

Keywords: learner-centered, EFL writing instruction, writing anxiety, student perception.

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Introduction

In Korea, English is a high stakes subject which is closely related to entering prestigious university and getting a decent job. However, not much attention was paid to developing English writing skills in comparison to developing other English language skills such as listening, speaking, or reading. Perhaps this may be due to the test system in Korea which mainly assesses listening or reading comprehension. Nevertheless, as a global citizen, English writing competence is of great importance in academic settings as well as in professional workplaces. Yet, many English learners feel more stress and face more challenges in promoting writing compared to other English language skills. Until now, teacher's corrective feedback has been utilized as a major means to improving students' writing skills. However, the research thus far has shown conflicting results regarding the effect of corrective feedback on ESL/EFL writing (Chandler, 2003; Ellis, Sheen, Murakami, & Takashima, 2008; Ferris, 2004). This may be owing to the difference in the contextual variables: the learner, the situation, and the instructional methodology (Evans, Hartshorn, McCollum, & Wolfersberger, 2010).

Moreover, the current educational trend strongly encourages students' active participation in learning. Thus, relying solely on the teacher's corrective feedback is somewhat going against the current educational movement. Unfortunately, however, this is still happening in EFL writing instruction in Korea. That is, most English writing classes in Korea are still teacher-centered and most learners remain passive throughout the classroom period. The main features of English writing classes can be summarized as one-shot' writing using a product-oriented approach and no use or very limited use of self- and peer assessment, which makes it very difficult for students to assume responsibility for their own learning (Mak & Lee, 2014).

In order to bring about change in the inactive classroom atmosphere as well as to foster dynamic student engagements

and learner autonomy in the EFL writing class, the current study developed a learner-centered instruction model for EFL writing based on the relevant literatures. Specifically, the model incorporated four activities which inevitably triggered the learners' participations in the writing process: modified LDF (Learner-driven Feedback), portfolio, peer feedback, and group writing as shown in Figure 1.



Figure 1. Learner-centered writing instruction model

However, many current English methodologies mentioned above are oriented towards English language education in ESL settings such as UK, Australia, and North America (Holliday, 1994). Therefore, we need to identify what teaching methodologies work best within Korean social and academic contexts (Kim & Kim, 2005). The research question of the current study is formulated as follows.

1. Is learner-centered writing instruction effective in reducing Korean university students' writing anxiety?
2. What are the Korean university students' perceptions of learner-centered writing instruction?

Literature Review

EFL writing instructional methods

Through the analysis of 55 research articles on English L2 writing, teacher feedback, self-regulatory learning, peer feedback, and technology use were identified to be effective English L2 writing interventions (Chae, 2012). Up to now, however, the most frequent teaching method for EFL writing has been the teacher's corrective written feedback. This may be due to the fact that the interest of both teacher and students coincide: Teachers think that it's crucial part of their job to correct students' errors, while students, at the same time, are willing to receive feedback from the teacher to improve their writings (Simpson, 2006). Moreover, teacher's corrective feedback can benefit students as a comprehensible input which may lead to output and language learning (Ellis, 2008). Recently, however, other diverse types of feedbacks are being introduced to supplement teacher's written feedback such as self-assessment, peer group feedback, and student-teacher conferencing (Gao, 2007).

Portfolio is generally viewed as a feasible substitute for product-based writing assessment (Belanoff & Dickson,

1991). One of its advantages is that it can work as a catalyst in developing students' self-regulatory learning (Mak & Wong, 2017). In contrast to product-based writing which emphasizes the final written product, portfolio underscores learners' active involvement in their own writing as they go through several stages of the writing process (Badger & White, 2000; Gao, 2007; Kaur & Chun, 2005). As a result, learner independence and self-reflective capacity can be developed (Hamp-Lyons & Condon, 2000).

Nowadays, peer feedback is becoming more and more popular in English writing classrooms (Yeh, 2018). A number of benefits in peer feedback were suggested from previous studies. First, students can learn from each other based on their different areas of strengths and weakness (Min, 2005). Also, Peer feedback activities are helpful for development of greater autonomy in writing (Yang, Badger, & Yu, 2006). Finally, a student's writing competence develops more while giving feedback to others rather than by receiving feedback from others (Lundstrom & Baker, 2008). However, peer feedback is not without any weakness. The most common drawbacks of peer feedback are lacking in quality compared to teacher feedback (Yang, et al., 2006; Young & Miller, 2004).and insufficient openness among students (Bijami, Kashef, & Nejad, 2013).

Learner-driven feedback (Maas, 2017) is a good example of technology use in EFL writing. Various forms of technology such as, e-mail, audio or video recording can be used upon students' request in giving feedbacks. What is more, learners 'drive' the feedback dialogue by asking for specific information they want to know. That is, the feedback is given by the teacher, but the learners decide how and on what they receive feedback; they can choose between various formats (e.g. handwritten, e-mail, audio recording) and pose questions about their work (grammar, vocabulary, organization, etc.). Since learners respond more enthusiastically to feedback that they regard as valuable and useful (Hyland & Hyland, 2006), only questions asked by the students are answered. However, a potential problem exists in learner-driven feedback: students may lack ability to pinpoint their own shortcomings.

Finally, group writing or collaborative writing is a useful writing activity to promote students' cooperation in the process of language learning. Although, the concept sounds intuitively appealing, the research finding on the effectiveness of group writing in Korean context is, yet, inconclusive. The positive outcome was that collaborative writing developed Korean high school students' writing ability, confidence, motivation, and interest in English (Lee & Lee, 2014). However, the negative result was also found: Korean university students preferred individual work to pair or group work (Jong, 2016). More studies are needed either to confirm or to refute the findings.

Writing anxiety

The importance of affective factors, such as learner attitudes, anxiety, and motivation, have been emphasized in explaining learner responses and uptake of the teacher feedback being provided (Bruton, 2009; Horwitz, 2010; Hyland, 1998; Lee, Given & Schallert, 2008; Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010). The debilitating influence of anxiety on second or foreign language learning, in particular, is firmly grounded on research evidence (Daubney, Gkonou, & Dewaele, 2017; Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014). However, a majority of research into foreign language anxiety has focused on its relationship to speaking skills (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Phillips, 1992; Woodrow, 2006). The influence of anxiety on listening (Kim, 2000), reading (Saito, Garza, & Horwitz, 1999), and writing, on the other hand, has been comparatively less explored.

Previous studies found negative association of writing anxiety with self-efficacy and writing performance (Kwon, 2017; Piniel & Csizer, 2015; Woodrow, 2011). For example, Kwon (2017)'s survey on 100 Korean university students residing in Seoul and Kyunggi province discovered that the students with lower writing anxiety performed better. Thus, it was suggested that the English teacher should provide student-centered learning environment to reduce students' writing anxiety and to boost students' autonomy. Providing writing conferences and cooperative writing were proposed as effective means to reduce students' anxiety. However, it should be reminded that the previous research was based on survey not on the teaching experiment. Further experimental research is necessary to substantiate the findings.

Methods

Research context and participants

The participants of the study were 29 Korean university students enrolled in *Practical English Writing* course in spring semester, 2018. The class consisted of 18 male students and 11 female students. The participants were quite heterogeneous with regard to their majors, years, and English proficiency. First, they were from 24 different majors including engineering, business, education and human arts. Also, the class was composed of different college years: 10 freshman, 11 sophomores, 3 juniors, and 5 seniors. Finally, their TOEIC scores showed a great variation ranging from 435 to 930. Only 2 students had previously taken a class related to English writing. Thus, this class was the first English writing class for the majority of the participants.

Procedures

The main objective of *Practical English Writing* course was to develop academic writing skills in English. The students were required to attend the class three hours per week during the semester. They learned how to write 5 different genre of writing during the semester: descriptive, example, procedural, narrative, and opinion writing. The course assignments were to complete 5 different genre of writing following the process writing approach. The students had to write three drafts (i.e., first, second, and final) and keep them in their portfolio file which was to be submitted at the end of the semester. The step by step writing sequence is illustrated in Figure 2.

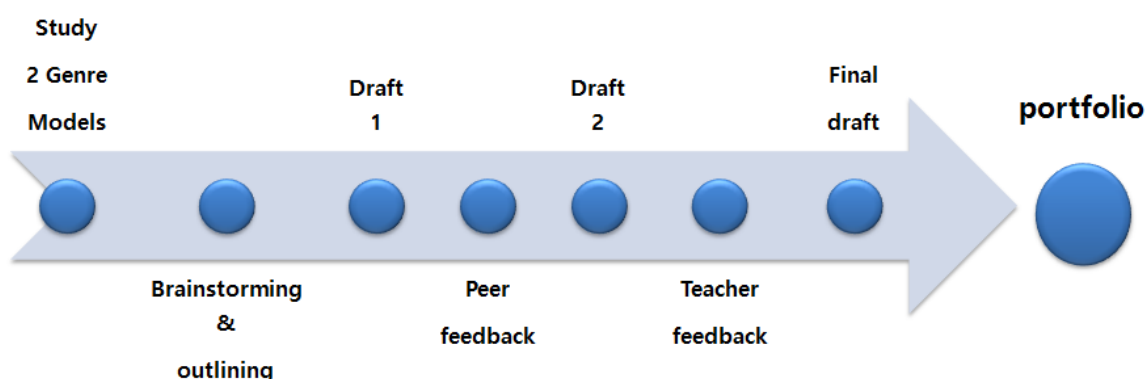


Figure 2. Class procedure

To complete each draft, students followed the four writing stages: prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing. As a central trait of process writing, this multi-draft approach helped students pay careful attention to teacher feedback more, which was thought to apply to peer feedback as well. During the prewriting stage, students were free to choose any techniques they felt useful for generating ideas such as freewriting, listing, or clustering. Using the ideas they generated, they made a brief outline and started composing their first draft (Draft 1). Students then received feedback from their peers and revised their first drafts (Draft 2).

The peer review lasted for 20 minutes during the regular class period. First, the students were distributed other student's writings. Then, the students started to read silently and individually and wrote their comments on a peer feedback sheet (Appendix A). The peer feedback form was intended to serve as a guide for students in giving feedbacks on various aspects of writing during the peer review process. After receiving their drafts, students read comments from peers and made necessary changes. Finally, the course instructor collected all the revised drafts and gave feedback to each student in the format the students requested (i.e., hand-written, video, or face-to-face). Afterwards, the students made changes to their draft based on the teacher feedback while editing minor grammar or spelling errors at the same time (Draft 3). All the drafts from Draft 1 to Draft 3 were kept in their portfolios. This process was done throughout the semester for 5 different writing genres.

Instruments

Pre-Post survey on writing anxiety

The survey was administered twice, at the beginning and at the end of the semester to examine whether the learner-

centered instruction was effective in reducing students' writing anxiety. The survey items were adopted from Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (Cheng, 2004) which was intended to measure somatic anxiety (7 items), avoidance behavior (7 items), and cognitive anxiety (8 items). A total of 22 items were asked and students' writing anxiety was measured in 5-point Likert scale. Chronbach's α was used to test the reliability of the survey items. The overall reliability of the survey items as well as the sub categorical survey items were considerably high (overall: 0.91; somatic anxiety: 0.87; avoidance behavior: 0.78; cognitive anxiety: 0.83) as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Writing anxiety survey reliability

		Number of questions	Question Number	Reliability
Writing anxiety	Somatic anxiety	7	2,6,8,11,13,15,19	0.87
	Avoidance behavior	7	4,5,10,12,16,18,22	0.78
	Cognitive anxiety	8	1,3,7,9,14,17,20,21	0.83
	Overall	22	1-22.	0.91

Survey and follow-up interview on student perception

Also, students' perceptions of the learner-centered instruction incorporating four activities (modified LDF, portfolio, peer feedback, and group writing) were investigated through surveys and in-depth interviews. Six students who indicated different views on the survey were selected among 18 students who volunteered for the follow-up interview. To ensure anonymity of the respondents, pseudonyms (Bob, David, George, Julie, Sam, and Sarah) were used for 6 interviewees. The interview was semi-structured and each interview lasted about 60 minutes. The interview was conducted in Korean language to enable students to share their opinions freely without any language barriers. During the interview, students were asked to share their honest opinions on the following aspects: (a) the best method among four methods incorporated in the writing class and the reason for it, (b) usefulness and difficulties they experienced in learner-centered instruction, and (c) suggestions for improvement based on their experiences. Students' interviews were audio-recorded and then transcribed for the subsequent analysis.

Results and Discussion

Writing anxiety

A paired t-test was done in order to see if any significant difference in anxiety took place after the learner-centered writing instruction. Table 2 showed decrease in all aspects of anxiety (i.e., somatic anxiety, avoidance behavior, cognitive anxiety) after the treatment. Specifically, a significant decrease took place in somatic anxiety ($p=.02$) which eventually influenced in reducing overall anxiety ($p=.04$).

Somatic anxiety survey items measured the degree of the participants' apprehensive physical reactions under English composition situations. The examples of somatic anxiety items were "I often feel panic when I write English compositions under time constraint", "I freeze up when unexpectedly asked to write English compositions", and "My mind often goes blank when I start to work on an English composition". Therefore, learner-centered writing instruction seemed to have significantly decreased the students' fear and nervousness in English writing situations.

Avoidance behavior survey items aimed to measure the extent of students' avoidance from English writing situations. The question items included, "I usually do my best to avoid writing English compositions.", "I do my best to avoid situations in which I have to write in English.", and "I would do my best to excuse myself if asked to write English compositions". Although learner-centered writing instruction reduced avoidance behavior, the difference was not significant. However, this may have something to do with Confucian culture which is considerably deep-rooted in Korean education setting. That is, students under Confucian culture, including Korean students, are educated to learn English through four R process: Reception, Repetition, Review, and Reproduction (Hu, 2002), which could

have affected students, either consciously or unconsciously, to maintain passive stance in learning.

Table 2: Paired t-test on writing anxiety

		M	SD	SE	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
Somatic Anxiety	Pre-survey	2.81	0.82	0.15	2.46	28	.02*
	Post survey	2.37	0.79	0.15			
Avoidance behavior	Pre-survey	2.74	0.64	0.12	1.40	28	.17
	Post survey	2.50	0.56	0.10			
Cognitive Anxiety	Pre-survey	2.83	0.80	0.15	1.54	28	.13
	Post survey	2.50	0.84	0.16			
Overall	Pre-survey	2.80	0.63	0.12	2.18	28	.04*
	Post survey	2.46	0.64	0.12			

Cognitive anxiety items estimated how much students were concerned about other people's evaluation on their English writing. The examples are as follows: "If my English composition is to be evaluated, I would worry about getting a very poor grade", "I'm afraid that the other students would deride my English composition if they read it", and "While writing English compositions, I feel worried and uneasy if I know they will be evaluated". Learner-centered writing instruction also reduced cognitive anxiety, although not to a significant degree. Here, Korean Confucian culture, 'Che-myon' which refers to Koreans' tendency to think too much about others for the fear of losing face, seemed to have influenced the present outcome. Koreans generally tend to think that in order not to lose face, one always needs to be aware of how others perceive them (Park, 2000). Perhaps, this new teaching approach was not powerful enough or the instruction period was not long enough to bring about significant change in Korean sociocultural norm.

Finally, the follow-up interview at the end of the semester also supported that the learner-centered writing instruction was quite helpful in reducing their writing anxiety. Particularly, the writing process which made students to write a multiple drafts on a given topic aided students to gain confidence in English writing.

"This class was the first English writing class for most of the students. Naturally, most of us were quite anxious about writing in English at first. However, my writing anxiety decreased gradually as I practiced writing repeatedly again and again." (Sarah)

Students' perception of learner-centered writing instruction

When asked their preferred option among learner-centered writing instructional methods in the survey, the students favored modified Learner-driven feedback (LDF) (M=4.62) the most, followed by portfolio (M =3.93), peer feedback (M =3.62) and group writing (M =3.34) as shown in Table 3. It is interesting to note that the first two preferences (i.e., LDF and portfolio) were individual activity whereas less preferred ones (i.e., peer feedback and group writing) were group activity. Hence, Korean students' preference for individual work can be inferred. This is also confirmed by the interview.

"Before we entered university, we were trained to study and work individually (not in groups) ... most classes were teacher-centered and students hardly ever shared what they knew to others." (Julie)

Fierce competition among middle school and high school students in Korea hardly left any room for cooperation in

learning. Most interviewees noted that group work was over in their elementary school years.

“This class was the only class which involved group work in this semester. Ever since I graduated elementary school, I never had a chance to do any group work. This was my first experience after elementary school. It was kind of strange at first...” (Sam)

Modified learner-driven feedback

Overall, the students showed strong preference for modified LDF. For example, the least variation was found in LDF (SD=0.56) compared to other approaches: portfolio (SD= 0.83), peer feedback (SD=0.94), and group writing (SD=1.17). Moreover, the students’ maximum ratings were 5 for all approaches while minimum ratings were from 1 (portfolio, group writing) to 3 (LDF), which also demonstrated students’ overall strong preference for LDF. Most students thought highly of learner-driven feedback and appreciated the teacher’s novel and innovative trial on providing various forms of feedbacks.

“It was wonderful to have some choices in receiving the teacher feedback rather than having only one choice of hand-written comments.” (Julie)

Table 3: Student preference of learner-centered writing

	Modified LDF	Portfolio	Peer feedback	Group writing
Mean	4.62	3.93	3.62	3.34
SD	0.56	0.83	0.94	1.17
Max	5	5	5	5
Min	3	1	2	1
Median	5.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
Mode	5.00	4.00	3.00	4.00

Surprisingly, however, even though students showed great preference for LDF, Table 4 showed 62.1% of the total given feedbacks was traditional feedback (i.e., handwritten comments). The face-to-face feedback was the least utilized feedback among LDF options. The main reasons why many students resorted to traditional hand-written comments rather than face-to-face feedback and video feedback were the time consumption, unfamiliarity and Confucian cultural factor.

“I consider English writing course less seriously compared to the major subjects. So, instead of allocating additional time for English writing after class, I want to finish everything during the class hours.” (David)

Table 4: Students’ preference and choice in learner-driven feedback

Form of feedback	Preference indicated in the survey	No. of given feedbacks	Percentage (%)
Handwritten comments	14	72	62.1
Video through Email/SNS	5	29	25
Face-to-face feedback	10	15	12.9
Total	29	116	100

“I think hand-written comments are the easiest and the most convenient form of feedback. Not only for me but also

for you (the teacher)... It only takes a couple of minute for me to overview the hand-written feedback whereas extra time is needed to watch the video feedback or to see teacher in person.” (Sam)

“I think most students are not familiar with video feedback. They are not sure whether it is a communicative feedback or lecture type feedback, which may have made them to apply less. As for me, the video feedback was quite helpful. I was able to get a detailed feedback and was able to concentrate better than hand-written comments.” (Bob)

“Face-to face feedback was just too much for me. I need to set up an extra time after class to receive feedback... Also, because of Confucian culture and the teacher being the evaluator, I feel uneasiness in meeting the teacher one on one. You know. The relationship between the teacher and students is not horizontal, unlike Western culture. Even in my entire 12 years of school life, I hardly ever had face-to-face meeting with my teacher except for the final year in high school when I needed to consult the teacher on writing college application.” (Sarah)

Unlike major subjects, English writing course was one of the electives that students consider less important and thus don't want to spend much time on. Accordingly, students didn't want to spare their additional time on face-to-face conference with the teacher. Also, students tended to resort to hand-written feedback than to the video feedback due to familiarity and convenience. Finally, a cultural factor, power distance, came into play. Power distance can be defined as the degree to which inequality among people in different social positions is viewed (Hofstede, 1980). Most Confucian cultures, including Korean culture, have high power distance between teacher and students, which makes it quite uncomfortable for most students to be seated side by side and receive feedback from the teacher.

Portfolio

The major benefit of using portfolio was that the students could visually identify the progress they were making. That is, they could see their drafts being improved from the first draft to the final draft. Moreover, the manifest progress was made from the first writing genre to the fifth writing genre.

“On my first writing, you commented I needed to rewrite from the very beginning. I was frustrated at that point. However, as the writing progressed, the amount of your corrective feedback became less and less... I could see that my writing was getting better and better.” (Sarah)

Another benefit was that keeping portfolio allowed students some chances to go over their drafts whenever they wanted.

“I don't know why, but I used to throw away drafts. But keeping them in file was good because I was able to refer it again and again.” (Julie)

The only drawback of portfolio was that it was easy to lose drafts, especially in group writing. Portfolio was mostly individual, but among five different genres of writings, the first two were done in groups. Some suggested handing in portfolio twice (mid-term and final) instead of once (at the end of the term) in order to prevent the loss of drafts

“If you are not really careful, you are apt to lose drafts in portfolio. In group writing, I think it's better to brainstorm together but write individually.” (David)

Peer feedback

The major benefits of peer feedback were mentioned as follows: gaining different perspectives and ideas from other students, finding my own mistakes as reading other students' writing, having opportunities to read other students' writing, and learning useful vocabulary and expressions through other students' writing.

“The peer feedback was quite useful since I was able to hear ideas from others. We all have our limits in seeing things, but through peer feedback, I was able to get different perspectives.” (Sarah)

“In my case, peer feedback was my favorite writing activity. Especially, the peer feedback form was very helpful as a guide for giving feedbacks. However, since we're just students and most of us don't have much grammatical knowledge, providing correct feedback on forms was very difficult. Nevertheless, I think giving feedbacks was more helpful than receiving feedback. I was able to develop a critical eye on writing through peer feedback activity.” (George)

The major drawbacks for peer feedback were lack of expertise compared to teacher feedback, great variations in feedback quality depending on who was giving feedback, lack of confidence in giving feedback to others (especially, grammar), and concern for other student's losing face (i.e., Che-myong).

"I think the peer feedback should be done anonymously. I was very careful in giving feedback not to hurt other student's pride. I could give feedback more freely to close friends but I think it could also damage our friendship. So I would not give serious feedbacks..." (Bob)

It is interesting to note how Confucian culture affected the classroom dynamic. Korean students tended to refrain from giving honest feedback for the fear of other student's losing face, which could, in effect, jeopardize the friendship.

Generally, the students were very anxious about giving feedback on forms. However, most of them seemed to have more confidence in giving feedbacks on contents. Some suggested limiting peer feedback to content area using L1 (Korean) so that English incompetence would not sacrifice the feedback quality much.

"I think it's better to provide feedback only on content for peer feedback... While I was giving feedbacks on forms, I wasn't sure whether I was providing correct feedbacks. Sometimes, my mind went blank. Especially, I am not used to using punctuation such as colon or semi-colon. I think punctuation part should also be omitted from the peer feedback." (Sarah)

"When I gave feedbacks in English, sometimes I could not clearly express my thoughts. So, I think it's better to give feedbacks in Korean." (David)

Group writing

Originally, group writing was employed in order to brainstorm diverse ideas and to alleviate writing anxiety through working together. However, this was the least favored activity among students: only one out of six interviewed students expressed his like on this method.

"I liked group writing. It may be hard if the group members do not participate well, but our group members were generally contributive except for one person." (Bob)

The disadvantage, on the other hand, was uneasiness in working together, since most students were accustomed to working individually. They knew developing team work through effective communication would pay off in the long run. Nonetheless, since the grade was concerned, they preferred to take responsibility on their own work only. Most students didn't want to sacrifice their grades to develop their cooperation skills. Some students, in particular, expressed their strong complaints about some students who do not contribute at all to the work.

"Students generally dislike working together. They were trained to study individually for 12 years and suddenly working together didn't seem to work out well... I know developing team work can be very useful later when I go out in the society and work in a company... But, it's hard when you see some students who do not participate in group work all." (Sarah)

Moreover, it seemed to be difficult to express their honest opinions for the fear of losing face or to sustain group harmony.

"One member wrote the first draft all by himself. But later, I changed it a little. He said it was Okay, but I think he may have felt offended..." (Julie)

"In order to reach consensus, the refuting process is necessary. However, it was very difficult to say something critical in Korean culture. It can wound a person's pride." (David)

"There were members who were very good at English. My English was not good enough, so my comments were not accepted in most cases. I was really frustrated then. But I felt really good when my opinion was accepted at times." (Sam)

Conclusion

Current educational shift from teacher-centered to student-centered education seems inevitable. In order to bring about change in passive Korean EFL writing class atmosphere and to effectively facilitate Korean students' learning English writing, the current study adopted learner-centered writing instruction (a combination of modified learner-driven

feedback, portfolio, peer feedback, and group writing) and examined its impact on reducing Korean students' writing anxiety. Since English language learners from Confucian Heritage Cultures (CHCs) tend to be more anxious language learners than other ethnic groups (Woodrow, 2006), it is all the more important to take measures in reducing students' anxiety in Korean EFL classes.

The paired t-test on pre- and post- writing anxiety survey and student interview showed that learner-centered writing instruction could serve as a useful means to decreasing English learners' writing anxiety. The main contributor was found to be the use of portfolio which engaged students in repetitive and step by step writing cycle, which eventually helped students to reduce anxiety and gain more confidence in English writing. Moreover, students' perception on learner-centered writing instruction was overall positive, particularly, modified learner-driven feedback. Most students thought it was wonderful to have options in receiving feedbacks and sincerely appreciated the teacher's efforts to better accommodate the students' needs. Some advantages of peer feedback were also mentioned, such as, acquiring diverse views or ideas, and learning good English expressions from other students. Finally, group writing was found to be the least favored activity.

Interestingly, even though the students generally thought highly of the learner-centered writing instruction, they also exhibited some uneasiness or concern while being involved in the activity. For example, some students confessed how stressful it was for them to be engaged in group activities (i.e., peer feedback and group writing). In addition, the students generally preferred to work individually (e.g. modified LDF and portfolio) than to work together with others. This seemed to be owing to Confucian cultural influence. Specifically, saving one's face or saving other's face (i.e., Che-myon) was prior concern for most students, since students valued relationship more than improvement in English writing. That is, Korean students considered giving inaccurate feedback, especially on grammar, would cause them to lose face. If they pointed out grammatical errors of other students, on the other hand, it would cause them to lose face, since it is pointing out how incorrect their English writing is. Moreover, they refrained from being too critical in order to maintain group harmony. Therefore, the intended synergy effect was not realized in group writing. Finally, high power distance between teacher and students in Korea made it uneasy for most students to actively utilize the chance of receiving individual feedback from the teacher. The present findings also seem to confirm that Confucianism must be taken into account when discussing student-centered English education in China, Korea, and Japan, (Taylor & Taylor, 2014).

Pedagogical Implication

Based on the findings, the following suggestions are made to minimize Confucian influence and maximize the strengths of learner-centered writing instruction in Korean EFL writing classroom. First, employ peer feedback only on global issues (i.e., content and organization) which most Korean students feel open and comfortable about giving or receiving feedbacks. The subjects of the current study showed lack of confidence and anxiety on giving feedback on local issues such as grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation because of their incompetence in English as well as Che-myon. Second, reduce power distance between the teacher and students through promoting video feedback instead of face-to-face feedback. The students who utilized video feedback mentioned that it was just like or even better than having one-on-one conference with the teacher since they could watch the feedback whenever and wherever they wanted to. Third, brainstorm together but write individually in group writing. This is expected to prevent some unparticipating students' free ride. Finally, collect portfolio twice (mid-term & final) instead of once at the end of the term to prevent students from losing writing drafts.

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Appendix A Peer Feedback Form

Name:

Global Issues

1. Content
 - A. What did you like most about the paragraph?
 - B. Are there any irrelevant sentences in the paragraph? (checking for unity)
2. Organization
 - A. Does the paragraph have a topic sentence? (Yes/No)
If so, underline the topic sentence.
 - B. Does the paragraph have supporting sentences? (Yes/No)
If so, underline the supporting sentences.
 - C. Does the concluding sentence restate the main idea of the paragraph in a new way? (Yes/No)
If so, underline the concluding sentence.
 - D. Is the paragraph coherent? (Yes/No)
The paragraph is coherent in terms of (time/ space/ the order of importance/ other).

Local Issues

See how the following items can be improved.

1. Vocabulary or expression

Inappropriate vocabulary/expression	I think it's better

2. Grammar

3. Spelling

4. Punctuation

5. Layout

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Common Errors in Prepositions Committed by Grade 9 Students: Implications for Teaching

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Abstract

Prepositions are small words that serve important functions in the meaning of sentences. They show relationships between persons, objects, places etc. They also act as vital markers to the sentence structure. This descriptive analysis measured and analyzed the common errors of 44 grade 9 students in the use of prepositions using an objective test. Using the measures of central tendency, particularly the mean, the study revealed that the students had more errors in prepositions of direction. Moreover, the students tend to choose inappropriate prepositions that are out of context. The results showed that students were confused with the multiple functions of prepositions. English teachers, on one hand, should review their students on how to make distinction among the rules of different prepositions and apply effective learning strategies in teaching them.

Keywords: prepositions, errors, grade 9 students

A. Introduction

Students should master writing because it is an important fundamental language skill in language learning effort. Mastery of writing skill helps students in different academic and business works like writing an essay, thesis, business correspondences, creating presentations, and many others. Because of its importance, the Department of Education (DepEd) included writing in the basic education curriculum, particularly in English. Written outputs serve as school requirements that the students need to accomplish.

However, writing is a complex task and teachers experience problems in teaching writing (Romadhani, 2014). The involvement of the mastery of all language levels makes its process complex and complicated. One shall have enough knowledge about a language's grammar to produce a good writing, but learning a correct grammar is not always achievable.

Correct learning of grammar can be achieved through the guidance of teachers. Chin (2012) states that learners need guidance to become good writers. They need to learn how to transfer their knowledge of grammatical concepts from oral language to written language. She also mentions that grammar choices affect the writing style of the learners. This makes proper use of grammar as one of the most important skills a student must master.

One of the important grammar points to master is preposition. Its function includes describing relations between two entities. These relationships include those of direction, position, time, and various degrees of emotional and mental states. There are many rules governing the use of prepositions in English sentences. In English grammar, prepositions refer to a word showing how nouns or pronouns relate to the other words that are in the same sentence. They can be called as "widgets" because they are tiny parts that are used in relating words in a sentence. They also introduce information words that include where, when and why something takes place or general description of information (Laka, 2013).

However, prepositions are one of the most underestimated grammar points. Others think that they are simply used for introducing prepositional phrases like *from the top*, *in the room*, or *with mother*; but they have purposes other than that. For instance, one preposition can either introduce time, place or other words. Because of the many uses of prepositions, confusion arises which pave way to making errors in their usage. The English native speakers rarely make mistakes in their grammar, but they also have common English errors which show how tricky the English language could be (Swick, 2005).

Lorincz (2012) says that English language learners find prepositions challenging to master due to its large numbers and different nature. Substitution, addition and omission are the most syntactic errors based on their analysis of linguistic output of learners.

In the study of Mohaghegh (2011) on grammatical errors, preposition is the most commonly committed mistake in English grammar wherein all the respondents committed errors in prepositions. Second is the use of relative pronoun, followed by the use of articles. For non-native speakers, the case is otherwise. Arjan, Abdullah and Roslim (2013) mentioned that errors dealing with prepositions are one of the most common mistakes non-native speakers make especially in writing. In the Philippines, one of the most problematic grammar points of students in writing is the prepositional error.

This misuse, as shown by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999), is caused by a mismatch problem between English and other languages. When one tries to study English, he usually finds word equivalents in his native language. One reason that prepositions become problematic for the non-native speaker of English is that their forms never change (Rob Rubic, 2004). Although translation method works well for content words, it is insufficient for function words such as prepositions. In English, prepositions are of big in number and used to denote relationships, while in Filipino, they are limited to only three words --- *ng*, *sa*, and *kay*. Because of the difference in number from the English counterpart, Filipinos tend to choose the English preposition based on their first language (L1) which results in grammatical error (Castro, 2013). The same case was investigated in the EFL Iranian senior English majors (Koosha & Jafarpour, 2006). The analysis of errors in terms of collocations of prepositions was due to the transfer of L1 collocation patterns to their L2 production.

Another is the inconsistency of the English language. Certain prepositions can be applied in one form, but not in another. The English Language Learner (ELL) will not understand the reason behind these rules; native speakers do not know the explanation either (Rob Rubic, 2004).

Al- Nasrawi (n.d.) states that it is hypothesized that EFL university students' most errors when dealing with prepositions are due to the intralingual transfer and the ability of students at recognition level is greater than at production level.

People have different concepts of error, but to have a standard definition of it, Corder defines **errors** as the performance failure (as cited in Castro, 2001). Also, they can be the result of faulty, controversial, or unconventional usage of grammatical element (Nordquist, 2018).

Corder (1971) (as cited in Al-Nasrawi, n.d) mentions that there are four classified categories of learners' errors: interlanguage transfer, intralingual transfer, learning context and strategies in communication. Interlingual transfer deals with the mother tongue. When the student tries to cope up with the deficiencies of the knowledge of his target language, the student may use other parts of native language pattern and applies it to the target language. The learner's foreign language problem solving is based on his/her native language. The overgeneralization of rules caused by one and more target languages is classified as intralingual transfer. In alignment with the relation of learning context, Richards (as cited in Al-Naswari, n.d) states that other classroom factors such as misleading instructions by teacher and the instructional materials such as books, textbooks and others may lead to committing errors. Brown (1980) (as cited in Al-Naswari, n.d) also states that the lack of conscious employment of non-verbal and verbal mechanisms for communication that may improve student linguistic form is classified under strategies in communication.

In addition, according to Richards and Sampson, (1980) (as cited in Yousefi, 2014), interlingual and intralingual errors are the main type of error analysis. Those from first language interference are interlingual errors while those that reflect universal operation of strategies in learning are intralingual errors. Gass and Selinker (as cited in Sudhakaran, 2015) state that, aside from the mother tongue is the second language acquisition that can be taught in a formal way or in exposing the use of language. Complexity and abstractness are the factors that affect learning of the language. Loewen (2005) states (as cited in Sudhakaran, 2015) that form-assisted learning enhances linguistic accuracy than simply engaging learners in meaning focused lessons. Grammar needs to give importance in situations where linguistic skills do not allow learners to process the input or to re-express the content. Moreover, Lindstormberg (1991) (as cited in Sudhakaran, 2015) also states that the wrong understanding of prepositions of ESL is the primary reason of difficulty. It was found that the use of spatial prepositions can access different representations of semantic as compared to locative prepositions. Prepositions that are acquired are independent of whether they may or may not receive formal language education and mother tongue and age of the learner. An interlanguage is pertaining to an idiolect that the learner of second language developed but maintained some characteristics of their mother tongue or first language; and can overgeneralize some rules in writing and speaking of second language. It is a theory based stating a psychological framework that explains the activation of human brain in every time that the learner attempts to learn second language. Selinker (1972) (as cited in Sudhakaran, 2015), stated that those produced by native speakers are different from the utterances of learner, this can be observed in a given situation.

Selinker (1972) (as cited in Sudhakaran, 2015) also mentions that across different contexts, interlanguage may be a variable; for instance, this may be more complex, accurate and fluent in one domain. To learn the involved psychological processes there are two things that can be compared to learners' utterances. First, native language utterances convey same produced messages of a learner. Second, target language utterances convey same produced message of a native speaker.

Interlanguage perspective is possible to apply on learners' knowledge of target language such as in phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicon, and interlanguage pragmatics.

Richard (1885) (as cited in Bao, 2014) states that an error is when a native speaker of a language shows incomplete and flawed learning in using a linguistic item. On the other hand, James (2001) (as cited in Bao, 2014) said that error is a failure in a unit of language. Moreover, error is the product of behavior failure (Corder, 1971) (as cited in Bao, 2014). As stated above, there are many descriptions of errors.

To determine the occurrence, cause, nature and outcome of an unsuccessful second language acquisition, James (2001) proposed a process called Error Analysis. Corder (1971) said that error is not considered a "bad habit", it is a perception into students' process of learning. He also states that error is a significant factor in learners' learning because it reveals the difference between the learners' target language and transitional language grammar.

Error Analysis has five steps. The following are the steps of Error Analysis according to Corder (1971) (as cited in Bao, 2014).

1. Collection of the samples of the students' language (i.e. deciding what outputs of the learner's language can be used for the analysis and how to collect the data).
2. Identification of errors (i.e. the way of identifying the errors, e.g. by underlying the errors and using the symbols of correcting code).
3. Error description (i.e. the errors can be categorized into groups which are stated according to their origin and presence).
4. Error explanation (i.e. calculating and explaining the errors in a suitable way).
5. Error evaluation (i.e. this step involves the interpretation of tables, graphs and conclusions).

There have been numerous studies on preposition errors. One of which is the study of Herdi (2017) indicating that few students got the score of "very good", and more students got "fair" score in the test on prepositions. It was also found that the category of prepositions of direction got the less percentage of correct answer. The results of the study

revealed that more students failed to use appropriate prepositions. This means that most of the students have a “not so good” ability in using prepositions of direction. Based on the test analysis, errors on prepositions of direction frequently occurred in the test. It was also found that the use of ‘on’, ‘in’, ‘to’, are the most common mistakes committed.

In the study of Blom (2006), she used two tests (oral test and multiple-choice test) and selected two groups of grade 9 students. The analysis of errors showed that students failed to comprehend prepositions as part of multiword expression. Likewise, the study proved that learners can work better in a task that tested their perceptive knowledge of prepositions. As an intervention, she suggested that helping students to notice lexical chunks and grammatical collocations is important.

In another study, Jansson (2006) studied what the problems of native Swedish speakers had in prepositions by using Error Analysis approach. Jansson collected 19 compositions, including 876 prepositions, written by Swedish senior high school students. He categorized the errors with preposition to three: addition, substitution, and omission. He explained that intralingual and interlingual interferences were the hypothesized cause of errors.

Next, Foo (2007) analyzed the usage of the Chinese ESL learners on the different types of prepositions by applying Error Analysis approach. He investigated how Chinese ESL learners used prepositions of place, direction and time. He also tried to explain the origin of the errors made. There were 38 Chinese secondary school students who were involved in translating Chinese compositions that had tons of prepositions of place, direction and time into English. The result of the analysis revealed that the most problematic type of preposition is the preposition of time. Among the three error categories, substitution was the most prominent. Also, the developmental factors of excessive generalization, intralingual interference, omission and false concept were the sources of errors.

On the other hand, Gomez (2010) studied the use of prepositions by involving the Upper Intermediate English course students from an ELT program. The study included 54 writing compositions composed by 20 students from different courses in three different time and day. The result of the study showed that 13 prepositions (into, to, because of, on, above, about, by, in, with, for, from, at) were the most erroneous. These prepositions were misused 24 times.

Another study by Gvarishvili (2012) tested the limitation in which learners depend on their L1 knowledge of prepositions in learning and acquiring the usage of English prepositions. The author focused on the interlingual transference level. The author collected 105 written compositions of Georgian ESL students. The author analyzed the compositions by following the steps of Error Analysis (collecting written compositions, identification of errors, description of errors, explanation of errors and evaluation of errors). The analysis showed that misuse of prepositions is caused by the negative interference of the learners’ native language.

Nginios (2013) analyzed the learning of the French speakers about Spanish prepositions. The author wanted to make activities and strategies as an intervention to lessen the mistakes in using prepositions. His arguments were all based on an extensive literature review. He concluded that the students did not know the proper usage of prepositions that made the learning of prepositions difficult. He also stated that teaching of grammar using inductive method might have led to the fossilization of errors. Therefore, he included activities that mainly focused on prepositional use.

Another is about the investigation of Islami (2015). He discussed the usage of prepositions of English and studied the sources of errors and difficulties of ELL learners. Likewise, the study examined the misuse of prepositions committed by the first grade of Economic students at the AAB private college in Kosovo, including also the Faculty of Education students at the Public University of Prishtina. There were 364 students who were randomly selected (182 from each institution). The essays written by the learners in their first semester test were the instrument used in this study. The study revealed that the most erroneous preposition is the preposition of time (in, on and at) due to the interference of the native language. He suggested that using Prototype Approach and Collocative Approach would increase the scope of assimilation of prepositions.

On one hand, a different outcome was found in the study of Chua et al. (2015). Their study showed that the interference of the mother-tongue with the proper use of prepositions is not high. The errors recorded from the respondents were purely ungrammatical, and not because of the transfer issue within the two languages.

The curriculum guide prepared by the DepEd shows that grade 9 English is focused on Anglo-American literature. Most of the activities involve creative writing, speech choir and drama. These activities require writing outputs whose criteria include grammar accuracy. Such writing outputs require the application of grammar points including the correct use of preposition. These requirements among grade 9 learners were the basis of the researchers in choosing the target population of the study.

In line with this study, the researchers identified the most common errors in the use of prepositions that grade 9 students committed using their students' writing outputs with the aim of identifying the errors and suggesting to teachers teaching points to aid students in the correct use of this part of speech. This study benefits students to be more aware of which prepositions have the most misconceptions and prepositions that are mostly misused. This helps them to avoid making the same errors in prepositions to improve their skills in English writing. Moreover, it will help the teacher to determine which point in preposition they should focus more when teaching the concept to the students.

Specifically, the researchers sought to answer the following questions:

1. What are the common errors of grade 9 students in using prepositions?
3. According to the perceptions of the grade 9 students, what could be the cause of the errors and difficulties in using prepositions?
3. What are the implications of the errors for teaching prepositions?

B. Methodology

The researchers used descriptive analysis as the research design of the study. As defined by Trochyn (2006), it is simply describing what the data shows and focuses on the present condition (Calmorin, 2007). Descriptive analysis is composed of raw data transformed in a form that is easy to comprehend and explain rearranged, organized, and manipulated data that produce a descriptive information (Zikmund, 2013). Descriptive analysis provides simple summary about the sample and measures. In the present study, the researchers have identified, described, explained and evaluated the common preposition errors that the grade 9 students usually commit based on Corder's Error Analysis (1971) (as cited in Bao, 2014).

Participants

The respondents of the study were 44 grade 9 students from a section randomly selected in a public high school in Angeles City. Their ages ranged from 14 to 16 years old and most of them are female. The grade 9 students were chosen because the curriculum guide set by DepEd reflects that students should produce more written outputs in their school activities.

The researchers identified one school in Angeles City. The section was identified through lottery sampling. There were four sections in grade 9. The section that participated was also chosen through lottery sampling. All the students were present during the data collection.

Materials and Design

The researchers constructed a 60-item objective test adopted from different tests on prepositions. The test was validated by three professors from Angeles University Foundation. The validators' suggestions on how to improve the test were also considered in revising the test paper. There were changes on the way the instructions for each test were stated. There were also items that were changed to avoid negative ideas. One example among the negative items that were changed was the sentence, "I'm so fed up _____ this drama!" Some distractors were also changed in some items. The test consists of four parts. Test I was adopted from the instrument used in the study of Blom (2006). It was a multiple-choice test covering the different prepositions. Test II was adopted from the exercises on prepositions in Learnlick.com constructed by Julian (n.d). It was also a multiple-choice test wherein the students would choose

from the prepositions IN, ON, and AT, and they would write their answer on the blank in each item. Test III was a paragraph taken from a website named ISLcollective.com. It was a completion -type of test in which the students would fill in the blanks with the correct prepositions. Lastly, Test IV was a perception test and the students would encircle the answer whether they found the test easy or difficult. If they chose difficult, they would proceed to the next item and check options that they think caused the difficulty of the test. The options included in item number 2 of test IV was based on the articles found by the researchers regarding the causes of errors and difficulties in using prepositions.

Data Collection procedure

The researchers collected and reviewed related studies and literature to enrich their knowledge about the topic. They used the library facilities in Angeles University Foundation, Angeles City, and accessed the internet to search for articles relevant to the topic.

The researchers gathered and synthesized all the relevant information they collected. Afterwards, they wrote a letter to the principal of the participating school to request for permission to conduct a research in the identified school. When the permission was granted, the researchers gave and explained the written consent form to the chosen participants of the study. The participants were asked to let their parents sign the consent form. The test was administered on March 13, from 4:30 to 5:20 in the afternoon. Before the test began, the researchers used a script to orient the students regarding the test items and the instructions on how to answer each part of the test. Sixty minutes was allotted in answering the test. The students were instructed to raise their hands upon completing the test. Then the test administrators collected their test papers.

The tests were checked by the researchers using the answer key and the protocol on checking the test papers.

Data Analysis

To analyze the scores of the students, the researchers used the measure of central tendency, particularly the mean. The mean was used to analyze the rate of error of each preposition and type of preposition from each type of test. The passing score of 60% in the test was based on the standard pointing system of the participating school.

The researchers tallied the number of students who answered easy or difficult. The number of checks for each of the four options in question 2 of the perception test was also tallied.

C. Results and Discussion

Common Errors in the Use of Prepositions

Table 1 shows the mean scores of the students for each type of preposition for each type of test. For Test I, the type of preposition that is most erroneous is under the other type of prepositions (agent, instrument, etc.). Second was the preposition of direction. For Test II, most of the students had errors in prepositions of time. For Test III, most errors were under the prepositions of direction, followed by other prepositions, and then prepositions of time. The students committed least mistakes on prepositions of place.

TABLE 1

MEAN SCORE FOR EACH TYPE OF PREPOSITION FOR EACH TYPE OF TEST

Type of Preposition	ME AN Test 1	Erroneous Prepositions	ME AN Test 2	Erroneous Prepositions	ME AN Test 3	Erroneous Prepositions	General Mean
Time	86.36		58.03	at	45.45		63.28
	%		%		%		%
Place	87.88		69.55		42.42		66.62
	%		%		%		%
Direction	70%	down			18.18	toward/to	44.69
					%		%

Others	69.44 %	about, with	21.21 %	with	45.33 %
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The research findings are different from the previous findings of Saravanan's (2014) study. In his study, the respondents had more errors in using the prepositions of place which ranked the lowest in error in the current study. However, the findings in the present study indicate that the students have more errors and difficulties in using the prepositions of direction. Test I and Test II proved that if students were given choices in using prepositions, they were more likely to answer the test correctly. However, for Test III, since no choices were given, most of the students failed to get the correct answer for the test items.

In Test I, item 16 'down' got the highest number of errors. The sentence "*We strolled _____ the path into the woods*" caused confusion among the students in choosing between 'along' and 'down'. There were 77.27% of the students who failed to choose 'down' and chose 'along' instead. Although 'along' is accepted in situations referring to the length of a place to go through, the word 'into' in the sentence shows that the action is done further along, which is the rule of the preposition 'down'.

Item 9 'about' was one of the items that gained the second highest number of errors. Most of the students answered 'around' which is also a preposition used for estimation. However, in the choices, 'about' is more appropriate to use. According to AMA Style Insider (2012), 'around' and 'about' are both used to refer to inexact values in casual conversations. However, 'about' is the best choice when referring to estimated value in nontechnical writing. 'Around' is more informal when used in the context.

In Test II, the preposition "at" of item 15 gained the most number of errors, followed by another "at" and "in" of items 5 and 11, respectively. All these items fall on the prepositions of time. This proves that in using the prepositions in, on, and at, students more likely commit errors when they are used as prepositions of time. The study of Loke et al. (2013) also showed that students had difficulties in using prepositions of time in writing. In their analysis, one possible explanation is that the students do not understand how to use the prepositions of time especially in 'on' and 'at'.

One error that is evident in Test III is the deviation in appropriateness. Corder (1987) states that analysis of errors is examined either only on their correctness or should appropriateness of usage be included. In Test III, although students can use some prepositions correctly, they were not able to use them in alignment with the original context of the paragraph. In the sentence, "*The van headed down the highway at the base of the mountain. After an hour, we had arrived at the foot of the mountains*" the underlined preposition is a sample answer from one of the respondents. If the first sentence is read, the answer is correct. However, as the paragraph unfolds, the whole context of the paragraph will be seen. The more appropriate preposition for this is 'toward' or 'to', since it is mentioned in the second sentence that *after an hour, they had arrived at the foot of the mountains*, with 'foot of the mountains' synonymous to 'the base of the mountain'. This implies that upon answering the test, some students only focused on the correctness of the prepositions to use and did not pay attention to the appropriateness of the preposition in the context.

Another error in Test III is the use of preposition that shows redundancy in the text. In the sentence, "We began our ascent up the summit", the use of 'up' is incorrect since the previous word 'ascent' already shows that the movement is upward. Therefore, the more appropriate preposition here is 'to' or 'toward'.

Causes of Errors and Difficulties Based on the Perception of the Students

Table 2 presents the perceptions of the students about the test. Based on the answers of the students in Test IV, most of the students (38 out of 44) found the test difficult, while only few (6 out of 44) found the test easy.

TABLE 2
PERCEPTIONS OF STUDENTS ON THE TEST USING PREPOSITIONS

	Mean
Easy	13.64%
Difficult	86.36%

Out of the 38 students who found the test difficult, almost all of them agreed that one of the causes of difficulties in answering the test was their confusion with the multiple functions of the different prepositions followed by their unfamiliarity with the different rules of prepositions. One student added that he forgot how to use the prepositions.

TABLE 3
PERCEPTIONS ON THE CAUSES OF DIFFICULTIES OF STUDENTS WHO ANSWERED DIFFICULT ON THE TEST ON PREPOSITIONS

Cause of difficulty	No. of Students who chose the cause of difficulty	Rate
Intervention of the mother-tongue with the comprehension in English	6	15.79%
Confusion with the multiple functions of prepositions	36	94.74%
Unfamiliarity with the different rules in using prepositions	23	60.53%
Others	1	2.63%

Based on the results of the survey, the students found the test on prepositions difficult because of their confusion with the multiple functions of prepositions, followed by their unfamiliarity with the different rules of prepositions. (Though there are similarities between these two causes, there is a difference between them.) Students saying that they are confused with the functions show that they have a general idea on the use of prepositions. However, they could not grasp the specific functions and distinctions of the prepositions. For those who said they were unfamiliar with the different rules, their ideas on prepositions are much less than what they need to know.

Six (15.79%) out of 44 students said that the mother-tongue plays a part in causing difficulties in using English prepositions. This shows that only few of them have difficulty in preposition usage due to their native language.

Pedagogical Implication

The research findings were used to derive the implications of the results for teaching. The results show that most of the students found the test difficult. With this, teachers should develop more student activities in the use of prepositions to improve the students' proficiency in the use of prepositions. Students need to be clarified on how to appropriately use these prepositions not only in individual sentences, but also in constructing paragraphs to provide consistent context. Since the use of prepositions of direction was shown to be the most problematic in use among the grade 9 students, teachers are suggested to give more emphasis on teaching the prepositions of direction.

A large proportion of the causes of difficulties in using prepositions lies on the students' confusion with the multiple functions of prepositions. In this case, teachers must provide direct instructions to the students on how to make distinctions among the different rules of prepositions and which prepositions are used in which situation. This will help the students lessen if not to eliminate the confusion among the multiple functions of prepositions, and eventually improve their writing.

The second cause which is the unfamiliarity with the different rules suggests that these students need a major review on the rules and functions of prepositions.

D. Conclusion

Based on the results of the study, the researchers conclude the following:

1. Students have more errors in the use of prepositions of direction.
2. The cause of errors and difficulties was because of the students' confusion with the multiple functions of prepositions.
3. Teachers need to spend more time in teaching prepositions and on how to use them in different situations and contexts.

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Videotaping Students' Perception in a Graduate Program EFL Class

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Abstract

The use of videotaping with various purposes and types in the teaching – learning process is an interesting modality in the digital technology era. This article reports on a study that explored the practices of students' group presentation in an EFL classroom using videotaping. Participants in this study were five groups of 23 second-year English study program students with ages ranging from 22 to 35 years. Videotaping is employed to activate students' motivation in a variety of activities in a group presentation. The videotaping was analyzed based on researchers' observation and assessment. At the end of the group presentation, scores from other groups were collected using scoring matrix in which the members of group gave scores based on some criteria on students' group presentation. The results of the study therefore reveal that students were active to express ideas and thoughts in the classroom discussion which ultimately enhanced their language performance. Some benefits of this learning model are even though the lecturer is absent in the classroom, the learning process runs well, and this model becomes alternative solution for lecturers who have management position at the university, and the students' scores are also from the other students in other groups

Keywords: videotaping, group presentation, EFL, graduate program

Introduction

There is no doubt that English is one of the most vital subjects at schools and universities in Indonesia (Weda and Sakti, 2018, p. 1). Mastering English provides many benefits. This is because, as an international language (IL), English becomes a mandatory subject at secondary schools and universities in Indonesia. Dealing with the quality of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) in Indonesia, many researchers reported that the quality of teaching English is still low (Weda and Sakti, 2018, p. 1). The low quality of English teaching in Indonesia is influenced by many factors, like lack of classroom and teaching facilities, students' lack of motivation, and other influential factors.

To enhance students' English communicative competence, the Government of the Republic of Indonesia therefore sets some educational policy in English language education. The multi modalities are improved in EFL classroom, technology and information in a variety of settings is also designed to enhance students' involvement in the language classroom. Inclusion of technology in the process of second language acquisition has always been a priority for both teachers and theoreticians (McNulty & Lazarevic, no year, p. 49).

To maximize pedagogical benefits, the appropriate use of multimedia equipment as a medium for the learners' active L2 production should be explored (Fukushima, 2002, p. 349). The video camera and videotaping under the umbrella of technology becomes very vital in improving students' English proficiency. There are some research reports focusing on the utilization of video camera (Huang and Hung, 2013; Santoni, 1973; Wachob, n.d.; Crouse & Noll, 1980; Dufon, 2004; Korb & DeMeritt, 1990; Fukushima, 2002; Orban, 1997; Bledsoe, 2016; Kavoshian, et al., 2016; McNulty & Lazarevic, n.d.; and Buehler, 1982).

Videotaping is also an important facility to toil students' participation in the classroom setting as these researchers did in their study to maximize students' participation in EFL classroom and to improve students' English mastery through videotaping. Huang & Huang (2013) argue that EFL learner' perceptions of the utility of participating in a video-based online discussion forum as a way to improve their English proficiency. Huang & Huang therefore add that EFL learners regarded the v-forum discussion as a highly promising activity that could function to strengthen the

mutual scaffolding and bonding among peers, increase the opportunity for English writing and oral practices, and cultivate public speaking skills. Wachob argues that using videos in and out of the classroom is one way to achieve students' autonomous learning and to activate their critical thinking skills.

Videotaped materials not only provide students with variation in the medium of classroom materials but also give the closest approximation to real life situations (Stempleski and Tomalin, 1990 cited in Dufon, 2004, p. 66). Videotaping in speaking class can enhance students' knowledge of technology, and perhaps broaden their exposure to faculty outside the language department. Students also hear authentic input and actively use structures to produce comprehensible output and through contextualized "real talk" input, students produce "real talk" themselves (Orban, 1997, p. 481).

Videotaping is one of the interesting strategies in EFL classroom. To enhance students' learning outcomes, in learning English, students are employing language strategies that they use to improve their achievement (Dollah & Mustaqimah, 2016, p. 22).

Review of Literature

What is Videotaping and Why do we use it?

Modern language teachers have given considerable thought to the ways in which video technology can be utilized in the classroom (Korb & DeMeritt, 2016, p.112). One of the video technology tools used in the EFL classroom is videotape or videotaping. Videotape is a versatile medium, one which can generate interest for any number of reasons (Crouse & Noll, 1980, p. 392). In videotaping, materials and a wide variety of classroom activities can be incorporated. Videotaped materials in classroom instruction have some advantages over other means of input such as naturalistic interactions and textbooks (Dufon, 2004, p. 66). The classroom presentation using videotaping gave the students opportunities to create good atmosphere in the EFL classroom which in turn enhances students' learning outcomes and motivation. Videotaping the classroom presentation is interesting way to improve students' motivation, which in turn, can improve students' learning outcome and the curriculum target. Weda, et. al. (2018, p. 142) emphasize that incorporating motivation and other influential factors, like multimodalities, specifically videotaping the classroom presentation is vital to improve students' English communicative competence.

Previous Related Research Findings

Buehler (1982, p. 103) argues that the videotape recorder has become a legitimate, effective teaching device in innumerable settings at all levels of instruction. Buehler therefore adds that one area that has been completely overlooked is the incorporation of the videotape recorder into college foreign language conversation and composition courses.

Kavoshian, et al. (2016, p. 1) indicate that the contents of reflective teaching through videotaping in an English Teaching Course in Iran can be summarized into a framework including eight categories of communication patterns in the classroom, the affective climate of the classroom, classroom management, error correction, teacher's physical appearance, teaching techniques and strategies, professional development, and teacher's command of English.

Wachob emphasizes that it is important to note that simply videotaping students for the fun of it or to allow them to see themselves on the little screen (or even the big screen) is limited unless teachers use this as part of a learning experience. Wachob therefore adds that the activities described can be the basis for teachers to provide opportunities for students, and the skills training necessary to take advantage of those opportunities, to help their students towards autonomy.

Videotape lends itself remarkably well to both experimentation and innovation (Crouse & Noll, 1980, p. 392). Crouse & Noll (1980, p. 392) therefore suggest the following examples of what the foreign language teacher might undertake.

1. **Dramatizations.** Have small groups of students write short scripts using their current expected level of language proficiency. Scripts should be memorized, rehearsed, performed, and taped, either in or out of the classroom. Our experience has shown that adaptations of fairy tales, myths, legends, or well-known dramatic scenes are especially

interesting. More advanced students might also dramatize scenes from narrative literature. Cindy Skibell et al. have also reported success with this activity and have suggested that such dramatization projects be used to generate other activities such as in-house academy awards presentations, contests, exchanges with other classes, and PTA programs.'

2. Interviews. Assign students to develop questions, then tape interviews in school or on the street to discover stereotypes, attitudes, and general knowledge people have of a certain foreign country or language area. The tapes, edited or unedited, can be used to stimulate discussions. Although the interview itself will probably have to be in English, subsequent discussions may be in the target language. Students will often be shocked to discover real ignorance or total rejection of whatever is 'foreign.' For example, in one interview conducted on our campus, the only association one woman could make with Paris was the Leaning Tower of Pisa. And one man reported he just didn't enjoy his travels in France "because everyone refused to speak English." Such statements can make students very cognizant of the importance of and the need for foreign languages in our educational system.

3. Everyday Situations. Without microphones, videotape short (2-3 minute) vignettes containing objects and actions familiar to the students. Typical situations we have used are shopping in a grocery, visiting a bank, driving a car, arriving at the airport, etc. In the classroom, as the tape is played back the students take turns narrating as fluently and as completely as possible. A "frozen" frame can be used for a question and answer exercise. This activity, which can be used to stimulate quick thinking in the target language and to build a practical vocabulary, can be introduced at any level. The tape itself can be shared by teachers of different languages. When taping in a public area, it is a good idea to carry an identification sign. As a side benefit, the unusual

4. Off-the-Air Dubbing. Tape a TV program such as a soap opera or a slow paced drama (most situation comedies move too quickly for this project).⁶ Rerecord the sound track on an audio cassette recorder and have the students each take a short portion to transcribe and then to translate into the target language. Shortening of phrases and substitution of words and idioms should be encouraged. With practice, students using the foreign language can rerecord their own voices onto the videotape as they watch the image on the monitor. This is easily done by using the "audio dub" device on all VTR's. When a mistake is made, only a small segment needs to be erased in order to correct and to rerecord. Sound effects are not necessary, although students will probably insist they are, and lip synchronization should not even be attempted. This whole process is obviously a long-term project to be undertaken by only a few students working together. With time and patience, the end result turns out surprisingly well.

5. Creative Dubbing. As a variation of Number 4, record a TV program without the sound track and let various groups create their own in the target language. This can take the form of a dialogue, or it can become a verbalization of the thoughts of each character, an exercise John S. Irving has used successfully with films and which could just as easily be set up with videotape.' For this project, the less specific the video action the better, because students are then forced to use their imagination. A soap opera is ideal.

6. Self-Analysis. Self-analysis using videotape is a standard part of many teacher-training programs and is probably the most studied aspect of VTR usage in language education. All language teachers, though, can profitably use videotape as a feedback device for showing students their own work. Georges Santoni has discussed the values of this technique in his work with advanced conversation classes.' Ronald E. Smith describes the benefits derived from a videotape analysis, and he has devised some practical guidelines for using the critique session.'

7. Field Trips. Consider the possibility of taking a portable VTR into a nearby ethnic community; or take it on an interim or a summer trip to areas where the target language will be spoken. Tapes can be prepared showing people in dialogue, being interviewed, or narrating video material which has been shot separately.

These are only a few suggestions from Crouse & Noll (1980), there are certainly many more suggestions on videotaping activities. We and other researchers can provide some videotaping activities in the classroom and outside the classroom setting.

Procedure for Videotaping

The students in this study conducted videotaping activities in Curriculum and Material Development (CDM) subject at TEFL Study Program Graduate Program State University of Makassar Indonesia. The students conducted videotaping activities through group presentation.



Picture 1. Group Presentation

The group presentation began with an in-class presentation and another member of other groups videotape the classroom presentation. During the first week of the semester, the lecturer explained the objective of the subject (Curriculum and Material Development/CMD) to students, talked about the lesson plan and lecture contract, and divided students into six groups for presentation. The second week of the semester, the lecturer asked students to present their group task in front of the class. The activities in the third to the seventh week of the semester are also group presentation. In group presentation, all groups gave evaluation to group presentation and the score will be accumulated with the score from the lecturer in the end of the semester. The last week of the semester was the reflection and evaluation from the lecturer to all group presentations.

Preparation for Videotaping

The steps in preparation and performance for videotaping are as follows:

- 1) Students prepare script in a certain contextual and structural parameters determined by the discussed topics.
- 2) Students practice script in class with the help of the lecturer.
- 3) Other students videotape the students' performance or classroom presentation.
- 4) Lecturer and students evaluate the students' classroom presentation through videotaping.
- 5) Lecturer gives feedback to students' classroom presentation.

After Videotaping

After classroom or group presentation, the group asked the person who videotaped the presentation. The group presentation recording is therefore given to the lecturer for further feedback and evaluation. The score of the group presentation is the accumulation of the score given by all groups and the evaluation by the lecturer.

The evaluation from the lecturer is objective and the evaluation is based upon the materials, the classroom management, team work, the ability to explain the materials, and so on.

Method

Participants

A total of 23 participants from English education study program Graduate Program Universitas Negeri Makassar, 7 male and 16 female, participated in this study. They were in the third Semester and attended Curriculum and Material Development (CMD) course in 2018/2019 academic year. The ages of students ranging from 22 to 35 years.

Procedure of Data Collection

In order to provide complete data, observational techniques using videotaping and self-observations employed by the researchers. To begin with, the researchers give the topics to be presented in the classroom presentation. The researchers therefore set the dates of the videotaping.

The study period encompassed duration of 8 weeks. In the first week of the lecture, the researchers explained the lecture scope including the lesson plan, the lecture mechanism, evaluation mechanism, classroom activities, group discussion/presentation, and explained in detail videotaping activity as a main activity in the classroom.

In the second to seventh week, each group presents its presentation in front of the classroom and other students other than members of the group videotaped the activities. This activity continued to the next meeting by other group presentations.

Data Analysis

The data obtained from the study were analyzed using a mixed method approach, descriptive statistics and qualitative analysis.

Findings and Discussion

Activities

The activities that the authors have successfully employed in the EFL classroom at graduate program Universitas Negeri Makassar (UNM) using videotaping are as follows. The broad themes arose from the data analysis that observed from the students' classroom presentation through videotaping.

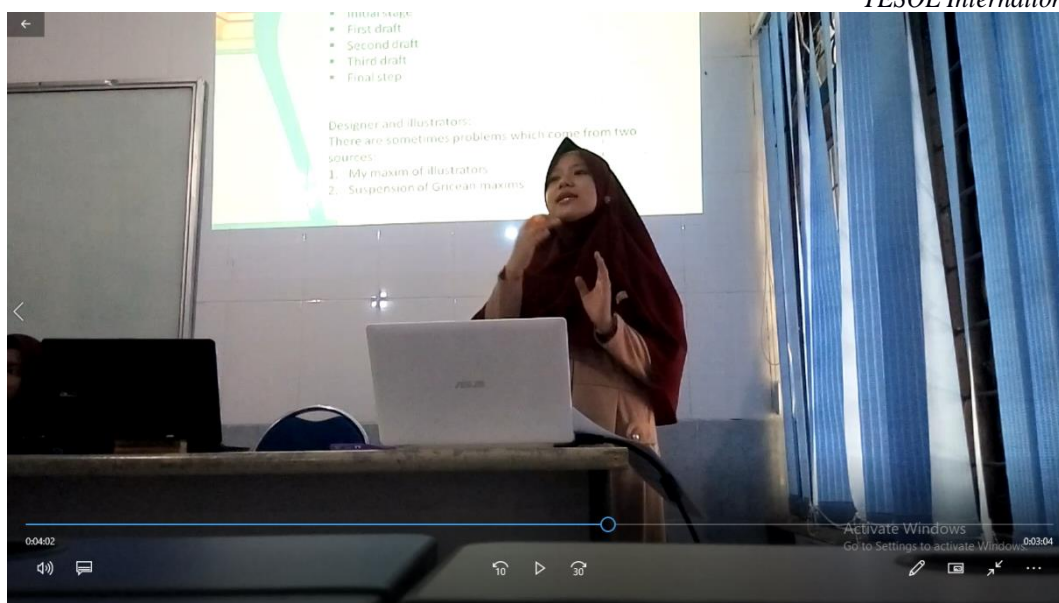
1. Videotaping is to improve students' motivation to participate actively in the classroom presentation.
2. Videotaping is to promote students' self-confidence to share ideas and thoughts in the classroom presentation.
3. Videotaping is to promote students' critical comments on other comments.
4. Videotaping is to enhance students' classroom management.
5. Videotaping is to promote students' social awareness in the classroom setting.
6. Videotaping is to promote students' team work.
7. Videotaping is to promote students' knowledge sharing.

As revealed in the video that the students were motivated to participate actively in the group presentation. One of the successfulness determinants in learning a second language (L2) or a foreign language (FL) is motivation (Weda, et al., 2018: 143). This motivation can be seen in the video that all students were motivated to express their ideas and thoughts. Detail information of the students' motivation is shown in the following picture.



Picture 2. The Group Members Present Materials Enthusiastically

The students can improve their self-confidence in classroom presentation using videotaping. This is because, the students are enthusiastic to participate in the classroom without anxiety. This can be seen in the following picture.



Picture 3. The Group Member Explains the Materials with Good Self-Confidence

The critical comment is one of the vital participations of the students in classroom presentation using videotaping. In the group presentation in EFL classroom, the students can express their ideas and thoughts to offer critical comments on the discussed topic. This vital participation is illustrated in detail in the following picture.



Picture 4. The Group Members Elaborate Materials Critically

In the group presentation, the students can manage the class well. Classroom management is one of the crucial determinants in the learning outcomes in the EFL classroom. The language instructors who can manage the classroom well and professionally will contribute to the learning target. Kagan in Sakui (2007, p. 41) argues that classroom management has been an important area of discussion and research in general education for quite some time. Sakui therefore claims that, to achieve effective instruction, teachers need to possess two types of knowledge: knowledge of subject matter and knowledge of classroom management. The classroom management practices can be seen in picture 5 in which the students run their roles based on the appointed topics as managed by the group members within the group presentation .



Picture 5. The Group Members Do Presentation in Good Classroom Management

Social awareness in the classroom presentation occurs during the presentation in which the students explain the materials one by one. They therefore give and respond the questions equally, and no discrimination practices in the classroom setting. Students' social awareness becomes social capital to promote tolerance and social harmony in the society.



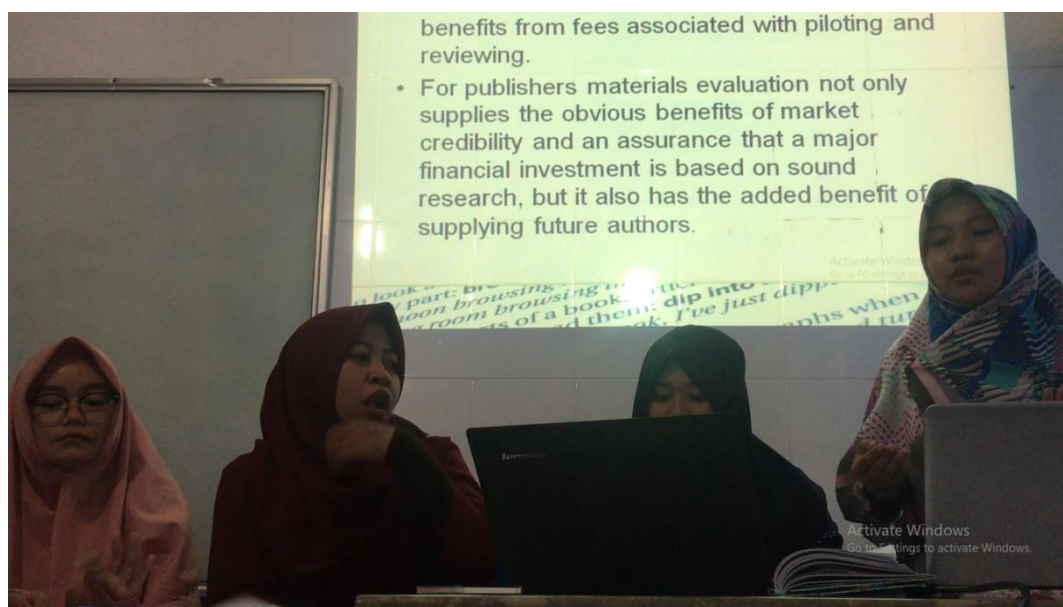
Picture 6. The Group Members Do Presentation in Good Social Awareness

Team work is one of crucial ways in the learning process in the classroom. In the classroom presentation, team work is important because the successful presentation is determined by a good team work in which all group members give critical comments, either in the presentation section or in the question and answer section. In good team work, there is no superior person who presents his ideas all the time and other group members become marginal.



Picture 7. The Group Members Do Presentation in Good Team Work

Knowledge sharing is one of the practices of knowledge management in the EFL classroom. Through knowledge sharing, the students can acquire new knowledge (knowledge acquisition) and they can create new knowledge (knowledge creation).



Picture 8. The Group Members Share Knowledge to Classroom Participants

Some attributes occur in the videotaping classroom presentation. Those attributes are students' motivation, self-confidence, critical comments, classroom management, social awareness, team work, and knowledge management: knowledge sharing, knowledge acquisition, knowledge creation, and knowledge documentation. These attributes become vital in enhancing students' involvement and participation in the classroom and in turn, they can enhance students' learning outcomes.

Conclusions

With group presentation in EFL classroom, the students were enthusiastic to participate in the classroom presentation.

The high level of enthusiasm of the students was demonstrated in students' group presentation in which they perform excellently. This videotaping practice in the EFL classroom gave the students opportunities to integrate language components and language skills in the classroom. The videotaping group presentation successfully employed multimodalities and classroom management to maximize pedagogical implications of the EFL learning.

Pedagogical Implications

The pedagogical implication of the study is that the videotaping of students' group presentation becomes vital in the language learning classroom. The video recording of the group presentation can be used as an authentic material in the EFL classroom to enhance students' communicative competence in English. The videotaping classroom presentation as one of the trend multimodality in the Industrial Revolution 4.0 also becomes vital in the EFL classroom and the teachers at school and the lecturers at higher education are recommended to conduct videotaping in their language classroom. Videotaping classroom presentation also benefits for school or university management. This is because, even though the instructor is absent in the classroom, the classroom can run well.

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Language Shift from English to Mother Tongue: Exploring Language Attitude and Willingness to Teach among Pre-service Teachers

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Abstract

Language-in-education policy becomes a recent tendentious concern in the context of the Philippines as it has recently adopted the Mother Tongue-based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE). Moreover, Baker (1992) claimed that language attitude is a main and vital component of policy and planning. Therefore, this research primarily purposes to determine the language attitude of the respondents and their willingness to teach in the Mother Tongue (MT) as substitute of English as medium of instruction (MoI) in the early stages of education. The study utilized an adapted questionnaire and surveyed 120 would-be mother tongue teachers. The results show that the respondents exhibit an attitude described as “slightly positive”. Furthermore, the respondents were determined to be willing to teach in the MT. Interestingly, there is significant relationship found between the language attitude and willingness to teach in the MT among the respondents. However, contrary to existing trend relative to gender difference on language attitude, the data discounts gender as a factor influencing language attitude and willingness to teach in the MT.

Keywords: Language Attitude, Mother Tongue, Medium of Instruction, Pre-service Teachers, Willingness to teach

1. Introduction

Language attitude research is a sociolinguistic inquiry that can provide essential information such as prediction of linguistic scenes in areas where cultural contacts and possible competition exists (Wang & Ladegaard, 2008), understanding about language and related issues such as maintenance or shift (Letsholo, 2009). Furthermore, researches focused on determining language attitudes of either the minority or the majority speech communities are necessarily important especially in determining language status and institutionalizing language policies (Callan & Gallois, 1987). The researchers further maintained that knowledge of language attitudes in context of multicultural communities proved to be central in issues relative to appropriate language policies. In addition, Jones (2012) claimed that attitudes toward languages and their use in the teaching learning process as medium of instruction have an influence in policy implementation.

The important role of language is beyond debate. It is a reasonable conclusion to say that success of any educational process relies much on the language to be used because it is instrumental in the transmission of knowledge. The language of instruction plays a crucial role in the learners’ educational development, and is essential in the realization of communication and understanding between and among teachers and students (Ejeh, 2004).

Language-in-education policy becomes a recent tendentious concern in the context of the Philippines as it has recently

adopted the Mother Tongue based Multilingual Education or the MTB-MLE. This is an educational policy that uses the first language or the mother tongue of the child in early education. Through such practice, it is expected that learners will have a sound foundation in their first language which makes learning a second or third language easy, allowing them to use the languages as resources to become lifelong learners (MacKenzie, 2009). Numerous researches report negative observations of early education in classrooms where instructions are not in the mother tongue of the learners and positive accounts of early year instructions in the first language of the learners. Jhingran (2005, cited in MacKenzie, 2009) reported that , for the case of grade 1 students taught not in their first language, they are simply doing rote learning. The students were described to find difficulty even in recognizing the letters of the alphabet. Further, in general, the children in the study were noted to struggle in framing sentences that are grammatical and have evidently limited vocabulary in L2 which eventually corroborates with the contention of Cummins (2000) arguing that proficiency in L2 is founded on the proficiency of L1. Furthermore, students taught in a language they do not understand find no interest and reason being in school (MacKenzie, 2009).

As language means culture, multicultural settings means multilingual contexts. The richness of cultural and linguistic characteristic of a multicultural societies posts challenges in the development of language in education policies (MacKenzie, 2009). The Philippines, being a multicultural society, is faced with the concern of determining what language to use in the classroom where learners come from diverse cultural orientations and backgrounds. The initial solution is the development and implementation of the Lingua Franca Model of the MTB-MLE program. In this model, the dominant lingua franca of the particular place (e.g. Zamboanga City – Chabacano) is used as medium of instruction and taught as a subject for the early years. In-service teachers and pre-service teachers then may be teaching inside classrooms where the language to be used may be both not known to learners and themselves. Shohamy (2006) claimed that stakeholders like teachers and student teachers are under considered in the implementation of the MTB-MLE policy. As student teachers soon become full-fledged teachers, they form part of the first line of implementers essential to the success of the policy. However, there is a dearth of research relative to the investigation of the language attitudes of student teachers towards the mother tongue contextualized in the Lingua Franca Model. Thus, this paper is focused on the situation of student teachers who are teaching MT in the said model. It explored their language attitude toward the mother tongue and their willingness to teach in mother tongue and willingness to teach the mother tongue as a subject after graduating from college.

1.2. Review of Related Literature

1.2.1. MTB-MLE models in the Philippines

The use of the child's first language in school has been encouraged by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization since the year 1953 (UNESCO, 1953); however, the norm that favors monolingualism in education remained for the Philippines until in 2013 when the Enhance Basic Education Act was signed into a law by the then President Benigno Aquino III. The law is more commonly known as the K-12 program.

Initially, 12 local major languages were used in MTBMLE, and these are Bikol, Cebuano, Chabacano, Hiligaynon, Iloko, Kapampangan, Maguindanao, Marananao, Pangasinense, Waray, Tagalog and Tausug. However, in 2013, 7 new languages were added and these are the Ybanag, Ivatan, Sambal, Aklanon, Kinaray-a, Yakan and Surigaonon (DepEd, 2013). In total, there are 20 languages used in the two models of the MTB-MLE – as a learning area or subject and as a medium of instruction (MoI).

From grades 1 to 3, learners are to take mother tongue as a subject in which the emphasis is on reading and speaking. The mother tongue as medium of instruction shall be used in all learning areas with exceptions of the Filipino and English subjects which are introduced in the third grade (DepEd, 2013).

Multilingualism is seen as source of problems, but per se is not because it has always been advantageous for a person to speak and/or write in more than one language (Ngunga, 2011). However, inside the classrooms , the question “What language should be used as a medium of instruction?” remains as a legitimate concern. The choice of a language to become the medium for the teaching and learning process is not a simple concern to address. The diverse linguistic characteristics of the Philippines makes the implementation of the mother tongue based education in the country to

be described as far from smooth and easy. The obvious difficulty is the selection in terms of which language should be used and taught in the classroom where the learners are coming from varied linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

The Department of Education (DepEd) then provided two models of the MTB-MLE (Metila, Pradilla, & Williams, 2016). The models are the Multiple Monolingual Model and the Lingua Franca Model. In the former, students then are clustered according to their spoken mother tongue. In this model, the mother tongue as a subject and the mother tongue used as medium of instruction is the L1 or first language of the learners; however, in the second model which is the Lingua Franca Model, the learners are taught in a nominated language based on a wide use which means of having learners, in the early years, learn and speak a language which is not their own (Metila et. al., 2016).

There are then instances when a teacher or a pre-service teacher will use a medium of instruction that which the child will yet to learn in the Lingua Franca model. In addition, MT as a subject will be an L2 and not L1 to some who do not speak the nominated dominant local language. Therefore, the perceived benefits of teaching students in their first language like the fostering of understanding about the topics presented and the discussions taking place inside the classroom (Ejeh, 2004), development of proficiency in the L2 which is in most cases the English language (MacKenzie, 2009; Cummins, 2000), non-discriminating environment (Mohanty, 2006), and acknowledgement of the learner's linguistic right (Kosonen, 2005) are not expected to be present in the model in question. Therefore, it would seem that the only difference that has taken place in the account of this model, for those whose L1 is not the nominated MT, is that English is simply replaced with another language not familiar to the child in the early years – this time a local language.

1.2.2. On Language Attitude

Through the different literature, it can be inferred that the construct of language attitude has become the central topic in many investigations and discussions. The topic is old but remains current because of the changing time and environment which makes language attitude as a fluid topic (Lai, 2005). González-Riaño, Hevia-Artime, and Fernández-Costales (2013) maintained that language attitude as a subject is seen to have not lose topicality. This is even believed to be reinforced in the case of the Philippines which, as a country, has recently shifted to the use of mother tongue in early education. Moreover, Ingram (1989, in Jones, 2012) maintained that language attitude is part and parcel of the language-in-education planning. Thus, Baker (1992) claimed that language attitude is a main and vital component of policy and planning.

Language attitude studies were explored with different respondents. In the study of González-Riaño et. al. (2013), 217 students aged 11-12 were taken as respondents of the study. The study aimed to provide insight about the language attitude and sociolinguistic awareness of the respondents noted to be graduating from their primary education. Lai (2005) studied the secondary school students who are considered to be the first post-colonial generation as informants of her investigation. Wang and Ladegaard (2008) conducted a language attitude investigation among 174 secondary school students aged 13-16. The investigation was concerned with the reported perception of the respondents and their reported use of the two varieties: The Putonghua and the Cantonese.

Researches on language attitudes have been focused on learners and only a few were directed towards teachers and student teachers (Gürsoy, 2013). In Shafer and Shafer (1975), a total of 64 teachers, representing a cross-section of the geographic areas, were interviewed to identify their language attitude towards their learners' language. Through qualitative approach, they reported that a large majority of the teachers have a negative perception towards the language of children from the working class. Khejeri (2014) investigated teachers' attitude towards the use of MT as LoI in Hamis District of Kenya. The findings show that the mother tongue was less valued as compared to English. The lukewarm reception of teachers found in the study towards the MT became the basis for the promotion of the mother tongue through publication of instructional materials to endorse the mother tongue both as a medium of instruction and as a subject. The teachers, however, in the study of Jones (2012) were not merely implementer of the MT as a language policy (e.g. Khejeri, 2014; Shafer & Shafer, 1975) but were involved in a variety of language planning activities. She reported that these teachers exhibit a positive attitude towards the policy.

In the study of Ejie (2004) which investigated the language attitudes of student teachers with the use of a survey questionnaire, the findings reveal that the respondents are exhibiting negative attitude towards teaching in mother tongue. Such attitude towards the use of indigenous languages in primary education in Nigeria, the context of the study, is primarily linked, as reported, to misconceptions, some of which are: mother tongue use in education adversely affect learning English; mother tongue in primary years of schooling lays a weak educational foundation; and, mother tongue use poses problem in the translation of some concepts.

It is widely accepted that a positive language attitude is a very essential component determining success in language learning (Berowa, Devanadera, & David, 2018).. However, attitude also can serve either as an enabling or disabling factor not only in learning a language but also in teaching as in the case of language educators. Therefore, student teachers' language attitudes, as they would eventually become classroom teachers, should become a research interest since teachers' language attitude toward indigenous and dominant language shape that of their students as well (Gürsoy, 2013).

1.2.3 On Language Attitude and Gender

Bilaniuk (2003) discussed, in context of the study conducted in Ukraine, that gender as a construct is very important and influential in affecting language ideology. She further claimed that gender goes beyond from being simple and clear, and that it intertwines with other facets of identities such as ethnicity, profession and class.

Researchers have reported gender difference in language interest (Head, 1999 in Van De Gaer, Pustjens, Van Damme & De Munter, 2007) and attitude towards languages (Lamb, 1997 cited in Van De Gaer, et. al., 2007). Therefore, gender is an important issue in discussing and investigating language attitudes either in bilingual or multilingual contexts (Zhang, 2011).

Zhang (2011) points a main difference between men and women in terms of language attitudes. He reported preference of women towards so-called "high" languages over men. This means that women are inclined to like languages with prestige. In Gal (1978), one of the findings of the study is that women are distancing themselves from Hungarian and are moving towards German which is deemed as the high language. Thus, it can be inferred that women, in the issue of language-in-education, are most likely to exhibit negative attitude towards local languages with little or no economic importance as compared to language with great economic value such as English. This claim is supported by Milroy and Milroy (1998) when they reported that while men are giving preferentiality to the vernacular forms, women on the other hand prefer the prestige form. A similar conclusion was provided by Bilaniuk (2003) when women were reported to be more positive towards English as compared to men.

Moreover, Wang and Ladegaard (2008) reported the inclination of women towards the Putonghua which is the prestige standard variety. In Gürsoy (2013), male and female teacher trainees were found to vary significantly in their language attitudes. Females were found to be more positive towards English as compared to their male counterpart which further corroborate with other studies that supports the trend on gender and language attitudes.

Accounting the trends established by the enumerated researches, gender is an essential construct to factor in the study of language attitude. This is especially important for this study as a shift from a perceived prestigious language (English) to a indigenous one serves as backdrop of this investigation.

1.3. Research Questions

This current study aimed to determine the language attitude of the student teachers situated in a multicultural society where the lingua franca model of the MTB-MLE is implemented. Further, the willingness to teach the nominated mother tongue as a subject, and the willingness to use the nominated mother tongue as medium of instruction (MoI) are also explored in relation with the student teachers' language attitude. Finally, the influence of gender is investigated with regards to the language attitude towards the mother tongue, willingness to teach in mother tongue and willingness to teach the mother tongue as a subject. Hence, This investigation is led by the following questions:

1. What is the language attitude of the respondents towards the mother tongue?

2. Are the respondents willing to teach in the mother tongue and the mother tongue as a subject?
3. Is there a significant difference in the language attitude of the respondents towards the mother tongue when data are grouped according to gender?
4. Is there a significant difference in the willingness to teach in the mother tongue of the respondents and willingness to teach the mother tongue as a subject when data are grouped according to gender?
5. Is there a significant relationship between the language attitude and the willingness to teach in mother tongue, and willingness to teach the mother tongue of the respondents?

2. Methodology

2.2. Research Design

The current study used the descriptive-quantitative-correlational design employing the use of a survey questionnaire. The use of survey questionnaire is anchored on the claim of Dillman, Smith, and Christian (2009) discussing that an efficient way of data collection is through the use of survey questionnaires, especially if the study includes gathering of data from a large sample size. The design fits with the intention of the study of quantifying data and generalizing results which is the main reason for choice of the quantitative design.

2.3 The Participants and setting of the study

As the study is directed towards a determined population, a purposive sampling technique was used in identifying individuals to take part of the study based on the given parameters: (1) must be a student teacher by the time the study was conducted, (2) must have at least two (2) months of classroom experience teaching in mother tongue, and (3) must have at least two (2) months of classroom experience of teaching the mother tongue as a subject. A total of 120 respondents form part of the sample of this study. There are equal numbers of males (60) and females (60) taken as respondents of the study. The respondents' ages range from 19 – 39, while their mean age is 20.07 (SD = 2.495).

2.4 The research instrument

Callan and Gallois (1987) discussed that language attitude can be measured through two means. One is through the use of indirect methods, such as the matched guise, which accounts language attitude by eliciting evaluative measures. Another is through the so called direct method, examples of which include use of survey and interview. As for this study, the language attitudes of the respondents were measured using the direct method through the use of survey questionnaire.

The research instrument is in part influenced by Ejie (2004) and Sicam and Lucas (2016). Fourteen (14) questions were taken from the instrument used by Ejie (2004) in the investigation exploring the language attitudes of students teachers towards mother tongue. However, the original questionnaire was answerable by yes and no only. In this study, a scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 4 (Strongly Agree) was used. Five (5) items of the research tool were inspired by the instrument used by Sicam and Lucas (2016). It consists of two parts. The first part solicits demographic information limited to gender and ethnicity while the second part contains, in all, twenty-two items.

Items 1 -20 sought opinions of the respondents on the issues relating to use of mother tongue as MOI and the teaching of it as a subject. The first twenty items were rated on a four-point scale using the responses with given abbreviations: Strongly Disagree (SD), Disagree (D), Agree (A) and Strongly Agree (SA). Item 21 sought the respondents' willingness to teach the mother tongue as a subject, and item 22 sought the respondents willingness to teach the mother tongue as MOI. The two items are answerable with yes or no.

Since modifications were made in the scale and items of the principal questionnaire of Ejie (2004), the questionnaire used in the study was subjected to reliability testing. It was pilot tested to 50 students teachers who do not form part of the sampling frame. The cronbach's alpha reliability test yields a result of 0.81 reliability which is considered high. Thus, all items were included in the final administration of the instrument.

2.5 Procedure

Correspondence was sent to seek permission for the administration of the instrument to the identified respondents. Upon approval of request, a meeting was set with the student teaching supervisor for the discussion of details of the study and the administration of the research tool. The identified student teachers were first gathered in a convening hall. The participants were then informed that the nature of participation is voluntary and that non participation will in no way affect their ratings, and that they must sign a consent letter before answering the test.

On an average, the respondents answered the tool in 10 minutes. Participants submitted the questionnaire after answering the same. They hand over the questionnaire to the researcher. The researcher on the other hand immediately checked for any missed numbers, double entry and others that may disqualify their response in the inclusion for analysis. The tabulation and collection of data was first done by the researcher using Microsoft Excel as per advised by the statistician, and the transferred to SPSS for the analysis.

2.6 Method of Analysis

Analyses of data were done using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). However, the data were first encoded in an electronic spreadsheet for ease of task. The code for gender is as follows: 1 for male and 2 for female; for the ethnicity, the coding is as follows: 1- *Bisaya*, 2- *Chavacano*, 3- *Ilonggo*, and 4- *Tausug*.

For the language attitudes, there are 16 positive statements (1, 2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,14,16,18,and 20) and four (4) negative statements (13, 15, 17 and 19). Responses on positive statements are coded as 1 for SD, 2 for D, 3 for A and 4 for SA; while a reverse coding was used for negative statements. In determining the language attitudes of the respondents, mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) will be used with the following scale:

Table 1.0

Language Attitude Scale

Scale	Description
3.25 – 4.0	Positive Language Attitude
2.50 – 3.24	Slightly Positive Language Attitude
1.75 – 2.49	Slightly Negative Language Attitude
1.0 – 1.74	Negative Language Attitude

For the willingness to teach in mother tongue and to teach the mother tongue as a subject, responses for items 21 and 22 will be coded as follows: 1 for yes and 2 for no. In determining the willingness of the respondents to teach in the mother tongue and to teach the mother tongue as a subject, mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) will be used, and the data will be given interpretation through the use of the following scale: 1.0 to 1.49 – Willing and 1.50 to 2.0 Not Willing.

To determine the significant difference in the language attitude of the respondents across gender and ethnicity, and the significant difference in the willingness to teach in the mother tongue and willingness to teach the mother tongue as a subject across gender the data was treated with the statistical tool called one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

Finally, to determine the significant relationship between the language attitude of the respondents and their willingness to teach in mother tongue and willingness to teach the mother tongue as subject, Pearson Product Moment Coefficient was used.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Language Attitudes towards mother tongue

Table 2 presents the language attitudes of the respondents towards mother tongue. The likert scale weighted mean score was computed. On the average, the respondents show slightly positive attitude towards the mother tongue.

Table 2.

Language Attitudes toward mother tongue

Variable	Mean	SD	Descriptor
Language Attitudes	2.50	3.66	Somehow Positive

Note: Scale: 1.0-1.74 = negative attitude; 1.75-2.49 = slightly negative attitude; 2.50-3.24 slightly positive attitude; 3.25 – 4.0 = positive attitude.

Table 3.

Statements rated high by the respondents

Number	Statement	Mean	SD
4	Teaching in mother tongue will enable teachers to express themselves clearly in class.	2.90	.803
1	A policy on the use of only mother tongue in Philippine primary schools is good in principle	2.82	.622
5	Teaching in mother tongue enables pupils to understand easily.	2.79	.709
18	The teaching of the mother tongue will help the pupils get around and converse with classmates	2.79	.716
16	The use of mother tongue in class discussion makes students participate actively	2.76	.594

The data (Mean [M] = 2.50, Standard Deviation [SD] = 3.66) is interpreted as slightly positive. This means that the respondents of this study are showing a little positivity towards the mother tongue. The result counters the findings of Ejieh (2004) which reported a negative attitude of students teachers toward the mother tongue. For the said study, two main reasons were accounted for the findings. One is the expectation of parents that their children learn English because it gives better chances for employment which pressures the respondents, and the sets of training given to the student teachers which was in English. Similar attitude was reported in the study of Khejeri (2014) which involved teachers. Greater importance was accorded to English over the mother tongue. Moreover, the reception towards the mother tongue was described to be lukewarm. However, the result of this current study suggests that the respondents are finding some positive points and reasons in the implementation of the mother tongue. One of which is the perceived better communication teachers can do when using the mother tongue as maintained by Ejieh (2004) who claimed that the use of mother tongue by the teachers and students lead to better communication and understanding. Corroborating to this is item 4 “*Teaching in mother tongue will enable teachers to express themselves clearly in class.*” having rated as the highest. Conversely, it must be noted that the attitude of the respondents, although not negative, is only somehow positive suggesting that they are yet to be completely convinced of the benefits and need of the first language policy. This perhaps also means that there remain certain apprehensions towards the teaching of and use of mother tongue in education.

Interestingly, among the five statements rated high by the respondents of the study, four (4) of which relate to classroom communication (see table 4). Statements 4 “*Teaching in mother tongue will enable teachers to express themselves clearly in class.*” (M=2.9, SD=.83), 5 “*Teaching in mother tongue enables pupils to understand easily.*” (M=2.79, SD=.709), 18 “*The teaching of the mother tongue will help the pupils get around and converse with classmates.*” (M=2.79, SD=.716), and 16 “*The use of mother tongue in class discussion makes students participate actively.*” (M=2.76, SD=.594) are all noticeably relating to communication between students and teachers and among students themselves. This probably means that for the respondents of the study the non-use of the mother tongue limits

the teachers and students in communicating their ideas. The language which is perceived to have not been fully mastered like English as example may serve as barrier in the total understanding between students and teachers. Further, since the student teachers may have accounted their own capability and reflected their own proficiency in the use of English in answering the questionnaire, they have favoured the teaching in the mother tongue as plausible coping option.

Additionally, the second highest rated item is number 1 “A policy on the use of only mother tongue in Philippine primary schools is good in principle” ($M=2.82$, $SD=.622$). This means that in general the respondents perceived the mother tongue use in education as a policy to be realized. The possible reason to this is that the use of mother tongue will usher the understanding in so far as the discussion of the class is concerned and that students would not parrot without understanding words, phrases, or sentences which is very much evident in primary education that do not use the mother tongue (Jhingran, 2005).

3.2. Willingness of the respondents to teach in the MT and to teach MT as a subject

Table 4 presents the willingness of the respondents to teach the mother tongue as MOI and as a subject. The ratings of the two variables were averaged and the standard deviation was also noted. It was revealed that the respondents are willing to teach in the mother tongue and to teach the mother tongue as a subject.

Table 4.

Willingness of the respondents to teach the mother as MOI and as a Subject

Variables	Mean	SD	Descriptor
Teach in mother tongue (MOI)	1.40	.416	Willing
Teach the mother tongue (as Subject)	1.19	.509	Willing

Note: 1.0-1.49 = Willing; 1.50 – 2.0 = Not Willing

The data shows that the respondents are both willing to teach in mother tongue ($M=1.40$, $SD=.416$) and the mother tongue as subject ($M=1.19$, $SD=.509$). This result is contrary to the result of the study of Ejieh (2004) which reported that 84.21% or 80 out of the 95 student-teacher respondents reported to be not willing to teach in mother tongue. The unwillingness is a manifestation of a negative attitude towards the mother tongue. The student teachers in the mentioned study have their attitude towards mother tongue influenced by their perceived value of the indigenous language compared to that of English which is associated with economic gains. It is not only the student teachers who are found to be hesitant in teaching in the mother tongue and teaching the mother tongue as a subject. Khejeri (2014) found out that the teacher respondents of conducted investigation are reluctant in the implementation of the mother tongue policy, and there is consistency with reason for the exhibited attitude towards the mother tongue – the perceived lesser value it has in comparison to English.

On the other hand, the respondents of the current study are willing to both use the mother tongue as medium of instruction and to teach the mother tongue as a subject. The respondents may have given greater consideration to the benefits of using the mother and teaching the mother tongue in the class such as the protection of linguistic right (Kosonen, 2005), and better communication and understanding inside the classroom (Ejieh, 2004). A more plausible reason is that the respondents view the teaching in mother tongue and of the mother tongue as subject in primary years not as a move away from the development of proficiency in English, but a way towards attaining it (Cummins, 2000).

3.3 Significant difference the language attitudes of the respondents across the variables gender

Table 5 presents the significant difference matrix of the respondents' language attitudes when data are grouped according to gender and ethnicity. One-way ANOVA was used to determine the significant difference in the language attitudes of the respondents with respect to their gender.

Table 5.

Difference matrix of the language attitudes of the respondents according to gender

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	<i>p</i> -value	Interpretation
Language Attitudes	Gender	0.258	Not Significant

Note: *significant at $\alpha=0.05$

The data (p -value = 0.258) is not significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. This means that the variable gender is not a factor influencing the language attitudes of the respondents in this study. This finding contradicts with the results of the studies reporting gender difference in the language attitudes (e.g. Gal, 1978; Head, 1999; Lamb, 1997; Zhang, 2011). The given researches established the trend that women are more inclined to favor the “high” or more prestigious languages over the local languages while the opposite is true for the males. This finding is related to the results in table 4 which explains the positivity of both sexes towards the mother tongue because the respondents find the use of mother tongue a means realizing better expression of ideas of the students and themselves, as teachers, inside the class. Furthermore, the respondents in the study are positive toward the mother tongue. However, although there was no significant difference found, the males ($M=2.54$) are found to be more positive towards the mother tongue over the females ($M=2.46$). This in a way confirms the findings of Milroy and Milroy (1998) that men gives preferentiality towards lingua franca more than women.

3.4 Significant differenc in the willingness to teach in the mother tongue and to teach the mother tongue as a subject when data are grouped according to gender

Table 6 provides the difference in the willingness to teach in the mother and the willingness to teach the mother tongue as subject across the variable gender. One-way ANOVA was the statistical treatment used to determine the difference.

Table 6.

Difference: Willingness to teach in the MT and willingness to teach the MT as subject across gender

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables	<i>p</i> -value	Interpretation
Willingness to teach in the MT	Gender	0.827	Not Significant
Willingness to teach the MT as subject		0.475	

Note: Significance set at $\alpha = 0.05$

The data show that the variable gender does not significantly influence the respondents' willingness to teach in the MT (0.827) and their willingness to teach the MT as subject (0.475). It implies that both the male and female respondents of the study would want to use the MT as medium of instruction (MoI) and teach the MT as a subject. This finding contradicts the findings of Gürsoy (2013) which reported gender difference in teaching of language. It was reported that female prefer to teach English which is a prestigious language in comparison to their males counter parts.

The reason seen is that training the student teachers had have influenced them enough to become willing in to teach in the mother mother tongue and to teach the mother tongue as a subject. Since the policy is the latest development and most relevant topic to be discussed in teacher education programs, the respondents may have been exposed to discussions relative to the importance and rationale of teaching in MT and teaching the MT as subject. The discussion of the latest policy geared towards its benefits and relevance may have rendered them to become willing. The discussions about the mother tongue-based education may have conditioned the respondents about the job that they will be taking on after graduation. They may have perceived that to teach the mother tongue and to teach in mother tongue forms part of their being an elementary school teacher, and that such should be performed by them. It could be further inferred that the respondents have postiitvely accepted their roles as users and teachers of MT.

3.5 Significant relationship between the respondents' language attitudes and willingness to teach in the mother tongue and to teach the mother tongue as a subject.

Tables 7 gives the correlation matrix between the language attitudes towards the mother tongue and the willingness to teach in the mother tongue and to teach the mother tongue as a subject. Pearson Product Moment Coefficient was used as statistical treatment.

Table 7.

Correlation: Language Attitudes and Willingness to teach in the mother tongue (MoI) and to teach the mother tongue (as Subject)

Variables		r	p-value	Interpretation
Language Attitudes	Willingness to teach in the mother tongue	-.353	.000	Significant
	Willingness to teach the mother tongue as subject	-.365	.000	Significant

Note: *Significant at alpha = 0.001

As shown in table 9, the data shows that the variables willingness to teach in the mother tongue (p -value = 0.000) and willingness to teach the mother tongue as subject (p -value = 0.000) are both significant at alpha = 0.05. This means that there is a significant correlation between the language attitude and the willingness to teach in the mother tongue and willingness to teach the mother tongue as subject.

There is a negative correlation between the language attitude and willingness to teach in the mother tongue ($r = -.353$) and the language attitudes and willingness to teach the mother tongue as a subject ($r = -.365$) which means that the respondents of this study whose language attitude is positive are likely to be willing to teach in the mother tongue and willing to teach the mother tongue as a subject. Conversely, the respondents whose language attitude is negative are likely to be not willing to teach in the mother tongue and not willing to teach the mother tongue as subject.

This study corroborates with the findings of Khejeri (2014) who noted the negative attitude of the teachers towards the mother tongue as they perceived English to be more of value. This negativity has been translated to the implementation of the mother tongue policy in Hamis, district of Kenya. The teachers' negative language attitude is considered as the reason for the lukewarm reception towards the mother tongue policy (Khejeri, 2014).

Ejeh (2004) conducted a study and yielded results further supporting this finding. Student teachers who are respondents of the study in Nigeria showed negative attitude towards mother tongue teaching in basic education. The same respondents were also reported to be mainly, 80 out of 95 students, not willing to teach in mother tongue after graduation.

The language attitudes toward the mother tongue then serve as an enabling and disabling factor in terms of the support and practice that the primary implementors, who are not only the teachers, but includes the student teachers who would sooner or later become teachers themselves, do which is very meaningful in relation to language-in-education policy (Jones, 2012) which Ingram (1989) supports by claiming that language attitude is part and parcel of language policy in education.

4. Conclusion

Based on the findings, the following conclusions are made.

First, Tupas (2015) reported that there exist a prevailing preference for English over other languages in the Philippines. This is true not only to learners but also to teachers. Therefore, although the respondents did not exhibit a completely positive attitude toward the mother tongue, their reported attitude of being 'slightly positive' can be taken to mean a progress in the stance of development about attitude toward an indigenous languages.

Second, the respondents were found out to be willing to use the mother tongue as medium of instruction in primary education and to teach the mother tongue as subject. This is perhaps due to the training and discussions provided by their institution which could have conditioned and made them accept the possibility of teaching in mother tongue and teaching the mother tongue which translates to their willingness to do both.

Third, the finding of the study relative to the variable gender does not support the trend claiming gender difference on language attitude. Researchers (Head, 1999; Lamb, 1997; Zhang, 2011) have maintained that there is a difference in the language attitude between males and females. However, in the case of the respondents of this study, both males and females exhibit , on the average, ‘somehow positive’ attitude toward mother tongue. This could be due to the same training, discussion and lecture to which all the respondents were subjected and put through. This similarity in terms of experience is seen to have caused the weakening of influence of gender as variable. Unlike in the early studies that have pointed gender difference, males and females in those studies have varying experiences and contexts which have resulted to varying attitude toward a language or languages and its/their variations.

Finally, there is a significant relationship between attitude towards the mother tongue and the willingness of to teach in MT and willingness to teach the MT. This means that attitude is indeed an enabling and disabling factor. Therefore, for the successful implementation of the MTB-MLE in the country and elsewhere, it is necessary to ascertain positive attitude of the implementers of the language policy.

5. Implications of the study

The findings of the study bear implications for education, presented as follows:

One, teacher training institutions must include in the curriculum courses mainly intended to expose students intending to become elementary school teachers to the different research that report the importance and advantages of teaching young children in their mother tongue. This practice shall not only provide information about the feasibility and necessity of using MT in the years of early education, but also may cause the reshaping of their held perspectives and attitudes ill favoring MT in education.

Second, sets of training and opportunities should be afforded to teacher education students. The existing curriculum for teacher education in the country does not abound in providing chances for the use of MT in developing lesson plans and in the delivery of lessons except only when students are already on their on-the-job training or practice year. The absence or lack thereof posts challenges and difficulties to student teachers when the time comes for them to teach in MT which may result to an unfavorable teaching experience stigmatizing the teaching in MT and impacting willingness to teach in the MT of would-be teachers.

Last, because attitude is a central factor determining acceptance and practice, efforts in influencing positive ones among would-be teachers come to the fore in consideration of the successful implementation of the language policy. Therefore, logistics such as books and other instructional materials in the MT should be developed and be readily available for use. This form of support essential provides assistance to the teaching in the MT nad to the teaching of MT.

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