Table of Contents

*Foreword* Ramon Medriano Jr. ................................................................. 5

**Research Articles**

*Ria Arellano-Tamayo* ........................................................................... 8
*Spoken Discourse Analysis on Language Use Along Turn Taking and Topic Management in English as Second Language (ESL) Classrooms*

*Presley V. De Vera* ............................................................................... 25
*Variance in the Use of Invitational and Intrusive Rhetoric in Online EFL Teaching Discourse*

*Ian Fooks and Ratnawati Mohd Asraf* ................................................ 44
*Using Computer Analysis of Student Writing to Improve Lesson planning*

*Michael B. Lavadia and Conchita Malenab-Temporal* ....................... 66
*Linguistic Cementing: A Discourse Analysis of Opinion Articles of Philippine’s ‘Big 3’ Dailies*

*Ni Nyoman Padmadewi and Luh Putu Artini* .................................... 92
*Using Innovative Reward Program in Teaching English Literacy at Primary School in Indonesia*

*Randolf L. Asistido and Maria Teresa T. Asistido* .............................. 115
*Politeness Strategies Prevalent during the Senate Hearings on the Mamasapano Incident in Maguindanao, Philippines*

*Sukardi Weda* ..................................................................................... 132
*The Effects of Students’ Motivation and Family Socioeconomic Status on English Academic Achievement*

*Fathu Rahman and Sukardi Weda* .................................................... 149
*Students’ Perceptions in Appreciating English Literary Works through Critical Comment: A Case Study at Hasanuddin University and Universitas Negeri Makassar*

*Jet Robredillo Tonogbanua* ................................................................. 173
*Exploring Collaborative E-Portfolio Project for Teaching and Learning Academic Writing*

*Romualdo A. Mabuan, Arlene A. Ramos, Cheryl C. Matala, Albert M. Navarra and Gregorio P. Ebron, Jr.* 194
*MOOC Camps for Teacher Professional Development: The Philippine Experience*

*Lesley Karen B. Penera* ..................................................................... 215
*Philippine English: An Exploratory Mixed-Methods Inquiry on Digital Immigrants and Digital Natives’ Variety*

*Jennifer P. Santillan, Jonar T. Martin, Michael E. Santos and Leonora L. Yambao* 234
*International Students’ Cultural Adaptation in the Philippines*

*Krisha Camille R. Angoluan* ............................................................... 253
*LOLJK 😄: Selected Facebook Posts’ Paralinguistic Features and its Perceived Effects in 2nd Language Learning*
Comparing the Scores in Paper and Internet-Delivered TOEFL: Can an Unsupervised Online English Language Test Be Used for Placement?
Foreword


The descriptive-qualitative study of Tamayo examined how powerful language is in spoken discourse inside the classroom. She noted that teachers’ use of effective turn taking techniques combined with expert choice on topic management contributed to the level of interactivity in the class.

The advent of educational technology, internet-based learning and mobile-accessible learning made possible the creation of a new modality in education, online teaching and learning. Presley De Vera’s study investigated the use of rhetoric skills in a classroom devoid of personal touch or physicality. It was found that teachers who had a good command of rhetoric skills and efficient choice of rhetoric to employ increased learner talk and participation in this online classroom.

Teachers are finding a way to maximize the use of computer technology in improving lesson delivery and instruction. Fooks and Asraf studied the use of Coh-Metrix system to analyze students’ writing output and it was found that it can be combined with teachers’ analysis in determining the weaknesses of students in their writing skills therefore identifying what needs to be addressed when planning their lessons.

When dealing with more formal language, it has been a culture that students are referred to newspaper reading to observe how grammar and lexical resource help each other in the delivery of a perfect message. In this study of Lavadia and Temporal, it was found that all three opinion articles under investigation exhibited general tendencies toward the use of grammatical cohesion as well as the use of lexical cohesion.

Padmadewi and Artini contrasted the use of conventional reward system and innovative reward system in analyzing student achievement with focus on literacy skills development. The findings of the study implied that literacy skills can be enhanced by empowering rewards systematically and innovatively.
The Asistido husband and wife tandem analyzed the politeness strategies prevalent during the interactive senate hearings on the Mamasapano incident in the Philippines. It was found that the pervasiveness of question-answer combination among the adjacency pair patterns implies senators’ passionate pursuit of those missing pieces of information in aid of legislation and that positive politeness proves to be the most preferred politeness strategy during the hearing.

Can motivation and socioeconomic status affect academic achievement in English? Weda in his study proved that students’ motivation has strong relationship to students’ English academic achievement and students’ family socioeconomic status. It was suggested that motivation, either intrinsic or extrinsic needs to be activated in the EFL classroom.

Rahman and Weda explored students’ perceptions in appreciating English literary works through critical comment and was found that students strongly agree that English literary works in various genres present social values and could become a cornerstone of harmony and tolerance development.

Tonogbanua believed that the inclination to examination amongst Vietnamese people brought negative backwash towards teaching and learning, affecting students’ overall achievement. Due to this observation, he initiated the use of collaborative e-portfolio project to replace periodic tests and help reinforce formative assessment in academic writing.

Mabuan, Ramos, Matala, Navarra and Ebron looked at how teachers see MOOCs as a platform for professional development. The study revealed that, in general, the participants viewed MOOCs as a practical and effective means for professional development because of its open, free and flexible features, while MOOC camps were seen as a community of practice that engages MOOC participants and sustains their motivation in completing the courses.

Penera ventured into investigating Philippine English in its grammatical features as used in this technology-driven age. She suggests that language teachers who are responsible for the learners’ language acquisition should still underscore grammar and accuracy or strike a balance between these two as well as communication and fluency development in classroom instruction especially in the basic education.

A descriptive-correlational study conducted by Santillan, Martin, Santos and Yambao examined international students’ linguistic challenges and cultural adaptation in the Philippines. The results show
that cultural empathy and open-mindedness were negatively correlated with length of stay while flexibility was positively correlated with length of stay.

Facebook, being the most popular social media platform, is now being examined of its use in computer-mediated communication and second language learning. Angoluan emphasized that language could accommodate technologies that the new generations of Facebook users utilize to express themselves further and that understanding paralinguistic features which aid in meaning-making can contribute to the optimum utilization of CMC as instructional technologies in ESL classrooms.

Mustafa and Sofyan explored the differences of an unsupervised online language test versus the conventional paper-delivered supervised test. The study revealed that the scores of the unsupervised online language test were significantly different from those of the supervised paper-delivered test and it was concluded that an unsupervised online English language test cannot be used even for a no-stakes test such as a placement test if it is delivered without supervision.

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Pangasinan State University
Spoken Discourse Analysis on Language Use Along Turn Taking and Topic Management in English as Second Language (ESL) Classrooms

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Abstract

Academic success in universities and colleges often points back to the effectiveness of the medium of instruction used and the quality of classrooms interaction between the teacher and the students. The success of second language acquisition also rests on the proficiency and productivity of the members of the classroom.

This study determined the profile, the discourse patterns and the language used in instruction by the English instructors along adjacency pairs at Cagayan State University. It also determined the relationship between the discourse patterns and the language preference in instruction. It further analyzed if the language used is useful or not to language teaching and learning.

The study used descriptive-qualitative design. And the schematic approach by Cotts is adopted in analyzing the transcribed dialogues.

It was found out that majority of the respondents are middle-aged, female, speak Ibanag, licensed professional teachers, doctorate degree holders, have 10 years teaching experience and use English language in instruction. The teachers and the students used different adjacency pairs. It is revealed that those teachers who used turn taking and have topic management have interactive classes than those who used fewer turn taking and topic management strategies. And it is also revealed that profile of the teachers is not significantly related to their language used in instruction.

It is concluded then, that teachers and students’ spoken discourse in the ESL classroom make use of turn taking and topic management for enhancing classroom interaction; thus, making possible conversational contributions in the class which adhere to Grice’s Cooperative Principle which postulates that effective communication is in consonance with the maxims of quality, quantity, relevance, and manner.
Keywords: English as a Second Language (ESL), language use, topic management, turn taking, second language acquisition, spoken discourse analysis

Introduction

Successful language acquisition depends greatly on the teacher’s role as a language facilitator, on the effectiveness of the medium of instruction used and the quality of classroom interaction. Given this premise, teachers and students play vital roles in their own successes in the classroom and in the outside world at large.

Corollarily, this academic success rests on the language use and interaction of the members of the classroom—both the teacher and the students. Mohr, K.J. and Mohr, E.S (2007) mentioned in their study “Extending English Language Learners' Classroom Interactions Using the Response Protocol”, that to be proficient users of English language and productive teachers and students, there is need for many opportunities to interact in social and academic situations. The teachers should have turn taking and topic management to sustain the communication and interaction in the English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom.

Expectedly, teachers should use various words, phrases or statements to add something to their explanation. This would facilitate learning easily as well. Their topic management skills and turn taking styles will help them to attain their teaching goal and that is to impart the knowledge successfully. This is in consonance to the idea that rich language interactions encourage thinking, social relationships, and expanded language use.

In addition, teachers must purposively and creatively use language for them to deliver their instruction in a manner where they can be easily understood by their students. The topic management skills and turn taking styles will help them a lot so transfer of learning will be successful. The way of structuring, paraphrasing, summarizing and exemplifying will also make their class lively and interactive. This reality conforms to the idea of Grice (1975) on topic management. He stated that the expressions used in instruction would allow the teacher to effect the transition to close the topic while at the same time reinforcing the message conveyed. In this way, the students can fully grasp what is intended to be imparted.

Furthermore, both teachers and students should adhere to the maxims of cooperative principle of Grice where both participants should make a “conversational contribution” and accept the purpose or direction of the talk exchanges and must speak cooperatively and mutually so that effective communication will be achieved. Grice mentioned that conversational turn-taking helps the classroom becomes interactive. This is composed of two utterances by two speakers, one after the other. He also suggested that the use of topic management encourages interaction. He stated that this is the set of
signals used by the speakers to introduce and manipulate different referents in a communicative event. The topic is important because a teacher can approach more systematically another notion which is very difficult to grasp: coherence. Coherence should not be understood as a pre-existing relationship between referents from reality. Rather, coherence is verbally created by the participants in a communicative event. In the second place, topic is the basis for interaction; without a topic there is no interaction. What people talk about, how they talk about it and how long constitute three very important aspects of communication. The function of the topic management markers in general is to contribute to the efficiency and effectiveness of the message by signaling explicitly the relationship in terms of topical coherence between the different parts of the message.

In addition, Cazden (2001) as cited by Mohr, K.J. and Mohr, E.S. (2007) in their study, posits that effective teachers encourage their students' participation in classroom discussions, welcome their contributions, and motivate them by such practices. However, many educators often allow their less proficient students to remain silent or to participate less than their English-fluent classmates. It has been noticed that the teachers missed many opportunities to help students communicate in class, allowing them to be less involved in oral interactions.

Furthermore, A.J. Liddicoat (2016) stated that turn taking is both context-free and context-sensitive; how turns at talk become sequences and how these sequences are coherently expanded. In his study, he concluded that repair is "an interactionally sensitive mechanism which is constrained by social as well as linguistic considerations”

Significantly, teacher should exemplarily model and guide students in any academic interaction where opinions of students are welcomed because low levels of instruction and low-quality classroom interactions will result to poor academic performance of the students. Rich language interactions, however, encourage thinking, social relationships, and expanded language use. Related to this, Johnston (2004) as mentioned by Mohr, K.J. and Mohr, E.S. (2007) in their study, reproved a teacher has "to think more carefully about the language he uses to offer students the best learning environments he can”.

The critical role teachers play in students’ academic success come into play. It is imperative that they consider the appropriateness of the language they use in the classroom in generating student’s ideas. It also includes the manner of rewording or rephrasing, the communication strategies, the manner of interactions between him and the students, and the use of turn taking and topic management that help boost maximum participation and interaction.

Language use in college and in university is made clear in the updated CHED policy on language use as embodied in the CHED Memorandum Order (CMO) No. 59, series 1996 which
mandates that language courses, whether Filipino or English, should be taught in that language. It is too clear then, that English language should be used in teaching English subjects in College. However, there are some teachers at Cagayan State University who used variety of languages. Some English teachers code shift from English to Filipino or vice versa while some teachers even code mix English and Filipino. While few teachers also shift from English to gay lingo. On the other hand, some English instructors also translate English words or phrases into the mother tongue of the students for better understanding; however, using these various languages including translation method in teaching most especially in turn taking and in topic management affect language accuracy and fluency of the teachers and the learners as well.

Language accuracy and fluency are interrelated concepts in making both teacher and learners be communicative competent. This competency refers to the ability of a speaker to communicate effectively in the language; this ability is based on more than just grammatical knowledge and the concept is derived from the general desire of language users to be able to communicate proficiently. To be able to communicate in the target language fluently means that the speaker is comfortable using the second language and can be reasonably understood by other speakers or the students of the target language. This does not necessarily mean that the speaker is free from errors in their communication, but that the errors they make do not obstruct the message because linguists believed that accuracy refers to the correctness of the language being produced by the speaker. Fluency and language accuracy are equally important in the success of language acquisition and instruction. However, language accuracy will be affected once an English instructor uses different languages in a single utterance. It is also observed that some educators often allow their less proficient students to remain silent or to participate less than their English-fluent classmates. It has been noticed that the teachers missed many opportunities to help students communicate in class, allowing them to be less involved in oral interactions and most prefer to code-mix and code-switch in instruction even when turn taking and topic management are involved.

Objectives of the Study

This study determined the spoken discourse patterns on language use along turn taking and topic management evident in English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms. It likewise identified the perceived factors affecting language use in instruction, the profile of the teacher-respondents, the language use and the relationship between the profile of the teachers and their language used in instruction.
Methodology

Research Design

The study made use of descriptive-qualitative research design since the profile of the teacher-respondents in terms of age, sex, language spoken, highest educational attainment, number of years in service and college affiliation, and language used in instruction were described. Moreover, the comparison of language use in instruction of the teacher-respondents when grouped according to profile was also described.

A careful analysis and interpretation of the transcripts of actual classroom discourse were recorded which became the main reference for documenting the discourse patterns evident in instruction by the teachers.

Locale of the Study

The study was conducted at Cagayan State University- Andrews Campus, Main Campus, Tuguegarao City during the first semester of school year 2015-2016.

Respondents and Sampling Procedure

All Grammar and Composition 1 Instructors of the Colleges of Teacher Education (CTE), Allied Health Sciences (CAHS), Business Entrepreneurship and Accountancy (CBEA) and Hospitality Industry Management (CHIM) of Cagayan State University-Andrews Campus, Tuguegarao City during the school year 2015-2016. Total enumeration was employed in the study.

Research Instruments

Survey questionnaire was used to elicit the profile of the respondents including their language preference in instruction. A documentary analysis on schematic and practical approach by Cotts (1995) was employed in transcribing dialogues.

Collection of Data

Survey questionnaires were given to the teacher-respondents one month before the actual classrooms observations and formal interviews after the said observations were conducted.
Analysis of Data

The data gathered were analyzed with the use of frequency counts and percentages to treat the profile of the teacher-respondents and their language preference in instruction. Ranking was also used based on the frequency counts.

On the other hand, Pearson-r was used to treat the significant relationship between the profile of the respondents and the language used by the teacher-respondents in instruction.

Lastly, in analyzing the discourse patterns evident in the instruction by the teacher-respondents, transcription was done first. Then, the schematic and practical approach by Cotts (1995) in analyzing the transcribed dialogues was adopted.

Results and Discussion

Table 1. Profile of the teacher-respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency (N=15)</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-above</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sex</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Language Spoken</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iloco</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ibanag</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itawes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itawes and Ibanag</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English, Filipino and Iloco</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filipino, Iloco and Itawes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Highest Educational Attainment</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With Units in Master’s Degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s Graduate</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With Units in Doctorate Degree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>53.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate Degree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Eligibility</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS Professional Passer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LET Passer</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS Sub-professional and LET Passer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS Professional and LET Passer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P.D. 907, CS Professional and LET Passer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Length of Service</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-above</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard Deviation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>College Affiliation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College of Teacher Education (CTEd)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Majority of the teachers are middle-aged, female, Ibanags and have units in doctorate degree. They have two or more eligibilities, have a good number of rendered years as English teachers in the university and are from the College of Hospitality Industry Management.

Table 2. Language Use of the Teacher-Respondents in Teaching English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>53.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code-switch (English and Filipino)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code-mix (English, Filipino and Ilocano)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 reveals that majority of the respondents used English language in instruction; while, some of the respondents code-switched or code-shifted English and Filipino in instruction and code-mixed Filipino, English and Ilocano. This is based on the tallied questionnaire given to the teacher-respondents. However, it was found out in the actual transcribed classroom conversations that there are few teacher-respondents who code-switched and code-mixed other languages such as English, Filipino, Itawes and Ibanag. The teacher made use of code-mixing, code-switching and translation in instruction so students will easily understand the topic and to prompt students to engage them in classroom discussion and interaction. Through these communication strategies, instructional purposes or objectives are met and transfer of learning was easily done. (Please see appendix A for the sample code-mixing and code-switching statements used in turn taking and topic management)

These findings agreed with the point of Vicencio (2016) that code-switching does play an important role in ESL classrooms as it helps learners to better understand the target language they are learning. As cited by Vicencio, the Asian EFL Journal Professional Teaching Articles November 2016, Issue 96 46 Schweers (1999) conducted a research into the field of code-switching, and found that a high percentage (about 88.7%) of the participants felt that the use of mother tongue in their English classes is effective.

This finding implies that only more than half of the respondents followed the CHED policy on language use as embodied in the CHED Memorandum Order (CMO) No. 59, s. 1996 which mandates that language courses, whether Filipino or English, should be taught in that language. For it is too clear, that English language should be used in teaching English subjects such as Grammar and Composition 1 in college.
Table 3. Emergence of the Common Discourse Patterns along Turn Taking and Topic Management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discourse Patterns</th>
<th>Words Commonly Used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I. Turn Taking</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Interrupting</td>
<td>No! No! No!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No ah!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wait! Wait!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hindi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nagtagari kayun ah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Showing Attention and Understanding</td>
<td>Yeah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oh yes!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Okay.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>tama?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Fillers and Hesitation</td>
<td>Let’s see… O sige na lang”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Let’s try “Sige na nga lang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Oh sige…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Checking that someone has understood the speaker</td>
<td>Okay?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Gets ninyo?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Can you follow?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Alright?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Naintindihan?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Di ba?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Kuh?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nakuha?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>II. Topic Management</strong></td>
<td>-Okay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. Topic Shift</td>
<td>-So</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Next</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Summing Up</td>
<td>-So…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Structuring</td>
<td>And</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>And then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Therefore,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>However</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Paraphrasing</td>
<td>Meaning to say,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Let me repeat…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Exemplifying</td>
<td>For example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>How about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Halimbawa</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows the emerged common discourse patterns along turn taking and topic management used in instruction by the teacher-respondents during their first and second sessions. It can be seen in the table the words, phrases and expressions commonly used to show interruption, attention, understanding, fillers, hesitation, to check if the students have understood the teacher-respondents’ point or explanation, to shift from one topic to the next, to summarize their explanations and to generalize the different rules in basic grammar. Moreover, it can also be seen the words in different languages used for paraphrasing, summarizing, structuring statements, sentences and explanations, for paraphrasing and for citing examples.
Based on the actual transcriptions, most English teachers used various words, phrases or statements in different languages (code-mix and code-switch) to give emphasis to their explanation and to simplify rules in Subject Verb Agreement supported with examples.

This is inconsonance with the study conducted by Greggio and Gil (2007) as cited by Vicencio (2016), it is evident that the teachers code switch in the beginner group in four different occasions such as [1] explaining grammar, [2] giving instructions, [3] monitoring/assisting the students [4] when correcting activities and interestingly to attract learners’ attention. In most cases, the teachers claimed that they need to code switch in order to “clarify words, expressions, structures and rules of utterances” (Greggio & Gil, 2007:376).

The topic management and turn taking skills used in their classes helped them attain their teaching goals. This finding conforms to Grice’s (1975) maxim of relevance in her Cooperative principle which states that teacher and the students, who are the active agents of communication, must speak cooperatively and mutually accept one another to be understood in a particular way. This principle describes how effective communication in conversation is achieved in common social situations, common understanding in the learning environment.

However, it was likewise noted in the transcription that there were sessions where teachers used fewer words, phrases in turn taking and in topic management. This can be attributed to the kind of activity the class had. There are times the teacher-respondents did not use any word to interrupt nor to cite examples. However, they used few statements in summarizing, in structuring, in exemplifying and in shifting topic. This was done to let their students follow and understand their intentions.

This conforms to Grice’s idea (2000) that when a new topic is introduced, it is the responsibility of the teacher to indicate more or less explicitly the connection between the new topic and the previous one, and, by doing so, maintain the coherence of the text being constructed.

These data coincide with Nunan and Cook’s (1993) point on the advantages of topic management and turn taking in teaching. The two mentioned that these discourse patterns are sets of signals and rules which allow the teacher and the students in the verbal interaction to make an efficient and effective use of the turn system in which conversation is based.

Furthermore, it coincides with the idea of Mohr K.J., et. al (2007) that to be proficient and productive teachers and students, there is need for many opportunities to interact in social and academic situations.
4. Comparison of the Discourse Patterns when Grouped According to Profile Variables

Based on the transcriptions analyzed, there was no difference on the discourse patterns evident in the instruction of the teacher-respondent when grouped according to their age, sex, number of years in service, language spoken, eligibilities and college connected.

Furthermore, English language is used in the instruction and the use of translations, code-mixed and code-switched statements along turn taking and topic management are evident in all colleges. On the other hand, the profile variables most especially the college affiliation have no significant relationships on the language used in instruction.

In addition, the colleges with board courses like CTE, CBEA and CAHS and so with the college with non-board courses like the College of Hospitality Industry Management value the importance of English language. Thus, the English instructors used this in instruction more frequently than other language variations for the following reasons: 1) the CTE students are future teachers thus, they are required to be fluent and effective English speakers where English language is the medium of instruction in the class; 2) the CAHS set standard in terms of its screening and selection to their incoming students and it strictly follows its retention policy; 3) the CBEA students are expected to be in the business world where English language is used in transaction and communication, and 4) the CHIM students are expected to be hosts or front liners in local and international hotels and restaurants where English language is also used.

With this reality at hand, it is deemed necessary for and by the Grammar and Composition 1 instructors of these colleges to use English language in teaching the said subject as mandated by CHED in its CMO 59 series 1996 that English language should be used in teaching College English subjects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Computed Value</th>
<th>Critical Value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>0.2203</td>
<td>9.488</td>
<td>No relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>0.4086</td>
<td>5.992</td>
<td>No relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Spoken</td>
<td>0.8001</td>
<td>8.307</td>
<td>No relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest Educational Attainment</td>
<td>0.9680</td>
<td>12.592</td>
<td>No relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eligibility</td>
<td>0.9889</td>
<td>15.507</td>
<td>No relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Service</td>
<td>0.3435</td>
<td>12.592</td>
<td>No relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College Connected</td>
<td>0.9284</td>
<td>12.592</td>
<td>No relationship</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 shows that profile variables of the teachers are not significantly related to the language used in instruction. This finding implies that regardless of the respondents’ sex, age, language spoken be it English, Filipino, Ibanag, Itawes, Iloco or in any combination of these languages, degree finished or highest educational attainment be it Master’s or doctorate degree, have one or more than two eligibilities, have rendered almost ten years in the service and regardless of the mother college the
respondent is connected with, all are not determining factors in choosing a language to be used for instruction be it pure English, Filipino, code-mix or code shift or switch.

This finding negates the result of the study of Karahan (2002) that the younger the English teacher and the students are, the higher is the level of their appreciation to English and the more they use English in the different classroom situations.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Teachers in English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms used words, phrases and statements for turn-taking and topic management for purposes of enhancing classroom interaction thereby making possible conversational contributions in the class which adhere to Grice’s Cooperative Principle which posits that effective communication is in consonance with the maxims of quality, quantity, relevance, and manner.

Perceptibly, for turn taking strategies, the teachers used English language, Filipino and other native languages in interrupting, showing attention and understanding, fillers and hesitation, checking that someone has understood the speaker. While, for topic management, the teachers used different words, phrases in topic shifting, summing up, structuring, paraphrasing and exemplifying.

Notably, the ESL classroom is teacher-dominated and becomes less interactive when the language teacher uses straight English as a medium of instruction, in contrast to an active ESL classroom that engages students when the teacher uses a language within their level of understanding. Invariably, teachers’ language use in instruction in the ESL classrooms is evident regardless of their age, sex, language spoken, educational attainment, eligibility, years of service, and their college affiliation.

This has important implications for the language policy of the university, which among others, aims to develop students who are English proficient which is the primordial concern of ESL classrooms as mandated by CHED. This aim of developing English proficient students is clearly not going to be achieved unless the language teachers exemplarily model English language use in the University.

Thus, it is suggested that English instructors should use simple English words, phrases and expressions for turn taking and topic management and must simplify their explanations instead of using code-mixed and code-switched languages in instruction. Further, teachers should intensify the use of English language in teaching English subjects as mandated in CHED Memorandum Order No. 59, s.1996.

Code-switching in classroom setting was found to be an unavoidable and inevitable phenomenon because teachers’ code-switching was not only a part of communicative resources of bilingual classes
but also an active part in the learning experience. This study has shown that teachers’ code-switching behavior has something to do with their age and gender. The results also show teachers’ code-switching behavior to Filipino has been found to serve various functions like translating vocabulary items, explaining grammar, managing class, and for humorous effects which are in accord with the findings of Macaro (2009) and Levine (2003). In addition, quoting others’ words, emphasizing some points are also the functional uses in ESL class. Lastly, code-switching to Filipino is a good strategy of efficiency and benefits classroom teaching and learning. Recommendations Based on the foregoing findings and conclusions, it is strongly recommended that the teachers’ perception on code-switching to Filipino be analyzed and further studied since code-switching is an efficient strategy in teaching and learning process. The administrators may take into considerations to further analyze the different functions of code-switching in classroom discussions.

References

A. Books and other related references
Swain (1980) Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and


B. Unpublished Theses and Dissertations


C. Journals


D. Electronic Sources


Appendix A

Sample code- mix statements in turn taking and topic management

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample Statements/sentences/phrases/expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Alright class, remember that the aspect …there are four aspects <em>di ba? Okay let us proceed to the next</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The term perfect in the perfect is completed, means completed, <em>tapos na, wala na. Okay na?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Future perfect, of course <em>may</em> will okay (<em>may</em>-a Filipino term meaning there is)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <em>Ulit ha,</em> a verb in the past perfect generally means the action in the past which happened before another past action or condition in the past. <em>Kuha ninyo? Clear class?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. <em>Next topic,</em> “<em>kapag may past perfect tayo</em>” most of the time the sentence has two past actions may past action but remember that the verb happened before another past action.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. <em>So</em> let’s go back to the definition of past perfect <em>tulad ng sinabi ko kanina</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. <em>Okay, saan yung action na ‘yun, past present future?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. <em>For example,</em> in Filipino, <em>ang</em> past perfect <em>na</em> verb <em>ay isang</em> action <em>nangyari bago ang</em> isang past action. <em>So, ano ang naunang nangyari yung</em> past perfect or <em>yung isang</em> past action?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. <em>Ano ba ang</em> format <em>kasi?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. <em>May duda ba kayo kung</em> past participle <em>yung</em> closed? Ah? Baket wala kayong duda? Past participle <em>ba</em> or past tense <em>yung</em> closed?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. <em>Remember,</em> what I told you last time…… If…… a verb has two classifications, irregular and regular. <em>Ang</em> regular verb form its past tense and past participle by adding…?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. By adding D or E-D <em>yun yun. Claro? Let’s proceed to the next</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. <em>So, ano ‘to?</em> Is it past participle or past tense?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. <em>Kapag yung</em> verb <em>mo ay</em> regular to form its past tense you add D or E-D. <em>Ganun din ang</em> past participle <em>nya. Gets niyo?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*So, the verb close… past tense <em>ng</em> close <em>ay</em> closed also. Past participle of close <em>ay</em> closed also. Can you follow? Present participle <em>nya ay</em> closing. <em>Nasusundan?</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
16. **Therefore, Naisara na ni Tina yung tindahan nang may nagtangkang basa…nang may bumasag sa salamin…sa glass door… sa salamin ng pintuan nito… so anong mas nauna? Syempre yung pagsasara.**

17. **Karaniwan** most often you have two past actions. **Ano yung dalawang past actions?** Ano yung mas nauna?

18. **Maliwanag na sa past perfect?**

19. **Let me repeat,** “**Ano yung action?** Yun lang yun. **Ano yung action?** Pagdradrive di ba?”
   If you look at the sentence closely, **ilanog oras na ng… Tanong nagdra drive pa ba ngayon?Seven hours n siya nagda drive. Puwedeng tapos na siyang nagdra drive. Basta ngayon eto ang malinaw diyan basta ngayon nagdra drive na.”**
   As of now, **pitong oras na siyang nagdra drive. Kung nadagdagan na yun ‘di na seven hours… seven hours and one minute.**

20. **Pwedeng nagdra drive pa siya or tumigil na.**

21. The whole set up is simpler sa past perfect tense. **Kuha?**

22. **Yung idea neto ay parang past perfect.** **Naintindihan?**

23. **Let me restructure.** Sa future ba liikutad naman… a future perfect verb is a verb that was completed before another future action kaya nga perfect eh completed

24. E-N **kaagad?**

25. Will have closed ah… hindi closen

26. **Ulitin ko** the definition of future perfect.

27. **So dalawa ang future natin.** Ang tanong ano ang mas nauna ang natapos diyan? Will have closed though **hindi pa nagyayari bagong may mag try na magbukaas nasara na.**

28. Will have been driving. Past perfect progressive apply **natin ito.**

29. **Tanong, nagdra drive pa ba si Lito?**

30. **Yes, nagdra drive pa.** For the present perfect progressive…

31. Lito ….will have been driving for seven hours, when he got to Nueva Ecija. **Tanong… ay mali mali nalito ako. Teka teka sorry ha** sorry

32. **For example, Lito has been driving for seven hours by now. By now tapos na seven hours na siya nagdra driving. Lito has been driving for seven hours. Okay.**

33. **Nagdra drive pa b siya ngayon?Aha?**

34. **At nagdra drive pa ng patuloy. Ah okay. Correct?**

35. **Question, ngayong oras na to nakapoong oras na ba s i Lito?**

36. **Halimbawa, mag sesseven pa lang** or maybe he may not be driving at the moment. He is not driving at the moment **baka bukas. It maybe na nagdra drive siya ngayon** But your point he will be driving in that condition seven hours by the time he reaches Nueva Ecija.
   That is for your perfect progressive

37. **Tama class?**

38. **Pa’no kung present? What is the past perfect of drive? Drove? Driven? Which of these?**

**Code- switch / shift**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements/sentences/phrases/expression</th>
<th>1. <strong>No! No!, past perfect is…..? explain clearer</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. <strong>Wait, wait, again what is your point?</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. <strong>Meaning to say, the action is in progress? Tama di ba?</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. <strong>Let me repeat and your correct in saying a past perfect is a verb happened before another past action. Tama yung sabi ninyo kanina.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Past perfect or past action? <strong>Ano ba?</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. <strong>Tama ba?</strong> It’s closed. Is it regular or irregular?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. <strong>Parehas!</strong> Irregular verbs have the same form in terms of …let me repeat regular verbs have exactly the same past participle and past tense.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. <strong>Okay then, “How do you form the present perfect? How do you form it? Pa’no? pa’no?</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Statements/sentences/phrases/expression</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.</strong> For example, “Eto Tagalog ko. Naisara na ni Tina yung tindahan nang may nagtangkang basa….nang may bumasag sa salamin sa glass door sa salamin ng pintuan nito. So, anong mas nauna? syempre yung pagsasara”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2.</strong> In Filipino, ang past perfect na verb ay isang action nangyari bago ang isang past action so, ano ang mas nauuna nangyari yung past perfect or yung isang past action? Kuha?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Variance in the Use of Invitational and Intrusive Rhetoric in Online EFL Teaching Discourse

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Member, National Gender and Development Resource Pool, Philippine Commission on Women

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Abstract

Teaching discourses essentially presuppose the use of rhetoric. This study that doubly registers as EFL Research and Communication Research draws on the Theory of Discourse Analysis and Rhetoric Theory of Communication to investigate rhetoric undertones in the teaching discourses of EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers engaged in online teaching. The case study involved four participants of equal number of male and female teachers to account for sex-aggregated analysis. It employed Sinclair & Coulthard’s method of classroom discourse analysis in the transcription of the teachers’ spoken corpora. Findings revealed that (1) male and female teachers used rhetoric in the online teaching of EFL courses, and (2) they used rhetoric in the context of deploying certain discourse functions. On the varied rhetoric intents of the teachers underlying their rhetorical moves, male and female teachers account exhaustively on the use of all types of rhetoric, i.e. Foss’ typology of invitational and patriarchal rhetoric (operationalized in this study as “intrusive rhetoric”), and the latter’s sub-types. There have been noted difference, both remarkable and less significant, between male and female teachers’ rhetoric practices. As a major contribution of the study, it poses significant supplement and a stark critique to Foss’ Invitational Rhetoric Theory of Communication.

From the synthesis of the study’s findings and conclusions, several recommendations are offered for the improvement of English language pedagogy, for future research, and the interest of advancement in theorizing under the rhetoric tradition in the field of communication and its complementary insights to the enterprise of teaching EFL.
**Introduction**

The enterprise of teaching, i.e. to speak of teaching any subject matter, basically presupposes a process of communication (Muste, 2016). On a closer look, the act of teaching is not just as simple as imparting a set of information or transferring a knowledge or skill to a learner. Such process essentially involves communicating the subject matter or the informational or the knowledge that one intends to teach the learner, always in the context of a teacher’s motive to negotiate with the learner that some knowledge or skills are worth learning.

When one engages in teaching, the motive of a teacher is geared towards the expected result which is to cause learning on the part of the student. This means that the teacher often takes up a leverage to select or determine what, exactly, is the subject matter to be taught, or the teacher determines the scope and delimitation of the subject matter being taught (Unciano, 2010). This involves even a teacher’s assumed authority to determine the method or approach in teaching a subject matter. In other words, the teacher does not only teach a subject matter as objectively as it is but imparts a knowledge or information in some “package”. That is why the knowledge and information that reaches the student already reflects the teacher’s own perspectives, schema, and conceptual framework of a subject matter, impregnated with the teacher’s own biases. Thus, the teacher attempts not just to impart knowledge per se but is adjacently in a rhetoric gesture of negotiating with the learner to accept the meaningfulness of a knowledge in the context of the teacher’s intellectual filters. Therefore, no knowledge is truly imparted in an objective sense as much as what the learner receives is always the kind of knowledge that is structured by the teacher. That is why, the educative process can only be too ideally viewed as a process involving mere transfer of knowledge as much as it is actually more realistically a process that involves indoctrination to a certain degree, i.e. knowledge as what and how the teacher structures or organizes it, and thus decides what he or she wants the learner to know.

In the above context, it becomes clear that the act of teaching would essentially presuppose a rhetoric gesture. A research by Petek (2014) entitled “The Teacher as a Public Speaker in the Classroom” also concurs with this idea. As such, an essential component of public speaking discourse, i.e. “rhetoric” is, indeed, inextricable and inevitable in teaching. And in this more realistic view, it becomes less presumptuous to define teaching as an enterprise of persuading or negotiating with a learner as to what a teacher thinks ought to be learned about a subject matter. The teacher is not just a
disinterested medium for the transfer of knowledge but basically always assuming the stance of a “rhetor” in relation to the learner who serves as the “audience” of a rhetoric discourse.

Rhetoric and Teaching

The view that teaching can be closely intertwined with rhetoric practices is also hinted in the article by Modesti (2012) published in Current Issues in Education, there is a shift of attention to the ability of educators and school personnel to communicate effectively with those involved in a student’s “circle of support” is critical to the welfare of students, the efficacy of the educational experience, and the morale of the educational context and climate. Modesti adds further that schools must foster collaborative relationships with parents and communities, as these efforts will profoundly affect the welfare of students. Evidently then, educators’ communicative skills are critically important to foster not only effective instruction and classroom management strategies, but also in regard to the relational duties involved with the profession of teaching.

In the above context, Modesti opines that many educators are not well prepared or trained for communicative interactions. She also theorized that the art and practice of teaching should presuppose anticipating the varying collection of communicative incidences for which an educator must prepare.

Language Teaching and Rhetoric

“Language teaching” which is the object of analysis using the “rhetoric communication theory” is the focus of this research and is more specifically braced on the enterprise of teaching of English as a foreign language to learners who are non-native speakers.

One prominent theorist in Language Education is R.C. Gardner, who was known for his Socioeducational Model of Language Learning Motivation (Gardner, 1985). Gardner’s research in language education focused on the causal relation between language learning and a learner’s motivational orientation in learning a language. He theorized that it is integrative motivation compared to instrumental motivation that facilitates more effectively a language learning process. Gardner’s theory is technically focused on the part of the language learner by examining the orientation of the learner when it comes to his or her motivation to learn a target language. To complement Gardner’s theory, this research attempts to characterize the rhetoric communication pattern of teachers, theoretically assumed to have an agentive and a very influential role in moulding the language learner’s attitude and motivation towards the target language. The theoretical assumption of this research is that language teachers, as to their manner of communicating to the students, either consciously or unconsciously structure the learning atmosphere on which students’ build their own motivation and attitude towards the learning of the target language. The language learner then
eventually forms a perception of the learning of the target language as how the learner is convinced about the cultural, moral or practical value of such learning endeavour. As much as this invokes the role of the teacher persuading the learner, then such role necessarily signifies to the nature of the teacher’s rhetoric communication skills.

**Rhetoric Undertones in Language Teaching**

The conceptual framework of this research which is about characterizing the underlying rhetoric communication incepted in the teaching process signifies to the choice of the type of rhetoric that a teacher chooses to employ in his or her communicative interaction with the learner.

In classifying the types of rhetoric, the theory of Foss and Griffin (Craig and Muller, 2007) comes to the fore. Burke theorized a sort of a bipolar rhetoric or two opposing rhetoric traditions. Foss and Griffin’s theory rhetoric sets a milestone in the scholarly discussions of the Rhetoric Theory of Communication. Burke’s unprecedented explanations have altogether altered the once undisturbed concept of rhetoric from a tradition that has since endured from the time of such ancient philosophers as Plato and Aristotle. To speak of the polarized types of rhetoric, Foss and Griffin proposed a feminist perspective of rhetoric to contrast with the traditional view of rhetoric. In his article titled “A Rhetoric of Motives” (Craig and Muller, 2007), Burke explains that:

*The traditional conception of rhetoric, in summary, is characterized by efforts to change others and thus to gain control over them, self-worth derived from and measured by the power exerted over others, and a devaluation of the life worlds of others. This is a rhetoric of patriarchy, reflecting its value of change, competition, and domination. But these are not the only values on which a rhetorical system can be constructed, and we would like to propose as one alternative a feminist rhetoric … primary among the feminist principles on which our rhetoric is based is a commitment to the creation of relationships of equality, and to the elimination of dominance and elitism … definition and explication of a rhetoric built on the principles of equality, immanent value, and self-determination rather than on the attempt to control others through persuasive strategies designed to effect change. Although we believe that persuasion is often necessary, we believe an alternative exists that may be used in instances when changing and controlling others is not the rhetor’s goal; we call this rhetoric invitational rhetoric.*

Foss and Griffin’s theoretical position is to qualify a rhetoric theory based on peoples’ motive when engaging in rhetoric gestures. In this line, Foss and Griffin propose that these motives are somewhat gender-conditioned. For instance, the so-called traditional concept of rhetoric as anchored
on the aim for persuasion is said to be a patriarchal tradition. This seems to suggest an obvious bias as to what can be considered as patriarchal or matriarchal but the choice to ascribe such rhetoric tradition to “masculinity” is nevertheless understandable given our general cultural and historical view of what masculinity has been typically represented. Foss and Griffin think that a rhetoric grounded on persuasion also indicates a motive to dominate, or control or overpower which are stereotyped to be masculine traits. On the other hand, Foss and Griffin raise our awareness to an alternative rhetoric and its peculiarities in a feminist perspective, or what they consider as opposed to a masculine orientation of rhetoric.

Foss and Griffin’s concept of rhetoric in the patriarchal tradition is basically a type of “intrusive rhetoric” or a rhetoric with an intrusive motive as may be faithfully construed from the concept of Foss and Griffin. Merriam Webster’s dictionary defines “intrude” as an act of “thrusting oneself in and upon someone without invitation, welcome or permission” or an act of “entering by force”. The researcher thus proposed that the term “intrusive” and its semantic qualifications fit perfectly into Foss and Griffin’s conceptual framework of the masculine-oriented type of rhetoric or the so-called patriarchal rhetoric. This coinage of an alternative term to refer to such type of rhetoric is herein proposed only to depart from a very reductionist and gender-biased reference to the types of rhetoric being associated to either being patriarchal or feminist, or being masculine or feminine, which may have some sexist connotation. After all, the theory is not aimed at gender stereotyping but simply to enable an operational typology of rhetoric, which is conveniently gender neutral. This researcher thus used the term “intrusive rhetoric” and “invitational rhetoric” as politically appropriate terms to address ethical considerations especially in the interest of gender sensitivity. The researcher is also actively engaged in advocacy and cause-oriented activities under Gender and Development (GAD).

Redemption of the Image of Rhetorical Practice in Teaching

Both for its practical and theoretical significance, this current study intends to contribute to the appreciation of “rhetoric” as one of the integral practices in teaching, and in the specific context of this study --- the use of rhetoric in teaching English as a foreign language in an online instructional setting (contrasted from traditional classroom setting). On a more general sense, the practice of rhetoric in general and in all other settings besides the instructional setting also calls for the exigency to clarify our biases and presumptions about it, especially that most of these have been negative.

The negative stereotypes on rhetoric are enunciated in many scholarly literature and articles. In the article of Foss published in the Encyclopedia of Communication Theory, she referred to the pervasively negative view of rhetoric that endures even to this day. Foss likewise insinuated that this
biased for a negative view on rhetoric traces back to the influence of Ancient Greek Philosophers, particularly the famous Plato.

An article by Davis (2013) published by the Michigan Radio Newsroom likewise indicates the overwhelming stigma on rhetorics as reflected in the quotes below excerpted from his article. Notably, however, David cued on the rhetoric practice being integral to teacher discourse. Davis (2013) cues the exigency to redeem the image of rhetoric in the academic enterprise. On this reason, this current study is an attempt to clarify the value of rhetoric by purifying it from the dominant bias that rhetoric is employable only in the context of deception or mere persuasion for its own sake.

**Filling the Gap in Teaching Discourse Studies and Theorizing**

This current study was not conceptualized from a vacuum nor is its exigencies imposed from nowhere. Indubitably, there have been previous studies on “teaching discourse”. In fact, the latter can be such a frequent item of analysis but mostly in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) studies, or Linguistic studies, or Language Education studies. In most of the ways the phenomenon of teaching discourse is treated, it is more commonly associated to recommendations on improving teaching strategies in the classroom or its catalytic importance in promoting classroom atmosphere with low levels of anxiety or affective filter, conducive for second language learners to be more communicative or more productive in the second language they are attempting to learn or approximate. In all these cases, teaching discourse is mostly analyzed at how it can be instrumental to learners’ development of proficiency in a second language. But these are concerns in the realm of language education studies. In contrast, the aim in this study is to analyze teaching discourse from its most fundamental qualification as a “communicative practice” even prior to any regard for it as instrumental to promoting learning competencies. And this is also precisely where a “gap” can be perceived. It has become too overwhelming to note that scholars have almost always seen teaching discourse as a phenomenon for its instrumentality in a language education setting, and not the primordially bare fact of what it it really is --- “Communication”. And basically, all attempts at theorizing teaching discourse on the level of its instrumentality in language education can only turn out to be incomplete unless we really understand its dynamics from a genuinely “communication analysis”. And thus, the import of a Communication study on this phenomenon enters the scene to fill in most of the gap in the understanding of the dynamics of teaching discourse.

**Research Objectives**

The focal specimen of communication dealt with in this study explored the intricacies of instructional communication or how teachers, specifically language teachers, account for
communication in the process of teaching. In the allied field of Applied Linguistics, the communicative discourse of a teacher while in the performance of his or her function is also known as “teacher talk”. Thus, the characterization of this communication specimen, i.e. teacher talk, was taken here as the object of analysis. Moreover, the intricacies of teacher talk in an online EFL (English as a Foreign Language) instructional setting is staked in this study, in which analysis centered on the rhetoric types and undertones imbedded in teacher talk in an online instructional setting.

The enterprise of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Instruction has blossomed through the years. In the Philippines, various companies have been established to offer EFL teaching that caters to foreigner students, usually from other Asian countries and even countries outside Asia (McGeown, 2012). Adjacent the proliferation of companies offering EFL instruction services in the Philippines is the growing popularity of “online teaching” as a viable alternative instructional delivery mode adopted by many EFL companies. Online teaching has offered tenable advantages and benefits not commonly associated with regular schools that cater to either group or individualized instruction (Coleman, 2010). While individualized instruction is primordially possible in a face-to-face setting, the uniqueness features of individualized online teaching facilitate an environment said to be more psychologically convenient for the learner, with less degree of anxiety and lower affective filters compared to a face-to-face setting (Bolliger & Halupa, 2011). In an online instruction setting, it was generally found that learners are more comfortable and less intimidated when expressing themselves in the target language, and expressing their own thoughts, reflections, sentiments and challenges in the learning process (Guinan, 2014). As regards to this, there appears to be more than a mere difference in the delivery mode and medium between face-to-face teaching and online teaching. Online teaching with its unique features also set a distinct nuance in the manner and mechanics of communication between the teacher and the learner. As such, the communication phenomenon in the context of online teaching opens the research venue to investigate the distinct command and use of rhetoric by the participants of the communication process.

In view of the above, this study aimed to analyse the “verbal interactions” involved in the enterprise of online teaching English and thereby treats the teaching process as basically a communication phenomenon. More specifically, the analysis meant to detect the manifestation of teachers’ use of rhetoric, regardless of it being either unconscious or intentional.

The study analyzed the characteristics of the communication process that transpires in the online teaching of EFL from the standpoint of the Rhetoric Theory of Communication. Thus, the research navigated towards a series and sequence of investigative tasks braced on the following objectives:
1. Identify the rhetorically functional sentence structures in the teacher talk of online EFL teachers, particularly during their online dialogue with their students.

2. Determine the discourse functions of the teacher talks that are identified as rhetorically functional sentence structures.

3. Classify the rhetorically functional sentence structures from the teacher talks into invitational rhetoric and intrusive rhetoric types based on the rhetoric intent of the discourses.

Research Design and Methodology
Research Setting and Participants

The setting of the study is GnGn Eikaiwa Phils., Inc. Clark (GGE for brevity). It is an office-based online education company located in Pampanga, Philippines. The company provides EFL (English as a Foreign Language) education to mostly Japanese students and to non-native English speakers through online teaching programs. To date, the company is among the Top 5 popular online English schools in Japan.

The study employed a total of four (4) online EFL teachers as case subjects, with an equal number of male and female members (i.e. two male and two female teachers). The teachers were currently active and regular employees of GnGn Eikawa (GGE) Philippines-Pampanga at the time of data retrieval. The teachers were commonly assigned “accounts” (i.e. EFL courses) in which they handled Japanese EFL learners. The four male and female teachers dealt with either male or female students. The balance in the sex-distribution of the teachers was done purposively to which the GGE management concurred, as they were the one who identified the teachers to serve as case subjects.

Data Gathering Tool

To determine evidence on the manifestations of rhetoric in the teacher participants’ discourses, all the teachers’ utterances in the duration of their online teaching and dialogue with their respective students were recorded, i.e. audio-visual recording. This did not entail a complex procedure since it was integral to the management system of the GGE company to generate audio-visual records of their teachers’ activities during the online session. This was part of their monitoring system to check on the performance of their teachers.

A. Recording of the online teacher-learner interaction. This refers to the documentation of the online communication exchanges between the teacher participant and his or her student. However,
the object of observation here is reduced only to the level of “verbal communication”, i.e. teacher talk as “utterances” (or spoken statements).

**B. Transcription of online teacher-learner interactions.** Verbatim transcription was conducted by the researcher based on the recordings provided by the GGE Management. The transcription was done in order to: (a) identify the study’s basic unit of analysis, and (b) provide a concrete reference where more detailed analysis of the rhetoric-infused teacher discourses could be availed. The format of the transcription made use of Sinclair and Coulthard’s Model (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975).

**Data Gathering Procedure and Analysis**

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis were used to examine the manifestations of rhetoric in teacher-talk. Presentation and discussion of data and the findings were allocated for the accounts from each teacher participant, although syntheses were also provided at the end of the discussions under each research objective. The syntheses made were also meant to offer sex-aggregated data and perspective to the findings.

**Determining the manifestations of rhetoric undertone in online teaching discourses**

Manifestations of the teachers’ use of rhetoric in their online communicative discourses with their students is technically understood as deriving or isolating the chunks of teacher talk that are identified to have rhetoric undertones.

It was a primordial assumption that not all the utterances of a teacher-participant recorded from his or her online communication with the student are expected to manifest rhetoric undertones. Somehow, this has been anticipated from the beginning. Thus, the need to isolate only those utterances that are embedded with rhetoric undertones. To facilitate this, the recordings were carefully transcribed to enable a more focused observation of every utterance of the teacher. Likewise, each utterance was not simply observed as a fragment but in relation to the entire flow of discourse. The context of an utterance in relation to the whole discourse also helped the researcher to determine whether a rhetoric undertone was in effect in a particular utterance.

To determine whether a specific utterance bore a rhetoric intent, the statement is carefully analyzed of its semantic and pragmatic meaning. On top of that, each statement is analyzed in relation to the criteria set for the different types of rhetoric. A specific utterance or statement of a teacher is thus qualified as to whether or not it contains a rhetoric undertone. If a statement or utterance qualifies
as such, then it was isolated and labeled as a “rhetorically functional sentence structure” (or RFSS for brevity). The RFSS units extracted from the recorded discourse corpus of each teacher participant are then collected and placed in a table as a visual presentation that served as a reference in their discussion. To avoid a presentation of the RFSS units as mere fragments extracted from the teacher-student dialogue, the entire portion of the dialogue from where they were extracted was also reflected in the tables. In this way, this kind of presentation also aids in explaining and discussing why these particular utterances were qualified as RFSS units.

Determining the discourse functions of rhetorically charged online teaching discourses

To determine the specific discourse functions to which the teacher’s use of rhetoric was noted to be active, the Teacher Discourse Functions Inventory by Sinclair & Coulthard (1975 in Cockayne, 2010) was used. The theoretical assumption is that use of rhetoric is associated with the function of the discourse containing a rhetoric undertone. This means that there may be variations in the extent of using rhetoric depending on certain discourse functions

The model used for the above mentioned analysis is patterned after the procedure of Sinclair & Coulthard (1975 in Cockayne, 2010). Cockayne used the same model in his study “Applying the Sinclair & Coulthard Model of Discourse Analysis to a Student-Centered EFL Classroom”. This model intends to analyze the discourse of an EFL teacher as he or she deals with the student/s in a classroom setting, although it was specifically adopted in this study to analyze the teacher’s discourse while dealing with his or her student in an online EFL instructional setting.

The researcher also considered to resort to external expert consultation with an EFL researcher, Dr. Galahad Randall S. Unciano, for the purpose of seeking his recommendations and comments on the method of analyzing the functions of the teaching discourses. This expert consultation extends to the guidance provided to the researcher on the actual classification of the teaching discourses into the different discourse functions.

Determining the rhetoric intent and the type of rhetoric employed by the online EFL teachers

The third and final research objective is meant to make the respective “rhetoric intents” of the teachers explicit by inferring them from the RFSS units. In actual communication, a rhetor would not divulge explicitly his or her rhetoric intent to the audience. When one offers a rhetoric discourse, he or she does not usually state that he or she is pulling a rhetoric strategy to persuade the audience to accept an idea or to make them act or decide in a certain way. The rhetor normally keeps the rhetoric intent to himself or herself, or at least, from the target audience.
The third research objective, however, branches yet into a second level of analysis, and that is to determine the specific rhetoric types used by the teachers. It is obvious here that the two levels of analysis, i.e. (a) determining the rhetoric intents of the teachers, and (b) determining the rhetoric types the teachers employ, were lumped under one statement of research objective and that is because these levels of analysis are indeed complementary. The teacher whose role as a rhetor in this study initially accounts for a rhetoric intent. It is assumed that a teacher who assumes the role of a rhetor must have a rhetoric intent. The rhetoric intent, though, is just a mental disposition that needs to be concretely executed and completed through an actual communication, otherwise a rhetoric intent remains to be a mere intent. To account for a rhetoric discourse requires the rhetor’s selection of a type of rhetoric to use in the actual communication of his or her rhetoric intent to the target audience. It is also possible that two different rhetors having a similar rhetoric intent may choose different types of rhetoric to communicate their rhetoric intent.

For the methodology, the process of identifying the teachers’ respective rhetoric intents was through a careful analysis of their respective RFSS units. Here, it is important to note that there is no one-to-one correspondence wherein one RFSS unit necessarily have to correspond to one rhetoric intent. What was most likely observed in the teachers’ discourses is that they employed several utterances to pursue just a single rhetoric intent.

To further the analysis and insights that can be drawn from the types of rhetoric used by the teachers, the findings were also configured to reflect sex-aggregated data. This enables the comparison of the accounts of the male and female teachers in as far as inclination towards certain types of rhetoric is concerned. The objective in this analysis is to draw comparison and contrast as to how male and female teachers consciously or unconsciously select certain rhetoric types to be used in their discourses when they engage in rhetoric communication. From this, it may be discovered if sex is a factor to one’s inclination towards or use of certain types of rhetoric.

**SLA is not an Issue of Language per se but Communication**

The study of Doman (2005) published in the Asian EFL Journal Quarterly speaks of some extent of distortion in SLA Research, wherein a density of previous studies seems reductive in the view that difficulties and problems in second language had to do mainly with “lack of language skill”, thereby digressing on the issue of “breakdown of communication” (Doman, 2005). Doman suggests that negotiation is essential in communicative processes. This current study articulates an aspect of this negotiation process by showing how interactants in a conversation (i.e. the conversation between the teacher and the learner in an instructional discourse setting) engage in mutual persuasion through the subtle use of rhetoric.
Results and Discussion

Manifestations of the Use of Rhetoric in Instructional Communication

The respective sets of online teaching discourses of the four online EFL teachers who participated in this study, i.e. male and female teachers, manifested rhetoric undertones, which means that either male or female teachers used rhetoric in the conduct of their teaching, specifically via their verbal communication with their respective students. The following set further details of the manifestation of rhetoric undertones in the teaching discourses:

- Across the raw corpora of teaching discourses of the male and female teachers, only some (and not all) of their teaching discourses were identified as rhetorically charged.
- Use of rhetoric in teaching discourse is more frequently manifested by the male teachers than the female teachers. This is calculated from the ratio of rhetorically charged versus the non-rhetorical teaching discourses of the teachers, wherein the density of rhetorically charged discourses is greater on the part of the male teachers, by at least 20%, compared to the accounts of the female teachers.

Use of Rhetoric across Teaching Discourse Functions

- Of the twenty-one (21) discourse functions in the inventory of Sinclair & Coulthard, twelve (12) of these (representing the majority at 57.14%) characterize the rhetorically charged teaching discourses of the male and female teachers. This means that their use of rhetoric is not evident in the dispense of the rest of other discourse functions.
- The male and female teachers used rhetoric in their online teaching discourses in the context of dispensing certain discourse functions, thereby indicating that some discourse functions may be catalytic to trigger the teachers’ use of rhetoric. These rhetoric inducing discourse functions are termed as “Rhetorically Productive Teaching Discourse Functions” (RPTDF).
- Rhetorically productive teaching discourse functions (RPTDF) seem to be “sex-associated”, in view of some evidence that certain RPTDFs are exclusively found in the accounts of the male teachers namely DF-10, DF-15, and DF-20. These RPTDFs pertain to the following discourse functions:
  a) to signal a desire to contribute to the discourse
  b) to provide additional information relating to a previous informative
  c) to elicit the repetition of a student reply
• The most common discourse functions that triggered the teachers’ use of rhetoric include the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discourse Functions (Code and Meaning)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DF4 (to request a linguistic response)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF7 (to provide information)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF11 (to call on or give permission to a pupil to contribute to the discourse)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF16 (to indicate that a reply or reaction was appropriate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF17 (to positively or negatively evaluate a previous reply)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• The discourse functions that are least productive to trigger the teachers’ use of rhetoric include the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discourse Functions (Code and Meaning)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DF10 (to signal a desire to contribute to the discourse)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF15 (to provide additional information relating to a previous informative)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF20 (to elicit the repetition of a student reply)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• There are discourse functions more dominant to trigger the male teachers to use rhetoric. These include the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discourse Functions (Code and Meaning)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DF4 (to request a linguistic response)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF9 (to provide additional information to help students respond to a previous directive or elicitation)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• There are discourse functions more dominant to trigger the female teachers to use rhetoric. These include the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discourse Functions (Code and Meaning)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

37
There are discourse functions that most commonly trigger both male and female teachers to use rhetoric. These include the following:

- **DF11** (to call on or give permission to a pupil to contribute to the discourse)
- **DF16** (to indicate that a reply or reaction was appropriate)
- **DF17** (to positively or negatively evaluate a previous reply)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Discourse Functions (Code and Meaning)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DF7 (to provide information)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The specific discourse functions that more frequently trigger the male teachers to use rhetoric are generally characteristic of “aggressive communication strategies”, while the specific discourse functions that more frequently trigger the female teachers to use rhetoric are generally characteristic of “passive communication strategies”.

**Rhetoric Intent and the Types of Rhetoric employed in Teaching Discourses**

**A. Rhetoric intents of male and female teachers**

- The male teachers slightly account for more diverse rhetoric intents compared to the accounts of the female teachers.
- The male and female teachers set diverse rhetoric intents for their rhetorical moves. Across the different rhetoric intents of the teachers (regardless of sex), they all register under three conceptual abstracts namely:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conceptual Abstracts of the Teachers’ Rhetoric Intents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Code</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract-b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abstract-c</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
On account of the conceptual abstract of the rhetoric intents accounted for by the male and female teachers, the following observations are noteworthy:

a) Most of the rhetoric intents of the male teachers qualify as “Abstract-a”

b) The female teachers account for a balanced distribution of their rhetoric intents under “Abstract-a” and “Abstract-c”

c) Only the male teachers account for a rhetorical intent under “Abstract-b”

d) Only the female teachers account for rhetorical intents under “Abstract-c”

e) The common denominator between the male and the female teachers is having accounts of rhetoric intents under ‘Abstract-a’

More dominant on the part of the male teachers is that their rhetoric intents have “teacher-centered” orientation. More dominant on the part of the female teachers is that their rhetoric intents have “student-centered” orientation.

B. Rhetoric types employed by male and female teachers

- Both the male and female teachers manifested the use of intrusive rhetoric and invitational rhetoric in their teaching discourse.

- Across the accounts of the male and female online EFL teachers, their use of “intrusive rhetoric” is vividly dominant by, at least, 28% over their use of “invitational rhetoric”. This trend is consistent even as it is broken down into the accounts of the male and the female teachers. The teachers’ dominant use of intrusive rhetoric is densely characterized by their use of its subtype namely, “conquest rhetoric”.

- The rate of using intrusive rhetoric over invitational rhetoric is higher on the part of the male teachers than on the part of the female teachers. The reverse is also true that the female teachers’ density of using invitational rhetoric is greater than the density in which the male teachers use invitational rhetoric.

- Compared to the female teachers, the male teachers account for a broader exploration and use of all the types of rhetoric, i.e. invitational rhetoric and all the three subtypes of intrusive rhetoric. The female teachers give no account of the use of conversion rhetoric which is a subtype of intrusive rhetoric.

- The male teachers account for “rhetorically hybrid strategy”, not observed among the female teachers. This means that the male teachers resort to compounding the use of more than one type of rhetoric even in the pursuit of a single rhetoric intent. The female teachers consistently used a single rhetoric type for every single rhetoric intent.
In the pairing of rhetoric intent and rhetoric type, there are notable patterns observable in the accounts of the male and female teachers. They are noted in the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Male Teacher</th>
<th>Female Teacher</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alternates the use of invitational and intrusive rhetoric in a single discourse setting with a series of non-identical rhetoric intents</td>
<td>Alternates the use of invitational and intrusive rhetoric in a single discourse setting with a series of non-identical rhetoric intents</td>
<td>Similar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternates the use of two or more types of rhetoric even when peddling a single rhetoric intent</td>
<td>Uses only one type of rhetoric even when peddling a single rhetoric intent</td>
<td>Different</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses invitational rhetoric always adjacent to or compounded with a subtype of intrusive rhetoric in the pursuit of a single rhetoric intent</td>
<td>Uses invitational rhetoric independently from any combination in the pursuit of a single rhetoric intent</td>
<td>Different</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses intrusive rhetoric either independently from any combination or adjacent with the use of invitational rhetoric</td>
<td>Uses intrusive rhetoric independently from any combination in the pursuit of a single rhetoric intent</td>
<td>Different</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusions**

From this study’s findings, certain insights were offered to inform the theory of invitational rhetoric (Foss & Griffin, 2009). This study offers empirical evidences that show how male and female teachers account for the use of the different types of rhetoric and that there are surprising results which even this researcher did not anticipate despite her literature reviews on the rhetoric theory of communication. The findings relatively oppose Foss’ explicit gender-association to the types of rhetoric. This study found that male and female teachers use at a relatively balanced degree both invitational and intrusive rhetoric. More empirical evidences are needed to solidly substantiate the insights generated from this study’s findings if they were to inform the theory of communication or
pose a critique on the theory itself, particularly Foss & Griffin’s concept of rhetoric and their association of sex to the types of rhetoric.

The study sparked interest on the pedagogical value and significance of “teacher rhetoric skills” which can be offered as a substantial addition to the roster of teaching competencies, which comprises the theoretical basis for the evaluation of teaching performance.

A proliferation of research on the characteristic use of rhetoric in teaching discourse is highly encouraged in order to further demonstrate and establish more solidly the effects that rhetoric in teacher talk has on the performance, attitude and behavior of learners. This catalyzes more reasons to consider the importance of shaping teachers’ rhetoric skills if research can definitely establish the fact that rhetoric strategies contribute significantly to the conditioning of the learning atmosphere in EFL or language instructional settings, whether it be online settings or traditional classroom settings.

The study should spark interest on EFL teachers to consider the use of the types of rhetoric as ancillary to their aim to reduce learner affective filters, to condition students for an increased motivation to learn EFL, to help promote positive attitudes toward EFL learning, and to increase the communication opportunities of students in an EFL instructional setting which encourages their productive use of the target language.

This study makes no assumption that only teacher-generated discourses can be analyzed of their rhetoric undertones. Thus, future research can explore the rhetoric undertones of learner talk or discourse, or even the dynamics of the interaction between teacher discourses and learner discourses to examine any probable mutual or reciprocal effects between them and how such effects inform the choice or use of a rhetoric type in a given discourse situation. For instance, some parts of the analysis hint an increased volume of learner talk or increased student participation in instances when the teacher uses invitational rhetoric, and that it seems to produce the opposite effect when intrusive rhetoric is used. But these are points in this study’s analyses that are only given a passing review.

**Pedagogical Implications / Recommendations for EFL Teaching**

This study found evidence on the profuse use of various types of rhetoric in online EFL teaching as accounted for by male and female teachers. This is not altogether surprising considering that a virtual instructional environment urges the online teacher to sustain the attention of the EFL learner to compensate for the lack of personal touch which is intact in regular classroom instruction. Although, the study does not account for a comparison on the density of using rhetoric between online and classroom setting; nevertheless, this is also an interesting point to consider in future research. Moreover, online EFL teaching maximizes the use of all types of rhetoric, whether taken singly or in
combination. The findings also suggest that online teachers appear to use rhetoric more densely in connection to certain discourse functions.

With reference to the above, it is the novel recommendation of this study to integrate “skills in the use of invitational and intrusive rhetoric” among the major skills that EFL teachers should be trained to develop. In the course of research analysis, it was found that those teachers who had a good command of rhetoric skills and efficient choice of rhetoric to employ also resulted to increase “learner talk and participation”. It would be optimal if teachers knew which discourse functions would be optimized by choosing the appropriate rhetoric type to employ and how it is properly executed. Contrary to Foss’ emphasis of invitational rhetoric being more favorable than intrusive rhetoric, the researcher observed from the teacher-learner discourses that both types of rhetoric served to be beneficial for instructional purposes, and a good balance of using the rhetoric types proves to be even more beneficial to both teacher and learner.

Acknowledgements

The writer wishes to thank her dissertation committee at the University of the Philippines Open University for granting permission to reconfigure her prior research with the University and utilize the same set of data analyzed from the perspective and paradigm of EFL research. This study is the result of such reconfiguration. The writer also wishes to acknowledge and thank, in a special way, the scholarly assistance of Dr. Galahad Randall S. Unciano as the external research consultant.

Literature Cited


Using Computer Analysis of Student Writing to Improve Lesson Planning

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Abstract

This paper describes the results of a study that aimed to investigate the effectiveness of using Coh-Metrix to perform a computer analysis of student writing, and the extent to which this analysis could be used by the classroom teacher to improve lesson planning and thereby create opportunity for better learning outcomes. A quasi-experimental design was employed to gather data from undergraduate students taking a pre-requisite academic English writing course at a Malaysian public university. The students took part in four weekly lessons, during which the researchers assigned writing tasks that were analysed using Coh-Metrix to determine student performance in selected aspects of writing. Student essays were also independently assessed using the ESL Composition Profile. The results from the analyses of each assignment were then used to plan the following lesson. Following teaching that targeted identified areas of weakness, the majority of the selected writing measures analysed using Coh-Metrix showed an improvement from essay 1 to essay 3, as did the four categories assessed through the ESL Composition Profile. The results indicate that a Coh-Metrix analysis, used in
conjunction with a teacher analysis of student writing, is useful in the identification of student needs and for the planning of appropriate classroom lessons.

**Keywords:** Coh-Metrix, Computer assessment of writing, ESL Writing, Needs-based teaching, Mapping student progress

Introduction

Technology is advancing rapidly and computer analysis of writing is becoming more sophisticated and accessible. Computer analysis has been an invaluable component of research in linguistics and is used extensively to validate the grade levels assigned in entrance examinations. It is also used in tests such as TOEFL iBT and SAT (Elliot & Klobucar, 2013) to provide scores used to determine outcomes such as university placements and scholarships. Various studies have shown the efficacy of computer analyses of writing in providing a holistic writing score or mapping changes in student writing competency (Crossley, 2013; Laufer, 1994; Shermis & Burstein, 2013), but discrepancies do exist between evaluations made by human raters and those made using computer programs. These discrepancies, however, should not cause us to discount the use of computers in the analysis of texts.

Our personal interest in computer-generated analysis stems from the experience of the first author in teaching special needs students in Australia and EFL undergraduates in an Indonesian university; preparing students to take the TOEFL, IELTS, or SAT; and the second author’s experience in preparing prospective teachers of ESL at a Malaysian university. We are interested in ways to effectively address the major problems evidenced in the writing of both graduate and undergraduate students and to equip them to meet the university’s requirement that assignments be written in English.

While we are both experienced educators and rely on this experience, along with our intuition and knowledge of English, we are also interested in how technology can assist teachers in improving students’ writing. One such technology is Coh-Metrix 3.x, a computational tool which provides 108 indicators of linguistic and discourse competence. The tool examines the textual cohesion that helps a reader “mentally connect ideas in the text”, and while this applies directly to evaluating the readability of a text, the generated measures “can be used in many different ways” (Coh-Metrix documentation). The purpose of this paper is to describe the results of our research concerning the integration of Coh-Metrix analyses into lesson preparation for teaching ESL/EFL writing.
Common uses of Automated Writing Evaluation (AWE)

A college entrance examination is an example of a single instance assessment of writing ability that provides a “point in time” snapshot of a writer’s skill. Education Testing Service (ETS) has used its e-rater service for almost 20 years. The current version, 2.0, measures approximately 50 writing features including errors, organisation, lexical complexity, vocabulary and essay length (Attali & Burstein, 2005), and its scores have been shown to correlate highly with those of human raters (Attali & Burstein, 2005; Foltz, Streeter, Lochbaum, & Landauer, 2013). This type of assessment is often used to assign a single grade to a piece of writing, but can also be effective in identifying candidates in need of remedial writing courses (Elliot & Klobucar, 2013).

Because point-in-time measures can be made, changes over time can be recorded. This has been done in a variety of ways with differing foci. Laufer’s (1994) study measured changes in lexical diversity and lexical sophistication over two semesters. Barkaoui (2013) utilized 5 different computer programs or web-based applications to examine changes in grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competencies in a series of 3 IELTS essays. A recent study by Li, Feng & Saricaoglu (2017) examined the short and long term effects of feedback provided by Criterion, an AWE tool, which measures, reports on and corrects writing errors.

In the classroom

Developments in Natural Language Processing (NLP) and AWE have enabled advanced programs to recognise rhetoric and relevance and provide feedback on linguistic features to students and teachers in the classroom. Studies on the use of ETS’s Criterion in ESL writing classes have been conducted by researchers such as El-Ebyary and Windeatt (2010) and Link, Dursun, Karakaya and Hegelheimer (2014). They found that while the program assisted writing development, students did not make full use of its capabilities. Nevertheless, computer generated feedback has a definite place in the classroom, but some researchers question the accuracy of how the various programs formulate their feedback (Liu & Kunnan, 2015).

This Study

It was not the purpose of our study to ascertain the usefulness of commercially available programs which are constantly being improved. We were interested in how computer analyses of writing can assist teachers and students in class settings in which they may not have access to computers or a reliable internet connection. Coh-Metrix is one such tool that provides extremely useful information, but is there any practical way for a teacher to make use of this kind of analysis in the writing class?
Our research was conducted in a context in which the grading of essays and the ascertainment of writing ability is done manually using a standardised matrix such as the ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel, & Hughey, 1981). Additionally, writing courses usually follow a prescribed order and do not always consider the actual developmental needs of students. Because of this, we wanted to examine the application of Coh-Metrix analysis to help us address the following questions:

1. Does a focus on a particular index of linguistic competence in a teaching setting have a positive effect on other indices or on the overall writing score?

2. Are there any statistically significant changes in linguistic competency scores over the period of the treatment?

Through our review of previous studies, we were able to identify a relatively small number of linguistic features considered by other researchers to be indicative of changes in writing ability. We then categorised the 15 Coh-Metrix indices related to these features according to 4 of the 5 components of the ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs et al., 1981): Content, Organisation, Vocabulary, and Language Use. These categorised indices and the studies that showed their efficacy are presented below.

**Content**

Essay/Text Length (Attali & Burstein, 2005; Barkaoui, 2016; Cumming et al., 2005; Grant & Ginther, 2000; Woolpert, 2016): Coh-Metrix measures Text Length, often considered the most important index in score prediction.

**Organisation**

Connectives (Dowell, Graesser, & Cai, 2016): Coh-Metrix’s “All Connectives” measure was used rather than individual measures for causal, logical, adversative, temporal, additive, positive and negative connectives, as the published norms (McNamara, Graesser, McCarthy, & Cai, 2012) showed a consistent increase in the total connectives score not uniformly observed in the norms for individual indices.

Overlap (Barkaoui, 2016): Coh-Metrix measures Noun Overlap, the occurrence of the same nouns in all sentences of the text, and Argument Overlap which includes singular and plural noun forms and pronouns. In Stem Overlap, Coh-Metrix measures the occurrence of nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs sharing a common morphological element in adjacent sentences and throughout the whole text.
Vocabulary

Lexical Diversity (Cumming et al., 2005; Grant & Ginther, 2000; Laufer, 1994; McCarthy & Jarvis, 2010; Woolpert, 2016): Coh-Metrix generates a measure of textual and lexical diversity, which is not affected by changes in text length.

Syntactic Pattern Density (Barkaoui, 2016): Coh-Metrix reports on the individual density of noun, verb, adverbial and prepositional phrases.

Word Length (Barkaoui, 2016; Cumming et al., 2005; Grant & Ginther, 2000): Coh-Metrix provides two measures of Word Length, the number of letters and the number of syllables.

Word frequency (Grant & Ginther, 2000): Coh-Metrix measures the average frequency of all words in a text.

Lexical Sophistication (Hinkel, 2003; Laufer, 1994): Coh-Metrix measures the Age of Acquisition of content words for which a higher score depicts a writer using more sophisticated words, and Word Familiarity an index showing how familiar words are to adults. A lower Word Familiarity score indicates greater sophistication.

Language Use

Noun phrase density (Hinkel, 2003; Laufer, 1994): Coh-Metrix provides a count of the number of noun phrases in a text.

Syntactic Similarity (Barkaoui, 2016): Coh-Metrix provides a proportional measure of the similarity of sentence structure within a text.

Mechanics

Errors (Barkaoui, 2016): Coh-Metrix does not indicate errors, but rather measures the actual use of linguistic features. As a result, the researchers relied on manual identification of grammar, spelling and punctuation errors.

Features of the study

To carefully measure the development of writing skills, we compared the analyses of student writing by a single classroom teacher using the ESL Composition Profile (ESL CP) with a Coh-Metrix analysis of the same writing. This enabled us to observe any changes that occurred over time in the 15 selected linguistic features. This process built on previous studies that compared point-in-time grades given by
human raters with those assigned by a computer (Burstein, Kukich, Wolff, Lu, & Chodorow, 1998); measured the progress of students using AWE such as Criterion (Link et al., 2014); or used computer analysis to measure changes over time in selected linguistic features, as in Barkaoui's (2016) study of repeat IELTS candidates.

We used Coh-Metrix to analyse 8 persuasive essays written by native speakers of English taking the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and which had been determined by external raters to be at the highest level according to the scoring criteria of the SAT. We then created a linguistic data profile of our intervention target by overlaying the SAT group’s analysis results on grade level norms for Language Arts provided by the developers of Coh-Metrix (McNamara et al., 2012). This linguistic data profile is important because not all the indices for any particular genre are scored at the same grade level.

Coh-Metrix also produces a simplified graphic output of its analysis, giving percentage scores for Narrativity, Syntactic Simplicity, Word Concreteness, and Referential and Deep Cohesion, as well as a grade level equivalent. Using this graphic output, we showed students how to monitor changes in their scores and how their scores related to those of the SAT target group. Similar to the 88.42% of non-English faculty students in Machmud's (2018) survey who considered the use of technology in English classes as important, our students appreciated and responded positively to this computer generated representation of their language use.

The subjects

The 21 undergraduate students who participated in the study were final year economics students. They were predominantly Malaysian, with four students from Afghanistan, Indonesia and Thailand. All of the students regarded English as a second, rather than a foreign language because of the length of time they had studied at the university and because of their exposure to and use of English. In addition to speaking English as a second language, many of the students spoke a third, and sometimes fourth language. Even though their writing abilities ranged considerably, the students had been assigned to the same intermediate level class for the development of their academic writing ability.

Different numbers of students attended each lesson or submitted each of the essays. Following each submission, all of the essays were analysed to assist in the development of an appropriate lesson plan for the following lesson. The Repeated Measures ANOVA was conducted on the essays of students who submitted Essays 1–3.
Classroom procedures

Each lesson in the program was designed to follow a set pattern to facilitate student involvement. The introduction for each lesson (after the first) included a review of the previous essay with time given for individual consultations with students regarding the simple notes written on the printout of their essays. When common errors existed in student work, these were discussed as a whole class, with the understanding that pointing out grammar mistakes is not always considered the most effective method of developing writing ability (McNamara, Crossley, & Roscoe, 2013). Then, the students participated in a warm-up activity related to the vocabulary required for the new topic. This was also done to orientate the students towards the new writing task to be assigned and provide a more authentic context for that task (Crossley, 2013).

Lesson topics

The structural and linguistic components introduced and taught in each lesson were derived from the Coh-Metrix analyses of the students’ writing or student requests.

The regular class teacher had provided a copy of a practice writing paper the students were studying in preparation for an upcoming examination. From perusing the type of questions the students would face in this examination, we understood that the students would need to be able to brainstorm effectively to adequately respond to the essay question. They would need to not only decide on relevant content, but also be able to prioritize that content to fulfil the 200-word, single paragraph limit.

We developed general themes for the four lessons that would generate discussion and enable us to teach according to the linguistic elements that would emerge following the analyses of the lessons and the class assignments; to achieve this we gave the students the following essay prompts:

- Lesson 1: Introduce yourself
- Lesson 2: It is better to study at a western university than at “this university”.
- Lesson 3: It is better to judge a person by his or her character than by nationality or religion.
- Lesson 4: Is it possible to maintain personal beliefs while celebrating diversity in others?

Class writing assignments for Lessons 2 to 4 required a persuasive essay response. Prompts for lessons 2 and 3 used the comparative “better” to focus the students on using facts to support their argument. The prompt for Lesson 4 built on the theme of friendship introduced in the previous lesson, requiring them to either agree or disagree with the prompt. The similarity between the lesson themes was designed to elicit the use of similar linguistic elements so that changes in linguistic competency could be more easily observed.
Feedback from writing samples

It was decided that feedback to the students would not focus on grammatical errors, but on the linguistic features present or absent in their writing. Grammatical and spelling errors were marked with a highlighter, but the actual error was neither specified nor corrected. Notes were made in the margins to be discussed with the students during in-class consultations. The reason for highlighting these errors was to encourage students to ask questions about their writing and to think about what needed to change.

As well as highlighting mistakes in their writing, we gave students a printout of the output from the Coh-Metrix Text Easability Assessor. The students were shown how to compare the direction and magnitude of changes in each of the six categories represented in the graphs for Essays 1-3.

Writing analysis

Each of the essays was analysed using the ESL CP, which provided a standard analysis of 5 areas of writing: Content, Organisation, Vocabulary, Language Use and Mechanics. We assigned a score of either A, B, C or D with either a plus, standard or minus (e.g.: A+, A, A-) depending on how well the student satisfied the criteria of the level. The students, however, were given no indication of our score to avoid any possible conflict with grades assigned by the department.

In addition to manual rating, all the essays were analysed using Coh-Metrix. When entering the texts in digital format for analysis, no changes were made to the organisation, grammar or spelling in the student texts, except for 5 texts in which paragraph breaks were added. Both the original and the 5 adjusted texts were analysed to check that the adjustments only affected scores for the number of paragraphs and the number of sentences per paragraph.

The Coh-Metrix results for each linguistic feature were compared with the SAT target linguistic data profile to determine areas of individual student competence and the presence of any anomalies within our student’s results. This was essential because assessment limited to the achievement of a certain grade level equivalent can give a false indication of which linguistic features require attention. Linguistic data profiles produced using Coh-Metrix for different genre and ability levels reveal that the grade level norms for individual linguistic features change according to purpose and writer’s skill.
Implementation

The study comprised 4 main stages as shown in Figure 1. Each stage comprised a lesson, the writing of an essay in class or for homework, and analyses of both the lesson and its associated essay. These analyses informed the planning and implementation of the following lesson.

![Figure 1: Stages of Implementation](image)

Stage 1 – First Lesson and Essay 1

Stage 1 involved gathering the necessary base data to determine student needs. To do this, the main researcher conducted the initial lesson in which he introduced himself to the class, explained the purposes of the lessons and essays, and how these were expected to help the students.

As part of the introduction, the researcher mentioned his family and nationality, educational background and teaching experience, and likes and dislikes, finishing with his strengths and weaknesses. Using this introduction as a model, relevant content and associated vocabulary for a personal introduction were discussed with the class. Not all the students reported having ever used a graphic organiser in their writing; so, as part of this group discussion and brainstorming, information considered important for a written introduction was arranged on the board – the students were quick to add languages spoken and place of residence to the list. These ideas were then divided into logical topic areas and the students were asked to assign a rating of importance that would refer to the order of appearance in their essay. In effect, a plan for a written introduction had been developed.

The students were given 30 minutes to write an essay introducing themselves. The plan for the essay developed as a class was left on the board, but no instruction was given to the students that they should use it.
Each of the essays was analysed to determine writing strengths and weaknesses using the ESL CP and Coh-Metrix. In transferring these essays to the computer, the textual and formatting features of the handwritten originals were maintained.

A printout of each student’s essay, including the graphic from the Coh-Metrix Text Easability Assessor, was prepared for each student. Textual and structural features indicating problems relating to the organisation of the text or errors within the text were highlighted and comments were made for further discussion with the students.

Stage 2 – Second Lesson and Essay 2

The second lesson began with individual and whole class discussion regarding Essay 1.

After the warmup activity and specific teaching on essay planning, the students were assigned a homework essay to practice using the skills that had been taught in class. The second assignment was submitted in digital format to avoid any inadvertent changes to words or structure by the researchers when digitizing the text. It also eliminated any possible misinterpretation of punctuation. Additionally, it gave a more authentic context to the writing task, as the students would normally produce academic writing on a computer outside of class time. Finally, because there were very few spelling mistakes in the handwritten essays (4 mistakes by 3 students), we felt the availability of a spell checker would have a negligible or extremely limited effect on analysis results.

As in Stage 1, each of the essays was analysed manually and with Coh-Metrix. A printed copy of Essay 2 with each student’s Coh-Metrix Text Easability graph was prepared and textual and structural errors were manually highlighted.

Stage 3 – Third Lesson and Essay 3

The third lesson followed the same pattern as the second lesson, beginning with a review of the previous homework assignment. The students’ writing had improved and with their increased confidence, they requested that all their grammar mistakes be explicitly shown in the next essay corrected. The students were reminded to use a graphic organiser to plan their essays before submitting them in digital format.

The essays submitted were all analysed, and then, as requested by the students, their grammar and structural mistakes were corrected and indicated, along with the usual comments in the margins.
Stage 4 – Fourth Lesson and Essay 4

The final lesson, Lesson 4, began with individual consultations regarding the errors indicated and corrected on their homework assignments. Time was also given in Lesson 4 to discuss the analysis of Essay 3 and to thank the students for their participation in the study. No additional teaching topics were planned for this lesson.

Analysis and Results

When analysing the data to determine student needs for future lessons, data from all essays submitted following each lesson were considered. Relevant aspects of these data have been presented using descriptive statistics (mean scores) in the following sections to examine whether a focus on any particular linguistic feature positively affected other linguistic features and the overall writing score.

To ascertain the presence of statistically significant changes in linguistic features the researchers used repeated measures ANOVA to examine each of the index measures of the 7 students who submitted all 3 essays. These results are presented in the discussion of the results.

First Lesson and Essay 1

Results from the ESL CP grading of Essay 1 (Table 1) showed that, as a class, the most pronounced area of weakness was in the development of content. The essays displayed limited knowledge of, or inadequate development of, the topic, indicating a lack of pre-writing planning skills. This was surprising because it was an informational text containing known facts about themselves and the graphic organiser they had developed was available throughout the task.

Table 1: Results from researchers’ rating of Essay 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Essay 1 mean scores</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content (out of 30)</td>
<td>18.69</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization (out of 20)</td>
<td>14.44</td>
<td>B-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary (out of 20)</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>B-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Use (out of 25)</td>
<td>17.69</td>
<td>B-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanics (out of 5)</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>B-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Grade</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(A = highest to D = lowest)
Content

Text length ranged from 91 to 430 words, with an average of 224 words. While Text Length has been shown to be an indicator of writing level, the longest essay was assigned an overall score of C, while the shortest essay, with only 91 words, scored a D for the content component and yet obtained a C+ overall. These results for Essay 1 show that the number of words by itself was not indicative of the overall result, nor was it able to pinpoint a student’s writing ability.

The lower word count of the essays did, however, negatively impact on topic development, with no students scoring an A for content on the ESL CP. In fact, the Text Length of all 16 responses fell below the average of 480 of the SAT essays, highlighting the need for instruction on topic development in the second lesson.

Organisation

The organisational complexity of the essays ranged from that of K–1 (Kindergarten – Grade 1) to Grade 6–8. We consider this result to be related to Text Length and poor topic development, both of which emphasised the need for further, explicit instruction on planning before writing.

Vocabulary

The computer analysis of the essays proved to be extremely helpful in the categories of Vocabulary and Language Use. The linguistic features of these essays were compared with those obtained from the SAT group’s linguistic data profile developed from US grade level norms for features measured by Coh-Metrix. Word Length measured in syllables was at a Grade 9–10 level, whereas Word Length in Letters was at a Grade 4–5 level, and Lexical Diversity was at a Grade 2–3 level. All of these results were significantly lower than the Grade 11+ level of the SAT group’s essays. While these were seen as areas of need, we decided they would be best addressed after the students were writing longer texts and these scores were re-examined.

Language Use

In academic writing it is generally considered better to limit or avoid the use of contractions, but more than half the students used contractions in their writing. However, as the difference in the number of contractions between the participants’ essays and those of the SAT cohort was minimal, it was decided to simply inform the students in the second lesson against using contractions in their essays. Furthermore, there was a significant difference in Noun Phrase incidence and complexity between the two groups. In addition, the SAT cohort displayed less Syntactic Similarity in their writing. This was
considered to be a function of Text Length and therefore supported our initial focus on increasing the length of the students’ writing.

**Mechanics**

The students produced few spelling errors or punctuation errors. These errors were identified manually and highlighted on individual printouts of student texts. Only one student made consistent mistakes, using commas instead of full-stops.

**Second Lesson and Essay 2**

As noted above, the plan for the second lesson was to focus on the choice and organisation of content. One intended outcome from focusing on planning was an increase in Text Length and closer attention to genre characteristics. Two incidental achievements were a reduction in the use of contractions and, for one student, fewer comma-splice sentences.

After reviewing Essay 1, the students requested assistance with their upcoming examination in which they would be expected to write a 200-word paragraph. As would be expected following the analysis of the first essay, a number of the students expressed concern about reaching the minimum word limit. Their request matched a goal for the second lesson, so the lesson centred on using the practice examination question to plan and write a 200-word paragraph as a whole class exercise. The students were surprised at how simply and quickly they could plan for the task and then how efficiently a paragraph could be written and edited using that plan. Writing the paragraph as a class group enabled the teacher to model how to use planning, writing and editing techniques to produce a well-connected essay that incorporated a wider range of vocabulary.

Interestingly, although a graphic organiser was also used to arrange the information for the homework essay into separate paragraphs, the analysis of Essay 2 showed that almost half of the students wrote their assignment as a single paragraph, but well over 200 words. This single paragraph construction mimicked what had been demonstrated in the “exam prep” section of the previous lesson. The lack of content planning in Essay 1 and in the single paragraph structure of Essay 2 reinforce the idea that unless an already known feature or tool is specifically mentioned or stipulated, students do not automatically use that feature in their writing.

It needs to be noted that the 13 students who submitted Essay 2 represented the full range of abilities identified in Essay 1. As seen in Table 2, the mean scores obtained from the ESL CP grading of the
second essay showed a marked improvement in content scores and an overall improvement in all other scores but did not indicate any specific area of weakness.

Table 2: Results from researchers’ rating of essay 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Essay 2 mean scores</th>
<th>% increase from Essay 1 to Essay 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content (out of 30)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization (out of 20)</td>
<td>16.08</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary (out of 20)</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Use (out of 25)</td>
<td>18.93</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanics (out of 5)</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>B+</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Grade</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3-point increase (C to B)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While the ESL CP results (Table 2) show overall improvement, it was the Coh-Metrix analysis that identified specific linguistic competencies as potential foci for lesson planning.

Content

During the lesson, students were again guided in how to plan and develop their essay through the use of a graphic organiser. The average length of Essay 2 increased by 7 words, from 224 to 231 words. This increase might sound insignificant, but there was a dramatic change in the range, now 207 to 500 words. This is more significant knowing that the most verbose writer from Essay 1 did not submit Essay 2. Calculating the average for only those who submitted both essays showed an actual increase of 23 words. This was a pleasing result, especially since the focus was on planning for content and increased Text Length was a by-product. However, more attention on planning with a particular focus on essay length was identified as a need.

Organisation

Class average measures of Stem Overlap (in adjacent sentences), as well as measures for Argument, Noun, and Stem Overlap (in all sentences), and All Connectives showed a marked improvement. Results for these indices were higher than the same measures found in the SAT linguistic data profile. The analysis did show that the students’ writing decreased in Argument Overlap (adjacent sentences), but this was expected as students had been shown how to edit their writing to reduce the repetition of words.

While Coh-Metrix measures of Connectives use and Overlap indicated that the students’ writing was at a high grade level equivalent, the ESL CP analysis showed their writing to be replete with incorrect use of those connectives. Inappropriate use of coordinators, subordinators, and subjunctive adverbs
creates incorrect connections within a text and impacts negatively on the readability and information value of a text. To remedy this, we planned to introduce coordinators and their function in the following lesson.

**Vocabulary**

The increase in content scores was not lost on the students. In-class comments were positive, and students were eager to discuss ways to improve their writing further. When asked how they could improve their writing scores, however, they did not say “planning”, but rather—and unfortunately—their solution was to use “bombastic words”.

As Text Length increased, our analyses showed we needed to prioritize vocabulary development. While there had been an increase in the average number of different words, from 110 to 136, this was far from the 204 average of the SAT profile. Measures of Lexical Density and the Proportion of Nouns, Verbs, Adverbs, and Adjectives (in the whole text), showed the class index to be fractionally higher than that of the SAT group, again highlighting the need for longer texts.

With the students’ insistence that bombastic words were a key to increased scores, one would expect to see higher scores for Word Length and Word Sophistication. In fact, overall measures of Word Length and Sophistication placed the students as being equal to or above the SAT group. However, the incidence of those sophisticated words (of 46 per 1000 words) was far lower than the SAT group’s average of 76 words. A longer text allows for greater diversity in vocabulary. The Lexical Diversity score, which is not affected by text length, showed the class average unchanged from Essay 1 at a Grade 2–3 level, whereas the SAT group average was at a Grade 6–8 level.

Age of acquisition measurements showed that aspect of Lexical Sophistication to be at a Grade 11+ level, higher than the SAT group’s. Word Familiarity measures, like those of the SAT group, were lower than Age of Acquisition scores. The class average was still within the K–1 range, whereas the SAT group was in the Grade 4–5 range.

Appropriate word choice and the use of sophisticated words rather than the use of “bombastic” words should be the goal of academic writing. As with the use of connectives, the presence of certain words in a text does not mean those words are being used appropriately.

**Language Use**

The use of contractions was identified in Essay 1 as requiring mention in class; no contractions were used in Essay 2.
In Essay 2, student writing displayed a decrease in Syntactic Similarity amongst sentences. This indicated an improvement, as it meant that student writing was now more varied. The essays showed an increase in Noun Phrase Complexity and Density, placing the students at a Grade 9–10 level and on par with the SAT group. However, in what seemed to be a reaction to the instruction on the correct function of coordinators, the length of sentences decreased, from a range of 10 to 40 words in Essay 1 to a range of 12 to 32 words in Essay 2. While the average length of sentences rose from 17 words to over 19 words, more than half the students performed below the class average. More students were writing shorter sentences, but were doing so more creatively. Even so, further instruction on how to join clauses was deemed necessary.

Mechanics

There was a dramatic reduction in punctuation errors.

Third Lesson and Essay 3

As in the second lesson and Essay 2, the choice of content and the organisation of an essay remained a focus of this third lesson. The students were posed a question regarding what to do when the arguments against a personal point of view are stronger or more numerous than those supporting it. This was done to reinforce the fact that the ranking of ideas according to their relative strength needs to be done during the planning stage. Continuing on from the previous lesson, an additional focus of the lesson was the use of coordinators, subordinators, and conjunctive adverbs.

Table 3 shows a decrease in the ESL CP results in Essay 3 in all areas except Mechanics. All the results were still higher than those obtained from Essay 1. Content was the only component that saw the overall letter rating drop slightly, from B to B-. However, Table 3 reveals that when considering the overall percentage increase in mean scores from Essay 1 to Essay 3, all areas increased, but the greatest change was in Content.

Table 3: Results from researchers’ rating of essay 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Essay 3 mean scores</th>
<th>% increase from Essay 2 to Essay 3</th>
<th>% increase from Essay 1 to Essay 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content (out of 30)</td>
<td>21.78</td>
<td>10.74</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization (out of 20)</td>
<td>14.89</td>
<td>-5.95</td>
<td>2.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary (out of 20)</td>
<td>14.56</td>
<td>-0.71</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Use (out of 25)</td>
<td>18.56</td>
<td>-1.48</td>
<td>3.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanics (out of 5)</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>6.21</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Overall Grade
(A = highest to D = lowest) | 1.72 | B | -3.5 | 7.25

Content
Total word count showed a consistent increase across all three essays for the 7 students who completed them, and a slight decrease in the class average from 274 words in Essay 2 to 272 words in Essay 3. While this final score was below the 284.76 words of the K–1 level, Essay 3 measures showed a 22% increase in the total number of words written; this is 26% greater than what the students are expected to write in their final writing exam (200-word single paragraph). Because they were now, consistently writing, on average, more than what was required for their exam, it was decided to focus on a different area of need—even though their score, according to the grade level measures, was still at a K–1 level.

Organisation
All indices measuring overlap showed a decrease from Essay 2, but the final indices for Essay 3 measuring Stem Overlap (all sentences) and Noun Overlap (all sentences) were above the scores obtained for the SAT group. All Overlap scores except for Argument Overlap (all sentences) were at the Grade 11+ level. Argument Overlap was at the Grade 2–3 level, but this lower score seems to have been a result of the focus on editing and not repeating words unnecessarily. In fact, increases in Lexical Diversity scores show that this is most likely a factor.

Connectives was the only feature measured for Organisation that showed an increase, higher than that of the SAT group and well above the Grade 11+ level. ESL CP analysis showed that appropriate use of connectives was still lacking, so this was again determined to be a focus of the following lesson.

Vocabulary
Word Length in both syllables and letters were lower than those for Essay 2, but the final scores for Essay 3 were at the Grade 11+ level, on par with or better than those of the SAT group.

All measures of Lexical Diversity increased across all three essays, placing the students at the upper end of the Grade 4–5 level. The average incidence of different words rose from 110 to 140 words. This score was still significantly lower than the incidence of new words (204) in the SAT group’s essays. This highlighted the need for continued vocabulary development.
Language Use

While Sentence Length reduced slightly and Syntax Similarity continued to decrease, the number of clauses and dependent clauses increased. Noun Phrase Complexity also continued to rise, finishing higher than that of the SAT group, at a Grade 9–10 level. Along with the Length of Sentences, these are all good indications of improvement in writing. However, because of the number of essays containing incomplete sentences it was considered necessary to begin explicit instruction on main and dependent clauses as well as how to join them; incomplete sentences would artificially inflate the scores for the number of sentences.

Mechanics

There were no significant changes from Essay 2.

Fourth Lesson

This was a continuation of the third lesson on coordinators and subordinators and introduced the idea of main and subordinate or dependent clauses. No essays were submitted following this lesson.

Discussion of the Results

From the review of available literature, 15 indices measured by Coh-Metrix were selected as being important indicators of writing development. Analyses of the essays using ESL CP and Coh-Metrix showed an improvement in student writing over the period of the study. The findings from the analyses do provide insight into the two questions underpinning the study as is discussed in the following sections.

Question 1: Focus on specific indices

Of the 15 selected indices, only 9 were specifically targeted in lessons taught during the study. All of these 9 demonstrated an improvement in scores and 5 of the remaining 6 indices also showed improvement. This would seem to indicate that explicitly focusing on an aspect of writing will have a positive effect on the development of that aspect. It would also indicate that a specific focus can have a ripple effect on other aspects of writing. This finding supports the idea that any one index should not be an isolated focus of instruction.

It is not surprising that the content component on the ESL CP showed significant change as this was the area that received the most attention during the lessons. It would appear that there is a strong link between the score for the content section and the total number of words, a notion that has been expressed in many studies (Attali & Burstein, 2005; Gevara, 2015; Grant & Ginther, 2000). The
number of words alone, however, is not the sole reason for an increase in content scores; writing more words does allow for a more thorough development of the topic.

Writing more words also creates the potential for greater repetition, and the analysis identified lexical diversity to be an area of need. Teaching students how to edit their writing to ensure greater lexical variety had an effect on Noun, Argument, and Stem Overlap, which were initially at an average of a Grade 4–5 level. Essay 3 outcomes for these indices showed that argument overlap was the only index below the Grade 11+ level. The focus on reducing repetition also directly affected lexical diversity measures. As students look for other words to use to express their thoughts, it is assumed that they will improve in lexical sophistication scores. This was the case in this study. While the student’s final vocabulary indices improved, they were consistently either on par with or one grade level lower than the SAT group.

Another indicator of the danger of looking at indices in isolation is the decrease in sentence length noted in the study. This measure needs to be considered with other measures of actual language use which showed an improvement in both sentence complexity and diversity despite the sentences being shorter.

Question 2: Statistically significant changes

In order to examine whether there were any statistically significant changes to the students’ linguistic competence over the period of the study, the Repeated Measures Anova was used to analyse each of the 15 selected indices.

As mentioned in the previous section, only 9 indices were specifically focused on in the lessons. While our analyses showed a positive change in all 9 of those focused on in lessons, only 4 showed this change to be statistically significant. However, the Repeated Measures Anova revealed a statistically significant change in 9 of the 15 indices measured, a finding that would also support the idea of a ripple effect from instruction focused on one index leading to improvement in other areas. These changes were seen in Organisation, Vocabulary and Language Use, but not in Content.

There were statistically significant changes in 4 of the 5 Organisation indices that were a focus of teaching: Stem overlap, adjacent sentences \( F(2, 7) = 12.794, p = .011 \); Noun overlap, all sentences \( F(2, 7) = 44.900, p = .011 \); Argument overlap, all sentences \( F(2, 7) = 45.270, p = .011 \); and Stem overlap, all sentences \( F(2, 7) = 45.683, p = .011 \). While 2 lessons focused on the use of coordinators, the change in connectives, although positive, was not significant.
In Vocabulary, statistically significant changes were seen in Word length, number of syllables ($F(2, 7) = 19.163, p = .005$) and Word length, number of letters ($F(2, 7) = 25.001, p = .002$), which had been identified by the students as being essential for increasing essay scores. Word length in letters saw a rise from Grade 4–5 to Grade 11+. A significant change was also seen in Age of acquisition for content words ($F(2, 7) = 21.095, p = .004$). However, no statistically significant change was evidenced in Lexical Diversity, although it was a focus of teaching.

Finally, statistically significant changes in Language Use were also seen in Noun phrase density ($F(2, 7) = 6.322, p = .043$) and Number of Modifiers per noun phrase ($F(2, 7) = 7.375, p = .032$). As with the focus on Connectives, the lesson focus on Sentence Syntax Similarity did not result in any statistically significant change.

Conclusion

Conducting an analysis of student writing using Coh-Metrix can be helpful when used in conjunction with a different analysis – in our case, human assessment. The Coh-Metrix analysis can assist teachers in identifying or confirming areas of student writing that require attention. Second, such an analysis is useful in tracking the specific development of student writing across different genre, not simply writing as a whole.

While a computational tool such as Coh-Metrix can be used to predict writing competence (Crossley, Salsbury, & McNamara, 2012), Coh-Metrix analyses of one of Roald Dahl’s short stories placed it at a Grade level of 3.6 and an intermediate level ESL student’s essay at a Grade 11 level. This simply highlights the fact that the norms available through Coh-Metrix can be useful as a guide in assessment and planning, but the teacher needs to keep in mind that the genre and purpose of a text will result in a different profile arrangement of norms. When using a Coh-Metrix analysis to assist in writing development, it is essential to first establish a “norm profile” of indices related to the genre and the ability level of the target writing. This profile would be an aid to lesson planning by providing a reference standard of the expected genre and grade level.

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Linguistic Cementing: A Discourse Analysis of
Opinion Articles of Philippine’s ‘Big 3’ Dailies

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Abstract

This paper examined the prevalence of grammatical and lexical cementing ties in the opinion articles taken from the Philippine Daily Inquirer, Philippine Star and Manila Bulletin. It has as its secondary goal the determination of how such linguistic cementing ties contribute to the over-all cohesion of the articles. The paper operates on Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) theory of Cohesion. Analysis of the texts revealed that the most prevalent grammatical tie is *Reference* followed by *Conjunctions*. The use of *Ellipsis* is less frequent while no evidence of *Substitution* was found. As to lexical ties, Repetition, Collocation, and Synonymy/Near Synonym were consistently the most prevalent. Further, the use of both grammatical and lexical ties proved instrumental in the achievement of the texts’ cohesion.
Introduction

As far as language skill, says Nunan (2011), coming up with coherent, fluent and extended piece of writing, is perhaps the most troublesome and difficult there is to do in language. “It is something most native speakers never master,” he avers. Those who go on to a university and study a language that is not theirs are all the more beset with the humongous challenges that go along with the experience of writing.

As with any enduring problem, such a language task is not easily resolved. While countless books and other resource materials are readily available as regards effective writing, these materials though helpful, still prove inadequate for successful writing has a number of prerequisites that seem elusive – grammar, vocabulary, organization – to name a few. When there is interplay of these requirements, a piece of writing becomes effective. Among these requirements, organization has drawn a considerable amount of interest among language researchers or linguists particularly on the crucial role of cohesion. As Fulcher (1989) notes, “for a number of years, researches and materials dealing with the role played by cohesion have been produced at a startling rate. This is not to say that cohesion serves as a panacea to the troubles in writing and understanding texts, but it does serve as one fundamental criterion as to what constitutes a meaningful, well-conveyed text.

Cohesion is a quality of writing at the suprasentential or discourse level which provides or facilitates the organizational structure of texts. Halliday and Hasan (1976) as cited by many researchers (e.g. Bahaziq, 2016; Mirzapour & Ahmadi, 2011, Berzlanozich, 2008) in their pioneering work on Cohesion in English define cohesion as the “semantic relation between one element and another in text.” They go on to say that a text attains cohesion if the “elements are tied together and considered meaningful to the reader.” When readers and writers are cognizant of the links that hold the chunks of text together, the likelihood of being able to make sense of what they write and read becomes greater. Mahlberg (2006) strengthens this point in saying that cohesion contributes to the readability of a text and may have an impact on the comprehensibility and clarity of arguments contained in a text.

The concept of cohesion is best understood and evaluated in terms of discourse. Discourse, in simplistic terms, refers to a linguistic unit larger than a sentence or the formal and orderly and usually extended expression of thought on a subject (Merriam-Webster Dictionary, 2018). It is not simply a
random set of utterances, rather, it shows connectedness. Discourse is any spoken or written language which includes verbal and non-verbal elements that are meaningful (Bahaziq, 2016). According to Fine (1988) as cited by Azzouz (2009), the study of the organization of stretches of language greater than a sentence which can focus on spoken or written form when searching for language patterning is referred to as Discourse Analysis. Since written texts or discourse provide rich opportunities for unearthing patterns of effective language use, this paper intends to examine the grammatical and lexical cement or cohesive devices used in columns or opinion articles of leading newspaper dailies in the Philippines.

The research operates on Halliday and Hasan’s (1976) theory of Cohesion. Cohesion is generally described or classified into two broad categories: grammatical and lexical cohesion. Halliday and Hasan argue that cohesion is expressed partly through grammar and partly through vocabulary, hence the division. Adapted from Abu-Ayyash (2017) work titled Research Practices in Cohesive Devices’ Studies: Benefiting from Chaos, grammatical cohesion is further divided into four: namely reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction. On the other hand, lexical cohesion includes repetition, collocation, hyponymy, synonymy, antonymy, and meronymy.

The following descriptions of the categories of grammatical and lexical definition were adapted from Bahaziq (2016):

**Reference** (either as endophoric and exophoric) can be identified as the situation in which one element cannot be semantically interpreted unless it is referred to another element in the text. Pronouns, articles, demonstratives, and comparatives are used as referring devices.

**Substitution** (types are nominal, verbal, and clausal) occurs when an item is replaced by another item in the text to avoid repetition. The difference between substitution and reference is that substitution lies in the relation between words, whereas reference between meanings.

**Ellipsis** is the process of omitting an unnecessary item. It is similar to substitution because “Ellipsis is substitution by zero”. It has three types: nominal, verbal, and clausal.

**Conjunctions** are linking devices between sentences or clauses in a text. Unlike other grammatical devices, conjunctions express the logical-semantic relation between sentences rather than between words and structures. Conjunctions are divided into four types: additive, adversative, causal, and temporal.
Reiteration is defined as two items that share the same referent and could either be repeated or have similar meaning in a text. The forms of reiteration are repetition, synonymy, antonymy, and superordination (hyponymy and meronymy).

Collocation is a combination of vocabulary items that co-occur together.

Objectives of the Study

Generally, the study aimed at determining the grammatical and lexical cement employed in the opinion articles of Philippine’s ‘Big 3’ newspapers.

Specifically, the study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What grammatical cementing ties prevail in the opinion articles of the Philippine dailies?
   
   1.1 Philippine Daily Inquirer
   1.2 Philippine Star
   1.3 Manila Bulletin

2. What lexical cementing ties prevail in the opinion articles of the Philippine dailies?

   2.1 Philippine Daily Inquirer
   2.2 Philippine Star
   2.3 Manila Bulletin

3. How do the grammatical cohesive ties generally create the linguistic cementing of the opinion articles?

Methodology

The present study made use of descriptive research design. It described the frequency of grammatical and lexical cohesive/cementing ties employed in opinion articles from three Philippine dailies namely the Philippine Daily Inquirer (PDI), Philippine Star, and Manila Bulletin. A total of three opinion articles (one each daily) of varying length taken online were the primary sources of data. The grammatical and lexical ties were identified both manually and through the use of the Microsoft word’s find tab, and were later sorted out based on the subtypes of grammatical and lexical cohesion by
Halliday and Hasan. The reason for the manual identification is to ensure that the items in question are indeed considered examples of ties since not all types of referential items, for instance, are cohesive (e.g. *the, it, there*). After the identification, the occurrences of grammatical and lexical ties were statistically treated, then analyzed.

**Results and Discussion**

A. *Prevailing grammatical cementing ties in the Opinion articles*

1. **Philippine Daily Inquirer**

Table 1. *Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Grammatical Cohesion*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Grammatical Cohesive Type</th>
<th>Total Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>111</td>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ellipsis</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows the frequency and percentage distribution of grammatical cohesion as to its type. It can be gleaned from the table that, out of 111 identified occurrences of grammatical cohesion in an editorial column taken from the Philippine Daily Inquirer, *Reference* has the highest frequency at 71 or 63.96 percent. This is followed by the use of *Conjunction* with a frequency of 37 or 33.33 percent. *Ellipsis* occurred only thrice (2.70) while not a single instance of the use of *Substitution* was identified. This finding, in terms of dominant grammatical tie used, is identical with Bahaziq (2016)’s findings in his study entitled “Cohesive Devices in Written Discourse: A Discourse Analysis of a Student’s Essay Writing” where *Reference* (71.08) was the most predominantly used grammatical tie, followed by *Conjunction* (26.51), *Ellipsis* (2.41), with no evidence of substitution. Arifiani (2016) reports nearly the same trend in the finding with the position of *Ellipsis* and *Substitution* interchanged (*Reference* 68.21, *Conjunction* 9.68, *Substitution* 1.16, and *Ellipsis* 0).

1.1 Breakdown of Grammatical Cohesion Sub-types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Reference</th>
<th>Number of Reference Use</th>
<th>Total Use of Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reference</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>47.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Its</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

70
The table shows the frequency and percentage distribution of grammatical cohesion as to its type. For the opinion article extracted from the Philippine Star, a total of 110 grammatical ties were identified. Of the total number, 66 or 60.00 percent of the ties are referential, 41 or 37.27 are conjunctive, 3 or 2.72 are elliptical, and no evidence of the use of substitution. This finding shares the same trend with
that of the opinion article from the Philippine Star, and is consistent with or almost parallel to the findings of Bahaziq (2016) and Arifiani (2016), respectively.

2.1 Breakdown of Grammatical Cohesion Sub-types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Reference</th>
<th>Number of Reference Use</th>
<th>Total Use of Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>Number of devices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>They</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>He</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>We</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Us</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>His</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Their</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Its</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrative</td>
<td>Those</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>That</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locative adverb</td>
<td>There</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>there</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definite Article</td>
<td>The</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Conjunction</th>
<th>Number of Conjunction Use</th>
<th>Total Use of Conjunction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>Number of devices</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additive</td>
<td>And</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Or</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Also</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative</td>
<td>But</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causal</td>
<td>Because</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>If</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Temporal</td>
<td>Before</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Till now</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Grammatical Cohesion</th>
<th>No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ellipsis</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. Manila Bulletin

Table 3. Frequency and Percentage distribution of Grammatical Cohesion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammatical Cohesive Type</th>
<th>Total Use</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>56.25</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>41.66</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ellipsis</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows the frequency and percentage distribution of Grammatical Cohesion in terms of its types. Despite the size of the grammatical cohesive ties identified in the opinion article taken from the Manila Bulletin, the trend remains alike. Reference items account for 26 or 56.25 percent of the total
grammatical cohesion (the highest) followed by *Conjunction* (20 or 41.66). *Ellipsis* and *Substitutions* were still rarely used with the latter appearing only once and the former not appearing at all.

3.1.3.1 Breakdown of Grammatical Cohesion Sub-types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Reference</th>
<th>Number of Reference Use</th>
<th>Total Use of Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>Number of devices</td>
<td>Total No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal</td>
<td>His</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definite Article</td>
<td>The</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Conjunction</th>
<th>Number of Conjunction Use</th>
<th>Total Use of Conjunction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conjunction</td>
<td>Number of devices</td>
<td>Total No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Additive</td>
<td>And</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Or</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Grammatical Cohesion</th>
<th>No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ellipsis</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**B. Prevailing Lexical Cohesion in the Opinion Articles**

1. **Philippine Daily Inquirer**

Table 4. *Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Lexical Cohesion*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Lexical Cohesive Type</th>
<th>Total Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>82</td>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>36, 43.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collocation</td>
<td>18, 21.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Synonymy/Near Synonym</td>
<td>16, 19.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Antonymy</td>
<td>2, 2.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hyponymy</td>
<td>8, 9.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meronymy</td>
<td>2, 2.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows the Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Lexical Cohesion as to its type. *Repetition* accounts for 43.90 percent of lexical ties in the opinion article from the Philippine Daily Inquirer. The occurrence of *Collocation* and *Synonymy* are nearly the same at 18 (21.95%) and 16 (19.51). *Hyponymy* appeared 8 times while *Meronymy* and *Antonymy* have the same frequency with 2 each or 2.43 percent. The article exhibited a general tendency to make use of Repetition. The usually least frequently appearing lexical ties include hyponymy, meronymy, and antonymy (Mirzapour, 2011).
2. Philippine Star

Table 5. Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Lexical Cohesion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Lexical Cohesive Type</th>
<th>Total Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>123</td>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collocation</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Synonymy/Near Synonym</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Antonymy</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hyponymy</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meronymy</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table presents the Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Lexical Cohesion as to its type. Out of 123 identified lexical ties in the Opinion article taken from the Philippine Star, Repetition has the highest frequency at 40 or 32.52 percent followed by Synonymy or Near Synonym with a frequency of 28 or 22.76 percent. Collocation and Hyponymy share the same frequency at 20 or 16.26 percent while Meronymy and Antonymy are the least frequently used lexical ties with frequencies of 10 (8.13%) and 5 (4.06%), respectively. Such is very nearly the trend found in the study of Mirzapour (2011) titled “Study on Lexical Cohesion in English and Persian Research Articles (A Comparative Study) where Repetition received the highest prevalence (990), followed by Synonymy (148), Collocation (122), Hyponymy (48), Antonymy (48) and Meronymy (39) in so far as Persian Data were concerned. For English Data, Repetition remains the most dominant (830). However, the arrangement for Collocation and Synonymy is interchanged, with the former being more frequent (303) and the latter (102). Also, the order for Meronymy, Hyponymy and Antonymy is switched, with Meronymy appearing more frequently (41) compared to Hyponymy (34) and Antonymy (0). The dominance of Repetition in both data is reflected as well in the study of Bahaziq (2016). It can be observed that what normally follows Repetition is either collocation or synonymy.

3. Manila Bulletin

Table 6. Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Lexical Cohesion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Lexical Cohesive Type</th>
<th>Total Use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collocation</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Synonymy/Near Synonym</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Antonymy</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hyponymy</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Meronymy</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table presents the Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Lexical Cohesion as to its type. Out of 52 identified lexical ties in the Manila Bulletin, Repetition has the highest frequency at 19 or 36.53 percent followed by Synonymy or Near Synonym with a frequency of 8 or 15.38 percent. Collocation and Antonymy share the same frequency at 9 or 17.30 percent while Hyponymy and Meronymy are the least frequently used lexical ties with frequencies of 5 (9.61%) and 8 (15.38%), respectively. Such is very nearly the trend found in the study of Mirzapour (2011) titled “Study on Lexical Cohesion in English and Persian Research Articles (A Comparative Study) where Repetition received the highest prevalence (990), followed by Synonymy (148), Collocation (122), Hyponymy (48), Antonymy (48) and Meronymy (39) in so far as Persian Data were concerned. For English Data, Repetition remains the most dominant (830). However, the arrangement for Collocation and Synonymy is interchanged, with the former being more frequent (303) and the latter (102). Also, the order for Meronymy, Hyponymy and Antonymy is switched, with Meronymy appearing more frequently (41) compared to Hyponymy (34) and Antonymy (0). The dominance of Repetition in both data is reflected as well in the study of Bahaziq (2016). It can be observed that what normally follows Repetition is either collocation or synonymy.
The table presents the Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Lexical Cohesion as to its type. Out of 52 identified lexical ties in the Opinion article taken from the Manila Bulletin, Repetition has the highest frequency at 19 or 36.53% trailed by Collocation (9 or 17.30%), Synonymy and Meronymy (8 or 15.38%), Hyponymy (5 or 9.61%) and Antonymy (3 or 5.76%). Such is very nearly the trend in Mirzapour (2011)’s study on lexical cohesion in English Data with only a small difference in the occurrence of Synonymy and collocation.

C. Cohesion in the Opinion Articles

C.1 Philippine Daily Inquirer

Reference is concerned with a relationship that obtains between people, objects or places indicated mostly by the nominal group or the adverbial group and their other guises expressed through personals, demonstratives or comparatives on next mention at different places across the text (Aidinlou, et al, 2012). Further, a reference item is a word or phrase, the identity of which can be determined by referring to other parts of the text or situation (Flowerdew, 2013).

Referential items have evidently dominated the grammatical cementing ties found in the three opinion articles. Majority of these referential items are personal references and the definite reference the. These personals are typically endophoric, particularly anaphoric in nature.

Personal References

In the PDI opinion article, more than 50 percent of the reference used is personal. It is likewise evident that these personal references revolve around just a few persons, things or events specifically Duterte (the president), his administration and his officials, Boracay or its closure and issues surrounding it, Boracay residents and establishments, which make the text cohesive since readers only have a few items to remember or attend to despite the total number of reference items used.

For instance, the personal references he, his, him, they, its and I are either referring to Duterte or his administration or certain officials.

a. How does this administration arrive at its decisions

b. He then gave Boracay six months to clean up (literally) its act, or he would close it.

Meanwhile other personal references such as it, its, us, and them are either referring to Boracay, or its closure, or its establishments, or its residents, or issues hounding it.
a. He then gave Boracay six months to clean up (literally) its act, or he would close it.

b. …it was “really impractical” to close the island to tourists immediately.

The use of the personal references in the text which refer back to only a few antecedents is clearly a manifestation of the text’s cohesion since the writer keeps the text’s focus by not introducing other people or events that do not have bearing on the subject at hand. Additionally, these reference items make the text rather straightforward and shorter for easier comprehension. Amed (2008) cites Beaugrande & Dressler (1981) who emphasized that using cohesive devices shortens and simplifies the surface text, as one obvious device pro-forms are economical, short words empty of their own particular content, which can stand in the surface text in the place of more determinate, context-activating expressions. These pro-forms allow text users to keep content current in active storage without having to restate everything. The best pro-forms as Beaugrande & Dressler confirm, are pronouns which function in the place of the noun phrase or noun with which they co-refer.

It must be noted however, that there are reference items in the text that are exophoric or situational, and hence not cohesive.

a. Let’s review the circumstances leading to this decision, based on media reports.

b. I don’t know when or if Mr. Duterte has visited the island since the start of his presidency (nothing on Google)…

Because it does not bind two elements together in a text, says Flowerdew (2012), exophoric reference is not included as part of cohesion. It is nonetheless contributory to the over-all coherence of a text. Aidinlou et al (2012) add that typically the personals referring to the speaker (I, me, my, mine) and the listener (you, your, yours) as well as the speaker together with the listener (we, us, our, ours) have their referents in the context of situation, hence non-cohesive, but they can become cohesive in quoted speech such as in the example below.

a. “I give you six months. Clean the goddamn thing,” he told Environment Secretary Roy Cimatu.

**Definite Reference ‘the’**

Referential the has no content of its own. It obtains its meaning by attaching itself to another item and in doing so makes that item specific and identifiable, that is to say, that it can be recovered somewhere in the context, either textual or situational (Flowerdew, 2013).

In the opinion article from the PDI, the use of the definite article the is the most prevalent, being slightly higher than the occurrence of personal references (49.29 > 47.88). A fair share of instances of
the use of definite reference *the* as exophoric (may either be specific to a given situation or specific to a particular community, context or culture) and as anaphoric (textual) is evident in the text.

The following show the use of the definite reference *the*:

a. Particularly, how did it arrive at the decision to close Boracay for a maximum of six months?

b. Let’s review the circumstances leading to this decision, based on media reports.

c. I don’t know when or if Mr. Duterte has visited the island.

d. The place is rife with violations of environmental laws and easements.

e. “You go into the water, it is smelly.

f. …that the Department of Environment and Natural Resources had served notices on 51 establishments…

g. …declaring them in violation of the Clean Water Act of 2004.

h. …the President was expected to decide whether to keep Boracay open to tourists…

i. Apparently, Eduardo Año (DILG) was the hawk.

The first set of lines (a-d) are instances showing the use of ‘the’ as textual. *The* in all lines are recoverable from the text. In (a), the decision refers to Boracay’s closure; in (b) the circumstances refer to the events that transpired in February 10, March 5, and April 4; in (c) the island refers to Boracay; and in (d) the place refers to Boracay once more.

On the other hand, lines e-i show the use of *the* being context or culture-specific. This is what Flowerdew (2013) identifies as unique reference or homophora. In (e) the water referred to by President Duterte is certainly water at a particular part of the island, making it specific to a given situation; in (b), the Clean Water Act is a law which is recognizable in the Philippine context; in (c) the President clearly refers to Duterte who is specific in the Philippine community; in (e), the hawk is in its idiomatic usage (see Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

What makes the text cohesive in so far as the definite article *the* is concerned is that its use is not simply an independent decision made by the writer but rather a reflection of shared knowledge between the interactants in any act of ongoing communication (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 2015).
Some instances of use of the referential *the* are however cataphoric (the reference item refers forward to the modifier in a noun phrase), and such are not cohesive since they only refer within the nominal group (Flowerdew, 2013).

*The* in the following examples from the text is not cohesive:

a. I don’t know when or if Mr. Duterte has visited the island since *the* start of his presidency (nothing on Google)…

b. …and “tragedy” would drive out *the* visitors, who numbered over two million last year.

Nowhere in the text can the above instances of the use of *the* be recovered. The definite article in the examples signals forward that the modifier is to be taken as the defining feature of item in question (Flowerdew, 2013).

**Demonstratives**

Demonstrative reference is essentially a form of verbal pointing. The speaker identifies the referent by locating it on a scale of proximity (Amed, 2008, Aidinlou et al, 2012).

Only two occurrences of demonstratives can be seen from the opinion article, one being the plural demonstrative pronoun *these* and the other the locative adverb *there*.

a. In all *these*, we seem to forget Cimatu’s finding that 50-60 percent of the establishments on Boracay are compliant with the laws, etc.

b. Apparently, he also told Cimatu to “destroy” establishments *there* that violated environmental and health regulations.

The use of *these* in (a) is a cohesion structuring device. This is so because, after the writer has attempted to introduce the circumstances that led to the President’s order to close Boracay, readers are invited to draw their attention to a focal point in the text (that which succeeds the demonstrative ‘these’). ‘*These*’ appears to summarize or encapsulate the arguments and substantiations made by the writer, and thus hint readers as to how the writer intended to develop her text.

Meanwhile, *there* in (b) functions in a way Nash (2005) and Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (2015) termed as deictically – its meaning is understood within the context in which it occurs. In such case, the locative adverb is cohesive and it calls to a location (Boracay) relative to the speaker. The cohesiveness is due to the fact that the location is retrievable or specific in the text.
Caution should be practiced, though, when identifying demonstratives as cohesive devices. Out of four total occurrences of *there*, three occasions in the text show that the locative adverb *there* functioned non-referentially.

a. And apparently, *there* was “action agad,” because…

b. …apparently *there* is a Supreme Court decision in 2008 declaring Boracay as government land.

c. (*there* is no indication of whether they consulted with the Boracay residents)

In these examples, *there* functions as the subject of the clause. Such syntactic property that the non-referential *there* has is not shared by the deictic or referential *there*. (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

**Conjunctions**

Conjunctions are resources for making transition in the unfolding of text. Conjunctive relations specify the way in which what follows in a text is linked to what has gone before, based on their specific meanings (Mohammed, 2015).

The PDI opinion article under investigation made use of all types of conjunctions with respect to the categorization of conjunctions devised by Halliday and Hasan (1976). Additive conjunction has the most number of occurrences (66.66) followed by temporal conjunction (16.66). Both adversative and causal conjunctions have 3 occurrences apiece.

As to additive conjunction, *and* was used 9 times, *or* (3x), *also* (2x), not only…as well, moreover, and one thing more occurred once each. The conjunct *and* along with the rest of additive conjuncts found in the text contribute to the text’s cohesion by linking text spans ranging from pairs of clauses to longer spans of text (Flowerdew, 2013), by serving as a signal marker for the continuation of an utterance (or what Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 2015) refer to as marker of speaker continuation), by involving new information related to what has already been established, and even by giving statements of warning as in the case of *or* which rendered essential in keeping the focus of the text.

a. I don’t know when or if Mr. Duterte has visited the island since the start of his presidency (nothing on Google), but he was very graphic when he told his listeners, “You go into the water, it is smelly. Smell of what? Sh*t,” *and* worried that the impending environmental “disaster” and “tragedy” would drive out the visitors, who numbered over two million last year.
b. He then gave Boracay six months to clean up (literally) its act, or he would close it.

c. At any rate, Boracay seemed **not only** to be above Supreme Court decisions; it ignored other laws, rules and regulations **as well**.

The examples above further show that conjunctions seem to have a more text-organizing function, breaking the discourse into chunks and indicating that the writer is continuing with a topic, expounding it, or shifting to a new one. The strongest meaning of discourse markers, according to Georgakopoulou and Goutsos (2004) as cited in (Flowerdew, 2013), is not ideational but interpersonal. Clauses beginning with conjunctions seem to indicate the writer’s attitude to what she is writing.

Apart from additive conjunctions, temporal conjunctions were also used in the text. The temporal relations are the relations between two successive sentences, usually expressed in simple form by *then*. Halliday and Hasan (1976; 261) stated that the presence of an additional component also make temporal relation more specific in the meaning, as well as succession in time.

a. …but he was very graphic **when** he told his listeners, “You go into the water, it is smelly.

b. He **then** gave Boracay six months to clean up (literally) its act, or he would close it.

c. Cimatu **at that point** still had questions (good for him), and was not ready to make a recommendation.

These examples show how the text is held together with the presence of real-time relationships or sequential relationships. As such, readers get to know when events took place, and once they do, they would easily be able to connect the dots, and eventually comprehend the text. It is not surprising as well to see more instances of temporal conjunctions since the writer, at the outset of the text, wanted to give his readers the circumstances that occurred before the decision on the closure of Boracay was arrived at.

Adversative and causal conjunctions were rarely used in the opinion article. The adversative conjuncts used were proper (a & b) and open-ended dismissal (c) adversatives while the causal conjunctions used have to do with conditional relations (d & e).

a. **But** waste disposal (the basis of Mr. Duterte’s “smelly water” remarks) is not the only thing wrong with Boracay. The place is rife with violations of environmental laws and easements.

b. I don’t know when or if Mr. Duterte has visited the island since the start of his presidency (nothing on Google), **but** he was very graphic when he told his listeners, “You go into the water, it is smelly.
c. **At any rate**, Boracay seemed not only to be above Supreme Court decisions; it ignored other laws, rules and regulations as well.

d. …*if* it was to close, he was to decide when the closure would start.

e. **Then** why are they being punished?

In (a) *but* links a text span or a single idea to longer stretches in the text. In (b) it is used to show denial of expectation in the sense that what is expected after a reading of the first conjunct turns out not to be true from a reading of the second. In (c) *at any rate* is used like ‘in any case’, hinting readers that in spite of the circumstances described in the text, the bottomline is that Boracay has to face closure (which is in keeping with the subject of the text, thus making it cohesive). Lines *d & e* are inherently cohesive since they involve true causes and logical inferences.

**Ellipsis and Substitution**

Substitution means “the replacement of one item by another”. It, then, refers to a previous element in the text through the use of a substitute term (Al-Pachachi and Naser, 2016), while ellipsis is the idea of omitting part of sentences on the assumption that an earlier sentence will make the meaning clear. It is classified into three namely nominal, verbal and clausal ellipsis (Jabeen, et al, 2013). Although the opinion article only shows three cases of use of ellipsis and none for substitution, the former nevertheless aid in the cohesiveness of the text as can be seen in the extracts below:

a) Interestingly, after having marathon meetings, the Departments of Tourism, *(Department)* of Interior and Local Government, and *(Department)* of Environment and Natural Resources—had not even reached agreement (there is no indication of whether they consulted with the Boracay residents).

b) He wanted to close off the island immediately so the demolition of illegal structures could be done and the sewage problem could be resolved. Wanda Teo (DOT) wanted to *(close off the island)* until the habagat or monsoon season (May/June to September/October).

c) The establishments, however, were not identified (what happened to name and shame?), and *(the establishments)* were given two months to comply.

In (a), the noun *Department* is ellipsed (nominal ellipsis); in (b), the verbal *close off the island* is elided (verbal ellipsis); and in (c), the noun phrase *the establishments* is omitted (again, nominal ellipsis). In these examples, cohesion is achieved since the ellipsed words or phrases satisfy the function of the
economy principle. The writer shortened the text by employing ellipses, and in the process, avoided unnecessary repetitions. Mankevych (2016) cites Carter et al. (2000) who stated that the main function of ellipsis is to avoid redundancy which is caused by repetition of words. He also mentioned Paltridge (2011) who claims that with ellipsis the essential element is omitted from the text, and it can be retrieved by referring to a preceding item in the text.

C.2 Philippine Star

Personal References

In the Philippine Star opinion article, personal pronouns have the second most number of occurrences among the referential items which is consistent with that of the PDI. The personals accounted for 33.33 percent of the total referential items. These include it, they, he, we, his, their, and its.

a) Tourism Asst. Sec. Ricky Alegre declared three weeks ago that dozens of present and past officials from year 2000 will be charged. It must be done before the May 14 barangay elections, he said, to avoid suspicions of partisan politics.

b) They oppose any casino because it would ruin their plan to limit Boracay to its estimated human carrying capacity of only 30,000, at any time, from the present 75,000.

c) He said that even before Duterte decided to shut down Boracay, they already had P50 million to pave a 600-meter gap of the circumferential road. But that they could not proceed “because of road R-O-W-issues.”

d) “We would finish in six months if there’s no problem with road rights-of-way, and if the DENR will give us the go-signal to demolish everything,” he said.

e) But when the public howled against the casino project, Duterte put his foot down.

The examples above suggest that the referents have their antecedents, and therefore, readers would not have to guess what or who such referents refer to. According to Halliday & Hasan (1976) as cited in (Mankevych, 2016) the cohesion lies in the continuity of reference by which the same thing appears in the discourse the second time. This continuity of reference binds the text together.

There are, however, instances in the text that show the function of the personal pronoun it as non-referential. The role it plays in the examples that follow is said to be ambient. Ambient it is grammatically necessary, but lexically vague. It merely derives its meaning from the rest of the
sentence which makes it clear to the reader what is being discussed (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 2015). This finding could find support in Ong’s (2011) study that the greatest difficulty is in the use of reference cohesion followed by conjunction and lexical cohesion.

a) Is it true that a casino operator continues to buy land in Boracay for future construction?

b) It’s been two months since President Rody Duterte pictured the waters around the tourist paradise as a “dysentery cesspool.”

**Definite Article the**

Once again, the definite article dominated the opinion article insofar as referential items are concerned. It accounted for more than 50 percent of the total reference used, majority of which are non-generic (its meaning is that the noun it modifies has a specific referent, and that the information required for identifying this referent is available… it does not say where the information is to be located. It will be found somewhere in the environment, provided that ‘environment’ is interpreted in its broadest sense (Halliday and Hasan, 1976)). The in the text functions in a variety of ways --- homophora/general cultural use, local use, immediate situational use, and perceptual situational use.

a) Tourism Sec. Wanda Teo shuddered at the sight of trash, including junked refrigerators, on the sidewalks of the country’s foremost travel destination. (homophoric)

b) He said that even before Duterte decided to shut down Boracay, they already had P50 million to pave a 600-meter gap of the circumferential road. (local use)

c) Health and sanitation inspectors played blind to the filthy resorts and food stalls, stinky toilets, and smoke-belchers. (perceptual situational use)

d) The Supreme Court declared ten years ago that Boracay is state-owned. The island is inalienable forestland, not for private sale or subdivision. (general cultural use, immediate situational use)

e) It must be done before the May 14 barangay elections, he said, to avoid suspicions of partisan politics (local use).

The use of the referential the in the text is clearly cohesive not only because the referents are retrievable, but also culture or context-bound. Hence, it facilitates the easier understanding of the text at hand.
The was also used in the text cataphorically (hence not considered cohesive) as in the following examples:

a) Three nagging questions need answering on the eve of Boracay’s six-month closure for rehabilitation:

b) Tourism Sec. Wanda Teo shuddered at the sight of trash, including junked refrigerators,...

c) The government’s gaming regulator did grant LRWC a provisional license last March, at the height of the Boracay to-do.

d) Isn’t that the end of the story?

In such examples, the only refer to the nominal group, and it is difficult or even impossible to recover what is being identified.

**Demonstratives and Locative Adverb there**

The opinion article made use of the demonstratives those and that and the locative adverb there appeared once.

a) Those flourished for the past 35 years because abetted by government crooks.

b) Isn’t that the end of the story?

c) The original settlers and subsequent establishments are there only because tolerated.

In (a) those refers to gross legal breaches or the flouting of environmental and sanitation laws which are mentioned prior to the use of the demonstrative; in (b), that refers to the opposition to any casino which is found in the prior line; and in (c) there refers to Boracay. There in (b) further functions in a way Nash (2005) and Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (2015) termed as deictically – its meaning is understood within the context in which it occurs. In such case, the locative adverb is cohesive and it calls to a location (Boracay) relative to the speaker. The cohesiveness is due to the fact that the location is retrievable or specific in the text. The pieces of information which these demonstratives point to are clearly identifiable, thus making the text cohesive.

**Conjunctions**

The opinion article in the Philippine Star indicates that the most prevalent type of conjunction used is additive (30) with and having the most number of occurrences (26), followed by causal (2), adversative and temporal with two instances apiece. This is not strange since Halliday and Hasan (1976) as cited
by Cestonza (2013) claimed that additive conjunctions are by far the most recurrent of all ‘conjunctive relations’, with *and* appearing to be the main linguistic device for the construction of discourse cohesion. *And* in most cases functions as a coordinator (phrase and clause connector). Sometimes it functions as cumulative (adding information) or adversative (contrasting ideas).

a) Why have no charges been filed till now against the regional *and* provincial officials responsible for the mess? (coordinating)
b) One in every two resorts, diners, *and* shops are flouting environment and sanitation laws. (coordinating)
c) Not yet included are violators of building standards *and* safety, unsanitary food handlers, habitual litterbugs, *and* air *and* noise polluters. (coordinating)
d) 2,142 businesses in all with no sewerage, spewing waste straight to the waters, *and* encroaching on beachfronts, wetlands and roadways. (cumulative)
e) Environment Sec. Roy Cimatu saw that a resort owner had trespassed an adjacent mangrove forest, built cabañas *and* concreted a giant Jacuzzi atop a coral rock. (cumulative)
f) “We would finish in six months if there’s no problem with road rights-of-way, *and* if the DENR will give us the go-signal to demolish everything,” he said. (adversative *and*)
g) *And* LRWC did confirm that it is in partnership in Boracay with Macau casino giant Galaxy Entertainment Group. (cumulative)

Below are extracts showing other types of conjunctions and their functions:

a) The island is inalienable forestland, not for private sale *or* subdivision. (coordinating)
b) But that they could not proceed “because of road R-O-W-issues.” Leaño also talked about repairing six kilometers of drainage. (coordinating)
c) **But** that they could not proceed “because of road R-O-W-issues.” (adversative)
d) They oppose any casino **because** it would ruin their plan to limit Boracay to its estimated human carrying capacity of only 30,000, at any time, from the present 75,000. (causal)
e) “We would finish in six months **if** there’s no problem with road rights-of-way…” (causal)
f) He said that even **before** Duterte decided to shut down Boracay, they already had P50 million to pave a 600-meter gap of the circumferential road. (temporal)
g) Why have no charges been filed till now against the regional and provincial officials responsible for the mess? (temporal)
Ellipsis and Substitution

Just like the PDI opinion article, three instances of ellipsis were found while none for substitution. The ellipsed parts of the lines serve the function of economizing so that the writer could avoid redundancy of expressions or repetitiveness.

a) The original settlers and subsequent establishments are there only because (they are) tolerated.

b) If resort owners do not voluntarily clean up, swathes of Puerto Galera in Mindoro, (swathes of) Coron in Palawan, and (swathes of) Panglao in Bohol also face shutdowns for rehab.

c) Secretaries Cimatu and (secretary) Teo felt relieved.

C.3 Manila Bulletin

Personal References

For the Manila Bulletin article, it was found out that there are only two occurrences of personal references, one being the singular pronoun ‘his’ and the other being the singular nominative ‘it’. The small number of occurrences of personals is a bit surprising when looking at the incidence of personals in the PDI and PS. It is, however, in keeping with the trend. Reference still has the most number of occurrences owing to the quantity of referential ‘the’ being used. The measly appearance of personal references may be attributed to the fact that the writer rather chose direct items or nouns which are introduced by the referential ‘the’, hence the overwhelming quantity of the latter.

a. In his study, “A New Approach to Sustainable Tourism Development,” Frederico Nato has cautioned developing countries…

b. DPWH has already employed at least 150 construction workers and 18 heavy equipment to start the demolition. It will implement a 24/7 construction schedule…

In (a), his refers to Frederico Nato while in (b), it refers to DPWH. Both referential items are endophoric. Specifically, (a) functions cataphorically (pointing forward); whereas, (b) functions anaphorically (pointing back). In the case of his, it must be said that such pattern is less frequent than either the anaphoric or exophoric types (Flowerdew, 2013). It can be seen how a reference item can refer forward to a single noun (Frederico Nato). In (b), it is the resolution of what is presupposed by it (DPWH) which creates the cohesive relation between the two sentences. In other words, one of the two elements is interpreted by reference to another. We can only interpret what is meant by it by referring back to DPWH.
**Definite Article the**

Consistent with the observation in the first two articles, the definite article *the* once again prevailed in terms of referential items used. It accounted for 92.59 percent of the over-all number of references. *The* in the article functioned both as exophoric (context or culture-specific), and anaphoric (textual).

The following demonstrate the prevalence of the definite article *the*:

a. The problem hounding Boracay has been persistent for over two decades — presence of algal bloom along Boracay’s shoreline…

b. The phenomenon, which at the onset could only be observed for a week, turned into months.

c. The project will also have sidewalks for pedestrians and bike lanes.

d. The project will incorporate an improved drainage and sewerage system…

e. DPWH has already employed at least 150 construction workers and 18 heavy equipment to start the demolition.

f. the Department of Environment and Natural Resources (DENR) and Environmental Management Bureau (EMB) had already noted

g. The Boracay Circumferential Road, spanning 5.2 kilometers, will be divided into three sections.

h. Roads on the island are narrow due to road right-of-way violations…

The first five examples (a-e) typify exophoric definite reference that is textual, meaning the items being referred to can be identified in the article, and are retrievable. In (a) the problem and (b) The phenomenon, what is being referred to is the presence of algal bloom along Boracay’s shoreline; in (c) and (d), the project refers to the demolition of structures; and in (e), the demolition refers to process of rehabilitating Boracay island --- all of which are readily and explicitly determinable on the opinion article.

Meanwhile, lines f-h exemplify the type of exophoric definite reference sometimes called unique reference or homophora. The definite reference *the* introduces things that are specific to the Philippine community particularly those living in or near the island. In (f), the Department of Environment and Natural Resources clearly speaks of one of the country’s governmental agency that oversees environmental concerns; in (g), The Boracay Circumferential Road is one specific road in Boracay that is subject to divisions as part of the Boracay project; and in (h), the island pertains to the tourist destination, Boracay island.
Cohesion in the opinion article lies in the fact that the writer used ‘the’, instructing the readers to locate the referent in the same shared mental set of objects. The instruction to locate may have a situational or textual basis (Hawkins, 1978) as cited in (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

There are also examples of the use of referential ‘the’ that are considered not cohesive since the items in question cannot be recovered in the text or in the context of situation.

a. …when the life cycle of many tourist destinations, including Boracay, is at risk of irreversible collapse.

b. … a standard consistent with the 2008 municipal ordinance imposing a minimum setback requirement of at least six meters from the center of the road.

**Conjunction**

The only and the most explicit type of conjunction used in the opinion article is additive. The conjunct ‘and’ occurred 18 times while ‘or’ appeared twice. Halliday and Hasan (1976) as cited by Cestonza (2013) claimed that additive conjunctions are by far the most recurrent of all ‘conjunctive relations’, with and appearing to be the main linguistic device for the construction of discourse cohesion. The use or function of the identified additive conjunctions ranges from being coordinators (connecting phrases and clauses) to serving as discourse markers as the following examples illustrate:

a. Sustainable Tourism Development has been the subject of both international and domestic discourse, and is particularly important when the life cycle of many tourist destinations, including Boracay, is at risk of irreversible collapse.

b. In his study, “A New Approach to Sustainable Tourism Development,” Frederico Nato has cautioned developing countries and pointed to evidence how over-exploitation and over-development has caused many tourist destinations irreversible damage…

c. …damage arising from environmental degradation and consequent loss of revenues.

d. At least two hundred businesses and thousands of local residents have not installed pipelines…

e. DPWH has already employed at least 150 construction workers and 18 heavy equipment to start the demolition.

f. … the 12-meter government road right-of-way and cleaning or decllogging of existing drainage lines…

Meanwhile, no other conjunctive items were found.
Ellipsis & Substitution

Just like the first two opinion articles, the third article showed a solitary use of ellipsis and none for substitution. In the example below, the word **phase** is ellipsed (nominal ellipsis). In such an example, cohesion is attained since the word being elided satisfies the function of economy principle, thereby avoiding unnecessary reiteration of word yet making sure that the essential element can still be retrieved by referring to a preceding item in the text (Mankevych, 2016).

a. **The first phase** will start from Cagban Port to Rotonda (1.4 km), the second (**phase**) from Rotonda to Brgy. Balabag (1.9 km), and the third (**phase**) from Brgy Balabag to Brgy. Yapak (1.9 km).

Conclusion

All three opinion articles under investigation exhibited general tendencies toward the use of grammatical cohesion particularly Reference and Conjunctions, as well as the use of lexical cohesion particularly Repetition and Collocation. The use of substitution as a grammatical tie is not evident, and the use of Meronymy and Antonymy is infrequent. Over-all, the texts are considered cohesive and such may largely be attributed to the correct use of cementing ties.

Further, the study has pedagogical implications as it manifests the significance of the use of cohesive ties. When teaching students how to write effectively, opinion articles may serve as useful models.

Recommendations

1. The relationship between the frequency of use of the grammatical and lexical cementing ties and quality of the articles may be explored.
2. When teaching students, the use of reference and conjunction, special attention should be given to their meaning and function in stretches of language as these are syntactically deceptive.
3. The use of software that analyzes the degree of cohesiveness of texts may be considered.
4. Sample size of texts to be analyzed may be increased.
5. The relationship between the use of cohesive devices and the level of comprehension of the texts may be examined.
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Using Innovative Reward Program in Teaching English Literacy at Primary School in Indonesia

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Abstract

Using rewards in classrooms has long been considered as an important part of learning. However, the reward programs used in most schools in Bali tend to be conventional and not innovative. Based on the observation conducted in most government schools in Bali, it was frequently found that the rewards are awarded for those who achieved the best academic achievements, while the recognitions on other aspects like character or behavior remained unrecognized. This study therefore aimed at describing the innovative kinds of rewards implemented in a bilingual primary school, analyzing their uses in teaching English literacy, discussing its impacts, and analyzing how the teachers perceived the reward program. The study applied case study using modified analytic induction design, and the setting of the
research was at North Bali Bilingual School in Bali Indonesia. The number of the subjects involved was 130 students from grade 1 up to grade 6 and involving 12 teachers. The data was collected through tests, participatory observation, questionnaires, and in-depth interviews, and analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The results of the study show that the innovative reward programs have many types and variations which are directed by the spirit of celebrating and recognizing improvement either academic or non-academic. The types of rewards implemented include 1) rewards for individual students and rewards for classes, 2) rewards for improving performances, 3) rewards for daily improvement, weekly recognition, and for every semester, 4) rewards in its different variations including reading rocket rewards, different color chips/token, certificates and trophies. The reward program has been able to improve the students’ literacy achievement, establish reading habits, and give beneficial impacts to the students’ reading character. The teachers perceived the program as an effective and powerful reward program. The findings of the study implied that literacy skills can be enhanced by empowering rewards systematically and innovatively.

**Keywords:** innovative reward program, English literacy, primary school

**Introduction**

Using rewards in the process of teaching is an essential part of classroom instruction, and many research has been directed to analyze the use of rewards/recognition in the classroom which highlighted the positive role of rewards/recognition in the classroom (Ching, 2012; Langa, 2014; Kelishadrok, Shamsi, Bagheri, BehrozShahmirzayi, and Mansorihasanabadi, 2016; Rahimi and Karkami, 2015). Ching (2012) did research and found out that mostly used reward types are certificates, credits or additional points, special privileges, medals and trophy, gifts; and the most frequently used penalties are giving offences, giving consequences or punishments, detention, debits (grade deduction) and oral warning. It was found out that a wide range of rewards is more effective in motivating students. Another research by Kelishadroky et.al (2016) also yielded similar result that intrinsic rewards is the best and most stable way to increase motivation.

Motivation refers to reasons which underlie behavior that is characterized by willingness and volition. Intrinsic motivation is managed by personal enjoyment, interest or pleasure, whereas extrinsic motivation is stimulated by reinforcement contingencies. Motivation in children predicts motivation later in life, and the stability of this relationship strengthens with age (Lai, 2011).
Research suggests that motivation can be manipulated through certain instructional practices (Lai, 2011). One of them is by using rewards. In order the rewards provided meet their ultimate goals, there are five principles to be considered: 1) choosing the right reinforcing agents, 2) giving reward immediately after the behavior to have the best results, 3) considering the extent of reinforcement, 4) novelty of situation and reinforcing agents, 5) constructiveness (Kelishadroky et al., 2016). Despite many research conducted on rewards, but research on the process how innovative rewards are implemented in the classroom to stimulate students’ motivation to read willingly and consistently is hardly discovered. Close observations on 30 elementary schools in North Bali stated that the rewards are mostly traditional where the teachers just used verbal comments to students. Even though research by Ching (2012) identified various types of rewards used in the schools under investigation but it did not describe how the rewards in more details and whether the types of rewards are innovative and fun for students.

Many teachers and educators may be unfamiliar with techniques on how suitable rewards to be used for students particularly for improving literacy skill at elementary level. Scarcity of empirical research specific to creative use of rewards for enhancing literacy of the students highlighted the need for well conducted research in the topic. The purpose of the study is to analyze how innovative reward program is implemented, what are the impacts on the students’ achievement in literacy and how are the teachers ’perception about the rewards..

Review of Related Literature

A lot of research had been conducted on the use of reward in education and how its use affects students’ motivation. Reward is stated as an essential strategy used by teachers to stimulate students’ motivation in the learning process and to increase its effectiveness and efficiency (Guendouze, & Abderrahim, 2012). Rewards serve as reinforcement to increase the possibility of the desired behavior (Chen and Wu, 2010).

The study of reward cannot be separated from Operant Conditioning Theory coined by Skinner, a type of learning where behavior is controlled by consequences. In Skinner’s term of Operant Conditioning Theory, reward is positive reinforcement which stimulates and strengthens the voluntary response to achieve the goal (Staddon and Cerutti, 2003). As positive reinforcement, rewards stimulate the behavior to occur. The benefit of rewards or feedback is also confirmed by Chen (2016) who reveals that feedback which provides support for further improvement is beneficial to learning. Rewards can be used in various kinds of forms like using points, chips as symbols of certain
achievements or positive behavior, time extension and certificate (Arisandi, Padmadewi, and Artini, 2018). Concept of rewards is also described by providing distinction between verbal rewards and tangible rewards. Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (2001) reveals that verbal rewards are strongly associated with positive reinforcement, and commonly interpreted as informational, while tangible rewards are perceived as controlling when they are expected.

Many studies reveal rewards can increase not only students’ performances but also the students’ intrinsic motivation when used properly (Cameron and Pierce, 1994; Cameron, 2001; Pierce, Cameron, Banko and So, 2003). Gardner (1985) defines motivation as the combinations of three components such as effort and desire to achieve the goal of learning the language and favorable attitude toward learning the language. Motivation is a driving force that energizes, sustains, and directs behavior toward a goal, or which moves people towards their desired outcomes (Paul Eggen and Kauchack Don, 2005; Johnson and Johnson, 2003). Motivation can be perceived as a feeling of curiosity within learners which becomes a desire to engage in a given task in order to achieve a goal (Child, 2004). Qiufang (1996) perceives motivations as reasons and goals of learning.

Motivation is frequently discussed in terms of intrinsic and extrinsic motives of the students. Students who learn for their own self-perceived needs and goals are intrinsically motivated and those pursue a goal only to get an external reward from others are extrinsically motivated (Brown, 2000). Both internal processes and external incentives work together to satisfy some needs (Child, 2004).

Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations have important contribution to students’ success in learning. Long, Ming, and Chen (2013) reveals that motivation plays important role in foreign language learning. Motivation is a basic element in foreign language teaching and learning. Empirical studies indicate that highly motivated students learn faster and better than the ones who find the study of the language undesirable and unpleasant (Al-Mutawa and Kailani, 1989). For that reason, teachers should be able to find methods and techniques which maintains and guarantee students’ motivation in learning.

Methods

A. Design

The study was in an observational research in the form of a case study using modified analytic induction design (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982). This design was used because deep and analytically
inductive analysis was needed in order to be able to capture the implementation of the rewards, and in order to guarantee the authenticity and naturalness of the data.

**B. Setting**

The study was conducted in a bilingual school in North Bali, called North Bali Bilingual School. The school is admitted as a literacy-based school which has implemented literacy program since the school was started in 2012. English, as a subject matter, is given three or four times a week each of which is 40 minutes.

**C. Subjects**

The subjects consisted of teachers and students. There were 12 teachers (2 English teachers and the other ten are the classroom teachers) and 130 students. The English teachers consist of a native English speaking teacher, and a local teacher.

**D. Process of Data Collection and Analysis**

The process of data collection was conducted for 6 months on all grades of students at the school. To guarantee the trustworthiness of the study, the data were collected using many sources such as using participatory observation, deep interview and using questionnaire. The collected data were analyzed qualitatively and supported with quantitative analysis. The procedure was as follows.

1) Observing the English classes in all grades based on the schedules of the school.

2) After each observation was conducted, the data were then directly analyzed qualitatively.

3) Interviewing the teachers involved in order to triangulate the data collected through observations.

4) Interviewing students at random using convenient sample to explore their perceptions about the use of rewards.

5) At the end of the semester gave all teachers a questionnaire in order to analyze their perceptions about the rewards.

6) Assessing students’ literacy using tests
7) Analyzing all the results of ‘on going’ assessments and summative assessments given by the teachers.

E. Ethical Procedure

The procedure of research was started by arranging a legal permission from the school. The permit was also arranged and issued by the postgraduate office of Ganesha University of Education where the research grant was granted. With the permits, data collections were then conducted at the school until the data were saturated and adequate.

Finding and Discussion

The results of intensive observation conducted at the school were analyzed, and it was discovered that the rewards were implemented in all grades in the classroom. The rewards are a part of literacy program in the school which every student must follow.

Table 1 Kinds of rewards used in NBBS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Classifications of Rewards</th>
<th>Types of Rewards</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Based on the targeted audience</td>
<td>1. individual rewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Class rewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Based on the purpose</td>
<td>1. Rewards for frequent and spontaneous use of English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Rewards for building characters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Rewards for following the rules of literacy programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Rewards based on time</td>
<td>1. daily rewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. weekly rewards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Based on its variation in shapes/forms</td>
<td>1. Reading Rocket reward program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2. Stickers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Different color chips</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4. Certificates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5. Trophy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6. Free-time extension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7. Movie Day</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The rewards used in NBBS were varied as shown in Table 1. The rewards can be used for appreciating any positive behavior conducted by individual students or by a group of students. Individually, the rewards were used to accelerate the development of the character, academic, social skills and the discipline performed by an individual student (Figure 1).

![Certificate](image.jpg)

**Figure 1: Individual reward**

Classically, the rewards were given in order to appreciate a class who performed positive behavior or had been able to establish any targeted objectives. For example as a class, students have been able to collect tokens put in jar and after a month calculation and assessments were given, and rewards were given based on the class achievement and agreement with the class teacher (Figure 2).
Positive responses on the part of the teacher towards students’ performances are very useful. The teachers who praise the students’ answers and show approval of their correct responses would virtually encourage them to participate more in the classroom interaction (Guendouze, & Abderrahim, 2012). The teachers’ responses function as rewards which appreciate and recognize students’ achievement. The various rewards provided by the teacher as shown in Table 1 strengthen the responses of the students, which in Skinner’s term, are labeled as positive reinforcement (Staddon and Cerutti, 2003).

The rewards given were directed by clear purposes. There were three classifications of how rewards were given to students on which different colors of chips were based. The first, white chip, is dedicated as a reward for spontaneous use of English. English is a foreign language and using English in daily life is not an easy activity for most students in Bali. For that reason, if the students were found using English, a teacher could choose to give a white chip. The second one is a yellow chip which is used for appreciating kindness behavior, and the third one was the green chip which was aimed at appreciating discipline behavior when students willingly take initiative to follow the rules provided by the school. All teachers at NBBS had chips in their pocket where they put three kinds of chips to be given to students every time the appropriate behavior is caught by the teachers. The rewards given created the feeling of excitement in the students’ mind which drives them to repeat the success and become highly motivated. Learning is achieved if the students are well motivated (Ching, 2012).

The reward program has been seriously managed at the school and is guided by a motto and philosophy of “committed to excellence”, and has been intensively utilized until the students can reach to a level of excellence. For that reason, rewards were not only given daily but also every week and also every semester. Daily reward is given for small and spontaneous positive behavior like using English or other positive distinct behavior which are classified as short-term rewards (Guendouze, & Abderrahim, 2012). Weekly rewards, if the students are able to willingly carry out consistent positive behavior, for example reading books willingly every day during the week, while semester rewards are
awarded for any established behavior conducted in a semester, like reading books/stories consistently in a semester, and especially taking initiative to read during the end of the semester holiday. Being willing to read something during a long school holiday is considered as special and established where any disruptions easily happen which indicates that the habit has been established and needs to be recognized and appreciated.

The commitment of the school toward the school-wide or class reward program is also indicated by the variations of the rewards used at the school as shown in Table 1. The reading reward program is stimulated by asking students to read every day in both Indonesian and English. To that objective, the school has a Home Reading Log where students, with their parents, are asked to fill in the title of the book read in each language, the length of reading and the signature of parents. Following the Operant Conditioning Theory of Skinner (Staddon and Cerutti, 2003), the Home Reading Log, scheduled to be used every day in the school, functioned as reinforcement schedule which controls students to read every day so they all get the points as their rewards.

Every school day, students have library time at school where the students are able to choose books to take home for the day or weekend. The involvement of parents is very essential because parental encouragement is one of motivation sources (Furry Agustini, 2018). The teachers and parents jointly share the responsibility of building character traits of their children to make them good human beings (Saleem, n.d). The objectives for at-home reading are to make reading and the skill and enjoyment of reading core to the school and a habit that the students will carry for many years. The secondary purpose is to involve parents in the reading their children are doing. At the beginning reading level, parents are encouraged to actively read with and/or to their child. At a more advanced level, parents are still encouraged to read with their children, discuss reading, and sign the Reading Log. The involvement of parents is very crucial in children’s education. Parent involvement gives contributions to students’ learning (Cotton and Wiklund 1987), which can be conducted by participating in the school programs or discussing students’ progress with teachers at school (Brito and Waller, 1994).

The Reading Reward Program is perceived as very highly successful because it energizes and motivates reluctant readers, motivates reluctant parents, adds fun for avid readers and to have reading as a focal point at the start of each day in class where students and teachers recording and calculating the points together which creates a happy and fun atmosphere of learning. The value of a point system is also confirmed by other researchers. Guendouze, & Abderrahim (2012) reveals that the point system remains one of the most effective reward systems which make learning a challenging experience, enjoyable and motivating. The use of points in the reading rewards program also allows an integration
of Math where the calculation for logging the classes reading time, averages, and projections or any math concepts were integrated.

The reading reward program is a fun and visual concept to use. The teachers could use a number of visual and movement types ideas. Imaginary rockets or other imaginary creations (Figure 3) that moves along by “fuel” or “food” in order to reach a goal has been used. A one dimensional design was created. The creation was designed, drawn, colored and strategically placed moving up the wall or across the ceiling or in whatever creative and fun manner has been decided on. The ‘fuel’ for movement is at-home reading which is calculated by the time read. For example 5-10 minutes is 1 fuel point and moves the rocket 100 km, 10-20 minutes is 2 fuel points, and the permutations for this are up to the teachers to decide. Each goal that is reached is a ‘class reward that has been decided by the teacher and agreed upon or negotiated with the students. The excitement of the rocket (or other creation) visually moving is the key and it is entertaining as the rocket moves each day and each week. Experiencing the process of praising the students’ positive behavior in a fun way create a positive atmosphere and willingness to actively be involved in the classroom which created a genuine enthusiasm from the students.

![Figure 3: Examples of Reading Rocket Reward](image)

Other types of rewards used are stickers. The teachers used stickers for any positive behavior performed by the students in the classrooms and attach stickers to the student chart on the wall. The chart of stickers gained by the students (as in Figure 4) can also be used by the teachers as a guidance on deciding who needs to be helped. If a name of a student in the chart is empty, it means that that student never shows any progress so the teacher must be able to guide the student and provide help needed. All teachers of all grader admitted that all students love stickers. Stickers are perceived as positive rewards by the students which stimulate their behavior to be established. This is in line with
Slavin (2003) who states that behavior is internally established in the learners if it receives some kinds of positive rewards; otherwise it would be eliminated.

Figure 4: Stickers put in the student names’ chart

Other positive rewards are chips or token (Figure 5). Different color chips/tokens (white, yellow and green) are found significantly successful. English token is always precious because being a bilingual school, students’ first language is not English. For that reason, every student who is ‘caught’ using English would deserve an English token. The green token is a way-to-go token which was found effective to be used when students exhibit excellent behavior in a variety of ways. The token is especially valuable for students struggling to follow rules in certain circumstances. The kindness token was also perceived as very effective to be used when students are ‘caught’ being kind to friends, classmates, younger students or teachers (for example kindness token for helping classmates who need help in choosing books, or helping classmate picking up a dropped book, Way-to-go token for putting things away and quietly reading while waiting, and English token for trying their best to ask what to do next in English). Giving chips or token s directly to students as short term rewards are important because they allow students to see the results of the effort and ability instantly (Guendouze, & Abderrahim, 2012) and make them understand that their behavior is correct and appreciated. The initiative to willingly use English is a kind of intrinsic motivation. An intrinsically motivated learner is internally reinforced by a feeling or desire to take part in classroom activities and to participate in the whole process of learning. The desire to do all of this is basically oriented by a desire to experience success which depends on the student him/herself (Ames and Archer, 1988).
At the beginning, most students would do almost anything to get tokens. On the other hand, it is not always easy to get a reward. So the reward is managed case by case according to circumstances. Students quickly learn that obvious attempts to gain a token by “acting” for the teachers do not work and they need to be genuinely “caught” exhibiting the behavior. Students learn that every day is a new day, and they have equal chances to gain tokens. The key is the immediacy of the token being given. The teachers should verbalize the EXACT reason for the token. Teachers and staff can pass out token with “flash” in front of all, or privately or quietly in an encouraging way.

The power of positive comes into play at the moment of receiving the token but also at the end of the day when students are asked to deposit their token into the class “bank” which is prominently displayed in front of the class. The bank was in the form of a clear glass jar where students can watch it fill with token, count and anticipate when the agreed upon number is reached for a class reward. The class would be rewarded but individuals are rewarded as well as their contributions are noted and applauded on a daily basis.

Another type of reward is certificates. An example of the certificates is Super Reader Certificate which is awarded for those who have been consistently reading every day. (Figure 2). Another type of certificate is a way-to-go certificate which is utilized to acknowledge a consistent improvement on positive behavior not only on academic matters but also on non-academic ones. The observation and assessments are continuous and sustainable. As class teachers, it is not difficult to observe and identify the progress or development of behavior performed by the students. The certificate is distributed every Saturday at Assembly Time when every student gathered in a big room and the teachers acknowledge the announcement of the distributions of the certificates. This way, the reward empowers the students to make choices for themselves and for their behavior. When the teachers are rewarding them, THEY are choosing the rewards because they are choosing to “do the right thing”.

Figure 5: Example of Chips and Certificate as Rewards
Trophies are also used to recognize a big group achievement. The school has implemented classification of students from grade 1 up to grade 6 where every group is called as a House. Every house has members from all grades. Each week as members of a group have responsibilities to read daily either willingly take the initiative or assigned by the teachers. Every time they do reading, a point is given. The assessments of the points achieved are conducted by a teacher mentor every week. The calculations are conducted every semester for all students included in the Houses and the winner is those who are able to get the highest points and awarded a trophy.

The power of the house system is in the value of cooperativeness. Cooperative learning gives students the opportunity to exchange ideas and opinions. Working in groups encourages students to participate in and share the activities assigned to them. It is very useful because it lowers anxiety in the class, maintains motivation and enhances students’ motives to do the given task because they can witness the results, the desired outcome at the end of the task ((Guendouze, & Abderrahim, 2012).

The House members consist of students from every grade which means they have their different levels of ability and skills, and also different ages. The difference allows students to learn from peers and support each other. The role of the mentor is to create a system for them of how each can learn from others. In relation to this, Johnson and Johnson (2003) reveal that motivation increases in co-operative efforts because they allow for the simultaneous accomplishment of multiple goals. The importance of cooperativeness is also supported by Fujiwara (1996) who reveals the importance of group work and its influence on learners’ motivation in a co-operative learning situation.

The school also uses time extension as important rewards for the students. The amount of time given can be of different stages. For example, stage 1 is 5 extra minutes for play time or special activity time, stage 2 could be 10 minutes and after 2 or 3 stages, the system starts over. This can be extra powerful when the class sees that they are getting a well-deserved reward that may be special to all other classes at that moment. Time is free and easy to give so very beneficial to be used as a reward for the students.

Another kind of reward which is also utilized in NBBS is movie day. Movie Day is given as a reward for the group which attains the biggest points which is celebrated through having a movie day. Even though many students frequently watch DVDs at home with their parents, the appeal to watching it lies in doing it “at school” and “with the class” which becomes a memorable reward for the group/class.

The impact of the use of the reward program is tremendous which are indicated by the change of students’ motivation and attitude as well as the students’ literacy. The impacts were also indicated by the consistent improvement of students’ scores in all classes (see Table 2). The rewards used
motivated students and it is line with the results of other studies (Kelishadroky et.al, 2016; Lai, 2011) which enhance their literacy.

Table 2: The achievement on students’ literacy before and after the REWARDS implemented

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Mean scores (at beginning of the semester)</th>
<th>Means Scores (at the end of the semester)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 A</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 B</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 A</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 B</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 A</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 B</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>9.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The success of the students’ literacy skills is also due to the strategies used by the teachers to increase students’ motivation. The teachers use innovative and various kinds of rewards and activities which promote the use of real-world literacy through communicative tasks. Communicative tasks are of great importance in order to maintain motivation, which provokes students’ interest to use the language communicatively and therefore promote the feeling of achievement (Guendouze, & Abderrahim, 2012).

The results of assessments confirmed that all students improved clearly after one semester. The daily improvement was also clear where students had good comprehension in the books they read and at the end of the semester they can improve their literacy and could exceed the score 85 out of maximum score 100. This finding is supported by the results of a questionnaire as presented in Table 3.
Table 3: Teachers’ perception about the REWARDS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher’s perception</th>
<th>4 strongly agree</th>
<th>3. agree</th>
<th>2 quite agree</th>
<th>1 do not agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reward Program is very relevant to be used for introducing literacy program</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward is effectively used for improving students’ English literacy</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward motivates students to read more.</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward makes students like reading everyday</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward builds character of being disciplined and making students like reading.</td>
<td>91,6%</td>
<td>8,4%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reward is fun and students like it so much</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result of the questionnaire as indicated in Table 3 shows that all teachers agreed with the positive impact of the rewards toward students. In order the application of the rewards to be successful, the school system about rewarding had been introduced in the beginning of the school years in order to help all students understand about the rules of the award program and know the reasons for which they deserve the treatment. Offering rewards in an appropriate and proper manner make students aware about the educative acts valued (Langa, 2014).

The positive impact of the rewards is also perceived by the teachers. The trustworthiness of the positive impacts is supported by the result of the interview as summarized in Table 4.

Table 4: The data about how the teachers ‘perception on the impact of rewards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Description of the teachers’ response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>How the rewards make the difference?</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>How the rewards make the difference?</strong></td>
<td><strong>Teachers</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The rewards are highly effective. Students like it so much. They are always happy to tell the reading log every morning.</td>
<td>We are very proud of our students. The rewards with the point given always help students to read every day. Rarely I found my students did not read everyday.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awesome! Our students just love it. They read every day because of the rewards. Our parents are so happy. They said that their child directly read books and filled in the reading log when they arrived at home. They play after they did it.</td>
<td>Rewards is very attractive for the students. Parents said their kids are self-directed at home. No need to tell and yelling at them to read.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our students love them. Have used them for 4 years. Students now read every day and we give them novel to read and ask them to make the summary. The summaries are good and we are very proud of them.</td>
<td>Love it. Our students now get used to read every day.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>How the reward exerts on the literacy?</strong></td>
<td><strong>Teachers</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The students’ literacy improves. The comprehension is good. I ask them to make brochure about Bali in English and made a booklet about the stories I read. All can make it good and their English is amazing.</td>
<td>They can read novel and they wrote summary about the novel they read.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We asked students to listen to story read by their English teacher but left the story unfinished and asked the students to finish it based on their own choice/versions. We are so</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The findings of this research reconfirmed the previous research about the effectiveness of the rewards to increase motivation (Lai, 2011; Ching, 2012; Kelishadroky, et al. (2016); Rahimi and Karkami, 2015). The results of interview with the teachers confirmed that the rewards can clearly and strongly motivate students to read. The personal enjoyment to get the point, and the pleasure of doing it stimulate and build the intrinsic motivation of the students to read every day. The action of reading daily is strengthened by the school system, which then slowly builds reading habit. The extrinsic motivation by the rewards, and intrinsic motivation stimulated by the inner enjoyment created, both build and form the formation of reading habit. Along the way the characters of being disciplined, responsible, and self-directed develop concurrently along with the reading habits. The surprising results also indicate the effectiveness of the rewards in term of time. The reading habit formation was indicated in about less than 6 months. However, further research needs to be carried out about this to investigate how quick the rewards are in helping students love reading.

Interview with the school principal and the English teacher revealed that the power of reward program at the school is directed by several philosophies as follows.
1) The reward must be directed to appropriate behavior as soon as possible. Giving reward, especially for younger students must be as immediate as possible. Rewards are designed to reinforce a desired behavior so immediate reward is powerful.
2) The rewards can be accumulative
Using a system that rewards behavior until it reaches a goal is more effective that setting a ‘time limit’ for attaining it. A class reward may take 2 or 3 days or a week to attain but it still attainable as opposed to informing a class that ‘failed’ to reach a certain reward with a one day time limit, for example.
3) The reward has to be small and attainable
Rewards need to be viewed by students as “attainable”. If a student does not believe they will reach the reward or that the time of the reward is too far way, they will not be interested in trying, nor benefit.
4) The reward can be made cooperative. A cooperative reward is effective. A combination of individual and class reward can be used but the overall strategies is to have appropriate behavior from all students or the entire class so each individual working towards a reward for the class can be most effective.
Class leaders will always get the reward if individually recognized, so they do not lose anything by being involved in a class reward system. Students who would seldom get an individual reward can benefit and be motivated as they too can receive the reward. In contrary to what some teachers believe, students will seldom be intrinsically motivated by “watching” someone else get a reward, despite being “told” they too can get one if they only try harder. A class reward can motivate all and actually receiving a reward – if even for a small contribution, will assuredly be more successful in motivating students that struggle.

5) Teachers should never take back a reward
If the system of class management is based on “empowering” students to make choices for themselves, then receiving a reward is based on the student making a choice that was correct or appropriate at that time. Taking back the reward for the child making a non-related inappropriate choice means that the child cannot learn from the new inappropriate behavior by experiencing new consequences. Students have a sense of ‘fairness’ and a teacher will never convince a student that ‘taking back’ a reward is a fair thing to do.

6) Students should be ‘pleasantly aware’ of rewards but not obsess about them
Clearly defining class rewards and sticking to the ‘promise’ is critical. Teachers need to be consistent with the promise they decide. However, a teacher can also be random and fun in a positive way by giving extra rewards, adding to rewards, and motivating students by changing the system each time or after some time. When students only seem to be concerned with the rewards after the obvious initial excitement, then amount of attention given to it should be considered or reduced.

7) Rewards given must be good rewards
The best rewards tend to be the ones that are not common outside of class or easily attainable anytime or anywhere. Candy or sweets are not good rewards for students who can have them at home and also for obvious health choice reasons. Depending on age, a great reward can be “time” which is easy to be provided but very meaningful and beneficial for students.

With those philosophies, the reward program implemented at the school is all by design to achieve the goal of the teaching and learning process. The rewards are not used at random but all instructional and intentional representing an ideal school system. An ideal school system is the one that succeeds in promoting students in a genuine enthusiasm for learning and accomplishment and a sense of volitional involvement in the educational enterprise (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, Ryan (1991). The reward program utilized at the school has been able to enhance students’ attention and motivation to read and study in order to enhance their literacy. It is this volition which leads students to display a strong sense of personal growth and social responsibility.
It should be noted that this study has examined only the use of innovative rewards in a case study design of research which captured the use of innovative rewards in teaching English as a foreign language. Further research is recommended on how the innovative rewards can be effectively used in other schools using experimental type of research. Despite only a case study, the facts that innovative rewards have been consistently motivating students to read English and therefore enhancing their literacy have reconfirmed the previous research, and therefore can be applied in English classes which use English as a foreign language. The innovativeness of the rewards can inspire English teachers not only in Asia but also in other countries on how rewards can be made innovative and used for teaching English as a foreign language.

Conclusion

The rewards used to teach English are innovative, not only in terms of their types and shapes, but also in terms of variations. The use of the reward program is perceived very effective by the teachers for improving students’ motivation to read and therefore improve their literacy. The rewards also concurrently lead to students’ reading habits formation and building their character. The success of the rewards is supported by the clear school system from which students understand the reasons to deserve the rewards. The rewards must be able to make students become better persons, and the students must be rewarded in a constructive way and preclude pride and self-appreciation, so that the intervention must not be over-rewarding, and avoid students to be under-rewarded.

Acknowledgement

The authors of the study are very grateful for the research grant provided by the Ministries of Research, Technology and Higher Education, Republic of Indonesia. High appreciation is also forwarded to North Bali Bilingual School for all the support and permit of conducting the research. All are highly appreciated.

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Politeness Strategies Prevalent during the Senate Hearings on the

Mamasapano Incident in Maguindanao, Philippines

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Abstract
This paper analyzed the politeness strategies prevalent during the interactive senate hearings of February 2015 that probed the Mamasapano Incident, a sad episode that claimed the lives of 44 police operatives in Maguindanao, Southern Philippines. Needed linguistic, naturalistic data were obtained from Philippine Senate where transcripts from three of five hearing days were sampled for analysis using Brown and Levinson’s (1987) linguistic politeness theory. The ensuing analysis found positive politeness to be the most prevalent politeness strategy recording a frequency of 43%, as an average of 19 senators joining the daily hearings got perpetually challenged to ask face-threatening questions on invited resource persons. The same data provide evidence of the dominance of preferred second-pair parts (SPPs) over dispreferred and acceptable SPPs combined, gleaned from an average of 23 resource persons in attendance during those hearings. Still the same data show SPP’s compliance to the Gricean conversational maxims, and question-answer combination being the most prevalent adjacency pairs in talk in interaction in the senate. Beyond the walls of the August Chamber, these findings invite attention on the need to reexamine existing ESL/EFL curricula among non-native speaking nations and give a balanced emphasis on linguistic politeness not only between nonnative speakers themselves but more so between nonnative and native speakers of English in today’s borderless global village.

Keywords: First-pair parts, Gricean conversational maxims, politeness strategies, second-pair parts
Bio-Profiles:

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Introduction

Nature of the Problem

Lawmaking is a tedious and a meticulous process. Its preliminary stage necessarily entails looking at the priority bills certified urgent by the executive department (Panao, 2013). It likewise includes introducing a chosen measure on the senate floor and its consignment to concerned committees that, in turn, invite resource persons and conduct inquiries in aid of legislation. To Kapunan (2016), these are a means by which the senate gather information and thus legislate wisely and effectively, with senators asking questions and witnesses responding to those questions. The success of this kind of institutional interaction, however, depends not only on how questions are skillfully propounded on invited resource persons but more so on linguistic politeness especially when senators get confronted with the need to ask face-threatening questions (Chang & Haugh, 2011). In verity, the last thing the senate wants in the performance of its functions is the non-cooperation of its invited resource persons.

Current State of Knowledge

The senate has investigated practically anything in aid of legislation, with topics of varying focus and interest (Bertrand, 2018; Flegenheimer & Huetteman, 2017; Santos, 2018; & Gibbs, 2018). Oftentimes it has succeeded in getting the support it needs, but at times it would encounter hostile witnesses who would repeatedly invoke their right against self-incrimination and withhold pieces of information vital to lawmaking (Kapunan, 2017). A
point in case is the former customs commissioner’s unwillingness to answer questions and his non-compliance to the Senate Blue Ribbon Committee’s subpoena that eventually resulted to his imprisonment at the Senate prison cell. The same coercive power has been employed by Congress abroad. Berenson and Rothman (2017) raised the question whether or not congress can jail witnesses who refuse to cooperate. To Cohen (2007), those who failed to heed the subpoena has a place cut out for them- its own jail. The prevailing literature illustrate the power of congress to cite witnesses in contempt if in its judgment a witness is obstructing the legislative process. Admittedly, however, this power seems insufficient to ensure resource persons fully cooperate with Congress at all times.

Statement of Purpose

This paper sought to analyze the politeness strategies used by senators during the interactive senate hearings on the Mamasapano Incident of January 25, 2015 in the Province of Maguindanao spearheaded by the Joint Senate Committee on Public Order and Dangerous Drugs; Peace, Unification and Reconciliation; and Finance.

Specifically, this study sought answers to the following questions:

1. What politeness strategies are prevalent during the interactive senate hearings on the Mamasapano Incident in Maguindanao, Philippines?

2. What social actions are carried out by resource persons’ responses to senators’ questions?

3. How compliant are the recorded SPPs during the same senate hearings with the Gricean conversational maxims of quantity, relevance, and manner?

4. How prevalent are the following adjacency pairs during the same senate hearings: Question-answer; accusation-defense/acceptance; request-acceptance/rejection; telling-acceptance/rejection, and summon-answer/rejection?

Hypothesis

At the onset, this paper assumes that the more the senators empathize with their invited resource persons, the more they get those preferred responses that are direct and prototypical of yes/no or WH-responses in institutional interaction.
Materials and Methods

Source of Linguistic Data

The data needed by this study came from the actual public senate hearings recorded *in situ* by senate stenographers on February 9, 10 and 12, 2015. Senator Grace Poe, Chair of Joint Committees on Public Order and Dangerous Drugs; Peace, Unification and Reconciliation; and Finance graciously approved the researcher’s request for the linguistic data needed by this study. Turns to be analyzed were randomly sampled from extracts of three of five hearing days in the Senate.

Research Design

This study made use of the qualitative, naturalistic research design in its aim of analyzing the politeness strategies used by senators during interactive public senate hearings on the Mamasapano Incident of January 25, 2015. Principally, it employs the politeness theory by Brown and Levinson (qtd. in Mey, 712-714) in its data analysis.

Procedures

**Coding Categories.** With slight modifications, this process adopted Dinopol’s (2005) coding methodology where each turn in the three-day senate transcripts were coded as “turn” and were numbered consecutively from the very first utterance to the last. All numbered turns were then suffixed according to hearing days. Thus, turn 1.1 is turn number one on the first hearing day, turn 51.2 is turn 51 on the second, and turn 52.3 is turn 52 on the third. Earmarked for analysis were those sampled turns containing utterances from participants and were labeled as conversational extracts. These extracts present data on a 4-column format that specifies the number of turns on the first column, the participants on the second, verbatim institutional interaction on the third, and an annotation column or, where needed, translation of utterances in L1 to their L2 equivalent.

Meanwhile, conversational participants were coded in accordance with the legend established below:

PO= Presiding Officer (PO+P= Presiding Officer Poe)

Sen= Senate committee members + Family name (e. g. Sen+D= Sen. Drilon)

RP= Resource person + Family name (RP+R= Secretary Manuel A. Roxas II)
Data Collection. Random sampling via excel pinpointed the first fifteen (15) pages of each of those three hearing transcripts on February 9, 10 and 12, 2015 where to extract those 45 paired utterances for analysis. Conversational contexts were thereafter assigned to institutional interaction segments evolving from the lines of questioning by pursued by senators having the senate floor. For illustration purposes, conversational extracts were numbered based on the order of their appearance in text of this paper. These extracts integrate the hearing date, the page number, conversational episodes and context, and politeness strategies chosen by elected senators forming part of the Joint Senate Committee on Public Order and Dangerous Drugs; Peace, Unification and Reconciliation; and Finance.

Data Analysis. The sections that follow spell out the procedure for the analysis of data that sought answers to the statement of purpose raised in introductory portion of paper.

Phase 1: Politeness Strategies. The units chosen for analysis were 45 first pair parts (FPPs) of those sampled paired utterances throughout the three-day senate hearings in focus. Thereafter, a sample each from bald on record, positive politeness, and negative politeness strategies are shown in the results section through informal tables 1-3.

Phase 2: Social actions carried out by SPPs. Adding up to the major variables of this study is an analysis of the social actions (Liddicoat, 2007) performed by 45 second pair parts (SPPs) equitably sampled from those three hearing days. The objective of this section was to categorize SPPs into either preferred or dis-preferred responses. This section likewise kept an eye on other acceptable SPPs like re-routes of questions, statements of ignorance, partial answers, rejection of presuppositions throughout those three hearing days. For economy in space, language samples bearing these variables will no longer be presented in the results section but subsequent findings will be illustrated through a formal table thereat.

Phase 3: SPPs’ adherence to Gricean conversational maxims. The third major variable are those second pair parts (SPPs) from the FPPs in variable 2 on the preceding variable on social actions carried by those responses. Data analysis focused on how compliant were those responses from the maxims of quantity, relation, and manner. Language samples bearing these variables will no longer be presented in the results section but subsequent findings will be illustrated though a formal table thereat.

Phase 4: Adjacency pairs. The fourth major variable of the study focused on the adjacency pair patterns observed from the same 45 extracts sampled from those three hearings mentioned earlier in this section. The purpose was to determine the prevalent paired
combinations in question-answer, accusation-defense/acceptance, request-acceptance/rejection, telling-acceptance/rejection, summon-answer, etc. Similar to the preceding two variables, language samples will no longer be presented in the next section but subsequent findings will be illustrated though a formal table thereat.

**Intercoder Validity/Reliability.** Language alternation were observed in some utterances of senators and their invited resource persons throughout the 3-day senate hearings. This required translation from L1 to their L2 equivalent. To achieve intercoder validity/reliability of texts translated, these researchers enlisted the services of two (2) seasoned faculty members of STI West Negros University who are doctorate holders and have been handling Filipino subjects for several decades. Comments of these two experts were integrated resulting in some slight modifications of theses translated texts appearing in three sample extracts from pp. 7-10.

**Results**

This section presents, analyzes, and interprets the linguistic data to carry out the predetermined objectives of this study. To recall, this study sought to analyze the politeness strategies observed during the interactive senate hearings of the Joint Senate Committee on Public Order and Dangerous Drugs; Peace, Unification and Reconciliation; and Finance last February 9, 10 and 12, 2015.

**Politeness Strategies Observed on FPPs**

Power is never symmetrical in the August chamber and resides clearly on elected senators. Hence, instead of analyzing this variable from two lenses, this section focused solely on the utterances by senators who joined the said senate hearings. Figure 1 shows positive politeness being the more preferred politeness strategies by senators after having registered a frequency of 43% among the 45 paired language samples analyzed.
Fig. 1. Politeness Strategies Preferred by Senators in the FPPs on their Resource Persons during the *Mamasapano* Incident Senate Hearings

Senators were observed employing positive politeness through strategies based on the following order of frequency: Reciprocating or sympathizing, establishing a common ground, seeking agreement, and minimizing distance between them and their hearers. The same chart shows bald on record and negative politeness coming in second and third, respectively. Senators in attendance during those hearing days were observed using negative politeness through strategies based on the following order of frequency: Minimizing imposition, employing passive voice or impersonalizing, pluralizing the “we,” forgiving/apologizing, and showing debt of gratitude. Cautious language, adds Nivales (2011), serves the purpose of mitigating the strength of a proposal as it increases or decreases its illocutionary force.

To further illustrate this point, one sample extract each from these three politeness strategies is put on view in exact order, i.e. bald on record strategy, positive politeness strategy, and negative politeness.

Sample Extract 1: Conversational Episode 25.1; February 9, 2015; pp. 160-161
Conversational Context: Usurpation of Authority within the PNP Hierarchy
Politeness Strategy: Bald-on-Record

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turns</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Institutional Interaction</th>
<th>Annotation/Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>417.1</td>
<td>Sen+G</td>
<td>General (name withheld), <em>anong nasa utak po ninyo noong in-order-an mo si General Napeñas na huwag nang sabihin sa dalawa? So, in effect, kasi ano, in-order-an mo siya not to follow the chain of command because the immediate superior of General Napeñas is General Espina. Ano po ang nasa utak ninyo? Anong motivation ninyo para sabihin iyan?</em></td>
<td>General (name withheld), what was in your coconut when you ordered General Napenas not to inform the duo of the Oplan Exodus? So, in effect, you ordered him not to follow the chain of command because General Espina is General Napeñas’ immediate superior. What was in your coconut? What motivated you to say that?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>418.1</td>
<td>RP+Pu</td>
<td>Your Honor, during my preventive suspension, I did not give any orders to any PNP official or personnel regarding</td>
<td>Dis-preferred SPP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Oplan Exodus.** But if ever I uttered words to that effect, it was in the form of an advice, not as a directive or order. This may be also in support to their plan that they will inform everyone, time on target. As a decorated law enforcement officer and director of PNP Special Action Force, no less, Your Honor, Police Director Napeñas knows very well that he cannot and should not follow orders from anyone who is not in the chain of command such as from a suspended police officer.

The above sample illustrates the bald-on-record strategy in its barest sense. In this particular instance, the “questioner” clearly made no attempt to reduce the effects of such face-threatening act (FTA) questioning his decision-making as the highest-ranking police officer, albeit on suspension. If examined intently, this question, “What was in your coconut?” is sarcastic in tone that questions the wisdom of his decision instructing the Head of the Philippine National Police (PNP) Special Action Force (SAF) to disregard the chain of command by keeping the information from the Secretary of the Department of Interior and Local and Local Government (DILG) and the Acting PNP Chief.

The illocutionary force of Turn 417.1 is clear: It aims to establish the proposition that the former PNP Chief, at the time of his suspension, intruded into the PNP chain of command and kept the Acting PNP Chief and the former DILG Secretary out of the loop. An examination of the utterance in the turn that follows did not convince the “questioner” that the suspended PNP Chief did not give an order. In verity, the presupposition is that the moment a leader opens his mouth it mechanically carries the force of an order.

After having tackled the bald-on-record strategy, this section now shifts to a language sample of positive politeness, a form of redress intended for the addressee's positive face or his/her desire that his/her wants be considered desirable.

Sample Extract 2: Conversational Episode 12.2; Feb. 10, 2015; p. 87

Conversational Context: Immediate Assistance Needed by Special Action Force (SAF)
## Politeness Strategy: Positive Politeness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turns</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Institutional Interaction</th>
<th>Annotation/Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>355.2</td>
<td>PO+ P</td>
<td>Actually, sir, I share your frustration. Hindi kayo sinabihan tapos ngayon parang kayo ang pinagbibintangan din dito. Naiintindihan ko iyon.</td>
<td>Actually, sir, I share your frustration. SAF did not coordinate with you, and now it looks like you are accused of failing to rescue those trapped SAF troopers. I fully understand that.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>356.2</td>
<td>RP+Pa</td>
<td>Yes, Your Honor.</td>
<td>Preferred SPP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Turn 355.2 shows the speaker sympathizing with the hearer representing the Philippine Army, and as expected, got a preferred SPP. During the initial course of the hearing, the army has been accused of being unenthusiastic in extending artillery fire support to the Special Action Force (SAF) troopers of the Philippine National Police in Mamasapano, Maguindanao. They too were blamed for the botched police operation out to capture Marwan, an urban terrorist from Malaysia classified as a high-value target by the FBI. Like the rest of the viewers, the senate was shocked to hear the utter lack of coordination between the nation’s legal armed groups that resulted in the failure to extricate beleaguered SAF troopers immediately after neutralizing Marwan. As a result, they were trapped in an open corn field making forty-four (44) of them as virtual sitting ducks for MILF snipers.

The surrounding verbal exchange between the participants in talk made clear that essential elements of information that would have enabled the army to help, consistent with its operational doctrine, were simply incomplete. Army doctrine dictates that requests for artillery fire should come directly from troops on the ground, who, in turn, gives feedback as to how close or how far the fire is from their location. Turn 356.2 shows a complete agreement to the observation in prior turn showing empathy with the army’s predicament. This is a mark of positive politeness where the speaker displays the capacity to understand and share somebody else’s feelings.

Up next is extract 3 illustrating negative politeness.

Sample Extract 3: Conversational Episode 48.3; Feb. 12, 2015; p. 208

Conversational Context: Supervision and Control over the Bangsamoro Police
Politeness Strategy: Negative Politeness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turns</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Institutional Interaction</th>
<th>Annotation/Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>761.3</td>
<td>Sen+PC</td>
<td>So if I may get clarity from General Espina. What we have now is one whole unit. Is there any such entity similar to what will be created under the Bangsamoro…?</td>
<td>NB: If not clarified well, this utterance implies that the PNP as an organization will get divided by the creation of Bangsamoro Police Force or any other units in the south.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>762.3</td>
<td>RP+E</td>
<td>Ma’am, the police force that’s going to be set up in the Bangsamoro would be under the Chief, PNP and under the supervision of Napolcom. <em>Resolved na po iyon.</em></td>
<td>Ma’am, the police force that’s going to be set up in the Bangsamoro would be under the Chief, PNP and under the supervision of the National Police Commission. That has already been resolved, ma’am.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Turns 761.3 and 762.2 of the above language extract revolve around the initiatives by the previous administration to enact the Bangsamoro Basic Law (BBL). The proposed bill, now shelved by the present administration, was expected to attract rebels from the Moro Islamic Liberation Front (MILF) to join the mainstream society and, among others, take part in the country’s political exercise. The bill proposes to grant autonomy to selected areas in Mindanao including operational control over the Bangsamoro Police Force. A closer look at the verbal exchange shows its face-threatening nature that it will divide the PNP national hierarchy by creating another one to be put under the Regional PNP in Mindanao. Fortunately, polite linguistic expressions like, “If I may…?” or “May I/we...? minimized imposition on the part of the hearer, which is a hallmark of negative politeness. As shown on the above SPP, the Acting PNP Chief clarified matters and allayed fears that the passage of BBL will not, in any way, create division within the PNP organization.

A quick review of the foregoing extracts affirms Zhu’s (2017) findings that most of verbal exchanges either in pure talk or institutional talk appear to be face-maintaining and rapport-maintaining, and that some are face-enhancing and rapport-enhancing. Moreover, the foregoing politeness strategies employed by elected senators generally reflect the pragmatic function of politeness described by Eshreteh (2018) as a device utilized by interlocutors to mark, establish, or assert social relationships including connectedness, generosity and solidarity.
This section now brings the spotlight on the next variable on social actions performed by second-pair parts (SPPs).

**Social Actions Performed by SPPs**

Studies on preference organization provide evidence that human interaction is so organized for the purpose of promoting social affiliation. People, says Holtgraves (2001) use language to accomplish various things—they request, criticize and criticize, etc. But the foregoing use is not just an action; it is also a social action that involves other people. Along this line, research on conversation analyses demonstrate that the social action producing SPPs in a more straightforward manner is more preferred. These SPPs are prototypal of yes-no or WH-questions and are done without delay, qualification, or account. On one hand, participants treat actions as “dispreferred” by withholding, delaying, qualifying, and/or accounting for them. These SPPs are considered non-prototypal of yes-no and WH-questions and are typically characterized by more complex syntax. Acceptable SPPs include partial answers to questions, rejection of presupposition, denials of relevance, statements of ignorance, or re-route of questions to more knowledgeable speakers in attendance during the senate hearing days.

Table 1 below shows social actions performed by SPPs coming from resource persons invited to the Senate hall.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Actions Performed by Second Pair Parts (SPPs)</th>
<th>Bald on Record</th>
<th>Positive Politeness</th>
<th>Negative Politeness</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Preferred SPPs</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Dis-preferred SPPs</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Acceptable SPPs</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A quick review of Table 1 above shows the dominance of preferred SPPs over the dis-preferred ones by a ratio of 32:10. Acceptable SPPs resulting mostly from statements of ignorance and re-routes occurred thrice and surfaced only at times when senators employed negative politeness, a strategy that lessens imposition on invited resource persons. This figure suggests that resource persons invited to the senate have regularly demonstrated their leaning towards preferred SPPs by responding to questions in a straightforward manner, or in an unmarked and prototypal of responses to FPPs.
Compliance to Gricean Conversational Maxims

SPPs’ compliance to the Gricean conversational maxims revolves around the principle put forward by Davies and Katsos (2006) that resource persons should disfavor utterances that give too little or too much information in response to FPPs. Simply put, SPPs should adhere to the Gricean conversational maxims.

The table below illustrates the overall ratio on the compliance and non-compliance of recorded SPPs to Gricean conversational maxims of quantity, relations and manner (Grice as cited in Juez, 1995). To recall, the maxim of quantity suggests that a senator resource person should make his/her contribution to talk in interaction as informative as required, the maxim of relation proposes that they respond aptly to the lines of questioning, and the maxim of manner suggesting that participants to talk in interaction be clear, orderly, and unambiguous in their responses.

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Politeness Strategy</th>
<th>Overall Ratio Between Compliant and Non-Compliant SPPs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bald on Record</td>
<td>8:7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Politeness</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Politeness</td>
<td>13:2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A closer look at table 2 shows a ratio of 34:11 analyzed from 45 sampled adjacency pairs highlighting the dominance of SPPs compliant to the Gricean maxims than those which are non-compliant. Both positive and negative politeness registered an identical result of 13:2 suggesting that when employed through the max, they have the tendency to generate surefire SPPs devoid of evasive or defensive replies. In contrast, a tight competition of 8:7 was found evident between compliant and non-compliant SPPs when senator opted to use the bald-on-record strategy. These findings suggest that, unlike the bald on record politeness strategy, the positive and negative politeness tend to generate responses compliant to the Gricean conversational maxims of quantity, relevance and manner.

Adjacency Pairs

This section concludes with the final study variable on the prevailing adjacency pairs resulting from the interaction between senators and their resource persons on February 9, 10
and 12, 2016. Table 3 below gives an overall glimpse of this variable analyzed from the senate transcripts.

Table 3

*Adjacency Pairs Prevalent during the 3-day Interactive Senate Hearings*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjacency Pairs</th>
<th>Bald-on-Record</th>
<th>Positive Politeness</th>
<th>Negative Politeness</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Question-Answer</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Accusation-Defense/Acceptance</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Summon-Answer/Disregard</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Telling-Acceptance/Rejection</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
<td><strong>45</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The preceding table shows question-answer combination being the most prevalent adjacency pairs in talk in the Senate having recorded a total of 37 pairs from extracts sampled from those three hearing days last February 9, 10 and 12, 2015. This translates to 80% of the total adjacency pairs consisting of FPPs and SPPs coming from participants in talk in the Senate. Other pairs like accusation-defense/acceptance, summon-answer/disregard, and telling-acceptance/rejection were sporadically observed from the sampled senate transcripts. But what appears interesting on this table is that accusation-defense/acceptance combinations surfaced only at times when bald-on-record strategy was used. Similar observations were noted with summon-answer/disregard and telling-acceptance/rejection combinations. The former was observed when negative politeness was used and the latter when senators opted to use positive politeness.

The foregoing findings validate the prevailing assumption that senators and resource persons report to the August Chamber with full awareness of the objective of senate inquiries, which is to gather data as needed inputs to legislation. Consistent with this aim, senators were shown using politeness strategies that redress their resource persons’ positive and negative face. In reciprocal fashion, resource persons were found generally compliant to the Gricean conversational maxims, having achieved a favorable social relationship with their fellow interlocutors, and proved cooperative by responding mostly in unmarked, prototypal manner devoid of delays and hesitations.
Discussion

The final section of this paper summarizes the findings of the investigation, presents the conclusion drawn therefrom, and submits recommendations to further enhance the institutional interaction in the Senate consistent with its popular mandate of conducting investigation in aid of legislation.

Summary of Findings

1. To begin with, positive politeness proves to be the most preferred politeness strategy, with bald-on-record and negative politeness coming in a close second and third, respectively. This brings into focus the varying functions of language, i.e., to demonstrate appreciation and respect for the face of their resource persons, to mitigate impositions so required by their lines of questioning, or in worst-case scenario, to express disappointment on SPPs seemingly in contrast with the voice of sound reasoning.

2. Preferred SPPs dominates over the dis-preferred ones by a ratio of 32:10 while acceptable SPPs occurred sporadically throughout the senate hearings. This result highlights Kendra Cherry’s (2018) norm of reciprocity being a pattern of mutually contingent exchange of gratification. Hence, when someone like the “questioner” does something for the “answerer,” in form of positive or negative politeness, the latter would most likely return the favor in form of prototypal, direct responses aka preferred SPPs.

3. SPPs compliant to the Gricean conversational maxims of quantity, relations and manner has clearly outnumbered those that are non-compliant by a ratio of 34:11. Like in variable number 2 on social actions performed by SPPs, the norm of reciprocity applies on this variable.

4. The pervasiveness of question-answer combination among the adjacency pair patterns implies senators’ passionate pursuit of those missing pieces of information in aid of legislation. Other pairs like accusation-defense/acceptance, summon-answer/disregard, and telling-acceptance/rejection were sporadically observed at times when senators made use of the following politeness strategies in exact order of appearance: bald-on-record strategy, negative politeness, and positive politeness strategies, respectively.

Conclusion

The foregoing findings suggest that, in institutional talk like that in the senate, questions that redress the hearers’ positive and negative face generate more preferred responses than
those on bald-on-record strategy. No empirical evidence, however, would tend to support these findings. Researchers interested to further broaden the current state of knowledge on linguistic politeness are henceforth enjoined to keep an eye on subsequent research that would either corroborate, modify or dispute these findings either in applied conversation analysis (applied CA) or pure CA.

**Recommendations**

In the light of these findings and conclusion, the following recommendations are hereby offered:

1. Look into the workability of both branches of government conducting refresher courses on linguistic politeness and the Gricean conversational maxim of quantity, quality, relation and manner to their neophyte solons and their counterparts in the executive department;

2. Explore areas for enrichment in the existing secondary and tertiary ESL/EFL curricula with particular emphasis on business transactions and interpersonal relationships through a balanced emphasis on the norms of appropriateness of language use in socio-cultural contexts;

3. Verify or test both in applied CA and pure CA findings on other sub-variables on social actions performed by SPPs and on SPPs’ adherence to Gricean conversational maxims; and

4. Replicate this linguistic politeness analyses in applied CA in media, educational, legal, medical settings, to include that in pure CA, to broaden and deepen understanding of politeness as a complex linguistic phenomena.
References


The Effects of Students' Motivation and Family Socioeconomic Status on English Academic Achievement

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Bio-Profile:

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Abstract

Students’ achievement in English as a foreign language (EFL) or second language (ESL/L2) at schools and universities is influenced by many factors. One of the vital factors is motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Another vital factor is students’ family socioeconomic status (FSES). This study aims to investigate: (1) the effects of students’ motivation on their English academic achievement, and (2) the effects of students’ family socioeconomic status on their English academic achievement. This study employed quantitative approach and the instrument used was questionnaire. The data obtained are from students of English Department Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar (UNM). The results of the study show that students’ motivation has strong relationship to students’ English academic achievement and students’ family socioeconomic status. The educational implication of the study is that motivation, either intrinsic or extrinsic motivation needs to be activated in the EFL classroom. The teachers or lecturers are also recommended to encourage students, motivation in the classroom teaching - learning process.
Keywords: motivation, family socioeconomic status, English, academic achievement

Introduction

In Indonesian context, knowing English means getting a good job, career, and many other benefits (Wed'a, 2012, p. 23). Being able to share ideas and thoughts in English, one can obtain many advantages. Fromkin, et.al. (2007) argue that knowing a language means one has the capacity to produce sounds that signify certain meanings and to understand or interpret the sounds produced by other speakers.

Knowing English as a foreign language (EFL) or a second language (ESL/L2) is not easy, one needs to know the language competence (grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation) and language performance (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). In Indonesia, English has been taught as a compulsory subject at secondary schools to tertiary level, but the graduate’s English communicative competence is low. Hamied, Nur, and Haryanto in (Wed'a, 2012) report that the teaching of English as an EFL in Indonesia is unsuccessful. One of the causes of the students’ low learning achievement in English is the students’ demotivation. Therefore, the teacher at schools and the lecturers at the university need to enhance students’ interest and motivation to learn English. This is because motivation is one of the most vital factors contributing to the achievement of students’ learning outcomes is motivation (Wed'a, 2018).

Trang, Moni & Baldauf in Wed'a & Sakti (2018, p. 718) state that there are a variety of factors that might influence foreign language or second language learning faced by a number of students when learning a foreign or second language: attitude, motivation, anxiety, and beliefs. Of these affective factors, motivation has been given much attention by language researchers and practitioners.

In the area of English as a foreign language (EFL), motivation becomes cornerstone of the students’ success. Subekti (2018, p. 57) argues that motivation has become an important issue in studies on second language learning. Many research reports reveal that motivation has significant correlation with students’ academic achievement (Nasihah & Cahyono, 2017; El Aouri & Zerhouni, 2017; Simons, et al., 2004; Bernaus, et.al., 2009; Liibo, et.al., 2016; Wilson & Trainin, 2007; and Pajares, 2003).

Second language motivation studies have been traditionally at the forefront of English applied linguistics research in the past decades, as motivation is considered to be one of the most
important individual difference (ID) variables contributing to the success of second language learning (Piniel & Csizér, 2013). The modeling of structural equations confirmed that stability, the motivation of the second language and the demotivation of the second language contribute to an increase in the level of proficiency in the second language (Isatayeva, et.al., 2018, p. 146). Selivanova, et.al. (2018, p. 218) argue that to take into account students’ individual cognitive characteristics and educational requirements in learning the second foreign language; the teacher should be aware of the fact that it is necessary to increase students’ motivation for a second language (L2) or foreign language (FL) learning.

Therefore, Isatayeva, et al (2018, p. 154) state that the motivation for learning L2 consists of six subcomponents: self-esteem L2, ideal self L2, instrumental motivation, parental support, academic challenge and awareness of importance. It was also found that the demonization of L2 training includes six components: a negative perception of English-speaking countries, compulsory EFL training, perceived discrepancy of textbooks or tasks, low self-esteem, inappropriate learning environment and untrained teachers.

**Research Questions**

The issues as put forward in the introduction as the rationale of this study give augmentation to problems. The problems of the current study are formulated in the following research questions:

1. Is there any correlation between students’ motivation and students’ academic achievement?
2. Is there any correlation between students’ family socioeconomic status (FSES) and students’ academic achievement?

**Beliefs about English Academic Achievement**

Researchers in the field of English learning outcome have focused their study on academic achievement and other English learning skills. Some researchers have attempted to address their study by investigating the influential factors that influence students’ academic achievement.
Students’ academic achievement in a variety of forms, like students’ writing achievement, academic performance, second language achievement, achievement for reading, writing, spelling, achievement in writing, and so on.

Pajares (2003, p. 139) argues that the relationship between writing self-efficacy, other motivation constructs related to writing, and writing outcomes in academic settings. Bernaus, et, al. (2009, p. 25) reveal that teacher’s motivation is related to teacher’s use of motivating strategies, which in turn are related to student motivation and English achievement. Llbao, et. al. (2016, p. 209) present their study findings that the respondents had a good to very good motivation in learning science and in general, the extent of their motivation did not vary across their sex, age, and curriculum year. Llbao et. al. therefore add that the respondents had good academic performance in science.

El Aouri & Zerhouni (2017, p. 52) state that Moroccan university EFL science students use language learning strategies (LLSs) at a medium level and exhibit a high level of motivation, and their motivation to learn English and use of LLSs are strongly and positively correlated. Nasihah & Cahyono (2017, p. 250) argue that there is a significant correlation between motivation and writing achievement and their study recommend to the teachers to arouse students’ motivation to write to boost EFL students’ writing achievement.

Assessing Motivation

Nunan, David & Lamb, Clarice (1996) revealed that most studies report a high correlation between motivation and achievement, and this correlation is taken as an evidence that a highly motivated student will do well in school.

The results of Bernaus, et.al study suggest that teacher motivation is related to teacher use of motivating strategies, which in turn are related to student motivation and English Achievement. Thus, any change in the educational system that promotes higher levels of teacher motivation should result in improved levels of education of the students (Bernaus, et.al., 2009, p. 25).

Brown (1994) stated that motivation is commonly thought of as an inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves one to a particular action. Brown (1994) added that in more technical terms, motivation refers to “the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach to avoid, and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect.”
Dörnyei & Ottó’s definition of L2 motivation in Dörnyei & Ushioda (2011) that in general sense, motivation is the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, implies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritized, operationalized and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out.

Daskalovska, et al (2012) found in their study that there are a lot of factors which influence the success in language learning, one of the most important factors is learners’ motivation to learn the language. In keeping with Daskalovska, et al, Weda, et al (2018, p. 143) said that one of the successfulness determinants in learning a second language (L2) or a foreign language (FL) is motivation. Therefore, Weda, et al (2018, p.159) reported in their study that there was a significant correlation of motivation and students’ academic performance at State University of Makassar (Universitas Negeri Makassar/UNM).

Assessing Family Socioeconomic Status (FSES)

Socioeconomic status (SES) remains a topic of great interest to those who study children’s development (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002, p. 371). Recently, SES becomes familiar issue in language learning.

Other than motivation as the most pivotal factor in the EFL classroom, family socioeconomic status also determines the success of students’ learning outcomes. Bandura, et al. (1996, p. 126) argue that familial socioeconomic status was linked to children’s academic achievement only indirectly through its effects on parental aspirations and children’s prosocialness. Students’ family socioeconomic status (FSES) can enhance students’ motivation to learn. This in keeping with Ersanti (2015) who reports the study results about language learning motivation of the students in terms of the education level of the parents indicate a significant difference in students whose parents are more educated with those of less educated. This indicates that students who are from high socioeconomic status have high motivation and in turn, students’ high motivation can boost students’ academic achievement.
Research Method

Participants

A total of 56 (42 female and 14 Male) students participated in this present study. Ages ranged from 17 to 24 years. The students are English department major of Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar in Indonesia.

Data Collection Tools

To collect the data on motivation, instrument adapted from Tuan, Chin, & Shieh (2005) is used and to collect the data on family economic status of the participants, and instrument of FSES is used. Meanwhile, students’ English academic achievement was measured using Grade Point Average (GPA). The GPA was obtained from the questionnaire in which the students were asked to write down their GPA on the questionnaire. The classification of academic performance level of some universities in Indonesia justifies low academic performance is GPA ≤ 3.0; moderate is within the range 3.1 - 3.6; and high is ≥ 3.7 – 4. The interpretation of Motivation (MOT), family socioeconomic status (FSES), and GPA level are revealed in table 1 and table 2.

Table 1. Interpretation of GPA Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MOT Score</th>
<th>GPA</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50 &gt; MOT</td>
<td>3.0 &gt; GPA</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 &lt; MOT</td>
<td>3.0 &lt; GPA</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Interpretation of GPA Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FES Score</th>
<th>GPA</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>50 &gt; FES</td>
<td>3.0 &gt; GPA</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50 &lt; FES</td>
<td>3.0 &lt; GPA</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Measures

Socioeconomic Status

Eleven questions of family socioeconomic status variables were considered. Those questions are parents’ education, employment, household income, residence, family general health, vehicle, picnic, and shopping.

Data Analysis

This descriptive study examines a possible correlation between the motivation and English academic achievement, and family socioeconomic status and English academic achievement at students of English department Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar. The SPSS for descriptive and inferential statistics used to measure the correlation between motivation and English academic achievement, and between family socioeconomic status and English academic achievement. The correlation between X and Y variables is analyzed by Pearson Correlation Coefficient.

Results and Discussion

There were fifty six students who participated in this present study to examine the relationship between motivation and students’ academic achievement, and the relationship between family socioeconomic status (FSES) and students’ academic achievement. The students were from English Department Faculty of Languages and Literature, State University of Makassar. The participants’ age ranged from 17 – 24 years old and they were from semester 3 (38 or 67.86% students) and semester 5 (14 or 32.14% students). The demographic profile of participants is revealed in detail in table 2 as follows.

Table 2. Demographic Information of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Information</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Male</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semester</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Semester 3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>67.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Semester 5</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>32.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. 17 – 20</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>96.43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 shows the students’ perception on motivation, mean score, and standard deviation (SD) of the study.

### Table 3. Students’ Motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Variable*</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Mean (SD)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Even the English learning topic is difficult for me, I am sure that I can understand it and finish it.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>4.0714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.75936</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I am not confident in understanding difficult English learning topics.</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>53.6</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.4821</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.71328</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I am sure that I can do well the English tests.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>60.7</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>3.9464</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.67203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>No matter how much effort I put in, I cannot learn English well.</td>
<td>39.3</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>1.8750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.93541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>When the learning exercises in English subject are too difficult, I always give up or only do the easy parts.</td>
<td>26.8</td>
<td>46.4</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.0714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.87089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>To finish the English assignment in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom, I tend to ask my friends for the answers rather than thinking of by myself.</td>
<td>17.9</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.2321</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.78604</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>When I found the content or the material in English difficult, I used to ignore it.</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.1964</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.90292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>I encourage myself to succeed in English.</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>60.7</td>
<td>4.4643</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.80824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>I try to behave to learn all difficult topics or materials in English.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>4.0179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.67396</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I believe that I can maintain communication well in English with my friends and lecturers.

Cronbach alpha = 0.7
*Refer to Appendix for item description

The scale that was used to measure motivation was reliable, with a Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.7 (table 4). Approximately 78.6% of students gave comments on agree and strongly agree to “Even the English learning topic is difficult for me, I am sure that I can understand it and finish it.” Approximately 8.9% of students experienced “I am not confident in understanding difficult English learning topics.” Approximately 78.6% of students indicated experiencing “I am sure that I can do well the English tests.” Approximately 3.6% of students exhibited “No matter how much effort I put in, I cannot learn English well.” 7.1% of students exhibited “When the learning exercises in English subject are too difficult, I always give up or only do the easy parts.” There were 3.6% of students revealed that “To finish the English assignment in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom, I tend to ask my friends for the answers rather than thinking of by myself.” There were 8.9% of the students indicated that “When I found the content or the material in English difficult, I used to ignore it.” Approximately 89.3% of the students revealed “I encourage myself to succeed in English.” Approximately 78.6% of the students exhibited “I try to behave to learn all difficult topics or materials in English,” and there were 84% of the students indicated “I believe that I can maintain communication well in English with my friends and lecturers.”

Table 4 reveals the students’ family socioeconomic status (FSES), mean score, and standard deviation (SD) of the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Variables*</th>
<th>a</th>
<th>b</th>
<th>c</th>
<th>d</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Which of the following best describes the highest level of education your father has completed?</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>1.6964</td>
<td>.85109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Which of the following best describes the highest level of</td>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>19.6</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>1.6071</td>
<td>.90812</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
See appendix for choice: a, b, c, and d
*Refer to Appendix for item description

The scale that was used to measure family socioeconomic status (FSES) was reliable, with a Cronbach’s alpha value of 0.7 (table 5). Approximately 50% of students gave comments that their father’s highest level of education was Senior High School and this was the highest responses from the students. There were 62% of the students gave comments that their mother’s highest level of education was Senior High School and this was the highest responses from the students. There were 57.1% of the students gave comments “working full time for pay” on their father’s current employment status. There were 39.3% of the students gave comments “working full time for pay” on their mother’s current employment status. Therefore, detail information of item number 5 to item number 11 can be seen in table 5.

Table 5. Results of Correlation between Motivation and English Academic Achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOT</td>
<td>31.50</td>
<td>2.730</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Pearson correlation examines the relationship between motivation and academic achievement. The results reveal a mean and standard deviation (SD) of Motivation/MOT (M=31.50 (moderate) out of a possible maximum of 5 (very high); SD=2.730 and English Academic Achievement (M=3.69; SD=.193), a significant correlation (p=0.000), the correlation coefficient is small with r=.001, and the sample size yield n=56. Motivation is positively related to students’ academic achievement. Therefore, the finding implies that there is a significant relationship between motivation and students’ academic achievement among English students at English Department, Faculty of Languages and Literature, State University of Makassar, Indonesia.

**Table 6. Results of Correlation between Family Socioeconomic Status (FSES) and English Academic Achievement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measures</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FSES</td>
<td>31.59</td>
<td>4.004</td>
<td>.013</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Academic Achievement</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>.193</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. P <0.01*

The Pearson correlation examines the relationship between motivation and academic achievement. The results reveal a mean and standard deviation (SD) of Family Socioeconomic Status (FSES) (M=31.59 (moderate) out of a possible maximum of 5 (very high); SD=4.004 and English Academic Achievement (M=3.69; SD=.193), a significant correlation (p=0.000), the correlation coefficient is small with r=.013, and the sample size yield n=56. Family Socioeconomic Status (FSES) is positively related to students’ academic achievement. Therefore, the finding implies that there is a significant relationship between motivation and students’ academic achievement among English students at English Department, Faculty of Languages and Literature, State University of Makassar, Indonesia.
Conclusion

This present study represents an attempt to investigate the relationship between motivation and students’ English academic achievement, and the relationship between family socioeconomic status (FSES) and students’ English academic achievement. The results revealed that there was a significant correlation of students’ motivation and students’ English academic achievement among English students at Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar, with significant correlation \( (p=0.000) \) and the correlation coefficient is small with \( r=0.001 \) and there was a significant correlation of students’ family socioeconomic status (FSES) and students’ English academic achievement among English students at Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar, with significant correlation \( (p=0.000) \) and the correlation coefficient is small with \( r=0.13 \). Further studies in a wide variety of settings with students who have different family socioeconomic background, gender, and other disciplines with students’ academic achievements are recommended.

Implication

At this point, I have to note the implications of the study. It has to be pointed out that the study investigated the relationship between motivation and English academic achievement, and the relationship between family socioeconomic status and English academic achievement. The study therefore suggests that the teachers at schools and the lecturers at universities need to toil students’ motivation in the language learning process. The participation of family in achieving the learning outcome and curriculum target becomes vital in the second language (L2) and foreign language (FL) learning – teaching process.

Reference

Journal Articles:


Simons, Joke; Dewitte, Siegfried; and Lens, Willy. (2004). The role of different types of instrumentality in motivation, study strategies, and performance: Know why you learn, so you’ll know what you learn!. British Journal of Educational Psychology, 74, pp. 343 – 360.


**Book:**


**Respondent Identity:**
Name : 
Sex : 
Age : 
Study Program: 
Semester : 
GPA/IPK : 

**Questionnaire**
Choose one of the following choices which reveal how much you agree or disagree by circling around. Remember that there is no right or wrong answers.

(1) Strongly disagree  
(2) Disagree  
(3) Neither agree nor disagree  
(4) Agree  
(5) Strongly agree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Self-Efficacy Belief</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Even the English learning topic is difficult for me, I am sure that I can understand it and finish it.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I am not confident in understanding difficult English learning topics. (-)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I am sure that I can do well the English tests.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>No matter how much effort I put in, I cannot learn English well. (-)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>When the learning exercises in English subject are too difficult, I always give up or only do the easy parts. (-)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>To finish the English assignment in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom, I tend to ask my friends for the answers rather than thinking of by myself. (-)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>When I found the content or the material in English difficult, I used to ignore it. (-)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8. I encourage myself to succeed in English.

9. I try to behave to learn all difficult topics or materials in English.

10. I believe that I can maintain communication well in English with my friends and lecturers.

Adapted from Tuan, Chin, & Shieh (2005)

**Family Socioeconomic Status (FSES)**

Choose one of the following choices (a, b, c, or d) which reveals how much the choice describes yourself by circling around.

1. Which of the following best describes the highest level of education your father has completed?
   a. Senior High School (SMA)
   b. Undergraduate degree (S1)
   c. Master’s degree (S2)
   d. Doctoral degree (S3)

2. Which of the following best describes the highest level of education your mother has completed?
   a. Senior High School (SMA)
   b. Undergraduate degree (S1)
   c. Master’s degree (S2)
   d. Doctoral degree (S3)

3. What is your father current employment status?
   a. Not currently employed, looking for work
   b. Retired
   c. Working part time for pay
   d. Working full time for pay

4. What is your mother current employment status?
   a. Not currently employed, looking for work
   b. Retired
   c. Part time working
   d. Full time working

5. Which category best describes your family yearly household income before taxes? Do not give the dollar amount, just give the category. Include all income received from employment, social security, support from children or other family.
   a. Less than Rp. 2.000.000,-
   b. Rp. 2.000.000,- – Rp. 5.000.000,-
   c. Rp. 5.000.000,- – Rp. 10.000.000,-
6. Please describe the residence where your family lives.
   a. We have no permanent residence.
   b. It is rented by my family.
   c. It is credited by my family.
   d. It is owned or being bought by my family.

7. How would you describe your family general health?
   a. Poor
   b. Fair
   c. Good
   d. Very Good

8. Please describe the vehicle your family has.
   a. Bicycle
   b. Tricycle
   c. Motorcycle
   d. Car

9. Please describe how does your family go to work.
   a. By bicycle
   b. By grab (online transportation)
   c. By motorcycle
   d. By own car

10. Please describe how often does your family go to picnic.
    a. Once in four years
    b. Once in three years
    c. Once in two years
    d. Once a year

11. Please describe how often does your family go to shopping.
    a. Once in four months
    b. Once in three months
    c. Once in two months
    d. Once a month
Students’ Perceptions in Appreciating English Literary Works through Critical Comment: A Case Study at Hasanuddin University and Universitas Negeri Makassar

Fathu Rahman

*Universitas Hasanuddin*

Sukardi Weda

*Universitas Negeri Makassar*

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**Abstract**

Literature has a high status in a civilized community. Appreciation of literary works as cultural product is a must. This is because, literature in its various genres, presents social messages which hopefully bears tolerance and harmony in countries inhibited by different ethnic groups. This study aims to explore students’ perceptions in appreciating English literary works through critical command in the English Department at two universities in Indonesia: Hasanuddin
University and Universitas Negeri Makassar. The subjects of this study were the students of the Department of English and Literature, Faculty of Cultural Sciences at Hasanuddin University and students of the Department of English Literature Study Program, Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar. A total of 54 subjects (13 male and female 41) participated in the study ranging from 18 – ≥ 30 in ages. The data collection method used was a questionnaire in which the subjects were asked to rate their perceptions, on order to test students’ perceptions in appreciating English literary works. The responses were given on a 5-point scale to indicate how much he or she agreed or disagreed with each proposition by selecting (circling) one of the following: Strongly disagree (1), Disagree (2), Neither agree nor disagree (3), Agree (4), and Strongly agree (5). The results of the study revealed that the students of English Department of Hasanuddin University and State University of Makassar strongly agree that English literary works in various genres present social values and could become a cornerstone of harmony and tolerance development.

Keywords: Literary works, critical comment, literature in ELT, harmony and tolerance

Introduction

Starting from the role of classical literary texts used for language teaching purposes in the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) in the 19th century, the use of literature for language teaching purposes has been an important issue in language teaching (Tehan, et al., 2015, p. 45). The inclusion of literature in the English language curriculum of Indonesian schools and universities has objectives to improve students’ English communicative competence.

Some research findings reveal that various types of literary works have significant effects in enhancing students’ English achievement and creative thinking (Hayati & Mohmedi, 2011; Zafeiriadou, 2009; and Albalawi, 2014). According to Alexander Baird (Turker, 1991, p. 299), "Literature is the use of language effectively in suitable conditions" He considers that literary texts can be used in language teaching, because the language used in literary text is suitable for the contexts of the events. Khatib (2011: 258) states that the integration of literature and literary texts (especially novels and short stories) into language classrooms would provide English as a foreign/second language (EFL/ESL) learner with opportunities to develop all aspects of their English language proficiency.
The inclusion of literature in the language syllabi can lead to interesting materials. This is because literature with its various genres: prose (fiction), poetry, and drama (plays) can present some interesting activities in the classroom setting. There are many proofs that prose or story, poetry, and drama can enhance students’ English communicative competence.

Albalawi (2014, p. 62) argues that drama is effective in the development of first year intermediate students’ creative thinking. Ozdemir and Cakmark (Albalawi, 2014, p. 54) state that drama enables students, in all levels of education, develop intellectual skills such as creativity, problem solving, communication, socialization and empathy; furthermore it gives individuals the opportunity for self-actualization, group work and sharing their responsibilities. Albalawi (2014, p. 54) argues that using drama in foreign language class has many advantages. In keeping with Albalawi, Zafeiriadou (2009, p. 4) argues that for drama as a teaching technique that fosters not only student’s linguistic and emotional development but also as a challenge to what Fontana called “education for being.” Therefore, Ching & Tchong (2015, p. 46) argue that in recent years, watching TV dramas has become a popular way in learning a foreign language. Many students claim that they are able to learn Korean or Japanese language by just watching TV dramas every night.

Literature is not only important in language teaching, literature also plays a vital role in building harmony and tolerance in certain communities. Literature has a high status in any community from ancient times to the modern era. Appreciation of literary works as cultural product is a must, either as an authentic material or as a tool to improve social awareness within a community. This is because, literature in its various genres presents social messages which hopefully bear tolerance and harmony in countries inhibited by different ethnic groups.

Poetry provides abundant opportunity for students to enrich their vocabulary (Pushpa VK & Savaedi, 2014). According to Lazar (in Pushpa VK & Savaedi, 2014) poems can provide a cross-cultural awareness which in turn assists learners to acquire fluency in the target language.

**Review of Literature**

*Literature*

“Literature,” arguably a vexed and loaded term, is here used to refer to poetry, drama, novels, short fiction, and, occasionally, autobiography (McDonald, 2007). Beardsley (New, 2001) offers a ‘semantic’ definition of literature in the extended sense, a definition which is similar
in its general aim to that offered by Rezeptionaesthetik theorists for the whole of literature. It is that (‘extended’) literary works are ‘those discourses a substantial part of whose meaning is implicit (or secondary) meaning’, or those discourses which are ‘distinctly above the norm in ratio of implicit to explicit meaning.’”

Language Enrichment

Sarac (in Pushpa VK & Savaedi, 2014) explains the educational benefits of poetry are (a) providing readers with a different viewpoint towards language use by going beyond the uses and rules of grammar and syntax, (b) stimulating unmotivated learners to speak out owing to being so open to explorations and interpretations, and (c) making students familiar with figures of speech.

Purpose of the Study

This present study aims to investigate students’ critical comment on literature as a cornerstone to build social harmony, tolerance, and social awareness and to explore students’ critical comment on literature in English language teaching (ELT).

Method

Participants

A total of 54 participants participated in this study. The participants comprised students from 3 majors in two institutions based in Makassar Indonesia. They were the English Education Study Program (12 students) and English Literature Study Program (13 students) in the Faculty of Languages and Literature State University of Makassar and the English Language Studies (ELS) Study Program (29 students) of the Graduate Program Hasanuddin University Makassar (Figure 1).
Data Collection

Data on critical comments on literary works were collected in July and August 2018 at the Faculty of Languages and Literature Universitas Negeri Makassar and the Faculty of Cultural Sciences Hasanuddin University. The students’ critical comments on literary works were measured using a question using a questionnaire covering 25 closed questions and 5 open questions. When completing the study questionnaire, the students were asked to rate their perceptions regarding the 25 closed question on a 5-points scale on which 1 = strongly disagree; 2 = disagree; 3 = neither agree nor disagree; 4 = agree; and 5 = strongly disagree.

Data Analysis

The questionnaire data were coded and analyzed using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) to obtain the mean, Standard Deviation (SD), and percentage distribution of students’ responses.

Results of the Studies

A total of 54 students aged 18 – 35 years old participated in this study. The demographic profile of participants is shown Table 1.
The primary focus of this current study was to investigate students’ critical comments on literary works, either its function as an authentic material in the EFL classroom or as a tool for improving harmony and tolerance in the society. The study also focused its investigation on the relationship between literature and academic achievement, the role of literature to influence students’ social awareness, the role of literature to improve social harmony and tolerance, the inclusion of literature in language teaching, and to explore the existence of culture in literary works.

Table 2. Frequency and rank of students’ critical comments on the nature of literary works in the English language classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Students’ Critical Comment</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree nor Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Weight (%)</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Literature can help me improve social harmony and tolerance.</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>50.5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>197.00</td>
<td>3.6481</td>
<td>1.01233</td>
<td>66.7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Literature can help me improve my social value.</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>183.00</td>
<td>3.3889</td>
<td>1.01715</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Literature can help me improve my social awareness.</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>205.00</td>
<td>3.7963</td>
<td>.99773</td>
<td>66.6</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Literature should be taught as a subject on its own and not as a component of the foundation level English course.</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>211.00</td>
<td>3.9074</td>
<td>1.03283</td>
<td>75.9</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Literature can help me improve my vocabulary</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>186.00</td>
<td>3.4444</td>
<td>1.05806</td>
<td>59.2</td>
<td>22</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>Literature can help me improve my grammar.</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>205.00</td>
<td>3.7963</td>
<td>.95916</td>
<td>74.1</td>
<td>10</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Literature can help me improve my listening</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>187.00</td>
<td>3.4630</td>
<td>.84033</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td>23</td>
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<td>skills.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Literature can help me improve my speaking</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>186.00</td>
<td>3.4444</td>
<td>.94503</td>
<td>48.2</td>
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<td>9.</td>
<td>Literature can help me improve my writing</td>
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<td>11.1</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>201.00</td>
<td>3.7222</td>
<td>.94003</td>
<td>61.1</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>Literature can help me improve my reading</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>51.9</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>220.00</td>
<td>4.0741</td>
<td>.86552</td>
<td>83.4</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>Literature should be a component of the</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>46.3</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>218.00</td>
<td>4.0370</td>
<td>.84592</td>
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<td>syllabus for English courses in the EFL</td>
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<td>12.</td>
<td>It is time consuming to read literary texts.</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>217.00</td>
<td>4.0185</td>
<td>1.07266</td>
<td>77.8</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>13.</td>
<td>English students need to learn literature to</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>219.00</td>
<td>4.0556</td>
<td>.91973</td>
<td>81.4</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>improve their language elements (grammar,</td>
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<td>vocabulary, and pronunciation).</td>
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<td>14.</td>
<td>English students need to learn literature to</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>20.4</td>
<td>199.00</td>
<td>3.6852</td>
<td>.94817</td>
<td>61.1</td>
<td>19</td>
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<td></td>
<td>improve their language skills.</td>
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<td>15.</td>
<td>Literary works might entertain readers.</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>44.4</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>207.00</td>
<td>3.8333</td>
<td>.92655</td>
<td>68.5</td>
<td>12</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Literary works educate readers</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>50.</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>219.00</td>
<td>.87775</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Issues discussed in the literature class help me understand my subjects better</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>33.</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>206.00</td>
<td>.06530</td>
<td>64.8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I can learn literature on my own.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>42.</td>
<td>18.</td>
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<td>42.</td>
<td>33.</td>
<td>218.00</td>
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</table>

As per data shown in Table 2, the students’ critical comments were arranged according to the percentage weight and rank. The highest rank (1) was question 21 (Table 2) an overwhelming majority (92.6%) of the students agreed (42.6% of them strongly) that “It is better to learn literature through lectures.” Over 4/5 of the students considered that “Literature can help me improve my reading skills” (83%) that “Literary works educate readers (81.5%), and that “English students need to learn literature to improve their language elements (grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation)” (81.4%). At least of the students agreed that “Literature should be a component of the syllabus for English courses in” (77%), and their appreciation of
literature was mirrored in responses to ”I like reading classical literary text” (75%) and “I enjoy learning literature in English classroom” (75.9%), despite admitting that “It is time consuming to read literary texts” (77.8%); however they considered that “Literature should be taught as a subject on its own and not as a component of the foundation level English course” (75%).

Other statements with a high level of agreement included: “Literature can help me improve my grammar” (74.1%) and “It is better to learn literature through tutorials.” The majority of students also considered that literature could be both entertaining and valuable in an academic and social context. Many of students (68.5%) considered that “Literary works might entertain readers,” as well as that “Literature is important for my academic achievement as an English student”, while over of the students agreed with “I like reading popular literature texts”, “Literature can help me improve social harmony and tolerance,” and “Literature can help me improve my social awareness.” Benefits can extend beyond English language, as reflected by the 64.8% of students who said that “Issues discussed in the literature class help me understand my subjects better.”

Statement with a lower majority agreement (61.1%) were “literature can help me improve my writing skills”, “English students need to learn literature to improve their language skills”, “I can learn literature on my own”, “It is better to learn literature through CALL labs”. Over 59% of the students considered that “Literature can help me improve my vocabulary”.

Statements with approximately equal levels of agreement included “Literature can help me improve my listening skills” and “Literature can help me improve my social value” (50%, with one third non-committal). The lowest score was for “Literature can help me improve my speaking skills”, with were 48.2% students in agreement, and 37% selecting the neutral (‘neither agree nor disagree’) choice.

The Relationship between Literature and English Academic Achievement

In general, the analysis of the students’ critical comments on literary works shows that the majority of students value the use of literature in the EFL classroom, most of them for several reasons. For example, of the nearly 60% of students who agreed with “Literature can help me improve my vocabulary,” also tended to perceive that literature could help them improve their grammar, reading and writing skills, and even their listening and speaking skills. These practical reasons for a positive perception towards literature in EFL, related directly to
proficiency in the English language, are reflected in many of the participants’ critical comments in answer to the open question “in your opinion, is there a relationship between literature and English academic achievements? Why?” as revealed in the selection given below.

Participant 1: “Yes, because through literature, we can learn about grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc.”

Participant 26: Yes English academic achievement and literature have close relationship and literature can improve students’ reading skill, speaking skill, etc.

Participant 27: “Yes, because through literature, students can improve their skills in speaking, listening, and improve their vocabularies.

Participant 30: Yes. This is because, the content of literature provides such immense exposure of language item that the students could manifest, in the sense that it is going to contribute to the students’ success in language learning. The mentioned language items that can be enhanced are vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and so forth.

Participant 36: “Yes, because literature can improve our reading and vocabulary by reading literary works like novel and short story.

Participant 38: “Yes, because literature (written text like poetry and short story) is full of text which is able to enrich our vocabulary and reading comprehension.

Participant 46: “Yes, through learning literature, students are expected to get beneficial achievement like the improvement of their language skills as well as their critical thinking. Learning literature can contribute to the vocabulary improvement which might be needed in critical thinking of the students in interpretation.

Participant 48: “Yes, because by reading an English literature, people can enrich their English vocabulary and expression. Thus, they can increase their English knowledge which will help their academic achievement in English.

Participant 51: “Yes, because through literature, the learner can get some skills including grammar, vocabulary, and other value, related to social life.

It is worth noting the responses given by students who considered that literature in ELS classes can improve students’ listening and speaking skills, for example:

Participant 4: “Yes, literature can help students to improve their four basic skills in English.
Participant 5: “Yes, with literature, we can improve our English academic achievement like speaking or reading skills.

Participant 6: “Yes, with literature, we can improve our English academic achievement, like reading and writing skill.

Participant 43: “Yes, there is a relationship between literature and English academic achievement because when we read some literatures, it can improve our reading and speaking skills, vocabulary, and grammar.

Participant 52: “Yes, because through literature, students can improve their English main skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening).

However, some of the 83.4% of students who considered that literary works can improve students reading skills in English, made critical comments underlining their perception of the aspect as a major or even the main benefit in terms of academic achievement, as shown in the following participants’ critical comments.

Participant 6: “Yes, with literature, we can improve our English academic achievement, like reading and writing skill.

Participant 7: “Yes, it is reading what kind of literature has effect on students’ English improvement whether just little bit improvement that they gain by reading any literature.

Participant 36: “Yes, because literature can improve our reading and vocabulary by reading literary works like novel and short story.

Participant 37: “Yes, because through story and poetry, we can improve our reading skills.

Participant 38: “Yes, because literature (written text like poetry and short story) is full of text which is able to enrich our vocabulary and reading comprehension.

Interestingly, students also expressed other reasons why literature can enhance students’ academic achievement outside the realm of English language proficiency. These include cultural and motivational aspects, the acquisition of knowledge (content as well as language), the importance of English in academia and as a vehicle for communication, and the acquisition of employable skills (e.g. as an educator) as seen in the following examples.
Participant 8: “Literature actually has relation with English. This is because by literature the
students can explore ideas, some characteristics or cross cultural understanding and can
improve English achievement through literature.

Participant 10: “Yes, we can gain a lot of information through literature that can help our
academic achievement.”

Participant 23: “Yes, literature and English academic achievement is connecting each other.

Participant 28: “Yes, literature can be a tool in studying English.”

Participant 30: Yes. This is because, the content of literature provides such immense exposure
of language item that the students could manifest, in the sense that it is going to contribute to
the students’ success in language learning. The mentioned language items that can be enhanced
are vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and so forth.

Participant 33: “Yes, literary works can improve academic achievement.

Participant 40: “Yes, because through literature, we study English very excited.

Participant 41: “Yes, because by literature, the students have exited to join the class, therefore
it could improve students’ achievement.

Participant 42: “Yes, it is in my point of view and as an English literature student, literature
and English academic achievement have a close relationship.

Participant 46: “Yes, through learning literature, students are expected to get beneficial
achievement like the improvement of their language skills as well as their critical thinking.
Learning literature can contribute to the vocabulary improvement which might be needed in
critical thinking of the students in interpretation.

Participant 50: “Yes, in my opinion, literature and academic achievement have high
relationship is caused the more we read literature, automatically the more academic
achievement we can acquire.

Participant 51: “Yes, because through literature, the learner can get some skills including
grammar, vocabulary, and other value, related to social life.

Participant 54: “I believe that there is a relationship between literature and English academic
achievement. In education domain, for instance, an English teacher/lecturer should be able to
insert the literature materials in learning process.
Literature Influence on Students’ Social Awareness

The open question “in your opinion, does literature influence students’ social awareness? Why?” prompted a variety of responses, most of them supportive of the affirmative reply, with varying levels of detail. Some replies go beyond the potential for awareness building to mention potential moral or ethical aspects, and even the potential of literature to change the reader (e.g. Participant 23 “you are what you read”) A selection of student critical comments on the influence of literature on students’ social awareness are presented below.

Participant 2: “Yes, of course. In literature or literary work, we can get social awareness from reading novel, short story, and others.

Participant 3: “Yes, because, many literary works are social theme.

Participant 4: “Yes, sometimes, literature is used to build social awareness of people, for example, drama theatre or poetry always use theme about poverty, education, etc.

Participant 5: “Yes, because all about literature discuss about social aspects.

Participant 6: “Yes, because almost of literary works discuss about social aspects.

Participant 8: “Sure, because in literature, there is a term “crosses culture understanding,” how we can share, and there is a value to the other.

Participant 9: “Yes, it does. Because if we have so many literatures, we can learn and know more and it can increase our social awareness.

Participant 10: “Yes, because student can understand differences of another student.

Participant 16: “Yes, because in literary work, some of them have social awareness topic.

Participant 23: “Yes, because there is an idiom “you are what you read.”

Participant 27: “Yes, since the literature texts contain some moral messages that can be understood by the students to be more aware to social life.

Participant 28: “Yes, since literature contain the message to live in society well.

Participant 32: “Yes, it does. Many literary works imply moral values that the readers realize after reading it. This includes not limited to, social and cultural issues from various settings.
Participant 34: “Yes, because students can get the moral messages from literary texts.

Participant 35: “Because literature must be able to convey ideas those are thoughts and feelings by us about human life.

Participant 36: “Yes, because some literary works are derived from social context.

Participant 37: “Yes, because literary works can keep my social awareness.

Participant 38: “Yes, because some literary works like poem generally derives social cases from which the authors write their works.

Participant 39: “Yes, it can. The students benefitted from their use of literature and that the interactions helped to decrease their anxiety in the new culture by providing them with a means of connecting to their parents and friends.

Participant 41: “Yes, through literature, the students learn about social relation.

Participant 43: “Yes, it does. When we read the literature, it makes us to understand the culture, and of course there is social aspect in every literature.

Participant 44: “Yes, by studying literature, students’ lives reflect good attitude based on intimate social lives.

Participant 46: “Yes, it does. Literature such as novel and poetry said as the object of literature study. By reading novel and poetry, the students will indirectly involve to the story line of the novel which contain so many social values and it can contribute to the improvement of social awareness caused from the story which so much taken from real life story.

Participant 50: “In my understanding, literature can influence the students’ social awareness because in literature, we can read more about social life.

Participant 51: “Yes, literary text contains a lot of moral values that can influence our social awareness.

Participant 52: “Yes, it does. Sometimes we find so much value that is taught in literature.”

Participant 54: “Yes, it does. Several stories from literature bring social value.”
**Literature Can Improve Social Harmony and Tolerance in Our Society**

The students’ critical comments in reply to the question: “in your opinion, can literature improve social harmony and tolerance in our society? Why?” are in fact often quite similar to or appear related to their perceptions regarding literature and social awareness. This indicates that many students associate social awareness, knowledge and understanding with harmony and tolerance, which implicitly indicates a perception that ignorance is causally related to conflict and intolerance. Some also make the point that the potential of literature for improving harmony and tolerance depends substantially on the subject matter and approach of the author (e.g. participants 4, 39), while others stress the role of the educator in achieving such an outcome (e.g. participant 40). A selection of the student critical comments follows below:

Participant 4: “Yes it can be used to improve social harmony and tolerance if it talks about peace, tolerance, etc.”

Participant 5: “Yes, because almost all literary works discuss about social aspects.”

Participant 8: “Yes, because through literature, each people even from another culture will be tolerance in society.”

Participant 23: “Yes, because with literature, we can learn about humanity, tolerance, and social harmony.”

Participant 27: “Yes, since literature is a reflection of real life and contains some messages to live well in society.”

Participant 28: “Yes, by understanding the literary text, readers can aware the importance of live in society with harmony and tolerance.”

Participant 32: “Yes, it can, as far as my knowledge concerned by reading literature, we will be aware of diversities coexisting across the world. For this reason, it is understandable that we live in the world in which many differences in the society and a good relationship amongst others would be maintained.”

Participant 33: “Yes, some literary works teach harmony and have to build tolerance.”

Participant 36: “Yes, literature can improve social harmony and tolerance in our society because it is expected that when we involve the literature to share about the norms of aesthetic nature towards the emergence of ethics in the living the relationship with other people.”
Participant 37: “Yes, because literature improves social harmony and tolerance in our society.”

Participant 39: “Yes, it can. In my opinion, literature can improve social harmony and tolerance in our society, but only on the specific issues each book dealt with.”

Participant 40: “Yes, through literature, the teacher can put how to do social harmony and tolerance.”

Participant 41: “Of course, in literary text, it contains social harmony and tolerance in society.”

Participant 42: “Yes, it can, because literature has values (positive way). It can influence students’ relation in the society. It can improve social harmony and tolerance.”

Participant 43: “Yes, it can, because literature can give a wide perspective for us to understand other people with different language, culture, and religion.”

Participant 44: “Yes, literature can implement harmony and tolerance in our society through knowledge implementation in relation to social life and harmony and tolerance can be realized.”

Participant 46: “Yes, literature may contain so many social values which actually packed as a storyline in the form of novel as I know many novels reflect so many values about how to live with harmony.”

Participant 50: “In my opinion, yes. This is because, when we learn literature, automatically there are many things about life we can learn at the same time.”

Participant 51: “Yes, because literary work is the reflection of social life.”

The Inclusion of Literature in the Language Teaching

When asked “In your opinion, is the inclusion of literature in the language teaching important? Why?” The students’ critical comments are not limited to practical aspect. Many see literature as something interesting and exciting, a stimulus to the imagination, or a vehicle for culture. A selection of students’ perception on the inclusion of literature in the language teaching is presented below.

Participant 1: “Yes, it is important because we can learn about the culture of the literature.”
Participant 2: “Yes, I agree because reading or listening literary works can make students get more spirit.”

Participant 3: “Yes, because the literature contains many styles of language, vocabulary and so forth than can help learning.”

Participant 4: “Yes, literature is important in language teaching, for example to improve students’ vocabulary mastery.”

Participant 7: “It is important as long as the literature will be served to the students in interesting way, so it will gain students’ interest in reading literature and avoid boredom.”

Participant 8: “I think the implementation of literature in teaching English is important because through literature, the students can imagine the literature.”

Participant 16: “Yes, because some reading skills need literary works.”

Participant 23: “Yes, because we have to learn English to understand literature.” Participant 32: “Yes, it is. This is because literature itself belongs to the culture and represents the culture itself. In addition, language learning cannot be separated with the nature of the culture from the target language which is learned. Therefore, more comprehensive language learning will be established.”

Participant 36: “Yes, because the inclusion of literature in language teaching materials will provide students with the opportunity to experience and use the language more creatively and develop greater awareness of the language they are learning.”

Participant 37: “Yes, because literature is the component of the syllabus for EFL classroom.”

Participant 38: “Yes, because literature and language are interrelated and can support each other.”

Participant 41: “Yes, it is very important in improving language teaching.”

Participant 43: “Yes, it is, with involving literature in the language teaching, especially for students who can learn directly from the native speakers, thus, they can improve their vocabulary, grammar, and automatically, they can improve their speaking skills.”

Participant 44: “Yes, literature and language have close relationship as tools of communication and social interaction in the society.”
Participant 46: “Yes it is, the inclusion of literature in language teaching can contribute positively to the improvement of critical thinking, language skills, as well as social awareness which very essential for students in this current era which so many hoax, social degradation in it.”

Participant 47: “Yes, it is very important to improve students’ English skills.”

Participant 48: “Yes, because it can enrich students’ creativity in making sentence and as the way they express themselves in English.”

Participant 50: “In my understanding, I think important because we can use literature as one of the methods in our teaching, when the condition of our students is boring.”

Participant 51: “Yes, it important to strengthen students’ skill in learning English.”

To what Extent a Culture is Reflected in Literary Works

The students’ critical comments on the question “To what extent a culture is reflected in literary work? Why?” are quit diverse, as can be seen from the following selection. Many concentrate on the author, and the reflection of his/her culture in literary works produced (e.g. participant 1, 27, 39, 51). Meanwhile, others perceive a two-way influence, with culture pervading literature and literature having the potential to alter or influence culture (e.g. participant 36, 48) and still others focus on the potential for cultural exchange (e.g. participant 26, 27, 41, 42, 43) are as follows.

Participant 1: “Yes, because there are so many authors write their story from culture or social in the area they live.”

Participant 4: “Many literary works use culture as its materials, for example culture can be used as theme in creating poetry, songs, novel, etc.”

Participant 6: “Yes, because there are so many stories reflected form culture or social aspect.”

Participant 7: “The literature is described based on the original culture and 100% suitable and match with what has written in literary works.”

Participant 26: “Yes, because the literary work can be the mirror of the culture so readers can know a particular culture without going to the place with that culture.”
Participant 27: “Literary works are the reflection of real life whether social and culture, so by reading the literary works, readers can get the information of a particular culture.”

Participant 28: “Some literary works depict the particular culture.”

Participant 32: “To the best of my knowledge, literary works are born form the phenomena situated in the society and they of course, are affected by the culture where the literary works are originally from. Literary works are a complete reflection of particular culture.”

Participant 33: “Culture reflects the way of life, people behavior and value of life.”

Participant 35: “In my opinion, why is the culture reflected in literature? This is because, literature cannot be separated from the life in which we are born because there is a mutual relationship between culture and literature.”

Participant 36: “Yes, culture reflected in literary work because literature has had a major impact on the development of society. It has shaped civilization, change, political system exposed injustice. Literature gives us detailed preview of human experiences. I do agree that literature is crucial for the advancement of society.”

Participant 39: “As far as my understanding, literary works are reflection of a society, its people and their activities (Physical, mental, and emotional). Society is not devoid of culture, religion and traditions. Thus, when literary works are created they reflect culture of a society.”

Participant 40: “Deeply, literary works draw the kind of literature.”

Participant 41: “It is very deep so many people learn culture through literary texts or works.”

Participant 42: “Literary works talk about culture. Through literary works, we can share culture, such as writing and reading.”

Participant 43: “In my opinion, when we study literary works, we can understand more about culture from another region or country.”

Participant 46: “It can be said that literature is a product of culture.”

Participant 48: “Culture is reflected in literary works and literary works can influence the culture. It is important because in these literary works, the culture can live for hundreds of years and even can influence another culture to be formed.”

Participant 50: “In my opinion, culture automatically can be reflected in literary works because literary works have relationship in our culture.”
Participant 51: “Literary works are a reflection of the society or social lives of the authors that influence the authors of the time they are writing the literary works.”

Participant 54: “Many literary works really reflect a culture.”

**Implications**

A broad perspective, looking at a problem from various points of view, is necessary to develop the ability to fully appreciate literature, make constructive and critical comments, as well as to express arguments in English. It must be noted that the respondents of this study were EFL learners. They need the means, including appropriate language skills and cultural understanding, to express their ideas and arguments in the target language. Through methods involving the appreciation of literature, they indirectly discuss culture, which in turn enables an appreciation of English literary works through critical comment to be realized.

The findings of this study applied specifically to English learners in the two Indonesian institutions where this research was carried out, however they are likely to be applicable in many other areas of the world where English is taught as a foreign language. One key implication of this study is that literature not only has a close relationship with students’ academic achievement especially in English, but can also foster new awareness and personal growth. Literature influenced students’ social awareness, and at the same time could contribute to greater social harmony and tolerance in society. Furthermore, foreign language learners who use literary works as learning resources need the ability to present cogent arguments and make critical comments. Their interaction with culturally rich literary works will give them the necessary background and open up the broader perspectives needed to improve and develop their literary appreciation skills.

**Conclusion**

In sum, the students’ critical comments on literary works are in general supportive of their function as learning material in EFL classroom and also as tools for enhancing students’ social awareness to build harmony and tolerance in multi-ethnic society. However, the role of the educator remains vital as over 90% of the students participating considered that “it is better to learn literature through lectures”. A large majority (over 80%) considered that literary works
educate reader” as well as that literature could help them improve their reading skills and other language elements (grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation). Despite a widespread perception of read literature texts as time-consuming, over 75% of the students agreed that literature should be a component of the syllabus for English courses with the caveat that ideally it should be taught as a subject on its own and not as a component of the foundation level English course. The study therefore concluded that literature has a close relationship with students’ academic achievement especially in English, but also potentially in a wider context. As most of the students strongly agreed that literature influenced students’ social awareness, and many consider that literature could improve social harmony and tolerance in society, one key implication of this study is that literature has a high status which potentially contributes to maintaining social harmony and tolerance in multi-ethnic society. Furthermore, lecturers at universities need to be aware that the inclusion of literature a wide variety of activities in foreign language teaching is very important; and care should be given to ensuring that wide and appropriate range of culture is also reflected in literary works within the EFL environment at both undergraduate and graduate levels.

References

Article:


**Books:**


**Appendix**

Respondent Identity:
Name:  
Sex:  
Age:  
Study Program:  
Semester:  

**Questionnaire**

Choose one of the following choices which reveal how much you agree or disagree by circling around. Remember that there is no right or wrong answers.

(6) Strongly disagree
(7) Disagree
(8) Neither agree nor disagree
(9) Agree
(10) Strongly agree
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<th>Students’ Perception</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither agree nor disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
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<td>1.</td>
<td>I enjoy learning literature in the English classroom.</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>2.</td>
<td>I like reading classical literary texts.</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I like reading popular literature texts.</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>Literature is important for my academic achievement as an English student.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>It is better to learn literature through lectures.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>It is better to learn literature through tutorials.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>It is better to learn literature through CALL labs.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>I can learn literature on my own.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>Issues discussed in the literature class help me understand my subjects better.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>Literary works educate readers</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>Literary works might entertain readers</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
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<td>12.</td>
<td>English students need to learn literature to improve their language skills.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>English students need to learn literature to improve their language elements (grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation).</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>It is time consuming to read literary texts.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>15.</td>
<td>Literature should be a component of the syllabus for English courses in the EFL classroom.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>Literature can help me improve my reading skills.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17.</td>
<td>Literature can help me improve my writing skills.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>Literature can help me improve my speaking skills.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
19. Literature can help me improve my listening skills.

20. Literature can help me improve my grammar.

21. Literature can help me improve my vocabulary

22. Literature should be taught as a subject on its own and not as a component of the foundation level English course.

23. Literature can help me improve my social awareness.

24. Literature can help me improve my social value.

25. Literature can help me improve social harmony and tolerance.

Adapted from Sivapalan & Subramaniam (2008)

26. In your opinion, is there a relationship between literature and English academic achievement? Why?

27. In your opinion, does literature influence students’ social awareness? Why?

28. In your opinion, can literature improve social harmony and tolerance in our society? Why?

29. In your opinion, is the inclusion of literature in the language teaching important? Why?

30. In your opinion, to what extent a culture reflected in literary works? Why?
Exploring Collaborative E-Portfolio Project for Teaching and Learning Academic Writing

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Abstract

The use of e-portfolios for formative assessment in English language teaching has been well supported by literatures, yet, it is still underexploited in the context of Vietnam. The inclination to examination amongst Vietnamese people is believed to guarantee great opportunities; thus, it is not surprising to see that curriculums are saturated with tests such as short and long quizzes, periodical and summative tests. Unfortunately, test-oriented curriculums bring negative backwash towards teaching and learning, as well as affecting students’ overall achievement. To address the issue on the negative backwash, laborious and ineffective error correction, and other emerging issues relevant to the traditional formative assessment in writing, collaborative e-portfolio project was initiated. It is aimed is to replace periodic tests and help reinforce formative assessment in an academic writing held in university in Hanoi, Vietnam. Data were collected from two experimental groups’ reflective essays, an entry on their e-portfolios, which were analyzed through thematic analysis. Finally, after assessing the innovative practice through Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) four level of program evaluation, it was found that students have enjoyed the project, learned necessary skills for writing, improved attitude towards learning, and have achieved the course learning outcomes.
Keywords: eportfolio, project-based learning and teaching, formative assessment, curricular innovation, academic writing

Introduction

Teaching Academic Writing in English (AWE) to Vietnamese students in higher education poses overwhelming challenges. This can be largely traced to the inherent sociocultural context that frames Vietnamese English language teaching. Traditionally, Vietnamese students are not very compromising (Lam, 2016). Most students regard teachers as the supreme authority. They also prefer to be receptive to their teachers’ lecture rather than provide ideas that demonstrate critical thinking skills. As shared by my Vietnamese college students, the act of criticality, like challenging, opposing, or even asking for clarification is perceived to be rude in secondary and high school classrooms. This educational norm prevents students from expressing their critical ideas freely on a subject matter. As a result, students struggle to generate logical arguments for their discursive essays. Another restraining cultural norm is the deep concentration on examination (Duong, Cuc, & Griffin, 2011; Lap & Truc, 2014). Historically, examinations were seen as a badge for better opportunities to gain higher social status, to play an important role in the government, as well as to eradicate illiteracy and to defend the country, according to Nguyen, P.A., and Nguyen, T.T. (as cited in Tran, 2015). These might have been the main reasons why some Vietnamese students tend not to be so concerned to do well on the ideal process of writing and would only cram for an exam - a very common scenario in an academic writing class. Moreover, these sociocultural restraints, inherent in the context of Vietnam, prevents teachers and students from effectively engaging in formative assessment tasks (Hoa, 2016; Lap & Truc, 2014). Since tests do not completely play a formative role in writing development, cramming for test does not exactly improve students’ writing.

A very good illustration of the situation is the academic writing class held in a university in Hanoi, Vietnam. Generally, the semestral course runs in ten weeks, with three-1.5-hour sessions a week. And as a part of the formative assessment, five periodic tests are scheduled every two weeks. Each test is timed and impromptu, a discursive and descriptive essay within an hour – following the IELTS Writing format. These tests are graded and recorded as students’ On-Going Assessment (OGA). Other than that, they still have a final examination which is structured entirely similar with the OGA; two essays - timed and impromptu. Having been a lecturer of this course, I have experienced, witnessed, also confirmed from other teachers of
the subject, that following the conventional course implementation plan (CIP) causes a lot of difficulties amongst students, as well as teachers. To address the issue on the negative backwash, laborious and ineffective error correction, and other emerging issues relevant to the traditional formative assessment, collaborative e-portfolio project was initiated. It is aimed to make teaching more explicit, allowing students to engage in constant writing, and eventually adopt the ideal process of an effective writing. After piloting semestricaly since 2015, this project has been recently approved as an optional OGA. Distinctive changes include delaying final assessment and providing timely formative assessment, collaborative writing, the use of online platforms in completing projects, and experiential and personal learning through project-based learning and teaching (PrjBLT).

Adapting e-portfolio projects to teaching writing not only helps reinforce formative assessment but also improves learning and teaching. Numerous researchers have supported that e-portfolio- and project-based assessments provide students the opportunity to improve writing. Delett, Barnhardt, and Kevorkian (2001) reiterated that the use of portfolio allows the students to assess the outcome of their own effort. This encourages students to reflect and participate in the formative assessment. Chang et al (as cited in Burner, 2014) have also reported that most students who participated in an action research in Taiwan have expressed an “overwhelming positive” attitude towards the use of e-portfolio in an EFL classroom (p.143). In addition, Grant (2017) has also echoed that the learning opportunities are inherent in a PrjBLT. He stated that in PrjBLT, students learn to be autonomous in their personal learning, seek out advice, resolve problems, and collaborate with peers. Learners are more likely to produce authentic and meaningful work, he added. As reiterated by Nurhajati (2018), writing is best thought through a project-based teaching method because in writing, both the product and the process are equally important. Conversely, Aliweh (2011) has also asserted that ICT creates a smart tool that helps learning and teaching which surpasses the limitation of time and space. Besides, Nunan (2017) and P21 (2014) argued that, as we move to the digital age, “Super Skills” or the 21st-century skills have to be promoted in classrooms. They contend that these skills not only promote employability but also enable students to acquire multiliteracies. Similarly, Phung (2016) asserted that PrjBLT makes an “optimal choice” for language learning, especially in writing, because the approach is focused both on the product and on the process of writing (p. 96). He also sustained that e-portfolio project enhances the roles of teachers as supervisors and peers as critical friends. Other benefits of e-portfolio project according to Phung (2016) includes; diversified teaching methods that attend to a variety of
learning styles, enhances the learning experience, the construction of knowledge from experience, and the enhancement social or collaboration skills. Finally, Aliweh (2011) has also backed that encouraging students to make use of e-portfolios could help promote learners’ writing competence. All of these assertions are also in agreement with J. W. Thomas (2000), Lam (2016), and Wolcott and Legg (1998) pronounced that collaborative writing fosters learners’ autonomy that strengthens assessment as learning (AaL) and helps reinforce formative assessment for writing. The magnitude of having the chance to collaborate with peers, write multi-drafted essays in an online platform, and delaying the assessments have a huge impact on students writing progress. Therefore, it can be asserted that electronic group project creates an ideal environment for learning in the 21st century in general and for writing in particular. Nonetheless, evidence from the initial findings suggest that introducing e-portfolio could still cause resistance.

Though e-portfolio project seem like an ideal method for teaching and assessing writing, students, teachers, and the dean or the head of the English department have expressed otherwise. Firstly, students have never heard of collaborative writing, so they perceived that this only causes conflicts between peers. They also commented that learning is best acquired with a teacher. Secondly, other teachers are reluctant to make adjustments in their teaching. They insisted that the standard teaching and assessment specified in the syllabus works best for them and for their students. And lastly, school administrators are hesitant to implement the innovation due to the lack of empirical evidence.

Undeniably, the caveats against and the significant gains of adapting e-portfolio projects for teaching writing affects decision making. Hence, the main purpose of this paper is to assess the impact of this innovative practice through the lens of the most affected stakeholders, the students. It is also hoped that by presenting the cognitive and affective impact of collaborative e-portfolio project, teachers and school administrators would be enlightened and take the necessary actions.

The Assessment of Curricular Innovation

The research project required two concurrent classes, International Business Administration (IBA) major, and General Business Administration (BA) major, to complete an E-portfolio project with ten essays as a replacement for periodic tests. And to promote strong collaboration and responsible peer feedback, students in each class were grouped. Each group has three members who wrote collaboratively, took turns authoring and reviewing each essay on an
online word processor, Google Docs. This web-based word processor allowed students and their teacher to collaborate systematically: write a draft, provide feedback, make corrections and give suggestions. History or collaborators’ logs are automatically saved online and can be reviewed which enhanced the reliability of peer work on each essay. After a thorough process of redrafting and revising, essays are then published online via Microsoft Sway or laid out on a magazine template electronically.

Nunan and Lamb (1996) concurred that to demonstrate the effectiveness of this curricular innovation, a formal evaluation is necessary. They agreed that it is important to measure what students can do or have learned to do in relation to the learning objectives of the course. However, Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) have also insisted that training programs should also evaluate participants’ satisfaction, change of attitudes and behavior. They believe that those affective factors are critical to be assessed and must not be bypassed prior to determining whether the participants have met the objectives or not. Following Nunan’s, Lamb’s and Kirkpatrick’s studies, this paper assesses the impact of collaborative e-portfolio project, particularly the cognitive and affective learning opportunities. And since data will be coming from essays and interview qualitative research methodology was used.

Data for this research were collected from the last two essays of each group’s e-portfolio, the 9th and the 10th, and from a semi-structured written interview of the best performing group. While writing 9th is a descriptive essay of an in-class survey they have designed, writing 10th is a discursive essay reflecting on their learning experience. Topics of those surveys and reflections were in decided by each group. Some have brought up general issues in writing, the use of web-based word processor, collaborative writing, general feedback (positive and negative) on the course and their learning outcomes. Additionally, three students with varying levels of proficiency were interviewed to ask their opinion of the e-portfolio project. Due to the complexity of the data and multifaceted commentary on the innovation, thematic analysis is utilized to analyze the data.

According to Aronson (1995) thematic analysis is still one the most sought strategies in studying participants experiences. This is also supported by Braun and Clarke (2006) who maintained that thematic analysis “offers an accessible and theoretically-flexible approach to analyzing qualitative data (p. 2).” Similarly, in analyzing the qualitative data, it is very important to allow the theory to emerge from the overwhelming data; thus, a general inductive approach for coding was adapted. Below are the systematic procedures suggested by Seliger

Table 1: Qualitative Data Analyses adopted from Seliger and Shohamy 1989 and Creswell 2002

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Combining two sources of data (working portfolio journals and interviews),</td>
<td>1. Preparation of raw data files (data cleaning)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Transcribing and translating (where applicable) the data,</td>
<td>2. Close reading of the text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Reviewing a portion of the data to derive preliminary patterns and categories,</td>
<td>3. Creation of categories</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Verifying the preliminary categories against the rest of the data, and</td>
<td>4. Overlapping coding and uncoded text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Refining the pattern and category groupings.</td>
<td>5. Continuing revision and refinement of the category system</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To assure reliability and consistency in the analysis, data were triangulated by collecting data from two controlled groups and from three semi-structured interviews. Data were carefully re-read, and re-coded both electronically and manually, via NVIVO and on printed documents, respectively. Memos were also generated to take notes ideas, insights, or tentative interpretation and emerging knowledge as the data are examined.

Ethical concerns were also put into great consideration. Prior to the experimentation, head of the English department was informed and approval to conduct an experiment was obtained. Though the school did not need a consent, it was still necessary to negotiate the implementation with the students and ensure that the study would not create or add burden to the students (Kostoulas & Lammerer, 2015). Data from the journals were collected only from those who gave their consent and volunteered to participate in the study. Fortunately, all groups of students have agreed to let their writings be studied. For the written interview, only three students were invited since many were reluctant to participate. Finally, to ensure
confidentiality, group names were used instead of naming individual students. And for the students who were interviewed, serials like, S1, S2, and S3 have replaced their real names.

Findings

The analysis of data led to the classification of students’ perceived value of the innovation and their major concerns in academic writing in general, and in collaborative e-portfolio writing in particular. These findings are classified into three main themes, and further subdivided into seven categories as follows:

Table 2: Emerging Themes from Students’ Reflective Essay

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organizing Themes</th>
<th>Basic themes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Concerns in Academic Writing</strong></td>
<td>1. The lack of familiarity with the genre of writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course and Issues brought by Group E-Portfolio Project</td>
<td>2. Poor collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. The nuisance to the educational tech tools</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. Gains/Learning Outcomes</strong></td>
<td>4. Improves writing skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Positive changes in attitudes towards writing and collaboration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>C. Learning Preference</strong></td>
<td>6. Collaborative Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. E-Learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Description of Emerging Themes

This section summarizes the findings generated from students’ texts. Corrections were cautiously made on the writings for presentation purpose (e.g. language forms). Students’ original writing can be found in the appendix.

A. Concerns in Academic Writing Course and Issues brought by Collaborative E-Portfolio Project

Academic writing is not new to Vietnamese students, still they seemed overwhelmed by the amount of effort required to produce an effective writing. One of the most emerging
students’ difficulty is the lack of familiarity with this genre; that is, the vocabulary in use, sentence structures (grammar), generating and organizing ideas for writing. IBA and BA students have similarly reported that the demanding nature of academic writing for high accuracy and logical arguments is the central issue in producing effective writings.

“All students have problems with ideas, vocabulary or grammar in writing skills course but a huge 44.4 percent expressed that they lack the academic vocabulary to complete their writings. Issues relating to ideas and grammar are the same, 24.5 percent of ideas and 25.4 percent of grammar.” – Group 123a, BA class

“The first chart reveals the survey result of the hardest part in writing English (ENL112). There are four things that students think need improvement. It is easy to see that vocabulary occupied the largest proportion of the problems which students encountered. Besides, it is hard for students to generate clear ideas for their writing, which is almost a third. By contrast, grammar and introduction & conclusion were what fewest students choose, at a mere 9.5 percentages.” – Group ABC, IBA class

*refer to the appendix for more transcripts on “The lack of familiarity with the genre of writing”

Another key concern that have emerged in students’ feedback is the issue of collaboration. Students from this study have admitted that they have never done collaborative writing before. They believed that writing is better accomplished if done single-handedly. This may have been the obvious reason why students consider collaboration as a restraint to writing effectively. Issues within collaboration are communication, unanimity, and delegation of task. Below are the students’ negative experience when collaborating.

“Working in group brings some disadvantages. Firstly, it takes a lot of time to unify the idea. For example, when we have any idea, we will have to debate to reach a consensus. The second, they have difficulty in reaching the agreement. The worst is disagreement led to the disbandment of the group.” – Group Hihi, BA class.

“Group members sometimes cannot agree on time when working, leading to many controversy and unfairness among members.” – Group ABC, IBA class
Finally, it is noteworthy that the participants have also expressed frustration using the educational tech tools - believing it is a nuisance. Some participants have complained that learning the important features of the word processor have also taken much of their time. They also complained that handwritten essays are much convenient and that going online makes them more vulnerable to distractions.

“...with so much information available (online), students are more likely to be distracted by (some) contents that bothers them from finding the information they are looking for. This is also the main reason that students spend a lot of time searching for information online.” – Group Magic, IBA class

“Users like ourselves, students, have difficulty in learning Microsoft functions on this application.” – Group Big 3, IBA class

B. Gains/Learning outcomes from the innovation

The prime objective of the project I to improve students’ overall achievement by creating a feedback-rich environment that is timely and that reinforces formative assessment. As per the findings, analysis, evidence based on participants’ essays and written interviews, they have benefitted directly from collaborative e-portfolio project. Participants have reported on the in-class surveys, reflections, and in the interviews that their writing skills have significantly improved and their attitude towards collaboration and writing has had positive changes.

“the results of the second charts “After writing in group, which of the following benefit you get?” shows that improving grammar has the highest score accounting for 66.7%. Besides, the response “improve how to organize a writing model” has the same percent as “widen knowledge about vocabulary” which accounts for 40%” – Group We Are Bears, BA class

“It is noticeable that a significant number of students agree that collaborating improves their academic writing (61.1%), whereas only very a small number of them disagree with this, 5%” – Group 3-eyed Bee IBA class
It was also noticeable that “group”, “vocabulary”, “ideas”, and “improve” were some of the most emerging words analyzed by NVIVO, having 50, 37, and both 34 counts, respectively (see figure 1 for Word Frequency Query Report). Finally, though the participants were not specifically instructed to identify the advantage of the innovative approach, their deliberate evaluation of collaborative e-portfolio project has shown more gains than setbacks. There were 26 out 31 sources coded into “Gains and Learning Outcome” nodes compared with 24 sources coded into “Concerns and Issues” (see appendix for Node summary report).

Some students have also elaborated that discussing the writing tasks, topics, and planning the structure for writing together with group members enables them to produce satisfactory writings. It is also very notable that attitudes towards writing and collaboration were more positive.

“most students agree that writing collaborative writing helps them improve the elements of a writing with high rate is 75.9%” - Group Baby I love You, BA class
“Firstly, according to the result of the pie chart, we can see that most people feel excited about writing in groups that account for 92.3%” – Group We Are Bears, BA class

*refer to the appendix for more transcripts on “Positive changes in attitudes towards writing and collaboration”

Students from the interview have also expressed a sense of achievement (see appendix for complete written interview). When asked whether they have achieved their expectation or not students have replied:

“Clearly, I met my expectation even more. I feel I have improved my writing much better than before, I know how to structure my writings and use my time productively. In addition, I got opportunities to collaborate with my lovely friends and know how to make basic presentation online using SWAY” – S1

“Now I can say that I understand quite clearly and confidently about the format of IELTS (academic) writing. I still have difficulty in finding words and synonyms but my ideas are broadened and flexible and my structure – I feel better” – S2

“I used to neglect the need for meta-cognitive strategies such as brainstorming, outlining, and organizing ideas. After this course, I learned that a good writing requires a good planning. Developing some planning strategies allows smooth progress in writing” – S3

*refer to the appendix for more transcripts about the “Interview”

Clearly, participants from the interview have concurring opinions about the outcome of the innovative approach. And together with the data from students essays and in-survey results, students have gained considerable knowledge and understanding of what makes a good writing. But most importantly, It has met their academic goals.

C. Learning Preferences

The analysis of data through open coding has also found emerging information about students learning preferences. Matching words like “prefer”, “want”, “choose” and other comparative words like “better” and “best” have led to developing this category. Basic themes for learning preference were Collaborative Learning and E-Learning. Citing a result from an
in-class survey, 14 out of 16 respondents prefers to work with close friends and/or with group members (see figure 2. In-class survey on learning preferences). They have also conceded that collaborative learning, especially in writing, improves writing skills.

Figure 2: In-class survey by Baby I’m Real group on learning preferences.

“A great way to learn English is to let someone who has a large knowledge about English to teach you. Luckily, when I learned ENL112, I also received a few help for my writing English from my teacher, classmate and teammate. They helped me to solve problem and improve my English skills a lot.” – Group Pass, IBA class

“From the graph, It is clear that, nearly half of participants like working in group and show that they are very satisfied and truly enjoyed this way of working.” – Group Real Foods, IBA

*for more transcripts, refer to the appendix “//Learning Preference/Collaborative Learning”

It is also evident that E-Learning has gained students’ support in writing. They have recognized its convenience in performing necessary tasks like peer-editing, revision, and even discussion online.

“using google docs brings a lot of benefits, especially the convenience. It is the best way for collaborating. In fact, google docs functions allow an individual to write an essay and another one checks and gives comment at the
same time. So, it is very advantageous for others to follow up our writing, learn and correct our errors” – Group 3-eyed-bee, IBA class

Finally, a considerable and substantial number of students believed that it is better than the previous form of formative assessment.

“Overall, more than 90% of students think that Portfolio is better than academic progress test. Almost half of them are interested in it because of the efficiency.” – Group JQK, IBA class

“I highly prefer and recommend to do portfolio because this will make our work many many times easier, and doing e-portfolio is extremely convenient than the traditional method.” – S2, interview

*for more transcripts, refer to the appendix “//Learning Preference/E-Learning”

Discussion

The data analysis particularly pointed out that the innovation has succeeded in promoting the acquisition of writing skills and development of positive attitude towards learning. It is evident from the students’ survey, reflection, and interview that collaborative E-portfolio project helped them learned academic vocabulary effectively, improve ideas for writing, and improve language accuracy. More importantly, the large majority still prefers the project to conventional formative assessment despite the nuisance of edtech tools plus the transitory issue of group collaboration. Nevertheless, Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) have insisted that it is necessary to evaluate training program methodically. He required evaluators to assess the reaction, learning, behavior, and results, respectively, and not to bypass any. Therefore, this section will deliberately discuss the four levels of program evaluation according to Kirkpatrick’s.

Participants’ Reaction

It cannot be denied that many Vietnamese students hate writing lessons, most especially academic writing. As mentioned in literature, Vietnamese are more compromising than argumentative; hence, they strive to achieve successful academic writing (Lap & Truc, 2014). Another factor that adds to their struggle is the considerable demand for coherence, cohesion, accuracy and lexical resource (Hoa, 2016). However, the implementation of collaborative E-
portfolio project delays the assessment (the evaluation of students’ essays) until the end of the course, giving students a great deal of pleasure and contentment. They reported were able to have ample time to discuss the task with peers, plan the discourse, create multiple drafts, and most importantly receive timely feedback from peers and teachers, and make necessary revision. Compared with the previous practice of formative assessment, which is test-based, the new form of assessment enables the students to better prepare for their writings. These opportunities just made them feel so delighted. Eliciting S1’s feedback;

“(e-portfolio project is) convenient and interesting.... At the end, I wanna say thank you to my teacher and my groupmates for having a fabulous group. This group is so important and meaningful to me. Love you all guys.”

However, it is also very important to stress that there was a minority who were not completely happy. Reasons for this discontentment arises basically from group collaboration. Since they were used to accomplishing writing tasks single-handedly, convincing group members to take their ideas and opinions was time-consuming and unproductive. They have also mentioned that conflicting ideas could sometimes cause serious problems and may cause delays in project completion. Another factor that has caused participants dissatisfaction is the contrasting personality amongst group members. As S1 observed:

“I have great groupmates, so we work well. But other groups are the opposite, they did not collaborate successfully because of many conflicts, some are lazy and causing serious students to take on a lot more work. As a result, they weren’t able to attain their goals”

This knowledge meets Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) first level of program evaluation. They contend that the initial step in evaluating the program is to understand the participants’ reaction. They argue that their reaction is the measurement of their satisfaction thus has an effect on the assessment of the program. They also believe that the program has to be favorable as it will decide whether to keep the program or not. By and large, the innovation produces a more positive reaction, thus should be continued.

**Participants’ Learning**

After the reactions has been weighed, Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) propose assessing participants learning. They explain that this level of evaluation identifies the impact of the program on the learners’ attitude, acquisition of knowledge, and the development of
skills. They also claimed that a training program can be considered effective only if there is a change in attitude, an increase in knowledge, and a development of skills. For this innovation, it is absolute that those aspects were achieved. To support this assertion, it is evident that the participants have developed a more positive outlook on learning academic writing and on collaboration. To illustrate, S1 admits, “I used to neglect the need for meta-cognitive strategies such as brainstorming, outlining, and organizing ideas. After this course, I learned that good writing requires a good planning. Developing some planning strategies allows smooth progress in writing.” Another evidence that could support the claim about the increase in knowledge is a statement given by 3-Eyed Bee group. They wrote, “after the course, most of the students have better writing skills, especially in structure and grammar.” This can also be further supported by eliciting an interviewee’s recommendation on completing an essay. S2 listed his learnings below:

a) With each writing, it is so important to have an outline because when we see into it, we can easily see what to write about and our essay structure will be clear. It is also easy for the teacher to understand our writing

b) It is important to have a deadline for each writing and remember to check your deadline regularly

c) Never copy any essays or documents from any resources and paste it into your writing. Write within your ability.

d) Peer-checking helps you improve your writing faster

e) Try to find topics that you can discuss easily, not choose those topic beyond your knowledge

Finally, even though pre- and post-test were not used, e-copies of multi-drafted essays could provide evidences (e.g. history or logs of students writing development) that the aspect of writing and “the skills” have improved through time. Collectively, academic writing skills comprise the ability to think of ideas critically and logically, proofreading, and the ability to communicate ideas effectively (persuasiveness). These skills were learned, acquired and practiced throughout the course through collaborative e-portfolio writing. To illustrate, in the cyclic process of collaborative writing participants brainstorming for ideas with peers (critical thinking), prepare outlines (logical thinking), draft essays (communicating ideas) peer-edit and make a revision (proofreading) and redraft their essays (assures effectiveness is achieved). Together with the students’ affirmation, it could be categorically argued that the curricular innovation fosters the development of writing skills.
Participants’ Behavior

Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) have argued that if there was no positive change in participants’ behavior, the program is deemed ineffective. However, they discuss that to generate desirable changes, participants must: (1) have the desire to change, (2) know what to do and how to do it, (3) work in the right climate, and (4) be rewarded for changing (p.23). The first couple of considerations have already been discussed in the previous sections and it has been inferred that the participant prefers the innovation and have understood what to write and how to write effectively. Therefore, this section only examines whether the participants were able to work in the right climate and were rewarded for their efforts.

The Climate of Learning in Collaborative E-portfolio Project.

The climate of learning created by the collaborative e-portfolio project is highly encouraging compared with the traditional assessment. As argued by Bell (2010), the learner-centeredness inherent in PrjBLT approach, like this one, encourages students to have the autonomy to choose their learning pathways. This not only encourages students to be independent learners but also promotes originality. A very good example is the selection of topics for writing. Instead of writing about topics that may not spark a slight interest, students could be encouraged to write about something that fascinates them or something that they are passionate about. Their topics varied and the arguments put forward in their essay became more sensible. Another proof of a favorable climate for learning owing to the project is the creation of feedback-rich environment. It is evident that students appreciated the fact that in this project, their peers and teachers could provide timely feedback, which not only reduced the anxiety for writing but also contributed to their writing success.

The Rewards Achieved in Collaborative E-portfolio Project.

It can be demonstrated that both intrinsic and extrinsic rewards have been obtained through this project. In program evaluation, Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick (2006) explained that intrinsic rewards include a sense of pride, achievement, and satisfaction brought by the change. And the extrinsic rewards could be the recognition from others and other symbols of distinction, like certifications. As expressed by the participants, collaborating with group members and teachers is very satisfying. They owe it to the fact that collaborators have contributed a considerable amount of
knowledge and effort in the production of an effective writing. Similarly, high scores achieved from project completion (point average are 8.5 and 7.3 for IBA and BA class, respectively) and the satisfactory scores from their final writing examination (point average are 6.1 and 5.3 for IBA and BA class, respectively) are the demonstration that intrinsic rewards have been presented (see appendix for complete achievement scores).

**Results**

The curricular objectives for this course (see appendix) stated that it focuses on developing academic writing skills which include:

- Describing data from a graph, chart, table, and/or diagram
- Analyzing data with major features and trends, comparing and contrasting data
- Summarizing issues/information
- Expressing opinions and viewpoints
- Discussing the advantages and disadvantage of an issue
- Giving solutions to a problem with justification
- Discussing causes to a problem and suggest solutions

By looking at the writing tasks and students’ e-portfolio sample work (see appendix for sample student work), clearly the project has achieved the desired result. The following are the genre of writings that were practiced in the portfolio project, the learning objectives and outcomes that were met.

**Table 3: Portfolio Writings, Learning Objectives and Outcomes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writings in the Portfolio</th>
<th>Learning Objectives and Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing 1: Description of a Line chart</td>
<td>Describe, Summarize Information, and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Describe a Trend)</td>
<td>Analyze data with major features and trends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing 2: Cause and Effect essay (relate to</td>
<td>Discuss causes to a problem and suggest solutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the trend from)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing 3: Description of 2 Pie charts</td>
<td>Describe, Summarize Information, and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(describe the proportion)</td>
<td>Analyze data with major features and trends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing 4: Problem and Solution essay</td>
<td>Discuss causes to a problem and suggest solutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(relate the perceived problem from task 1)</td>
<td>Giving solutions to a problem with justification</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Pedagogical Implication

Consistent with the literature, collaborative e-portfolio project has enhanced the learning experience, improved the construction knowledge through experience, resulted in better attitudes towards collaboration. For instance, participants have learned to generate more original and rational ideas in the brainstorming stage, outline arguments more logically, improve language accuracy, proofread, and improve the quality of their writing by redrafting. They have also expressed a strong preference for collaborative work and agreed that this approach is an effective learning method for academic writing. Nonetheless, it is also very important to note that learner have varying personalities and learning preferences and collaborative writing could cause major impediments in individual learning. Thus, it is very important to consider classroom grouping to ensure that learning is optimized and effective. In addition, 21st century learning has emphasized the importance of information, media and technology skills to the success of our 21st century learners. They may express a nuisance on to the use of this power education tool, but they should be reminded that it is just transitory; teachers need to encourage the use edtech tools are utilized in classrooms. It is also important to note that having sufficient knowledge of the EdTech tools would enable teacher to better guide the student through the process. Otherwise, teachers must create a learning environment where students are allowed to delay assessment and make attempts to for trial-and-error learning. Finally, delaying assessment through project-based teaching and learning has surely
played a vital role in the acquisition of knowledge and skills for learning. By delaying the assessment, teachers and learners have had the opportunity to assess initial drafts and give useful and timely feedback. According to the learners, the opportunity to make necessary changes and improvements in their writing has surely contributed to their writing success.

Conclusion

This paper has successfully investigated the impact of replacing test-based assessment with portfolio and project-based assessment to students’ cognitive and affective learning domain. On the whole, the attempt to improve the quality of formative assessment for writing through collaborative e-portfolio project has shown a considerable positive reaction from the learners, acquisition and development of writing skills, provision of the encouraging climate for learning through collaborative work, recognition of the students’ effort and most importantly, have categorically met the curriculum objectives. After a partial evaluation of the learning method through the students’ perspective, it can be said the collaborative E-portfolio project should carry on and can be completely adapted for a school-wide implementation. Definitely, the prevailing issues on teaching, learning, and assessment for writing in the context of Vietnam is experienced in other EFL/ESL contexts; therefore, it is believed that his innovation could help address important matters that may have been causing problems in teaching and learning for academic writing in other contexts.

Bibliography


MOOC Camps for Teacher Professional Development: The Philippine Experience

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Abstract

Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) are dramatically reconfiguring and redefining teacher training. With MOOCs’ ubiquity, openness and accessibility, they have become a new platform for teacher professional development across the globe. Utilizing an ethnographic approach, this study examined aspects of memories, perspectives and experiences of the 17 MOOC participants (4 university instructors and 13 high school teachers) in Manila, the Philippines who successfully completed three MOOCs sponsored by the U.S. Department of State and administered by Family Health International and World Learning via Canvas.
(www.canvas.net) as the MOOC platform. The completed MOOCs were: Teaching Grammar Communicatively (September 25 – October 29, 2017), Integrating Critical Thinking into the Exploration of Culture in an EFL Setting (February 5 – March 26, 2018), and Using Educational Technology in the English Language Classroom (April 16 – May 21, 2018). Data from individual reflections, journals and focus group discussions revealed that, in general, the participants viewed MOOCs as a practical and effective means for professional development because of their open, free and flexible features, while MOOC camps are seen as a community of practice that engages MOOC participants and sustains their motivation in completing the courses successfully. Furthermore, participants’ aims for completing the courses were drawn: to get certification, to have access to quality open educational resources, to participate in a new mode of learning, to acquire new knowledge and skills, inter alia. Andragogical and pedagogical implications are provided in the light of these findings.

**Keywords:** MOOCs for Teacher Training; MOOC Camp for Teacher Professional Development; MOOCs in the Philippines; MOOCs in Asia; MOOC Camp in the Philippines; MOOC Camp in Asia; American English MOOCs

**Introduction**

**Mapping out MOOCs for Teacher Training**

Ten years after George Siemens and Stephen Downes’ revolutionizing *CCK08: Connectivism and Connected Knowledge* at the University of Manitoba (Educause, 2011; Decker, 2014; Lowe, 2014), Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs) have continuously created waves and sparked interests in the education and training landscapes. MOOCs have been seen as a disruptor in higher education with implications to their pedagogical and andragogical potentials (Mori & Ractliffe, 2016; Hasser, 2017; Malita, Tiru, & Grosseck, 2018).

MOOC is an acronym for massive, open, online, course – a term coined by David Cormier at the University of Prince Edward Island (Decker, 2014). The course is *massive* because it can accommodate limitless number of participants from around the world regardless of their educational, economic, and cultural background. The participants, including the course instructors, do not need to see one another face-to-face; instead, they just access the course via an internet-capable device. The course is *open* because anyone from anywhere in the world can
access it and the resources that come with it such as video lectures, modules, and lecture transcripts, inter alia. It is also open because it is free of charge; one does not have to pay any amount to enroll and participate in the course. However, if a participant prefers to have a certificate or a university credit after successfully completing the course, he or she needs to pay a minimal fee. The course is *online* because all of the materials such as video lectures, handouts, and reading articles are accessed using the internet over a MOOC platform (e.g., Coursera, edX, Udacity, FutureLearn), which can be directly accessed via their websites or their downloadable apps on App Store or Google Play. Any internet-ready device such as desktop computer, laptop, tablet, or mobile phone can be used to access the MOOC platform. Finally, it is called a *course* because just like regular university courses, it has a syllabus, course facilitator/s, course materials, and participants. It also has start-and-end sessions, which usually take from four to six weeks.

MOOCs have been explored in various contexts including higher education (Cole & Timmerman, 2015; Mabuan & Ebron, 2018), human resources training (Radford et al., 2014; Savino, 2014; Garrido & Koepke, 2016), and teacher professional development (henceforth, TPD) programs (Jobe, Oslund, & Svensson, 2014; de Waard, 2015; Hasser, 2017; Malita, Tiru, & Grosseck, 2018). Furthermore, MOOCs’ viability has been investigated in different countries such as the Philippines (Angeles, Creus, & Antonio, 2016; Mabuan & Ebron, 2018), India (Jain et al., 2014), Malaysia (Fadzil, Latif, & Munira, 2015), New Zealand (Gordon, Peters, & Besley, 2014), Morocco (Manar, 2016), Romania (Malita, Tiru, & Grosseck, 2018), and several countries in Europe (Jansen & Schuwer, 2015). These foregoing studies underscore the potential of MOOCs as a cost-effective, practical and accessible educational platform that can be utilized as an alternative to expensive professional training programs, which usually entail expenses and use of important resources such as teacher time; training and coaching; administration; materials, equipment and facilities; travel and transportation; and university tuition and conference fees (Odden, Archibald, Fermanich, & Gallagher, 2002). However, while MOOCs have gradually received recognition worldwide, studies on MOOCs for teacher professional development remain scarce (Jobe, Oslund, & Svensson, 2014; Mabuan, 2018; Misra, 2018). It is this gap that this paper intends to address.

**What is a MOOC Camp?**

A MOOC Camp is a “learning hub that brings online learning offline” (Trainer, 2014) because it uses a blended learning approach, which combines online learning with in-person learning
experience. It consists of “facilitated discussions around MOOCs, Open Courseware, and other free online courses” (U.S. Department of State Bureau of Cultural and Educational Affairs, 2018). It is one of the initiatives of the United States Department of State Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, allowing anyone from anywhere in the world to learn about anything at anytime through free international courses developed by global partner institutions and delivered through web-based platforms such as Coursera (www.coursera.org), Canvas (www.canvas.net), and edX (wwwedx.org).

A MOOC is usually taken online by anyone in solitary mode; however, with MOOC Camps, individuals taking MOOCs sponsored by the U.S. Department of State could participate in facilitated discussions at the U.S. Embassy, consulates, and other public spaces around the world and engage in discussions and/or workshops aimed at processing the course content. These MOOC Camps are facilitated by alumni who have participated in the U.S. government exchange programs, such as the Fulbright program, and U.S. Embassy staff, or others with a connection to the State Department (Haynie, 2014). The MOOC Camp facilitators follow guidelines set forth by the U.S. Department of State Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs (U.S. Department of State Bureau of Cultural and Educational Affairs, 2014).

A MOOC Camp provides regular engagements among the MOOC participants. For instance, a five-week MOOC with five modules usually requires five face-to-face discussions among those who are enrolled in the course. The schedule and venue of the MOOC Camp are agreed upon by the MOOC Camp members and may vary to accommodate the participants’ schedule, although schedules of MOOC Camps at the U.S. Embassies may be fixed depending on the availability of the facilitators. In the case of this study, the majority of the participants work in universities and public schools; hence, the MOOC Camps were usually held on the weekends or during night time after regular work hours. Activities during the MOOC Camp include interactive discussions of the modules’ key concepts, workshops applying these concepts, sharing of experiences and challenges while learning in a MOOC, sharing of best practices and plans for classroom integration of the learned concepts from the MOOCs’ modules, team-building activities, and service learning engagements. In Manila, MOOC Camps culminate in a graduation ceremony where successful MOOC Camp completers are recognized and awarded with certificates of course completion at the Regional English Language Office (RELO) of the United States Embassy in the Philippines.
U.S. Department of States’ Sponsored MOOC Camps

The United States Department of State sponsors MOOCs under its Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs’ (ECA) English Language Programs and American English E-Teacher Program, which aim to provide broad learning opportunities to interested individuals around the world. The MOOCs are developed by top global universities and institutions and is offered worldwide through the Regional English Language Offices at the U.S. Embassies in different countries. MOOCs are usually five-week courses and are offered in spring, summer, fall or winter breaks to accommodate more participants.

The courses vary every year. In the Philippines, several MOOCs have already been offered to Filipino teachers since 2014 through several MOOC Camps held across the archipelago including Davao, Cebu, and Manila in collaboration with RELO of the U.S. Embassy in the Philippines. Some of these MOOCs were University of Oregon’s *Shaping the Way We Teach English, 1: The Landscape of English Language Teaching* and *Shaping the Way We Teach English, 2: Pathways to Success*, which were offered through Coursera from September 28 – October 30, 2015 and November 9 – December 11, 2015, respectively. In 2017, several MOOCs were also offered such as World Learning’s *Teaching Grammar Communicatively* (September 25 – October 30, 2017). In early 2018, MOOCs continued to be offered across the Philippines such as World Learning – SIT Grad Institute’s *Integrating Critical Thinking Skills into the Exploration of Culture in an EFL Setting* (February 5 – March 26, 2018), and Iowa State University’s *Using Educational Technology in the English Language Classroom* (April 8 – May 21, 2018). In October 2018, another MOOC was offered through Canvas, *Professional Development for Teacher Trainers*, which was developed by Arizona State University, USA. MOOC offerings can be accessed through the website of American English E-Teacher Program at https://www.aeeteacher.org/MOOC

This study is anchored on the tenets of Connectivism (cf. Siemens, 2005; Downes, 2008), which posits the “transformative possibilities offered by emerging technologies” (Bell, 2011), and on Bandura’s (1977) Social Learning Theory indicating that people learn by observing what others do, considering the consequences of the behavior of those people, rehearsing mentally what might happen on their own lives if they decide to follow other people’s behavior, taking action by trying the behavior themselves, comparing their experiences with what happened to others, and confirming their belief in the new behavior. It explored the experiences of the MOOC participants in successfully completing three different MOOCs, as it aimed to
unravel the participants’ viewpoints and insights on the viability of online teacher professional development as a potential alternative to face-to-face teacher training. Specifically, this study aimed at addressing the following questions:

(1) What are the participants’ aims in joining the MOOC Camps?

(2) What are the affordances of the MOOC Camps based on the participants’ experiences in completing the courses?

(3) What are the challenges encountered by the participants in completing the MOOCs?

(4) Based on these experiences, what teacher training model can be formed using MOOC Camps?

Method

This study covered three U.S. Department of State-sponsored MOOCs from September 2017 to May 2018. Each course ran for five weeks and was accessed through Canvas (www.canvas.net). The first course was World Learning’s Teaching Grammar Communicatively, which was offered through the American English E-Teacher Program from September 25 to October 29, 2017. The second course was World Learning – SIT Graduate Institute’s Integrating Critical Thinking Skills into the Exploration of Culture in an EFL Setting, offered from February 5 to March 26, 2018. The third course was Iowa State University’s Using Educational Technology in the English Language Classroom, offered from April 8 to May 21, 2018.

The participants were 17 teachers who successfully completed the three MOOCs. Of the 17 participants, four were university instructors (three English instructors and one Psychology instructor) at the Lyceum of the Philippines University, Manila, the Philippines. Of the four participants, one is currently in his dissertation phase for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics, one holds a master’s degree in Psychology, one has a master’s degree in English Language Teaching, and the other is in his thesis-writing phase for a master’s degree in English Language Teaching. The remaining 13 participants were all high school teachers in different public and private schools in Metro Manila. They took the MOOCs’ weekly modules online on their flexible schedule, and they had their regular weekly MOOC Camp every
Saturday. The MOOC Camp was facilitated by one of the participants, who is an Alumnus of the U.S. Department of State’s E-Teacher Program.

This study utilized ethnography as a method as it sought to describe and systematically analyze (graphy) experience in order to understand cultural experience (ethno) (Ellis, 2004; Holman Jones, 2005). In particular, the narrative inquiry was used as a theoretical lens following the principle that in narratives, we see “the story in the study, the tale in the theory, the parable in the principle, and the drama in the life” (Clifford & Marcus, 1986; Suleiman, 1986; Turner & Bruner, 1986; Rosaldo, 1989; Bordo, 1990). It also seems appropriate as it “captures personal and human dimensions of experience over time and takes account of the relationship between individual experience and cultural context” (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000).

**Instruments and Data Analysis**

The data were drawn from individual reflections of the 17 participants written after taking each of the three MOOCs and from three focus group discussions (FGDs). The reflection paper consisted of the following information: demographic profile, MOOC description and personal rating in survey form, reasons for participating in the MOOC, participants’ perceived benefits of taking the MOOC, plans of applying the key concepts from the MOOC in the classroom, and challenges encountered while taking the MOOC. The reflection data was codified and analyzed thematically using Guest, McQueen, and Namey’s (2012) Thematic Analysis framework. The findings were triangulated with the FGD data.

**Results**

**Participants’ Motivation in Joining the MOOC Camp**

The reflection and FGD data revealed the participants’ two major motivations for joining in the MOOC Camp: the professional and social motivation. In the professional motivation, the following seven reasons were provided: (1) to acquire new knowledge and skills, (2) to get a certification, (3) to look at and download educational resources, (4) to have access to updated information on a given topic, (5) to participate in a course that allows self-regulated learning, (6) to know what type of education is provided, and (7) to teach a particular topic. In the social motivation, the participants reported three reasons: (1) to collaborate and communicate with a community of learners, (2) to meet new experts in the field, and (3) to observe the community
of learners. The following participants’ avowals show their reasons for joining in the MOOC Camp.

### Table 1. Participants’ motivations in joining the MOOC Camp

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for participating in the MOOC Camp</th>
<th>Participants’ avowals showing their reasons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To acquire new knowledge and skills</td>
<td>I enrolled in the MOOCs because I wanted to learn new things and to develop my teaching skills. [P2-M-38] I needed to update and upgrade my knowledge so my teaching remains relevant to my students. [P7-F-33]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To get a certification</td>
<td>One of the major reasons why I joined in the MOOC Camp was to receive a certificate of course completion from the U.S. Embassy, which I can use to advance my career. [P17-F-28]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To look at and download educational resources</td>
<td>I love MOOCs because I could download quality modules, video lectures and articles free. I could use them in my classes and in doing my own teaching training and workshops [P1-M-35]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To have access to updated information on a given topic</td>
<td>I wanted to have the latest references in ELT and I found them through MOOCs. [P8-F-32] I joined because I knew I would learn new ideas from high caliber universities in the USA. [P4-F-26]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To participate in a course that allows self-regulated learning</td>
<td>MOOCs are always open… I felt that I was in control of my own progress…Of course I had to meet some deadlines, but I still had to make the decision when and where to access the course modules… [P16-F-34]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To know what type of education is provided</td>
<td>This is my first time to hear about MOOCs… also, this is my first time to take an online course. I was very curious about it. [P9-M-22]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To teach a particular topic</td>
<td>The modules I’ve downloaded from the MOOC on Culture would help me to teach about intercultural communication to my students. [P14-M-38]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To collaborate and communicate with a community of learners</td>
<td>I wanted to meet and network with like-minded individuals who have the same burning passion for continuing professional development. [P3-F-33] I hope to learn with colleagues who are willing to share their best practices… [P8-M-27]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To meet new experts in the field</td>
<td>By joining in the MOOC Camp, I could have the opportunity to be mentored by educators from top universities in the world. It would be a very good opportunity to learn about their teaching practices… [P13-M-36]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To observe the community dynamics</td>
<td>I joined because I also wanted to know how MOOC Camps work… to run and lead MOOC Camps so that I could offer it to our school and my colleagues… [P6-F-25]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Affordances of the MOOC Camp to the Participants

The 17 participants shared the benefits of having face-to-face interaction with their co-MOOCers as an offline component of the MOOC Camp. There were a total of 15 MOOC meet-
up sessions for the three courses taken, with five meet-up sessions for every course, corresponding to the five modules of each of the courses. During the MOOC meet-ups, all of the participants gathered in a specific venue and date to conduct their facilitated discussions. The activities in the meet-up sessions included the following: review of the weekly modules, lightning talks highlighting the participants’ learning experiences, workshops applying the key concepts from the modules, sharing of plans for classroom integration and modification of the new ideas from the modules, and group sharing of stories of struggles and successes while learning with the MOOCs.

Three major benefits of the MOOC Camp to the participants surfaced: (1) The MOOC Camp served as a platform for peer-to-peer engagement and collaboration, (2) it served as a community of practice where the members could share their best practices and plans, and (3) it acted as a complementary platform for the MOOCs’ online content. Table 2 shows the participants’ avowals highlighting the benefits of the MOOC Camps.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The MOOC Camps…</th>
<th>Participants’ avowals showing the advantages of joining in the MOOC Camps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>served as a platform for peer-to-peer engagement and collaboration.</td>
<td>I believe that the best thing about our MOOC Camp is that it helped me keep going... There were times that I wanted to quit because of my very busy schedule, but my fellow MOOCers motivated me to just continue, and thankfully I completed three MOOCs. [P2-M-38] The MOOC Camp allowed me to meet new teachers from different schools and backgrounds... [P1-M-35] I think without our MOOC Camp, I wouldn’t be able to finish the course. The ‘buddy system’ has its magic of inspiring co-MOOCers to succeed together. [P16-F-34]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>served as a community of practice where the members could share their best practices and plans.</td>
<td>One thing I really love about our MOOC Camp is the sharing part... I learned a lot from our group such as how they applied the ideas from the MOOCs into their classes... [P6-F-26] It feels good to know that you have some sort of MOOC family who can share your ideas and insights with. It is very motivating. [P17-F-28]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acted as a complementary platform for the MOOCs’ online content.</td>
<td>The face-to-face meet-up solidified the online content... [P14-M-38] Our MOOC Camp is a great idea to dig deeper into the modules because we could discuss the most important ideas among ourselves in offline format. [P13-M-36]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Challenges Encountered by the MOOC Participants**

Despite the participants’ positive experiences, they also encountered challenges while taking the MOOCs. They reported three barriers that almost prevented them from finishing the
MOOCs: (1) technological and technical aspects, (2) time constraints, and (3) procedural aspects. The first two challenges are participants-based, while the third one is facilitator-based.

In the technological and technical aspects, all of the participants reported a common concern pertaining to unstable and unreliable internet connectivity at home and in the workplace. Because the MOOCs were online, this challenge affected the participants’ access to the video lectures and modules. One MOOCer shared, “I rely on my cellular internet data to access the MOOCs, and oftentimes I would get frustrated because it took time for me to view the video lectures” [P5-M-26]. This was echoed by another participant: “Our campus Wi-Fi only allowed me to see the video lectures’ transcripts and the articles. It was almost impossible to view the video lectures completely. I only downloaded the transcripts because of a very weak internet connection” [P9-M-22]. To solve this problem, the participants stated that they decided to rent computers at the internet shops in order to access the MOOC modules with less hassle, while others subscribed to faster internet packages offered by telecommunications networks.

Another concern focused on time constraints. Because all of the participants of this study were full-time teachers, they reported having problems with time management, trying to allot time for MOOCs in their already loaded schedules. This time management issue affected the participants’ schedule in completing weekly modules, taking the quizzes, and achieving passing marks. One participated shared, “I am a full-time university instructor and a part-time graduate student. When I decided to participate in the MOOC Camp, I grappled with time issues. I had to sacrifice some of my sleep and relaxation hours just to study with MOOCs. It was worth it although it was really a tough decision” [P1-M-35]. This experience was shared by another MOOCer who reported that “…my enemy was time. I needed to free myself from other tasks in order to do the MOOCs. I learned how to set my priorities and to discard unimportant things” [P2-M-38].

The last concern reported was procedural, which pertains to conducting and facilitating the MOOC Camp with all of the participants. Because the MOOC participants worked in 11 different schools and institutions around Metro Manila, the most challenging part was having a consensus on the MOOC meet-up venue and dates. This challenge was reported by the MOOC Camp facilitator: “Attendance at the MOOC Camp is required to graduate at the U.S. Embassy, so I had to ensure that all of the participants were always present in the meet-up. It would normally take time arranging the meet-up to come up with the right venue and time at the convenience of all” [P1-M-35]. To address this concern, planning is vital. The participants
communicated constantly in their exclusive Facebook group, provided their inputs about the MOOC meet-ups, and adjusted their time and priorities in order to participate in the MOOC Camp.

Despite these challenges faced by the participants, they managed to complete the three MOOCs. When asked about their major reasons for completing the courses, they reported that the sense of professional accomplishment, the group motivation, and the U.S. Embassy certification provided them the strongest reasons to finish the MOOCs. One participant shared, “I wanted to accomplish something new. This is my first time to take an online course in the form of MOOC. In the beginning I thought it was just easy, but I was wrong. It was demanding and challenging just like any regular face-to-face course. However, I persevered and thankfully I graduated” [P16-F-34].

Another realization about the nature of online courses surfaced, contradicting some people’s perception about them as easy, inferior, and of low quality compared to in-campus courses: “After taking the three MOOCs, I had a paradigm shift. I have to be honest that I had a misperception about online courses to be easy, passive, and less effective than regular university courses. I was wrong. With MOOCs, I was able to study free courses developed by top global universities in the world. The courses were very engaging, useful, and informative. And with certifications awarded by the U.S. Embassy, I am assured of the high quality of MOOCs. I could use my certifications for my professional credentials...I am very proud of what I have achieved through MOOCs” [P2-M-38].

**Mapping out MOOCs for Teacher Training: A MOOC Camp Model**

In general, the MOOC completion rate among MOOC participants around the world is approximately 10% only (Liyanagunawardena, Parslow, & Williams, 2014). However, the Philippine MOOC Camp experience since 2015 proves otherwise. For instance, this study makes a case that learning with and completing MOOCs via MOOC Camps can prove to be effective in promoting high completion rates among MOOC participants. In Figure 1, we depict the success of our Philippine MOOC Camp experience in a working model, the Infinity MOOC Camp Model, which can be replicated in other MOOC Camps in the different parts of the world.
The Infinity MOOC Camp Model (IMCM) is formed by intertwining two infinity symbols ($\infty$). It symbolizes limitless opportunities for all who are willing to learn anything at any time, whatever their backgrounds may be, and wherever they may be in the world. It has four interconnected nodes: (1) Learn, (2) Share, (3) Engage, and (4) Teach. These four nodes interface the individual with the group, thus highlighting the significant contribution of every MOOC participant to the strength and solidarity of the MOOC Camp. Thus, the more committed and dedicated the MOOC participants are, the stronger the MOOC Camp becomes. Because these nodes are interlinked and interconnected with one another, the cycle may begin at any phase depending on the familiarity of the MOOC participant with the MOOC Camp system.

In the Learning Phase, the participants set up their accounts in the course platform, enroll in the MOOC, navigate the course platform, familiarize themselves with the course details such as the course title and focus, course description, course provider, course syllabus and requirements, and perform all tasks required to complete the course successfully. In this phase,
MOOC participants may take the course independently or with their MOOC partners from their schools or institutions. This may be done through learning groups, or in the case of the Philippines, through Learning Action Cell (LAC) sessions among public school teachers who are MOOC participants.

In the **Sharing Phase**, the MOOC participants meet face-to-face regularly with their fellow MOOC partners from different areas, schools, and contexts and share their experiences and best practices while taking the MOOC. In the **Engaging Phase**, the MOOC participants collaborate in accomplishing tasks, plans, or activities applying the key concepts from the MOOC they are taking. They may carry this out through workshops, trainings, teaching demonstrations, service learning engagements, and projects. In the **Sharing** and **Engaging Phases**, MOOC participants also tell their stories, struggles, and successes in taking the MOOC, and help support, inspire, and motivate one another. Peer learning, peer conference, consultation and collaboration occur, and everybody is committed to help one another to finish the MOOC successfully. The group reflections, shared ideas, and insights help substantiate the online course modules and interlink the online with the offline components of the MOOC Camp.

Finally, in the **Teaching Phase**, the MOOC participants go back to their respective schools, institutions, companies or organizations and apply their new learning from the MOOC Camp with their students and/or colleagues. They begin to integrate the concepts that they learned from the MOOCs into their lessons or curricula by adapting and appropriating the learned ideas to suit their own contexts, classrooms, and learners. They continue learning, sharing, and engaging with their MOOC partners through constant and active participation in the MOOC Camps. They continue sharing and engaging with others including their colleagues, friends, and anyone interested, thus having a multiplier and exponential effect gradually. When this cycle continues, it becomes an unbreakable habit, and everybody in the MOOC Camp can feel the support and motivation from and with one another. The MOOC Camp becomes a community and a family, keeping all of the members motivated and inspired to continue learning, engaging, growing, and sharing.

**Discussion**

The findings delineate the andragogical potential of MOOCs for teacher professional development as suggested by the participants’ positive responses. Attributive factors may include the MOOCs’ relevance to timely teacher training topics, sound course design and their
alignment to participants’ target learning goals, which are reinforced and complemented with cohesive group dynamics through MOOC Camps. When the participants’ professional and social motivations are met by MOOCs and sustained by the MOOC Camps, no challenge can hinder them from successfully completing the courses.

The results underscore the findings in some MOOC studies delineating MOOCs’ viability in promoting lifelong learning and continuous professional development (Jobe, Oslund, & Svensson, 2014; de Waard, 2015; Urrutia, 2016; Bonafini, 2017; Mabuan, 2018; Malita, Tiru, & Grosseck, 2018; Misra, 2018) and MOOC Camps’ potential of building a community of learners engaged in continuing professional development (Angeles, Creus, & Antonio, 2016). Dubbed as a ‘game changer’ in emerging countries who lack support for the highest-quality professional development (Misra, 2018), MOOCs provide teachers and professionals the opportunity to acquire knowledge, competencies, and skills that they need for their personal, professional, and social lives. Participants’ responses suggest that taking and completing MOOCs successfully can be an effective tool for teacher professional development. For instance, after taking the MOOC on Teaching Grammar Communicatively, a participant shared that it has helped her “understand that the second language learning is so complex” and that it needs “a variety of well-planned, authentic, and meaningful activities that allow the learners to use grammar in context” [P10-F-40]. Another participant claimed that taking the MOOCs has become an avenue for him to “learn, unlearn, and relearn” [P2-M-38] new concepts and strategies in teaching grammar, integrating critical thinking skills into the teaching of culture, and exploring educational technologies in the classroom. These responses may have significant impact on the participants’ pedagogical practices when they integrate the new learning into their classes.

The role of MOOC Camps should also be emphasized – not only did it provide extended engagement among MOOC participants by bridging the gap between online and offline learning, it also created a community of learners with shared goals, and it sustained motivation among the participants leading to successful completion of the courses. Another significant factor contributing to the success of the MOOC Camp is the pivotal role of a certifying body that provides the participants recognition and validation of their participation in the MOOCs. In the case of this study, the Regional English Language Office of the United States Embassy in the Philippines acted as a strong and reliable source of support, motivation, and inspiration for the participants to complete the courses. The constant communication and engagement between RELO and the MOOC facilitators and the participants provided a dynamic partnership.
and foundation for this teacher training program. These findings implicate future MOOC designs and MOOC engagement models aimed at producing high success rates.

**Pedagogical Implications**

Teacher professional development (TPD) improves quality of education (Coe et al., 2014; Thurlings & den Brok, 2017), fosters improvements in teaching (Kennedy, 2016), and enhances learner achievement (Shava, 2016). However, TPD remains costly and inaccessible particularly to teachers and professionals in developing countries whose budget allocations for teacher training are limited. Therefore, a resourceful teacher must possess some technological competence to navigate and leverage the Internet and harness its power for personal and professional advancement by gaining access to a myriad of free teacher training programs. In this era of internet of things (IoT) (McRae, Ellis, & Kent, 2018) and internet of People (IoP) (Molina, 2016), TPD is just within reach, transcending and breaking barriers across the globe, and offering limitless opportunities for professional advancement among teachers. This democratization in education through Open Educational Resources (OERs) allows teachers to access state-of-the-art knowledge and skills and integrate these into their own classrooms, contexts and curricula. For instance, teachers may adapt or adopt their learning from the MOOCs into their own lessons by using new pedagogical approaches such as blended learning (Horn & Staker, 2014) or by doing any of these 5R activities: retain, reuse, revise, remix, and redistribute OERs (Wiley, Green, & Soares, 2012) in contextualizing concepts into their own classroom practices.

**Conclusion**

MOOCs can be viewed as a viable alternative platform for continuous teacher professional development provided that they are well designed, relevant, and useful to the prospective participants. Furthermore, MOOC Camps may be the most feasible solution to very high dropout rates in MOOCs around the world. In this increasingly globalized and networked era when technological advances afford us possibilities we have never thought of in the past, we need to reconfigure our paradigms and see the vast and limitless opportunities for lifelong learning and professional advancement.
In developing countries such as the Philippines where teacher professional development is costly, limited, and inaccessible to many teachers and professionals particularly those in the remote areas and in the peripheries, MOOCs offer a practical answer. MOOC Camps provide a new teacher training model that can transform boundaries and help overcome several limitations. Future studies may investigate how this model may be applied in different contexts and levels across various cultures, countries, and continents, and how this may impact the pedagogical practices of the participants and the learning outcomes of their students. MOOCs are free for everyone who wants to learn anything about everything at anytime and anywhere. What we need now are MOOCers who are driven and willing to learn and to take advantage of this professional development opportunity offered across and beyond borders.

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Philippine English: An Exploratory Mixed-Methods Inquiry on Digital Immigrants and Digital Natives’ Variety

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Abstract

Despite the countless researchers who have been drawn to investigate Philippine English for a myriad of reasons, none was known to have ventured on a probe of its grammatical features as used in a technology-driven linguistic landscape by two generations in the digital age. Propelled by the assumption of an emerging Philippine English variety, this paper determines the grammatical features that characterize the digital native-immigrants’ Philippine English. It also ascertains whether mistake or deviation instigated the use of the features, and establishes this variety’s level of comprehensibility. This exploratory mixed-methods inquiry employs some qualitative and quantitative data drawn from a social networking site, the digital native-immigrant group, and the comprehensibility-raters who were selected through non-random purposive sampling. This inquiry yields 8 grammatical features, mostly deemed results of deviation, yet the texts characterized by such features were mostly rated with excellent comprehensibility. This substantiates some of the grammatical features identified in earlier studies, provides evidentiary proof that the digital groups’ Philippine English is not bound by the standard of syntactic accuracy and corroborates the assertion on language’s manipulability as an instrument fashioned to satisfy the users’ need for successful communication in actual
instances for use of English past the walls of any university where the variety is cultivated. The same could also be rationalized by some respondents’ position on grammar and accuracy to be less vital than one’s facility to communicate effectively.

**Keywords:** Comprehensibility, deviation, digital immigrants, digital natives, mistakes, Philippine English variety.

**Introduction**

Given the fact that the English standard varieties of the British and the Americans and the customary prestige that come with the use of one or the other are no longer deemed the target norms by many speakers of New Englishes, countless researchers have been drawn to investigate a multitude of national, geographical, and social varieties (Bieswanger, 2008); hence, the growing body of “systematic linguistic descriptions” (Hickey, 2004; Kortmann & Schneider, 2004 as cited in Bieswanger, 2008, p. 32) of world Englishes in general and Philippine English in particular carried out for a myriad of reasons: appreciation, quest for standardization, recognition, better English Language Teaching (ELT) representation, etc. None, however, was known to have ventured on a probe of the grammatical features of the Philippine English as used beyond the walls of the academe - in a technology-driven linguistic landscape by two generations in the digital age. Technology and the Internet must have somehow influenced this groups’ Philippine English at least at the level of grammatical features. Therefore this investigation, propelled by the assumption of an emerging Philippine English variety (i.e. the variety of Philippine English language used by the digital native-immigrant group), focused on the Filipino digital immigrants’ and digital natives’ written Philippine English through the identification of the grammatical features that characterize their variety and the determination of what instigates the use of such features based on Kachru’s distinction between mistake (which occurs out of ignorance or uncertainty of a surperstrate rule) and deviation (which occurs out of an incomplete application of a rule). The study also looked into the level of this variety’s comprehensibility i.e. “understanding of a possible meaning” according to Kachru & Smith (2008) (as cited in Jung, 2010, p. 145).

This digital native-immigrant concept, coined by Prensky (2001), labels what Joy (2012) calls the “generational switchover where people are defined by the technological culture which they are familiar with” (para. 1). In 2001, Prensky explained that students then - from kindergarten through college – emerged as the original digital natives “to grow up with the new technology
and to have spent their entire lives surrounded by and using computers and cell phones among other toys and tools of the digital age which have become integral parts of their lives” (1). While the “digital immigrants have lived in an analog age and immigrated to the digital world” (Joy, 2012, para. 2). In this study, however, the digital natives are young professionals and university students while the digital immigrants are professionals who fall within the 30-55 year age-bracket. Additionally, both groups are currently Facebook users.

The data for this qualitative-descriptive endeavor were drawn from public Facebook statuses and two sets of researcher-developed survey questionnaires handed out to two groups of respondents selected through non-random purposive sampling. Carrying out the inquiry was imperative to determine the Filipino digital native-immigrants’ Philippine English grammatical features while substantiating the ones identified by McArthur as well as Bautista and Gonzalez (Phuong, 2012) and to provide evidentiary proof whether these digital groups’ Philippine English brand, like Nguyen’s (2017) “workers’ mobile language repertoire, is not tied to the criterion of linguistic accuracy” (p. 101). Insights from this paper could also be used to corroborate Robert’s (2017) assertion of the “malleability of language as a tool that is tailored to suit the users’ need” (p. 109) for effective communication in “real opportunities for contact with – and use of – English” (as cited in Vettorel & Corrizzato, 2016, p. 490) beyond the walls of the academe. This underscores the position of Vettorel & Corrizzato’s (2016) respondents on the “ability for effective communication to be far more important than grammar and accuracy” (p. 500).

**Review of Literature**

This inquiry is anchored on Braj Kachru’s distinction between *mistake* and *deviation* and Bennui’s (2013) concept of *innovation* when a selection of English linguistic forms such as (among others) spoken and written sentences (representing a selection of digressions from Standard English) produced by non-native English language users are to be investigated.

According to Kachru (as cited in Bennui, 2013), since mistake is a breach of a linguistic norm of the native English variety, a native speaker is inclined not to accept it nor see it as a result of the productive processes employed in English nativization. In other words, mistakes occur out of ignorance or uncertainty of a surperstrate rule while deviation, out of an incomplete application of a rule as in the non-use of *s* to signal plurality (e.g. We went to the wet market and bought three bag of rice instead of three BAGS of rice) and the indiscriminate use of
pronouns by the East Africans as in, *My husband who was in England, she was by then my fiancé* (McKay, 2016, 22) instead of …*HE was by then my fiancé*.

Innovation then, Bennui (2013) says, is a permissible deviation from the native English norms. Taking this into account, it will only be therefore true to consider any of the non-native users’ verbal and written English statements (which violate the Standard English structure set in the native-English norm) as mistakes, errors, and non-Standard English when inaccuracies are to be the focus of the interlanguage scrutiny.

Considering the World Englishes approach, however, what may be labelled as a non-Standard English usage or mistake could be described as, according to Bennui (2013), the “non-Anglo speakers and writers aim to convey particular forms of deviations influenced by their vernacular features in order to manifest their local identity in English and to present their ability in creative nativization and linguistic innovation” (209).

In his paper, Bennui (2013) presented, through a selection of earlier studies, six types of syntactic innovations (although this study mentions and employs only two in order to justify the data gathered) employed in the English literary texts written by Asian, African, and Caribbean authors whose first language is not English.

One such syntactic innovation is overgeneralization. This simplified grammar feature strategy which transpires, Bennui (2013) claims, when effective communication is more of a concern than grammatical accuracy for ESL/EFL users, refers to an overuse of rules and exceptions of Standard English language forms such as countable and uncountable nouns, prepositions, word order, and subject-verb agreements. Nordquist (2017) identifies it as an application of a grammatical rule in cases where it does not apply.

Omission is another syntactic creativity in which the main components in sentences such as the copula be, subject and object pronouns, prepositions, and auxiliary verbs, determiners, infinitives, plural noun markings, present-past tense verbs, among others, are missing (Bennui, 2013).

These are evident in some of the grammatical characteristics of Philippine English that have been pointed out by McArthur as well as by Bautista and Gonzalez (as cited by Phuong, 2012). Samples for each were taken from Dayag’s (2016) *Recent Grammatical Studies of Philippine English*. 
(1) lack of subject-verb agreement, especially in the presence of an intervening prepositional phrase or expression—*The teacher, along with her students, were in the library yesterday.*

(2) faulty tense-aspect usage including unusual use of verb forms and tenses, especially use of the past perfect tense for the simple past or present perfect—I had not gone to class yesterday.

(3) lack of tense harmony/lack of verb tense consistency—*He says he had lived in the UK before.*

(4) modals would and *could* used for *will* and *can*—*The students could not understand why they would have to come to school on Sunday.*

(5) adverbial placed at the end of the clause, not between auxiliary and main verb—*The walk-in participants will join the post-conference tour also.*

(6) non-idiomatic two or three-word verbs—*The government decision will result to dire consequences.*

(7) variable article usage – missing article where an article is required; an article where no article is required—*Ø majority of teachers want a pay increase.*

(8) faulty noun subcategorization, including non-pluralization of count nouns and pluralization of mass nouns—*Equipments were purchased using the previous year’s budget.* or *Feedbacks were given on the proposal.*

(9) lack of agreement between pronoun and antecedent—*The work is so heavy that they are taking their toll on the health of the people.*

(10) *one of the* followed by singular noun—*One of the candidate withdrew from the race.*

Sandil’s (2014) article which utilized the International Corpus Network of Asian Learners of English (ICNALE) as source of data to reinvestigate the grammatical features of Philippine English identified in the 2006 work of Bautista, found that both *one of the + singular noun* and *Ø majority* constructions have become conclusive grammatical features of the Philippine English while further scrutiny is suggested for *such + Ø singular noun* construction. Bautista’s prior tentative conclusion on the *assure + Ø indirect object* construction remains unchanged and among the five grammatical constructions re-investigated, the word *wherein* is deemed conclusively a unique grammatical feature of Philippine English for having validly occurred only in the ICNALE-PHIL.
Moreover, Berowa’s (2017) investigation which has drawn inspiration from the research conducted by Gerald Nelson in 2005 on the expression of futurity in Philippine English concluded that the Filipinos’ inclination has generally not changed since Nelson’s work. Resembling the prior study, *will* is strongly preferred by Filipinos in expressing futurity while *shall* was found to be practically non-existent in the data examined.

Finally, Gustilo’s (2011) corpus-based investigation of modal auxiliaries suggested that the modal auxiliaries usage in the texts considered reflect some Philippine English characteristics in relation to other varieties of English while Dino and Gustilo’s (2015) pilot study on the features and functions of electronic language used by Filipino Facebook users brought to light the viability of an *Internet language* linguistic analysis and revealed that Facebook users in the Philippines utilized nine types of linguistic features (among them are code-switching and acronyms) suggesting these users’ aptitude in taking advantage of their linguistic knowledge for communication innovation.

Evidently, none of these studies have examined the syntactic features of the Philippine English as used by two digital age generations in a specific technology-driven linguistic landscape. For this reason, this study centered on determining the Filipino digital immigrants’ and digital natives’ written Philippine English variety. Specifically, this study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What are the grammatical features that characterize the Philippine English variety of the:
   a. digital immigrants; and
   b. digital natives?
2. What instigates the digital immigrants and digital natives’ use of such grammatical features based on Kachru’s distinction between mistake and deviation?
3. What is the level of the digital native-immigrants’ written Philippine English variety’s comprehensibility?

**Methodology**

This inquiry determines the Filipino digital immigrants’ and digital natives’ written Philippine English variety through an exploratory mixed methods inquiry which is embedded in nature i.e. a conventional qualitative design is enhanced by a quantitative element (Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017) or two. Also, this paper’s data were sourced qualitatively and quantitatively.
This inquiry’s phase 1 involved the collection of public Facebook statuses that went through the researcher’s Facebook wall. These statuses were deemed fit for the study based on two simple criteria: 1) the status is written in English and 2) it is expressed in a sentence (or a fragment) or two or in a paragraph. The 58 collected public Facebook statuses were then categorized partly based on the Philippine English grammatical features that were identified by McArthur, as well as Bautista and Gonzalez (2012) then analysed based on two (overgeneralization, and omission) of Bennui’s (2013) six syntactic innovations. Based on the Facebook status collection, a 15-item questionnaire was constructed and the digital native-immigrant group (comprised of 6 digital immigrants and 11 digital natives) was identified.

Phase 2 entailed the use of the 15-item researcher-constructed questionnaire and the participation of the identified digital native-immigrant group (the writers of the public Facebook statuses considered in this inquiry) to elicit data on what instigates the group’s use of the grammatical features in their public Facebook statuses. All participants were given an instruction that applies to all 15 items, encircle the letter of the grammatically-sound sentence then underline the part that makes the other sentence wrong (a way to establish what instigates the use of the identified grammatical features). The respondents were asked to answer items in the following form:

(1) a. My brother attended the four-days training last month.
b. Ms. Castro endured an eleven-hour travel to get home for Christmas.

Phase 3 required crafting of the 37-item questionnaire that employed 37 chosen public Facebook statuses from the 58 that were collected in phase 1 to obtain data on these statuses’ level of comprehensibility from another group of respondents (20 students from Cebu Technological University-Danao Campus selected through non-random purposive sampling). Moreover, since one will be judged by either a listener or reader through this listener or reader’s ability to understand one’s overall message instead of looking at the individual words that one chose or one’s grammar accuracy thereby rendering comprehensibility a subjective measurement of how much effort a listener or reader makes to grasp one’s message (Schmidt, 2017, para. 12), balancing it with the most objective scale that this inquiry could use through a five-point scale, seemed pertinent.

This inquiry found it suitable to use a five-point scale to gauge comprehensibility especially when in the literature of the second language assessment, it was claimed that raters struggled faring 9-point scales. Case in point, the Cambridge Assessment of Spoken English scale was
condensed from nine to six levels as a result of the raters’ “inability to differentiate effectively over all the scales” (Isaacs & Thomson, 2013, 5). Furthermore, Hamp-Lyons & Henning suggested that a nine-point scale is lengthier than the ideal one to gauge a written output owing to the “high cognitive load” forced upon a rater who is tasked with a difficult rating assignment (Isaacs & Thomson, 2013, 5). Lastly, finding no psychometric advantage to scale with 10 or more levels, McKelvie (as cited in Isaacs & Thomson 2013) resolved that many could benefit from the use of 5- or 6-point scales hence the use of the following:

(5)-Excellent Comprehensibility Very easy to understand, grammatically sound
(4)-Good Comprehensibility Easy to understand, has one grammatical lapse
(3)-Fair Comprehensibility Not easy to understand, has two grammatical lapses
(2)-Poor Comprehensibility Hard to understand, has three grammatical lapses
(1)-Incomprehensible Very hard to understand, has four grammar lapses

Textual analysis and categorization based on existing grammatical features in literature and additional ones, as well as simple frequency distribution were used to analyse data in phase 1 whereas the data obtained from the two sets of questionnaires were analysed using frequency distribution and percentages.

**Findings and Discussion**

Table 1 reports the grammatical features of the digital immigrants’ and digital natives’ Philippine English.

Out of a total of fifty-eight (58) Filipino digital immigrants and digital natives’ public Facebook statuses, only fifty-six (56) were utilized and sorted revealing eight grammatical features from a total of sixty items since some of the statuses had more than one grammatical feature. Two of the 58 were no longer included for although Sandil (2014) recommended the such + φ singular noun construction for further examination in his re-investigation of Bautista’s 2006 work, the two which used such, as in: I was such a “pasaway” (stubborn) daughter and I do not deserve such love and care from Him turned out to be of standard usage.
Table I
Grammatical Features of the Digital Immigrants and Digital Natives’ Philippine English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammatical Features</th>
<th>Digital Immigrants</th>
<th>Digital Natives</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pluralized compound adjective</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexical misuse</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of subject and verb agreement</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of or incorrect use of preposition</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Faulty verb forms and tenses</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a/an + plural count noun/pluralized mass noun</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of pronoun agreement with verb and/or faulty pronoun and antecedent combination</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of demonstrative pronoun and referent agreement</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>26</strong></td>
<td><strong>34</strong></td>
<td><strong>60</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 1st of the 8 identified grammatical features of the digital native-immigrant group, **pluralized compound adjective** (e.g. 1-4) is not known to have already been identified by earlier studies but present in four of the texts considered from two digital immigrants and two digital natives.

1. **Two-hours** travel from home just to view this grandeur display...
2. When I went back to work, I would travel every weekend just to see my daughters. It’s a total of **five hours** travel at most.
3. Without you guys, ‘dili jud’ ma successful and **2-days** educators’ congress. (Without you guys, the two-days educators’ congress would not have been successful.)
4. Tomorrow is the first blank page of a **365-pages** book.

It appears that the both digital natives and immigrants’ statuses are not consistent with the rule that hyphenated adjectives of time, money, and distance never take the plural form (SST Writing Center, n.d.).

Sample (1) also appeared in the 2nd grammatical feature labelled, **lexical misuse** for how it makes use of the noun **grandeur** as an adjective to the noun **display**. The digital immigrant could have meant, …**two-hour travel just to view this grandeur** or …**two-hour travel just to view this grandiose display**. This text is joined in the same grammatical feature category by samples (5), (6), and (7) all from the digital immigrants, as well as samples (8), (9), (10), and (11) from the digital natives, based on how the words **most, scurf, mode, their, seek, full pledge, and theirselves** were used:
Happy birthday to the **most kind**, generous, loving, and gorgeous mother.

A silk **scarf** from Cambodia was my ‘pasalubong’ from my architecture student 10 years ago.

…a crying baby but when she’s in the **mode**, a very talkative and happy baby.

Their are no holes in my shoes but theirs a big hole in my world.

…please function for the **seek** of my grades.

I started my year 2017 as a student and ended it as a Registered Nurse and now I’m starting my year 2018 as a **full pledge** nurse.

People easily gives up on **themselves**.

When refined, sample (5) could have been, …the **kindest**, most generous, loving, and gorgeous mother, sample (6), A silk **scarf** from Cambodia was my “pasalubong” (present) from my architecture student 10 years ago, sample (7), …a crying baby, but when she’s in the **mood**, a very talkative and happy baby, sample (8), **There** are no holes in my shoes but there’s a big hole in my world, while sample (9), …please function for the **sake** of my grades sample (10), I started my year 2017 as a student and ended it as a Registered Nurse and now I’m starting my year 2018 as a **full-fledged** nurse and sample (11), which also appeared in the 3rd grammatical feature, **lack of subject and verb agreement** is polished, People easily give up on **themselves**.

**Lack of subject and verb agreement** as the third grammatical feature was found in two samples from the digital immigrants and five from the digital natives. Sample (12) from a digital immigrant used the singular verb **says** which disagrees with the plural indefinite pronoun **few** whereas the digital native failed to add the morpheme **s** to make **smile** and **feel** singular to agree with the singular subject **she** in sample (13).

It doesn’t mean that when few **says**, “you’re good,” you’re good.

She still **smile** despite of the pain she **feel** inside each day.

The same sample (13) has also been categorized under the 4th grammatical feature, **lack of or incorrect use of preposition**. Unlike **in spite of**, **despite** does not come with the preposition **of**. This feature occurred four times in the samples from digital immigrants and six times among the digital natives. Sample (14) which is from a digital immigrant is under this feature since instead of using the preposition **with, of** was used just as the digital native used **into** in sample (15) when **in** should have been used. While sample (16) exemplifies lack of preposition as another digital native failed to indicate **with** after **cooperate**.

I was given a subject which is not in line of **of** my expertise.
(15) To someone who thinks that I’m escaping the conflict I’m into, I just want you to know that I’m calmly facing it.

(16) My mind doesn’t cooperate me.

Faulty verb forms and tenses is the 5th grammatical feature found in the texts considered. Seven were found from digital immigrants and six from the natives. Samples (17), (18), and (19) from the immigrants used the verbs: won, upheld, and released and eased, instead of win, (do/does/did + base form of the verb) upheld, (be + past participle) and release and ease (to + infinitive).

(17) We did not just merely won but we did it with ease.

(18) The fundamental human rights should be uphold and defended whether you have faith in God or not.

(19) …so we climbed these 108 stairs to released and eased our agonies.

Samples from the digital natives have found their way under the faulty verb forms and tenses category since: 1) the modal can in sample (20) is paired with an inflected verb makes when grammar prescribes, modal + base form of the verb; 2) sample (21) used the present form don’t when it is preceded by the adverb before requiring the use of the past form didn’t; ’3) sample (22) used the past form felt when it is succeeded by the expression right now necessitating the use of the present form feel; 4) sample (23) employed the base form erase when it is preceded by be dictating the use of the past participle form erased; and 5) sample (24) indicated drew when an infinitive (to) draw should have been used.

(20) It’s always nice to have someone in your life who can makes you smile even when...

(21) Before, I don’t understand why my teachers have to act like Cinderella’s stepmother…

(22) The happiness that I felt right now is unexplainable.

(23) It won’t be erase even if decades will unfold.

(24) When you were still here beside me, I couldn’t help myself to drew out words with effect.

The 6th grammatical feature, a/an + plural count noun/pluralized mass noun construction appeared thrice in the immigrants’ samples and four times in the texts considered from the digital natives. Samples (25), (26), (27), and (28) from the natives are polished below each sample while samples (29), (30), and (31) from the immigrants could simply omit the articles for refinement.

(25) There will be a meteor showers tonight until December 17.

a. There will be a meteor shower tonight until December 17.
b. There will be meteor showers tonight until December 17.
(26) Stop complaining about not having a new shoes for Christmas.
   a. Stop complaining about not having a new pair of shoes for Christmas.
   b. Stop complaining about not having new shoes for Christmas.
(27) I’m so glad that we were still able to give a little last-minute surprises for each other…
   a. I’m so glad we were still able to give a little last-minute surprise for…
   b. I’m so glad we were still able to give some little last-minute surprises for…
(28) …meet up just an hours ago with my…
   a. …meet up just hours ago with my…
   b. …meet up just an hour ago with my…
(29) Only those who have the acumen of a well-schooled learners are able to grasp at one reading.
(30) May you have a blessed and fruitful days ahead of you.
(31) A nation that foster an uncivilized actuations and principles is a nation that is on the road to self-damnation.

Apparently, although Crosthwaite (2016) found that Filipino L2 English users struggle with the use of the definite article in generic contexts, both Filipino digital natives and digital immigrants are “overusing indefinite articles where zero articles are expected” (Barret & Chen, 2011 as cited in Crosthwaite, 2016) in this inquiry.

Sample (31) has also been categorized under the 7th grammatical feature, lack of pronoun agreement with verb and/or faulty pronoun and antecedent combination as the digital immigrant failed to add the morpheme s to the verb foster to make it agree with the relative pronoun that whose antecedent nation is singular. Sample (32) which comes from the same digital immigrant that posted sample (31) now adds the s morpheme to the verb hold making it singular. Consequently, the verb holds does not agree with the relative pronoun who whose antecedents dictator and his minions require its being in the plural form hold.

(32) For a nation under martial law, only the dictator and his minions who holds power are the ones who enjoy freedom…

Samples (33), (34), (35), and (36) from the digital natives found their way in this category for the following reasons: 1) samples (33), (34), and (35) employed the use of singular verbs thinks, makes, and keeps when their relative pronouns’ (who, that, that respectively) antecedents people, things, and things respectively are all plural requiring therefore the use of the plural
think, make, and keep; 2) sample (28) has a faulty relative pronoun who and antecedent humanity’s or taste combination.

(33) There are lots of judgemental and envious people today who thinks they are the standard of perfection.
(34) One of the simplest ways to stay happy is letting go of the things that makes you sad.
(35) Just recently, there were many things that keeps me in a broad quandary.
(36) This is insane, when truth is fashioned to serve humanity’s taste who in the first place are the lone criminals that brought this monstrous reality upon the innocent ones and made the world too dreadful to bear.

The 8th and last identified grammatical feature, lack of demonstrative pronoun and referent agreement was evident in the texts considered. Two from digital immigrants and one from a digital native. Sample (37) (from a digital immigrant) has its demonstrative pronoun those which is plural in form in disagreement with a friend that is singular and sample (38) (from a digital native) has its relative pronoun that which is singular and in disagreement as well with the plural memories.

(37) Starting today, I will forever keep my silence so those that I consider a friend will not wrongly judge my opinion.
(38) I forgot the exact date of that painful memories.

Results show that of the 8 identified grammatical features of the digital native-immigrant group’s Philippine English, 4 (i.e. Lack of S & V agreement, Faulty verb forms and tenses, a/an + plural count noun/pluralized mass noun, and lack of pronoun agreement with verb and/or faulty pronoun and antecedent combination) have already been identified by previous works while the other four (i.e. Pluralized compound adjective, Lexical misuse, Lack or incorrect use of prep., and lack of demonstrative pronoun and referent agreement) are in this scholar’s opinion to be newly identified grammatical features of Philippine English among the digital native-immigrant group

Table 2 reports what instigates the digital immigrants and digital natives’ use of the identified grammatical features based on Kachru’s distinction between mistake and deviation.

Although only 4 (36.36%) and 5 (45.45%) out of a total of 11 digital natives encircled the grammatically-sound sentences and underlined parts that made the other sentences erroneous in items 2, 3, 4, 6, and 14 while 6 (54.54%) in items 1, 5, and 11 – the majority (i.e. 8 or 72.72%, 7 or 63.63%, 9 or 81.81%, and 10 or 90.90%) certainly did in items 7, 8, 9, 10,
12, 13, and 15. Whereas, although only 2 (33.33%) out of a total of 6 digital immigrants recognized grammatically-sound sentences as well as erroneous parts in item 5, 3 or half of the total number of immigrants (50%) did in items 1, 3, and 14 while the majority (i.e. 4 or 66.66% and 5 or 83.33%) encircled the grammatically-sound sentences and underlined erroneous parts in items 2, 4, 6, 9, 10, 11, 13, and 15 while all 6 or 100% of these immigrants certainly did in items 7, 8, and 12.

### Table II
Kachru’s Mistake and Deviation: Instigating Factors for the Digital Native-Immigrants’ Use of the Identified Grammatical Features

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Digital Groups</th>
<th>Questionnaire Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natives</td>
<td>6-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immigrants</td>
<td>3-5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: Figures are the numbers of digital immigrants and digital natives who correctly encircled the grammatically sound sentence and underlined the erroneous part of the faulty sentence in each item.

Despite the fact that Kachru’s mistakes accounted for some of the grammatical features that characterize the Philippine English variety of a few digital natives and digital immigrants, most were deemed outcomes of Kachru’s deviations – some of which are brought about by Bennui’s (2013) innovations called overgeneralizations and the other by omissions.

A digital immigrant for one whose status The fundamental human rights should be **uphold** and defended whether you have faith in God or not is characterized by and categorised under the **faulty verb forms and tenses** grammatical feature category, encircled *b* as the grammatically-sound sentence and underlined **espouse** to be the part that makes the sentence in *a* erroneous:

a. Righteousness should be **espouse** not only by the self-proclaimed upright but also by everyone yearning for real change.

b. I will make sure that it won’t be removed from the vault.

A digital native, on the other hand, whose status When you were still here beside me, I couldn’t **help myself to** drew out words with **effect** is characterized by and categorised under the same grammatical feature category, encircled *b* as the grammatically-sound sentence and underlined **relaxed** to be the part that makes the sentence in *a* incorrect:

a. My classmates and I enjoyed a session of yoga to **relaxed** our muscles consequently releasing stress.

b.
b. I wouldn’t be able to fix the problem that you and your friend started.

Such answers (correct encircling of the grammatically-sound sentences and correct underlining of the parts that made the other sentences flawed) positively point out to the fact that the majority of these digital immigrants and digital natives (except for a handful whose encircling and underlining were wrong suggesting their statuses being labelled mistakes) are neither ignorant nor uncertain of the rules in English for the grammatical features that characterize their Philippine English brand to be labelled mistakes. Such grammatical features are consequences of (the majority of) these groups’ incomplete application of a rule as in a digital native’s non-use of the morpheme *s* for the verb *choose* in the public Facebook status, *Life is messy but she choose to be happy*. Otherwise, she would have been able to ensure its agreement with the singular pronoun *she*.

Additionally, a digital immigrant’s use of the same morpheme in the word *holds* which makes it singular but in disagreement with the relative pronoun *who* which owes its plurality from its antecedents *dictator and his minions* in the status, *For a nation under martial law, only the dictator and his minions who holds power are the ones who enjoy freedom*… clearly exemplifies Bennui’s innovation by overgeneralization while *Don’t wait the time that I’ll forget you being someone special to me*, by omission as it is missing the preposition *for* between *wait* and *the*.

These results reveal that majority of the digital immigrants and digital natives are neither ignorant nor uncertain of the grammatical rules in English. Some of the digital immigrants and digital natives’ deviations or incomplete applications of some of the rules in English resulted into the statuses’ lack of subject and verb agreement, lack of pronoun agreement with verbs and/or faulty pronoun and antecedent combination, and the statuses’ lack of demonstrative pronoun and referent agreement. Others were results of this digital native-immigrant group’s linguistic innovations through overgeneralizations as in the pluralized compound adjectives, lexical misuse, and faulty verb forms and tenses. Omission was evident in a status categorized under lack and/or incorrect use of prepositions.

Table 3 accounts for the digital immigrants’ and digital natives’ Philippine English variety’s level of comprehensibility.

Twenty-five or 67.56% of the thirty-seven chosen public Facebook statuses that were assessed were rated with excellent comprehensibility, two or 5.40% had 8 raters each that found statuses
both of excellent and of good comprehensibility, while 7 or 18.91% were good and 3 or 8.10%
were of fair comprehensibility.

Table III
The Digital Immigrants and Digital Natives’ Philippine English Variety’s Level of
Comprehensibility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Digital Native-Immigrants’ Public Facebook Statuses</th>
<th>Level of Comprehensibility</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25 or 67.56%</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 or 5.40%</td>
<td>Excellent &amp; Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 or 18.91%</td>
<td>Good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 or 8.10%</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NOTE: There were a total of 37 chosen and combined Digital Native-Immigrants’ Facebook statuses

This certainly suggests that despite the identified grammatical features’ classification as
deviations or incomplete application of the rules in English or notwithstanding the innovations
by overgeneralization and omission, the digital native-immigrant group succeeded in its
objective for effective communication.

Conclusion

Based on the findings, the Digital Immigrants and Digital Natives’ Philippine English variety
is characterized by 8 grammatical features which were mostly deemed results of deviation –
some are innovations by overgeneralization whereas others through omission, yet the texts
considered characterized by such features were mostly rated with excellent comprehensibility.
The identified grammatical features do not only substantiate the ones identified in earlier
studies, but also provides evidentiary proof that the digital native-immigrant groups’ Philippine
English variety, like Nguyen’s (2017) “workers’ mobile language repertoire, is not tied to the
criterion of linguistic accuracy” (p. 101). However, majority of the digital immigrants and
digital natives are neither ignorant nor uncertain of the grammatical rules in English as
evidenced by the majority of them that encircled the grammatically-sound sentences and
correctly underlined parts that made the other sentences erroneous. This, without any doubt,
could be accounted for by Robert’s (2017) assertion of language’s manipulability as an
instrument fashioned to satisfy the speakers’ need for successful communication in actual
instances “for contact with – and use of – English” (Vettorel & Corrizzato, 2016, p. 490) past
the walls of any university where the variety is cultivated. The same could also be rationalized
by the position of Vettorel and Corrizzato’s respondents on grammar and accuracy to be less vital than one’s facility for successful communication (2016).

**Pedagogical Implication**

This certainly suggests that language teachers who are responsible for the learners’ Second Language Acquisition (SLA) should still underscore grammar and accuracy or strike a balance between these two as well as communication and fluency development (Conti, Smith, & Vinales, 2016) in classroom instruction especially in the basic education. This would ensure that when students develop shortcomings at both the morphological and grammatical levels, these will no longer be fossilized as language teachers will no longer be selective in their corrective interventions that focus only on the oversights hampering comprehension (Conti, Smith, & Vinales, 2016). This will likewise prepare students for communication in both the academic and eventually the professional contexts where polished written language is pertinent.

**References**


International Students' Cultural Adaptation in the Philippines

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Dr. Michael E. Santos finished his Bachelor Secondary Education from the Angeles University Foundation. From the same university, he also acquired his Master of Arts in Teaching and Doctorate degree major in Educational Management. As a multidisciplinary researcher, he has published numerous research articles in various internationally recognized publications including top tier Thomson Reuters indexed journals. He has been a research presenter in several International Conferences and Research Congress in the field of Education. He can be reached at santos.michael@auf.edu.ph.

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Abstract

This Descriptive Correlational study examined international students’ linguistic challenges and cultural adaptation at a major private university in the Philippines. Using the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (MPQ) Short Form, the research measured international students’ (n=276) adaptation to sociocultural and educational environments in terms of four dimensions: (1) cultural empathy, (2) open-mindedness, (3) emotional stability, and (4) social flexibility. Researchers also conducted an interview among participants representing the different countries involved and using semi-structured questionnaire. Results indicated that cultural empathy and open-mindedness were negatively correlated with length of stay while flexibility was positively correlated with length of stay. Findings imply that the challenges encountered include academics, language, food especially during the beginning of stay and that the university is responsive to the needs of this group.

Keywords: International students, foreign students, cultural adaptation, multicultural personality

A. Introduction

A glaringly positive sign of an institution’s caliber in providing globalized and timely education is the influx of enrollees from different parts of the globe. In fact, China eyes at its universities recruiting 500,000 international students by 2020 (Ran and Shiao-Yun 2015).

These learners who invest much in their education avail of education only in premier learning communities. Therefore, these universities are obliged to make and keep their curricula and services responsive to the needs of foreign students. One utmost need of foreign learners is cultural adaptation (Ran and Shiao-Yun 2015). Specifically, culture may refer to
way of life as it includes beliefs, concepts, principles, behavior patterns, habits, and everything a person learns to do. Culture embraces all aspects of human life such as knowledge, art, traditions, history, religion, customs, norms, and values. Intercultural adaptation, in connection, occurs when a person moves from a culture to a new one and attempts to establish and sustain relatively stable relationships with the unfamiliar environment (Ran and Shiao-Yun 2015). The new environment naturally has beliefs and practices which must be learned and adapted to successfully dwell with stakeholders and achieve purpose. Students, for example, need to familiarize themselves with the practices of the community, its people, and the school setting.

According to literatures, schools may provide support to foreign students by equipping them necessary knowledge. Universities, for instance, may help learners to map the community, explore sources of information about the community, neighborhood walk, and adult jobs and expertise, and introduce research skills (Wilbur and Scott 2013). They may design tours to the community including restaurants, stores, parks, clinic, and organizations (Engle 2014). They may also collaborate with the family of foreign learners. Family members may provide knowledge on culture—values and beliefs—provided they have the linguistic ability to communicate (Wong-Lo and Bai 2013). Given proper accommodation, students become problem solvers and critical thinkers in and outside the classroom.

Failure to adapt in the foreign land may lead to the desire to leave the new environment and in the case of students, perform poorly in academics. Eventually, these learners may abandon education and go back to their motherland.

It is therefore crucial for any academic institution to help its enrollees cope with the challenges of studying abroad. Prior to addressing needs is identifying them and the perspective of the learners towards them. In general, success in adapting likely promises favorable academic performance on the part of learners and higher enrolment on the part of the university.

To know what forms of help foreign students need and how to provide them, researchers reviewed several studies of related nature.

The study of Rubenfeld, Sinclair and Clement (2007) explored how having differing goals and motives for learning a second language influences adaptation in the foreign culture. Specifically, the authors compared English as a second language (ESL) students in two programs and found differences in their long-term goal orientations. Some students took ESL courses to eventually attend university while others enrolled simply to know the language. Students in both programs completed measures of acculturation as well as measures of intrinsic
and extrinsic motivation for learning English. Adaptation to the foreign culture, in the form of acculturation, is best facilitated by congruence between students' motives and goals.

The view on second language may also affect motivation in learning it. In 2008, Al Jarf did a study among native Arabians who were in their initial year in college. Findings showed that 96% of the participants consider English a superior language, being an international language, and the language of science and technology, research, electronic databases and technical terminology. Eighty two percent believe that Arabic is more appropriate for teaching religion, history, Arabic literature and education majors, whereas English is more appropriate for teaching medicine, pharmacy, engineering, science, nursing, and computer science. They gave many educational, technological, social and labor market reasons for favoring the English language. The study concluded that Arabic is facing a serious threat from the dominance of English language in higher education, because of the lack of language planning and linguistic policies that protect, develop and promote the Arabic language, because of the slow Arabicization processes in the Arab world, and inadequacy of technical material translated and published in Arabic.

In another research among foreign students who attended schooling in China, authors learned that international students’ first year of studying abroad was the most crucial. They also experienced the most significant changes in affective or psychological adaptation. The same students improved their intercultural sensitivity and Chinese language proficiency over time while they experience halt in their cognitive and behavioral adaptation (Ran and Shiao-Yun 2015).

Some efforts on creating a student-friendly classroom environment have also been noted in the papers of Wilbur and Scott (2013). Therein, foreign students—Caucasians, African Americans, and Hispanic—read select works on various topics, had dialogues, conducted and presented research, which all yielded to reflection and self-assessment crucial to adaptation.

Meanwhile, Engle (2014) recommended understanding the community, practicing culturally competent leadership, establishing linguistic connections, using adaptive learning techniques, and capacity building of educators and other professionals in the school setting. Another group of researchers highlighted a classroom with positive management, student collaboration across cultures, parental involvement, research on student profile, dialogues with learners, and promotion of respect (Wong-Lo and Bai 2013).
Since adaptation requires learning of the language of the new country, Mahmoud (2015) investigated whether educators must marry language (English) and culture in education in the Arab world. The researcher found out that carefully selected text may teach both language and culture. Topics must nor clash with Islamic Arabic culture and must not present stereotyped image of any particular culture.

The question is if these forms of help are enough. Do students who experience them or any other assistance espouse positive perspectives?

Because most studies are centered on different setting, usually European or American, and most do not cover language as part of the cultural struggles of learners, this current study can contribute to the existing body of knowledge and help the university and its support units provide improved assistance to foreign students.

Challenges when faced with adaptation leads to acculturation. Acculturation is then aided by improvements in services further improves.

The current study aimed (1) to correlate identified challenges with the length of stay of the participants in the Philippines, (2) to identify the cultural challenges being encountered by learners, and (3) to discuss the implications of the findings to the education and other services being offered by the university.
B. Materials and Methods

The study is Descriptive Correlational. It involved foreign students of Angeles University Foundation (AUF) with at least one year of stay in the Philippines. The stay in the Philippines may or may not be as student of AUF. Only foreign students enrolled in AUF during the time of the study were invited to participate. The researchers did not exclude any participant based on gender, age, religion, nationality, or any other criterion except those specified above. Although the researchers wanted to involve the population of 276 foreign students, not every qualified respondent was willing to participate in the study. A total of 101 actually participated in the research.

The researchers conducted a survey using multicultural personality questionnaire (MPQ) Short Form designed by Van Oudenhoven and Van der Zee (2002; Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven 2000). The tool was used with permission from its creators and has been used in several researches in 2000 and 2002, proving its validity and reliability. MPQ Short Form aims to measure multicultural effectiveness in terms of (1) cultural empathy, (2) open-mindedness, (3) emotional stability, (4) social initiative and (5) flexibility.

The five dimensions are consistent with the commonly assumed components of intercultural adaptation. Cultural empathy is associated with intercultural sensitivity; open-mindedness with cognitive adaptation; emotional stability with affective adaptation; social flexibility and language proficiency with behavioral/operational adaptation.

Each dimension is measured in five items representing its main characteristics. Under Cultural Empathy, a sample phrase is “sympathizes with others”; under Flexibility, “likes routine”; under Social Initiative, “finds it difficult to make contacts”; under Open-mindedness, “tries out various approaches”; and under Emotional Stability, “keeps calm when things don’t go well. The sequence of responses is varied between items to avoid forming a pattern that may be easily identified by respondents. Each item is measured on a 5-point scale, where 1 means totally not applicable while 5 means totally applicable.

An interview using semi-structured questionnaire was conducted to further discuss with the respondents the challenges faced by international students in the Philippines. Questions focused on difficulties at different points of stay and coping mechanisms.

Ten respondents were randomly picked and represented all nationalities involved in this study. The interview was audio-recorded, transcribed fully, and qualitatively analyzed. The
interview was done individually for seven respondents and in a group for three respondents who preferred such mode. Researchers coded the data for salient themes across participants then grouped these themes into larger clusters to identify the specific challenges that the international students face and means to address such while accessing college education in the Philippines.

The researchers themselves conducted the survey and the interview except when one or some of them were the teacher/s of the respondents. In the event the respondents were their own students, the teacher-researcher involved inhibited from surveying and interviewing.

Both the MPQ and the interview were in English. No translation of the MPQ into the native tongue of respondents was done because the researchers considered language as one of the possible adjustments participants encountered in their education in the Philippines. No interpreter was needed during the process.

After obtaining the clearance and permission from the Angeles University Foundation School of Medicine Institutional Ethics Review Committee (AUF SOM IERC), the researchers requested participants to sign an informed consent signifying participation. Those who agreed to participate answered MPQ Short Form. A qualitative interview was also conducted among 10 randomly selected participants representing the nationalities involved. The interview was done in a private room where the participants felt comfortable.

The statistical analysis was conducted in the following order: (a) descriptive statistics were generated such as frequency, percentage, mean and standard deviation for the study variables, (b) Cronbach’s alpha was used to examine internal consistencies of each subscale, (c) Pearson correlation was utilized to examine the relationship of the study variables, and (d) Independent t test was computed to assess the difference between dimensions and length of stay. Statistical analysis was completed with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software version 17.0 (2008). Qualitative data were analyzed and categorized as themes using conventional and inductive approaches.

C. Results and Discussion

One hundred and one (101) international students participated in this survey at a private university in Central Luzon, Philippines. Their residence and nationality are presented in Table 1. The respondents’ length of stay in the Philippines ranged from year one to three years or
longer; 72.3% resided in the Philippines for 1-2 years, 15.8% for 3-4 years, 5.9% for 5-6 years, and 5.9% for seven years. They came from over eight countries, 88.1% of the participants were from India, 5% from Timor Leste, 2% from Nigeria, 1% from Korea, 1% from Kenya, 1% from USA, 1% from Bahrain and 1% from Tanzania.

Table 1. Demographic profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Length of Stay</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1-2 years</td>
<td>3-4 years</td>
<td>5-6 years</td>
<td>7 years</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Timor Leste</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kenya</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
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<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>0</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bahrain</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nigeria</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tanzania</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1 below shows how each of the five dimensions corresponds to the length of stay of the respondents. As shown in the figure, the cultural empathy, flexibility and open-mindedness dimensions follow the U-curve model while social initiative and emotional stability deviate from the model. The results show that ability to adjust in terms of empathy, flexibility, and open-mindedness increases over time.
Figure 1. Mean distribution of the multicultural personality dimensions corresponding to length of stay

A Pearson correlation was computed to assess the relationship between multicultural personality dimensions and length of stay (Table 2). Results indicated that cultural empathy ($r = -0.270, p < 0.006$), open-mindedness ($r = -0.270, p < 0.028$) were negatively correlated with length of stay while flexibility ($r = 0.206, p < 0.039$) was positively correlated with length of stay.

Table 2. Pearson correlation between dimensions of multicultural personality and length of stay (N=101)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Significant (2-tailed)</th>
<th>A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Empathy</td>
<td>-0.270**</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>0.206*</td>
<td>0.039</td>
<td>0.729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Initiative</td>
<td>-0.053</td>
<td>0.598</td>
<td>0.612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open-mindedness</td>
<td>-0.218*</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.760</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>0.160</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>0.712</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

Independent sample $t$-test was computed to examine the differences in multicultural personality dimensions of the respondents between 1-2 years length of stay and 3-4 years length of stay (Table 3). This study found that there were significant differences on respondents’ cultural empathy ($t (87) = 3.389, p = 0.001$) and open-mindedness ($t (87) = 2.610, p = 0.011$). No significant differences in the flexibility, emotional stability and social initiative were observed.

Table 3. Independent sample test between 1-2 years and 3-4 years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>$T$</th>
<th>Significant (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Mean difference</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Empathy</td>
<td>3.389</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.5192</td>
<td>0.2147, 0.8237</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>-1.411</td>
<td>0.162</td>
<td>-0.2203</td>
<td>-0.5307, 0.0901</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 shows the differences between respondents that belong to 3-4 years length of stay and 5-6 years length of stay and Table 5 shows the differences between respondents that belong to 5-6 years length of stay and 7 years length of stay in terms of the multicultural dimensions. This study found that there were no significant differences on respondents’ multicultural personality dimensions, $p<.05$.

Table 4. Independent sample test between 3-4 years and 5-6 years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>$T$</th>
<th>Significant (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Mean difference</th>
<th>Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Empathy</td>
<td>.303</td>
<td>.765</td>
<td>.1200</td>
<td>-.7095</td>
<td>.9495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>-.026</td>
<td>.979</td>
<td>-.0088</td>
<td>-.7118</td>
<td>.6943</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Initiative</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.985</td>
<td>.0063</td>
<td>-.6969</td>
<td>.7094</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open-mindedness</td>
<td>.183</td>
<td>.857</td>
<td>.0738</td>
<td>-.7713</td>
<td>.9188</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>.0000</td>
<td>-.5642</td>
<td>.5642</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Independent sample test between 5-6 years and 7 years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>Significant (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Mean difference</th>
<th>Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Empathy</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>.996</td>
<td>-.0167</td>
<td>-.8571</td>
<td>.8238</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>-1.32</td>
<td>.217</td>
<td>-.4500</td>
<td>-1.211</td>
<td>.3112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Initiative</td>
<td>-.245</td>
<td>.811</td>
<td>.4079</td>
<td>-1.009</td>
<td>.8088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open-mindedness</td>
<td>.188</td>
<td>.855</td>
<td>.0668</td>
<td>-.7229</td>
<td>.8562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>1.079</td>
<td>.306</td>
<td>.3167</td>
<td>-.3370</td>
<td>.9703</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6 and Table 7 show the differences in multicultural personality dimensions of respondents between 1-2 years length of stay and 3-7 years of stay respectively and 1-2 years and 5-7 years of stay respectively. This study found that there were significant differences on respondents’ cultural empathy (t(98) = 3.389, p = 0.001) (t(77) = 1.810, p = 0.001), flexibility (t (98) = -2.382, p = 0.019) (t(77) = -2.214, p = 0.021) and open-mindedness (t(98) = 2.500, p = 0.014) (t(77) = 1.642, p = 0.008). A decline in cultural empathy (mean=3.71 ± .47, mean= 3.22 ± .71) (mean=3.72 ± .48, mean= 3.35 ± .52) and open-mindedness (mean=3.66 ± .44, mean= 3.29 ± .83) (mean=3.68 ± .44, mean= 3.37 ± .47) was observed while there was an increase in flexibility (mean=2.59 ± .53, mean= 2.89 ± .62) (mean=2.61 ± .53, mean= 3.11 ± .61). No significant differences in the emotional stability and social initiative dimensions were observed.

Table 6. Independent sample test between 1-2 years and 3-7 years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significant (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Mean difference</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Empathy</td>
<td>4.029</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.4957</td>
<td>.2515 - .7398</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>-.2382</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.1257</td>
<td>-.54877 - -.0499</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Initiative</td>
<td>3.136</td>
<td>.481</td>
<td>-.1203</td>
<td>-.4577 - .2172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open-mindedness</td>
<td>2.500</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.3672</td>
<td>.07480 - .6596</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>.6900</td>
<td>.482</td>
<td>.0772</td>
<td>-.1450 - .2994</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7. Independent sample test between 1-2 years and 5-7 years

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Significant (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Mean difference</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cultural Empathy</td>
<td>1.810</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.5040</td>
<td>.2083 - .7997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flexibility</td>
<td>-2.214</td>
<td>.021</td>
<td>-.3850</td>
<td>-.7108 - .0592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Initiative</td>
<td>-1.327</td>
<td>.266</td>
<td>-.1913</td>
<td>-.5945 - .1664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open-mindedness</td>
<td>1.642</td>
<td>.008</td>
<td>.3797</td>
<td>.1018 - .6577</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The researchers coded the statements as to (1) the assigned number to a participant, (2) the number of question they answer, and (3) the number of idea they give to be able to extract themes. Below are the cultural challenges encountered by the respondents.

**Beginning Blues**

Four of the respondents felt that the most challenging time of their stay in the Philippines was at the beginning and specified academics, food, and language as their main concerns. Since Angeles University Foundation is known for its medical courses, most respondents were students of a medical degree (e.g., Psychology, Medical Technology, Biology), which they generally perceived as a struggle to survive.

In line, all of them took Special Filipino class in which they studied basic Filipino which to two respondents was another source of difficulty aside from English or the lingua franca. This practice was also noted in the study of Ran and Shiao-Yun (2015) who wrote about a special curriculum for foreign students. Similarly, in the study of Al Jarf (2008), the author concluded that Arabian college freshmen favored their second language English more than their native tongue especially because of the relevance of English in the global community. In the case of the respondents, they needed to learn Filipino which is not an international language but a part of the curriculum.

In terms of food, most respondents have Halal diet or have another food preference that led to food-related problems.

Also, one compared her country with the Philippines and realized the difference. They noted ways of people which they termed “culture” like drinking and homosexuality.

These findings agree with those of Ran and Shiao-Yun (2015). The cited researchers learned that the most difficult stage is the initial one and the common concerns are behavioral and cognitive adaptation. Open-mindedness on the food and ways of the people of the new culture may actually address concerns (Ran and Shiao-Yun 2015).

Below are some answers of participants.

In the beginning academics
Ah during the beginning\textsuperscript{2.1.1} it was very hard for me to learn the Filipino and English language\textsuperscript{2.1.2}. More of English. Another thing is when it comes to food\textsuperscript{2.1.3} During the beginning\textsuperscript{3.1.1} in my country, different is the environment\textsuperscript{3.1.2} [sic]. Because the beginning [sic] I have [sic] some problems like with ideas, habits\textsuperscript{3.1.3}. Like drinking\textsuperscript{3.1.4} The homosexual problem\textsuperscript{3.1.5} is I think more wide [sic] here.

**Middle and Present Dilemma**

In the middle of their stay, one still found language as a problem while during the conduct of the interview; some respondents shared on-going difficulties such as academics, language, and weather. One even mentioned a personal problem on water and allergies. Likewise, Wilbur and Scott (2013) mentioned that reflection such as thinking about dilemma can result in adaptation.

Some statements of participants are below.

- during middle\textsuperscript{10.1.6} I think only the language\textsuperscript{10.1.5}
- At present\textsuperscript{7.1.1} Because if there is difficult subject\textsuperscript{7.1.2}
- Weather\textsuperscript{7.1.3}, it was hard. I did not learn the language\textsuperscript{7.1.4} (Filipino)
- After five years\textsuperscript{10.1.7} only about graduation\textsuperscript{10.1.8}
- Actually, I do not like the weather\textsuperscript{10.1.9}. It is hot here.

Awareness of the community is also helpful as confirmed by the results of Engle (2014).

**Friends on the Side**

When asked about their ways to cope, most of them named their friends as their aide. This is understandable since they live on their own in the Philippines while their families live abroad. Since their concerns are academics, food, and language; their friends who study the same degree program and of the same age could come to their rescue. These friends are Filipino or foreigner from the same country as the respondent. One claimed that he chooses whom to approach depending on the nature of his problem. Communicating means these students have favorable social initiative as they are able to empathize with others, listening to them and being sensitive to their feelings.

On the contrary, in the study of Ran and Shiao-Yun (2015) it was noted that foreign students do not always mingle with domestic students.

- I asked my friend\textsuperscript{1.2.1} to help me,
- In terms of communication with friends, I tell friends\textsuperscript{2.2.2} about problems and friends\textsuperscript{5.2.2}.
- I have friends\textsuperscript{6.2.1}.
- In terms of academics mostly [sic] I asked friends\textsuperscript{2.3.1}.
- For emotional problem, most of the time I am stressed [sic]. I just have to relax and talk to friends\textsuperscript{2.3.5}.
- For financial problem, I just have to tell friends, from the same country\textsuperscript{2.3.5}.
Family as Refuge

To cope, some respondents contact their family, particularly parents, abroad. They raise whatever problem they have with family members to seek comfort. This finding is in consonance with that of Wong-Lo and Bai (2013) who underscored parental support as a source of support. The constant communication with family may however hinder foreign students from interacting with people in the new environment or improving cultural empathy.

Teacher as Guide

One respondent recognized their teachers for the help of the latter mostly on academic-related difficulties. They approached their teachers if they had questions on the lesson or requirement, on English, and on how to do something. One cited her college as the one giving support for it assigned an adviser for foreign students whom one referred to as “mentor” for helping her even with personal needs. One respondent also singled out her dean as her adviser on whichever matter that bothered her. In general, dialogue with learners speed up adaptation as also found in the study of Wong-Lo and Bai (2013). Similarly, the study of Wilbur and Scott (2013) discovered that friendly environment can yield to adaptation. Cultural empathy is evident in this case.
Our adviser\(^9\)\(^4\)\(^1\) [sic]. He helps us with teachers. For difficult subject [sic] he can help. I think he is good [sic] help.

We have mentors\(^9\)\(^4\)\(^2\). It is revalida [sic]. We come for anything, personal (problem). Different professors help.

We have adviser\(^8\)\(^2\)\(^3\) [sic] in the college.

We have foreign adviser\(^9\)\(^3\)\(^3\). We have anything [sic] kind of problem, we go to him.

and then I need some hint [sic] for difficult question\(^1\)\(^3\)\(^2\) [sic]

At times we go to dean’s office\(^8\)\(^4\)\(^2\). When we complain, they [sic] always take action. Our dean, she never missed [sic] us whenever we go to her.

On the other hand, foreign students in the work of Ran and Shiao-Yun (2015) were challenged to deal with their problems independently as part of training.

Self-Study as Means

Some respondents considered themselves independent and studied on their own not just their lessons but also some words in English through reading and memorization. Engle (2014) also arrived at analogous findings. Flexibility, empathy, and social initiative, on the other hand, may be low if a foreign student does things on his/her own all the time.

We did self-study\(^9\)\(^2\)\(^2\).
I study\(^10\)\(^2\)\(^1\)
memorizing vocab\(^10\)\(^2\)\(^2\) [sic].
I read\(^10\)\(^2\)\(^5\) more on English.
Understanding the difficult vocabulary\(^1\)\(^3\)\(^1\)

Personal Tutor as Assistant

Because language is an issue to cope with, one respondent a private tutor on language along with other foreign students not interviewed. One said that she had a tutor on English and on some assignments. The result agrees with the findings of Rubenfeld, Sinclair and Clement (2007) who noted that learning the language which is medium of instruction is a way to survive in the classroom. This means of coping shows social initiative and flexibility to combat communication barriers and to adjust to environment.

We do language class\(^8\)\(^2\)\(^2\) also.
Before I had tutor\(^10\)\(^2\)\(^3\) [sic] for I think almost four years.
It is like another school only study English\(^10\)\(^2\)\(^4\) [sic].
Attitudes towards Food as Ways

For two respondents who had difficulty adjusting with food, there were two ways to address their problem. One decided to buy from nearby food stores while one imposed on himself food restrictions by not eating much instead of eating food he was not used to. Hence, some foreign students may not be open to trying the food in the new environment and to initiating empathy as well.

The food most of the time I had to buy

I do not eat much.

Personal Techniques to Adjust

One respondent had her own techniques for her unique concern (i.e. allergies) such as being quiet, consulting a doctor on her allergies, and boiling water to avoid having rashes because of water. The personal ways can be attributed to social initiative and emotional stability.

When people talk to me I say yes, but most of the time I am quiet.

With water, I had to be careful.

I went to the doctor.

Now I have to boil the water for bath.

University Services as Help

Part of the orientation of students whether foreign or Filipino is the information on guidance and counseling service. This practice supports the claim of Wilbur and Scott (2013) who said that information giving done by universities enables students to survive. Some participants went to the Guidance Office for advice on academics or personal issues while some visited the student affairs office or the hostel manager for one who resided in the university hostel. Thus, the university welcomes the students and listens to their concerns.

In line, in the research of Ran and Shiao-Yun (2015), the researchers noted that services to foreign students include residential area and other accommodations.

Guidance

Yes, when I was new

Academic, when I had to transfer

First I was IT student [sic], I have [sic] to shift. That is why I went to Guidance.

Guidance office is good. Throughout the course, if we have problem we come [sic]. They [sic] will prepare you [sic].

Guidance office is one of those where teacher [sic] would often listen.

I know Guidance.

We have counselors.

Some of my friends they [sic] go to student affairs. They go there.
Sometimes to our hostel manager but not about subject matter.

Personal Attribute as Hindrance

Some participants never went to anyone or any office when confronted with problems regardless of nature. Their characteristic of being shy, insecure, and aloof to some extent hindered them from sharing their dilemma. Some doubted the ability of a person or office to offer solution while one noted that the gender of the person concerned was what stopped her. The low flexibility and low social initiative are the rationale of this mindset. This state of mind may also be seen as independence or high emotional stability if doing so results in adjustment.

I did not go. You know I do not like discussing my problem. I feel insecure but he is very busy I think. I go to him sometimes. I do not know maybe because he is a male [sic]. I doubt if she can do that part (Academics). but I think I do not usually go (Guidance). I am shy. Shy

Results imply that the university is responsive to the needs of students by offering Special Filipino class, Guidance and Counseling services, and ideal residential area and providing a faculty adviser. These services and personnel are made known to foreign students through orientation and made accessible to them through referral. Classmates and staff also complement the friendly atmosphere evident through the foreign students’ constant consultation.

Also, since students need language and pedagogical assistance to help them cope with lessons and the environment using academic English, these students may have tutorial sessions on basic Filipino and on English or access to English as a Second Language (ESL) classes. These sessions must cater to their needs. Thus, instruction must be notional, functional, communicative, cultural sensitive, and non-threatening. These students may be grouped into levels of language proficiency for contextualized and adaptive lessons. The university may further promote to Filipino students the use of English as medium of communication even outside the classroom.

The university may also strengthen the organization among international students, sponsor activities, extra and co-curricular, to encourage camaraderie and review sessions between Filipino and foreign students; assign male and female faculty advisers; and possibly serve halal food.
Foreign students planning to study abroad may include in their goals interest, empathy, and open-mindedness as they learn about people and culture over time. They may also expect flexibility to improve as they stay longer in a different country. Hence, a foreign learner brings back to his country not just diploma, knowledge, and skills but also values linked to cultural adaptation.

D. Conclusions

The researchers learned that the cultural challenges international students encounter include academics, language, food, and other personal matters which they resolve or not through cultural empathy, flexibility, open-mindedness, social initiative, and emotional stability over time. Findings indicate that cultural empathy and open-mindedness are negatively correlated with length of stay while flexibility is positively correlated with length of stay. The university is keen in providing services and accommodations to the foreign students and may innovate ways to assist them better academically, especially on language improvement, and psychologically.

Future researchers may focus on other groups of foreign students, group them accordingly, use the extended version of MPQ, and/or correlate language proficiency or aptitude with multicultural personality.

Conflict of Interest

The researchers declare no conflict of interest in the conduct of this research.

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References


LOLJK 😄: Selected Facebook Posts’ Paralinguistic Features and its Perceived Effects in 2nd Language Learning

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Cauayan Campus, Isabela, Philippines

Abstract

The study aimed to describe how nonverbal cues are expressed in computer-mediated communication (CMC) such as Facebook posts where mainly everything is written. In principle, paralanguage are nonverbal vocal nuances in dialogue that adds meaning to a language used in contexts such as tone and pitch of voice, facial expressions, and gestures among others. However, this study aimed to describe how such paralinguistic features are used in computer-mediated communications. The study found out that these features take form by using capitalization and punctuations to replace nonverbal cues. Capitalization is used for emphasis or a louder, higher tone of voice. Series of punctuations can form emoticons/emojis to express their feelings. Ellipsis or multiple exclamation points also emphasize feelings. Lastly, the cyber laugh is also used. The result of this study proved that language could accommodate technologies that the new generations of Facebook users utilize to express themselves further. This study has become essential now that more research is done to explore the use of computer-mediated communication in second language learning. Understanding paralinguistic features which aid in meaning-making can contribute to the optimum utilization of CMC as instructional technologies in ESL classrooms.

Keywords: Paralinguistics, Computer-mediated communication, Facebook, language learning

Introduction

Quick changing communication technologies have changed language use, allowing new forms of discourse, and new ways to create and participate in communities. Social media
plays a fundamental role in language usage. The language of modern media text communication has been studied in a variety of technological contexts, including the internet and mobile communication, E-mail, Instant Messaging (IM) and SMS (short message service) and also social networking sites such as Twitter, Instagram, YouTube and Facebook which have already drawn millions of users who assimilated these sites into their daily lives.

With the advent of Facebook, computer-mediated communication (CMC) has become deeply integrated into people's lives. Facebook which was created in 2004 “as a cross between a tool for meeting new people and a platform for networking with people you already know” (Baron, 2010: 84) is currently one of the top social networking websites. On this social site, users can create an online account by filling personal information, interest with other users and share updates of the information given on a daily event. Participants may use this network application to interact with people they already know or to meet new people that are called friends, that is participants, who can post comments on each other’s pages and view each other’s profile. However, the focus of this study is the posting of status updates by users. The developing archive of status updates is a necessarily discontinuous and open unit that unfolds over time and is revised in keeping with the writer’s life experiences (Page, 2010). But the reports posted in status updates are neither extensive in length, nor do they focus on significant episodes in the speaker’s history. Instead, status updates typically focus on the minutiae of everyday events. Most often, status updates are used as an avenue to express one’s self or to narrate daily activities. Self-disclosure is defined as the “act of revealing personal information to others” (Archer, 1980; Rains, et.al. 2016). However, utterances with unexceptional content such as status updates are used to signal communicative connection between the writer and their Friends (Jakobson, 1988; Page, 2010).

Because of this, the Internet radically transformed the way people communicate. The forms and usage of a language evolve according to the needs of its users and the tools they can access for communication (Crystal, 2001: 70). Hence, much research in the field of linguistics is dedicated to examining how language is accommodated through technology. However, the bulk of studies done in CMC are focused in the linguistic aspect of the discourse. This prompted the researcher to carry out research that discusses the non-linguistic aspect of computer-mediated communication. In the context of CMC, traditional non-verbal communication is inadequate because of the distance of the participants. The fundamental question of the study is: How can a speaker get the variety of emotions across users expressed non-verbal cues, such as facial expression and tone of voice, in a purely textual medium?
Paralinguistics, from the Greek preposition παρά, means ‘alongside linguistics.’ Since it was used, in the middle of the last century, it was confined to the realm of human to human communication, but with a broad and a narrow meaning. Paralinguistic cues shall encompass vocal tone and non-lexical sounds, proxemics, haptics, posture, eye contact, gestures, and facial expressions. In face-to-face interaction, language relies on nonvocal ‘paralinguistic’ cues whose necessary functions are not entirely lost in mediated interaction but are reconstructed as the medium of their communication change. The social signals of physical interaction are altered into new functional spaces of communication (Schandorf, 2013). In the context of CMC, traditional non-verbal communication is limited as a result of the spatial displacement of the participants. As such, the most relevant paralinguistic cues will be onomatopoeic items and textual variation such as capital letters indicative of loudness, facial expression translated into emoticons or icons representing the common facial expression, and gestures, also shown by emoticons/emojis.

This study’s significance was prompted by the increasing number of exploratory research in utilizing social networking sites (SNS) such as Facebook on language learning. In the past, different social networking sites were introduced mainly for communication purpose, but today they are considered an essential tool for language learning and acquisition. The Internet provides different sources that can be used as authentic materials. Educators can optimally use SNS-mediated communication to facilitate collaborative language learning and to provide authentic language education settings which are an essential aspect regarding achieving high communicative competence in a foreign language. Hence, to maximize the benefits of CMC, it is critical to understand all features of language use in technology, not only the linguistic aspect but also the paralinguistic cues.

**Methodology**

The researcher gathered the corpus of her research on the Facebook wall of the 20 respondents by capturing photos of their status updates. A qualitative design was employed in the analyses of the Facebook posts. Twenty Facebook friends who are the researcher’s students majoring in English with ages that range from 17-20 were chosen as the respondents of this study. The researcher purposively selected Facebook users from researcher's friends' list on Facebook as actively online and particularly posting an online status. The researcher selected status updates from the respondents which exhibit paralinguistic cues. Discourse analysis is then done on the status updates of the respondents. The researcher used convenient examples from Facebook because of their instant availability. Screenshots were gathered from the
author’s personal Facebook account over several months in addition to arbitrary searches for emoticons/emojis, iconic expressions, and nonverbal cues. Since the purposes here are analogical, illustrative and classificatory, there is no attempt to quantify their use. The examples have been chosen merely to illustrate such paralinguistic features from the actual status updates by real Facebook users.

Analysis

Since participants of text-based computer-mediated communication cannot express emphasis by sonic means such as pitch, intonation, and rhythm, they invented a smart way to emphasize written text. The following texts have been isolated within the transcripts and the paralinguistic features identified where patterned from the preliminary designation done in the study of John Carey (1980).

Spatial Arrays

While some users borrow a standard letter format, others treat the page space as a canvass on which they paint with words and letters, in which they are free to leave space between words, skip lines, and paragraph each new sentence. Some spatial arrays are actual graphics: arrangements of letters to create a picture (Carey, 1980). Majority of the status updates done by the respondents employ emojis, an updated version of emoticons. Emoticons, from the word, emote and icon, makes use of punctuation to form faces. Examples of these are :-) :-( or @--}---. However, through the advent of more advanced technologies such as smartphones, emoticons also become sophisticated and became emojis.

The word ‘emoji’ comes from the Japanese language: 絵 (e ≡ picture) 文 (mo ≡ writing) 字 (ji ≡ characters) (Davis & Edberg, 2016; Hakami, 2017). Emoji are actual icons that appear on the keyboard and can be used in texting digital communication media. It is changing our speech patterns. In recent years, text emoticons have been profoundly investigated and considered to be the way of conveying thoughts and feelings by simulating nonverbal signs in speech (Rezabek & Cochenour, 1998; Wolf, 2000; Crystal, 2001). Nonverbal information is the piece of information that the human brain processes and recognizes as an emotional interaction when perceiving an emoticon or an emoji (Yuasa, Saito, & Mukawa, 2011; Hakami, 2017). People read these picture characters (i.e., emoji) as
emotional information and not words; thus, texting with emoji is as vital as texting with words to clearly articulate the meaning of messages via digital communication.

“I need to grow more!😊😊”(SU No. 1) In this status, his statement of growing more is accented by two emojis used: a smiling face with a halo to represent an angel or a good person, and a face with smiling eyes and a closed smile turning up to rosy cheeks which expresses genuine happiness and various warmth. The emojis used pointed the user’s desire for self-improvement rather than the literal sense of physical growth.

Emojis are also used to tell part of their narratives. In this status, “OFFICIALLY ENROLLED! In Jesus name! 😊😊😊😊😊😊” (SU No.2). Written in all caps, OFFICIALLY ENROLLED emphasizes the user’s gladness in being enrolled. It could be noted that the emojis used, such as the smiling face with a halo, pointing to a symbol of a graduation hat, suggest that the user is about to finish her schooling. Same is true with “I moved on! 😏😏” (SU No. 3). This statement illustrates the internal struggle of the respondent because his statement contradicts the emojis he had used. He first used a happy cry emoji, then a loudly crying emoji, to an anguished face.

Meanwhile, in this status “Defense! Defense! Defense! 🏀ارة🙏😊” (SU No. 3). The status of this respondent consists of one word that is repeated thrice: defense. The reduplication of words, simply put, refers to the fact that words are repeated, sometimes directly after each other. Concerning the same word is repeated several times in a row, word repetition, like the repetition of letters, helps to highlight emphasis. Five emojis were used to complete his status. The first one is an image of an orange basketball, a printed page curled at the bottom, a light bulb, two hands placed firmly together (folded hand), and a smiling face with a halo. Typically, the term defense is used in sports like basketball to refer to the maneuvers done by a team to prevent the other team from scoring. It has also become a chant from Filipino audience during basketball games. However, the next emojis suggest that the respondent is not referring to basketball, despite the usage of the first emoji, because the second one is a paper curled at the bottom and the next is a light bulb which indicates an idea. Because he is a student doing his undergraduate study, the defense in his status means that it is, in fact, a thesis defense he is praying for, indicative of the last two emojis, a praying hand and a smiling face with a halo.
Another status update which used emojis to tell a story is: “I really hate this feeling!❤💔💔💔💔💔” (SU No. 4). Despite not mentioning what ‘this’ is referring to, the emojis used gave a clue about the feeling that he hated. The three emojis used is even a small story by itself because the first one is a heart pierced with an arrow depicting a falling in love phase, followed by an emoji of two hearts indicative of being in love. Unfortunately, it ended in a broken heart.

Most paralinguistic features can have more than one meaning. A feature might indicate a relaxed tone, intimate relation with the receiver, or just sloppiness in composition. Readers must depend on the surrounding context (lexicons and other paralinguistic features) to limit the range of possible meanings. In this status, “Officially✔_APPROVED. Thank you so much, Lord!😊” (SU No. 5). It made use of the emojis to explain what has been made official. Status like this can be quite ambiguous to people not updated on the life of the user. The context of friendship allows for statements that those outside the group cannot make or would possibly not understand. For someone who is not acquainted with the context of the user, the post might not make sense. However, for people who know the respondent, they would understand that she just finished college and is officially starting a new job. The 100% and check emoji were used to tick off one of the much-needed checklists in life, which is securing a stable job after graduation. She also used a handbag, watch and bag of money to probably mean she would finally be able to earn and buy things for herself. The post was ended with giving thanks to the Lord together with a smiling face with a halo. The same is true with the status “5 down, more to go🙌ly_scores” (SU No. 6) where it would not make sense to everyone. However, those who know the user, or probably has the same activity with her, knows that she is talking about a homework given by their professor. The emojis use, two hands raised in the air, denotes a celebration of success probably meant to pertain to the five things that she has finished. One of the three wise monkeys was also used, Iwazaru or Speak-no-evil monkey. This is sometimes used as a playful I didn’t want to say that expression or my lips are sealed / I won’t say anything.

However, emoji may not be correctly interpreted because of their nuanced graphical details. Emoji also have different appearances due to the respective platform, leading to misunderstandings. Therefore, without text attached to them, emoji can be translated into different meanings based on the context and the part of speech (Chang, Hecht, Johnson, Miller, Thebault-Spieker, & Terveen, 2016; Hakami, 2017).
“❤️❤️❤️❤️❤️❤️❤️❤️” (SU No. 7) This status update consists only of numerous forms of heart emojis. The user wanted to express not just being in love, but over-the-moon in love, because the number of hearts used, was used to denote the intensity of feelings. Moreover, the status “👏👏👏👏👏👏👏👏” (SU No. 8) does not also make use of words. This respondent's post is about him being sick emphasized by a sleeping face, flushed face, face with a medical mask, confounded face, loudly crying face, a person getting a massage, and a cat variant of the face with tears of joy. He may not literally have all these facial expressions but has chosen emojis that best describes his feeling of being sick. Lastly, in the status “📚📚 vs. 🎆🍻🍷” (SU No. 9), the respondent just posted a series of emojis depicting her struggle. The only word in her status is VS, an abbreviation of versus. She used different kinds of emojis for books and notebooks as a metonym for education or studying while party poppers, beer mugs and wine glass for fun and parties.

Besides conveying emotions, emoji are used for other purposes, like establishing conversations, enabling playful interactions and creating confidential uniqueness within a relationship (Kelly & Watts, 2015; Hakami, 2017). Though emojis cannot elicit mimicry (Derks, Fischer & Bos, 2008), they do apparently fulfill the need for emotional contact, allowing CMC participants to develop intimacy and emotional connection to an equal or perhaps even greater degree than face-to-face speakers and listeners (Walther, 1995).

Vocal Spelling

These features include non-standard spellings of words which bring attention to sound qualities (Carey, 1980). In the status, “Owe you a lot 😎😎 Thankyouuu 😎😎” (SU No.10), an excessive usage of the letter u in thank you was done by the respondent. The reduplication of letters, noticeably, refers to the fact that letters are repeated, sometimes in long strings. In terms of one and the same letter is repeated several times in a row, Werry (1996) explains that “a complex set of orthographic strategies designed to compensate for the lack of intonation and paralinguistic cues that interactive written discourse imposes on its users” is made use of in Internet chat. For instance, he makes clear that reduplicated letters are “used to represent drawn-out or expressive intonation” (Werry, 1996).

Same is right with the next status “MG Episode 34 Eng sub pplllleeeaaasssee” (SU No. 11) where some words are abbreviated (MG stands for Meteor Garden, a series available on Netflix) yet the word please was drawn out. Persevering face. Face with scrunched
up and closed eyes, frowning was used to emphasize the user's feeling further. This emoji is used to show helplessness in a situation or on the verge of tears.

**Lexical Surrogates**

People use words to show their "tone of voice" in the message. In addition, vocal segregates (e.g., uh huh, hmmm, yuk yuk) are written commonly within the body of texts (Carey, 1980). From a linguistics and pragmatics perspective, Wharton (2009 as cited by Schandorf, 2013), describe interjections as ‘vocal gestures.’ While gestures have been generally dismissed from conventional, Ameka discusses interjections as ‘relatively conventionalized vocal gestures (or more generally, linguistic gestures)' (Ameka, 1992; Schandorf, 2013). Just like in the status, “Poof! Gone. That's it.” (SU No. 12) where poof, an interjection to indicate sudden disappearance was used. In another example, “Is feeling blah. Tsk tsk tsk. 😞😞😞” (SU No. 13), the respondent is feeling blah. Blah is a slang term to mean nonsense or rubbish. It is an onomatopoeic word for idle, meaningless talk. It is used to refer to something that is boring or without meaningful content. Furthermore, her status consists of another written sound, tsk tsk tsk, pronounced as an alveolar click as an exclamation of contempt, disdain or impatience. This is further pointed out by the usage of a confused, expressionless and unamused face together with a face with head-bandage. Moreover, another status merits attention. “Tugudugshhh meh hart. What the fvck! 😂” (SU No. 14) Tugudugshhh is a written sound imitating the beating of the heart. The letter v is also used in the word fuck to substitute letter u as a filter or to lessen the effect of swearing a social media platform.

Furthermore, laughter in face-to-face conversation provides illocutionary force, just like many other forms of nonverbal communication. By laughing, the laughter indicates a desire for words to be interpreted as play (McKay, 2015). When we communicate over the internet, we need to demonstrate that a particular play is underway just as we do face-to-face. Laughter is not strictly associated with humor, and the purpose of laughter is communicative (McKay, 2015). Laughter is the means by which one expresses his or her desire to carry out a nonserious or playful interaction. Though lol, haha, and other similar forms of online laughter do not qualify as graphical representations, and are not often treated as emoticons, they have been referenced as pragmatic particles which communicate illocutionary force (Curzan & Mejia, 2012; McWhorter, 2013; McKay, 2015). Haha is a word that has been around for thousands of years.
The usage of different variants of written laughter also denotes different degrees of intensity. There is a difference in usage of a mere ‘haha’ from ‘HAHAHAHAHAHA.’ The status, "HA HA HA HA HA! Can hardly contain my happiness rn. Wooh!" (SU No. 15) is indicative of the joy the user is experiencing at the time he posted the status. It was also highlighted through the usage of an interjection. The same is true with the other status "Facebook kasii, stop asking what’s on my mind hahaha" (SU No. 16) however, the intensity of the laugh is lesser.

Manipulation Of Grammatical Markers

Grammatical markers such as capitalization, periods, commas, quotation marks, and parentheses are manipulated by users to add stress, indicate a pause, modify the tone of a lexical item and signal a change of voice by the composer (Carey, 1980).

The term “unconventional punctuation” refers to the fact that punctuation marks are used in an irregular and alternative way; for example, several punctuation marks in a row as well as a mixture of punctuation marks following one another. Regarding this type of irregular punctuation, Crystal said that "unusual combinations of punctuation marks can occur, such as (to express pause) ellipsis dots (...) in any number, repeated hyphens (---), or the repeated use of commas (,,,);" explaining that "emphasis and attitude can result in exaggerated or random use of punctuation, such as !!!!!!! or £$£%! (2001:89). What is more, Crystal makes clear that "some odd combinations of punctuation marks can appear at the end of a sentence" (Crystal, 2001). In the status, “Why do people look at me as if I know it all?.. urgg!!! It annoys me 😞 😞 😞” (SU No. 17), an excessive use of punctuation as well as a written sound urgg was used to emphasize her expression of annoyance and exasperation. The same with “😀😀😀 BTS concert!!” (SU No. 18), an excessive use of the exclamation point was done in this post to highlight his excitement on the concert of his favorite band. In addition, three smiling faces with heart instead of eyes, or heart eyes emoji was used to indicate an expression of love.

Herring and Dresner (2010 as cited by Schandorf, 2013), argue that punctuation and (especially) emoticons function as markers of illocutionary force and perlocutionary intention – communicative adaptations to the textual medium – rather than simple one-to-one iconic mappings to physical expressions.

Aside from unconventional punctuation, manipulation in capitalization was also used. In this context, informal conventions, altered spellings, and novel textual forms, such as emojis, are understood as ‘debased’ despite the obvious historical facts of linguistic evolution and the entirely normal and natural human inclination to play with language (Crystal, 2001,
2008). In the status of the user, “EVERYONE is happier without me” (SU No. 19), the user capitalized all the letters of the word EVERYONE to emphasize her feeling of loneliness and sadness was accentuated by the disappointed face used. Another status, “THANK YOU po!❤️😊” (SU No. 20) Capitalization of the words THANK YOU denotes the user's ardent gratefulness to the Creator, a clue given by the emoji of a hand pointing upwards. A red heart was also used to show his love as well as an emoji of a smiling face with a halo. An insertion of po, a Tagalog politeness marker, is also done to show respect. In the status, “I’m GAY. 😊” (SU No. 21), the respondent posted a declaration of his sexuality and highlighted the word GAY by capitalizing it. He finished it off with an emoji of revolving hearts and a rainbow both of which represents love and acceptance. The rainbow which came to be the gay pride flag has become a symbol for the LGBT movement to celebrate diversity. The users who omit capitalization, omit it altogether and use only lowercase letters unless they want to stress a part of their message. For these users, capitalization gains new function – a paralinguistic one - in place of the grammatical one.

Moreover, adding unnecessary spaces such as the status “O P T I M I S T I C”(SU No. 22) are also largely done because of aesthetic purposes. It is also done to express being ‘loud and clear.’ In this status, ”B r e a t h 😊😊” (SU No. 23) the spacing may also be a metaphor of the breathing itself, where letters can also “breathe” as opposed to being closely tied up with each other all the time. Despite the fact that ‘reliance on extralinguistic context is associated with spoken language’ (Baron, 1998; Rowe, 2009; Schandorf, 2013), social media forms offer a number of marginally verbal expressions that blur the lines among the conventions of physical and mediated interaction. Papacharissi argues that ‘given the level of control over verbal and non-verbal cues in a variety of online contexts, individuals may put together controlled performances that “give off” exactly the “face” that they intend’ (2009; Schandorf, 2013).

**Minus Features**

The absence of certain features or standard work in composition may also lend a tone to the message (Carey, 1980). In this status, “gurl, don’t talk to me😊” (SU No. 24), the lack of spacing suggests a continuous statement to the one being referred as gurl, a variant spelling of the word girl. This type of omission refers to the fact that words are written together without spaces separating them. A smiling face with a smiling eyes was used to finish the statement. Ending with a smiley that contradicts the message signifies a passive-aggressive attitude coming from the user. The omission of blank space between words is probably a consequence
of the space as well as time pressure in IRC. Because IRC is fast-paced, messages must be written quickly in order not to miss to reply to a post, and in order not to annoy other participants with a long wait. Therefore, to keep up with the fast pace of IRC, the blank space between words is sometimes omitted to save time and space. However, some users intentionally omit spaces largely for aesthetic purposes or as an imitation on the construction of hashtags. Another status update “I'mjustapieceoftrash.” (SU No. 25) An omission of spaces is also purposefully done in this post. A symbol showing a person putting litter (rubbish) in the trash (rubbish bin) was used to end the post. It speaks of sadness and feeling of insignificance and was emphasized by omitting literal spaces between words to lessen the space his post will occupy.

Meanwhile, the lack of emojis and punctuation could indicate indifference or lack of feeling. Just like in the status “whatever makes you happy” (SU No. 26). Those who get into the habit of using smileys can also find themselves in the position of having their unmarked utterances misinterpreted precisely because they have no smiley attached to them.

The intended receiver of a message and an outsider who attempts to analyze the text, must deal with the construct of paralinguistic features. Initially, the reader must distinguish anomalies in the system and unintended typing errors from the deliberate use of repetition, spacing, among others. Afterwards, the reader must investigate the immediate context of the feature and asses the usage with similar elements in the same message, in other messages by the composer, or in other messages by the general population of users.

**Perceived Effects of Respondents in Language Learning**

There are studies dedicated to exploring how computer-mediated communication can be used in second language learning. There are also studies done to see how paralinguistic features can aid in teaching English. However, this study begins to delve how paralinguistic features in computer-mediated communication can be used in language learning. There are many approaches that teachers can adopt in using CMC to facilitate the L2 learning process such as discussion boards, chats, or authentic texts such as status and comments through collaborative work and negotiation of meaning (Hata, 2003).

**a. Nonverbal surrogates**

When asked, one of the respondents answered that paralinguistic features in Facebook reinforces the meaning of the user, primarily when used together with the actual post. We cannot do without visual communication and the usage of paralinguistic features in their posts
aids to ratify the communication or to clarify what the user is intending to say. In this instance, emojis act as non-verbal surrogates, signalling the reader on the intended facial expression of the writer, and giving additional social cues to further support understanding of the content of the message (Alshenqeeti, 2016). Natural language is not often supplemented by speech without emotional cues or physical gestures, rendering it multimodal. This is how emojis and cyberlaughs are used in computer-mediated communication. Through this, writers can now convey thoughts and feelings virtually which, in turn, enhance verbal communication.

b. A form of Language

Another respondent felt that using cyber laugh or emojis are convenient because it replaces long sentences. Emojis’ possibilities now are limitless in terms of communication because it resembles that of a code system. Unlike a standard alphabet, which usually starts with a signifier (i.e. illustrating an object such as “house”) to indicate a signified item (a definite house), emojis could be used to share a set image which suggests relationship to the house or what it means in the message, with one or more pictorial representations, instead of long drawn messages of clarification (Alshenqeeti, 2016).

In this respect, the conventions of speech theory still apply, suggesting there is a language base for emojis (Kavanagh, 2017). Emojis can be seen as comparable to logographs, as they can represent a singular morpheme, or word, or multiple emotional reactions. As such they are a language, but one with universal concepts (Brisson, 2015) and have a more extensive comprehension potential amongst different cultures.

c. Variations in paralinguistic usage

It is common misconception that the usage of emojis and cyber laughs in computer-mediated communication only exists in the younger generations. However, the real deal is on the extent of exposure on the usage of it. As Nishimura (2015) have said, emoji and cyber laughs seem to be grounded in the exposure and experience of technology of someone in their own surroundings. Older generations who use technology a lot, may it be through their work or their offspring/grandchildren, are more tolerant of such changes. This highlights that language in visual forms can traverse generational as well as cross-cultural boundaries.

There is a certain amount of universality in the nature of paralinguistic features, and emojis and cyber laughs that represent them can be used to communicate emotion universally. One of the respondents said that using Facebook can lessen misinterpretation of meanings
because emojis, like facial expressions, are the same for all. Given that many facial expressions of emotion are universal this also underlines the potential universality of the emoji language (Azuma, 2012). Common facial expressions are often universal.

All of them thinks that albeit neglected, paralinguistic features, especially in computer-mediated communication, can be useful in order to help gain greater L2 proficiency and the learners' capabilities for learning a language are maximized to their highest potential. Computer-mediated communication learning (CMCL) is deemed to foster not only linguistic competence but also communicative proficiency. To put it simply, CMCL assists classroom practice which aims on both form and meaning (Nguyen, 2010). Moreover, it was found that text-based on-line communication helps lessen communication apprehension. Language learners feel less uneasy in CMC because they can apply their reading and writing skills to the full extent (Jamshidi, 2012).

**Conclusion**

Based on the analysis done, users adjust to the constraints of technology and still make a way to get their message across. Efforts to replace vocal variations in pitch (intonation), loudness (stress), speed, rhythm, pause, and tone of voice in the form of an exaggerated use of spelling and punctuation, and the use of capitals, spacing, and special symbols for emphasis.

Facebook status updates have served many purposes, ranging from self-expression to news aggregation, to updates regarding a group or organization, and also vary in terms of the goals and intentions of the user. The new generation of users can now express themselves in various ways that are electronically intertwined. The paralinguistic features isolated such as spatial arrays, vocal spellings, lexical surrogates, manipulation of grammatical markers and minus features are strategies users employ to compensate for the nonverbal cues such as gestures, tone, and loudness of voice, humor and facial expressions. Gestures and facial expressions are done through the usage of emojis, tone and loudness of voice is through unconventional capitalization and punctuation and humor is through emojis or cyber laugh.

Studies of paralinguistics in text-based conversation have essential implications and revelations for the study of nonverbal communication and social cognition, as well as their intimate connection to and inseparability from (formal) language. The developments of computer technology have created new opportunities for language learning that cannot be found in traditional classrooms. Many environments such as computer-mediated communication (CMC) have been introduced to enhance language learning.

The examination of these phenomena in digital media contexts where face-to-face nonverbal gestures are replaced by textual paralinguistic forms such as those described here
can extend the study of natural language pragmatics into an essential and novel area of formally linguistic interaction. Given the versatility of FB, it is likely that such an online public resource could positively impact the learning experience of many students and be a springboard for real-world activities that are not necessarily associated with the educational environment.

Lastly, this study highlighted that there is an increasing value to paralinguistic features in CMC such as emojis and cyber laughs which stresses that they are an updated version of old language type. Despite some cultural varieties in the usage of these paralinguistic cues, their increasing prevalence globally shows that there is a possibility to avoid, or at least lessen, cross-culture misunderstanding.

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Comparing the Scores in Paper and Internet-Delivered TOEFL: Can an Unsupervised Online English Language Test Be Used for Placement?

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**Abstract**

The use of an unsupervised online language proficiency test has become popular for cost and time efficiency, especially for a no-stakes test. This study was aimed at exploring whether the results of an unsupervised online language test represent the students’ language proficiency by comparing them to a conventional paper-delivered supervised test. The instrument used for the study was TOEFL material provided by Educational Testing Service (ETS). The material used for the online test was different from that of the paper-delivered test. The online test was conducted two weeks before the paper-based test. The number of participants who completed both tests was 974. The results of both tests were compared by using statistical analysis. The statistical analysis result showed that the scores of the unsupervised online language test were significantly different from those of the supervised paper-delivered test, except for students with a B1 level in a listening comprehension test. Therefore, it can be concluded that an
unsupervised online English language test cannot be used even for a no-stakes test such as a placement test if it is delivered without supervision.

**Keywords:** internet-based language testing, placement, Test of English as a Foreign Language

**Introduction**

To deliver a test to a large number of participants requires a significant amount of time, cost, and energy, mainly because the test needs to be supervised by a number of proctors and scored by graders or raters. However, with broader availability of Internet connections, test institutions can widely deliver tests online, including language tests where speaking and listening subtests are involved (Fulcher, 1999, p. 289). The popularity of this internet-based test is credited for the efficiency of saving time and money. Some high-stakes tests have been administered online such as the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). The National English Ability Test (NEAT) in Korea is also delivered through the Internet (Peter, 2013, p. 7). In Indonesia, the National Final Examination for high school students is now administered online (Nirsal & Ali, 2017, p. 241). However, both tests are administered under supervision. Regularly, we need to conduct no-stakes tests such as for placement, a learning achievement tool, or research. Because the results of such a test do not affect learners’ grades, some researchers considered that the test does not need to be supervised (Rios & Liu, 2017). An unsupervised online test saves much time (Long, Shin, Gresslin, & Willis, 2018, p. 137), and for research purposes, it opens a possibility to obtain unlimited participants from various ages, backgrounds, and even nationalities, which will enable the better generalization of research results. However, research has not sufficiently investigated the reliability of the scores obtained by the students in unsupervised online language tests. Ladyshewsky (2015) compared the student performance in ‘supervised in-class’ vs. ‘unsupervised online’ multiple-choice tests and discovered that the scores between both tests were not significantly different. However, the study used different tests for each modality, and the author admitted the difficulty level of the test was different. In the current research, the test materials used in an unsupervised online English proficiency test and a conventional paper-delivered test had the same level of difficulty and reliability index. The results of this research are significant to decide whether an unsupervised online English language test, which is time and cost efficient, can be used for a

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Review of literature

Testing in language learning has been considered as a part of language teaching (Shohamy, 2017, p. 449). It is required for placement and assessment (Elder, 2017, pp. 272–273). For placement, teachers need to know the overview of their students’ level of language proficiency in order to better prepare teaching materials and instructions (Lam, 2010, p. 5; Shin, 2014, p. 53). In addition, students with different proficiency levels can be assigned to different homogenous groups, and they can be given a different instruction according to their proficiency (Bachman & Purpura, 2008, p. 458; Choe, 2010, p. 4; James & Templeman, 2009, p. 82). This will help students to learn and acquire language better. To measure the success of learning, testing can be used as an assessment tool (Fairclough, 2012, p. 124). Teachers can be informed of what students have not learned successfully in order to direct the foci of teaching in a later teaching and learning process (Bachman & Purpura, 2008, p. 459).

In addition to placement and assessment, testing can also be used to measure the level of language proficiency as a requirement for recruitment in a degree program or a profession (Shohamy, 2017, p. 441). A master’s degree in English-speaking countries such as the United Kingdom, the United States, and Australia requires certain levels of English proficiency determined by the TOEFL or IELTS (Elder, 2017, p. 275), that is standardized English proficiency tests. Universities in other countries which offer courses for international students also require the prospective students to demonstrate their English eligibility based on the TOEFL or IELTS, such as Malaysia (Abidin & Jamil, 2015, p. 1). In Indonesia, where English is taught as a foreign language, university students were required to sit for a language test and obtain a certain minimum score as a requirement for graduation (Masfufah, 2018, p. 66).

The real purpose of language testing is to picture the language proficiency of the test takers (Wullur, 2011, p. 59). This objective is not very easy to achieve because the language produced in an artificial condition might be different from how people use it in authentic daily conversation (Bachman & Clark, 1987, p. 27). Years of research should be conducted to plan the construct of a standardized language test such as the TOEFL IBT (Internet-based TOEFL) to be able to replicate as closely as possible the real English performance of a test taker (Biber et al., 2004), and another year to develop a test (ETS, 2010, p. 4).

Modes of language test administration

Generally, there are two types of language test, i.e., an oral test and a written test. These tests can be delivered in the forms of paper and pencil, computer-based (also discuss intranet),
and Internet-based (also discuss mobile delivery). A paper-based test is the most popular type of test delivery due to its simplicity. Both test takers and test administrators perceived a paper-based test as easy (Noubandegani, 2012, pp. 91–92). However, many students consider that it is sometimes difficult to read texts in tests delivered on paper due to paper and printing quality (Jamiludin, Darnawati, & Uke, 2017, pp. 191–192). Meanwhile, paper and text quality are not issues in computer-based language tests, which were introduced at the end of the 20th century. The emergence of this test format was motivated by the fact that it is efficient, it is equivalent to a paper-based test, and it is considered an innovative solution to deliver a test which is adaptive and can provide automatic, intelligent feedback (Suvorov & Hegelheimer, 2013, p. 594). However, many students consider that although this type of test has many advantages, it cannot outweigh its disadvantages (Noubandegani, 2012, p. 93). Although the texts are clear, it was difficult for some students to read on the screen for an extended period of time (Choi, Kim, & Boo, 2003). Similar problems were also perceived by students taking an Internet-based test (Gardiner & Howlett, 2016, p. 80). Both computer and Internet-based tests use a similar delivery system, i.e., a computer screen. With the advent of the Internet, it is now possible to deliver computer-based tests through the Internet. This opens the possibility to conduct language tests without a time constraint (Long et al., 2018, p. 138). Language tests can be accessed on any computer as long as there is an active Internet connection. Since the requirements to access the test are an Internet connection and Internet browser, an Internet-based test can also be delivered through smartphones (Brunfaut, Harding, & Batty, 2018, p. 4).

Research on modes of test delivery has focused on performance and perception. In terms of performance, many research studies have investigated whether the delivery system influences the test taker’s performance, and the results of their research studies, according to Brunfaut, Harding, and Batty (2018, p. 4), “has not led to uniform conclusions.” Many researchers found that the test takers obtained statistically similar writing scores regardless of the mode of delivery (Brunfaut et al., 2018, p. 2018; Choi et al., 2003; Karadeniz, 2009; Öz & Özturan, 2018). However, some researchers discovered that test takers got better scores in a computer-based test, compared to those in a paper-based test (Nikou & Economides, 2016; Owston, Murphy, & Wideman, 1992; Yu, Livingston, Larkin, & Bonett, 2004). Other researchers such as Solak (2014) also found that students’ scores in the paper-based test were significantly higher than in the other test form. Fulcher (1999, p. 291) suspected that these different results could be explained by the variable of computer familiarity. Level of language proficiency also contributed to these conflicting results (Retnawati, 2015). In terms of the test
takers’ perceptions, there has been much research on which mode of delivery is preferable for test takers. Nugroho, Kusumawati, and Ambarwati (2018, p. 4) found that students who were given a paper-based test preferred to have a computer-based test, and those who were given a computer-based test preferred the other, although both groups have previously been given a computer-based test. Previous research has discovered that students’ preference of a paper-based test over the computer and Internet-based tests is influenced by their computer skills (Jamil, Tariq, & Shami, 2012; Lim, Ong, Wilder-Smith, & Seet, 2006, p. 602).

**Test supervision**

High-stakes tests, such as standardized English language tests, are always conducted with structured supervision. Studies on supervision in language testing are very rare. However, much research has been conducted in high-stakes and medium-stakes tests in other fields. Some researchers found that students tended to have lower scores when the medium and high-stakes tests were supervised (Carstairs & Myors, 2009; Daffin Jr. & Jones, 2018; Prince, Fulton, & Garsombke, 2008). Other researchers found that testing strategies (either supervised or unsupervised) did not significantly affect students’ scores in high-stakes and medium-stakes tests (Ladyshewsky, 2015; Weiner & Hurtz, 2017). These conflicting results indicate that supervision is required in high-stakes and medium-stakes tests. However, the result of a research study conducted by Rios and Liu (2017) suggests that supervision is not required in a low-stakes test, as long as the test score is the concern. Although cheating is the greatest fear for an unsupervised test, Ladyshewsky (2015, pp. 895–896) stated that cheating is not the biggest concern because, according to Ashraf (2007, p. 12), hard-working students do not allow less serious students to cheat from them. However, in a language test cheating is not merely limited to getting help from other students. Using prepared notes or a dictionary are very prevalent methods of cheating on an English exam (Ahmadi, 2012, p. 157).

**Material and method**

This study used a quantitative method. As the name suggests, the study used numerical data and analyzed them by statistical methods. Therefore, the results of the research can be used to seek generalization to other contexts, as is the purpose of quantitative research (Dornyei, 2007, p. 34).
**Research participants**

The participants for this research were freshmen at the Syiah Kuala University, the oldest and the biggest state university in Aceh, Indonesia. All students who enrolled in a General English course took the paper-delivered English test as their final exam, i.e., 3,880 students. Students who did not take the online test were eliminated. The authors also controlled time spent to finish the test. Students who finished the test in under 100 minutes were eliminated because it was too short, suggesting that the students did not take the test seriously. After controlling for participation and time, the number of participants became 974 across all faculties at the university. The following table provides the summarized description of research participants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Faculties</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Teacher Training</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Math and Sciences</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Economics and Business</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Law</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Veterinary</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Social and Politics</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Nursing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Marine and Fisheries</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Dentistry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|               | 246 | 728 | 974 |

Table 1 shows that the number of students taking the test in each group varied as did the distribution between male and female students. On average, the sample consisted of 25% male and 75% female students.
Research Instruments

There were two types of tests used in this research, i.e., an unsupervised Internet-delivered test and a supervised paper-delivered test. Materials from the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) designed by the Educational Testing Service (ETS) were used for both tests. Although test versions were different in each test, the difficulty level, discrimination index, and reliability level were similar. The test consisted of three sections, i.e., listening comprehension, structure and written expression, and reading comprehension. In listening comprehension, students need to answer 30 questions based on a short conversation for each question, eight items based on three more extended conversations, and 12 items based on three long talks. In the structure and written expression section, the first 15 items were completion questions, and the other 25 items were error analysis questions. The reading comprehension section consists of 50 questions based on five 350-400-word texts, with approximately ten questions for each text.

Data collection procedure

For the paper-delivered test, the students were seated based on exam standard seating. There were 150 students in one test. The test was supervised by a test coordinator and three proctors. The students were not allowed to bring their belongings to the test, including smartphones. All their belongings were kept in provided lockers. The students who were suspected of cheating during the test were given a warning by the proctors. For the listening section, the students listened to the audio through four loudspeakers, which were installed at each corner of the room. After the listening section, the times for each other section were written on a whiteboard, and the students were reminded about the remaining time when the test was about to finish.

For the Internet-delivered test, which was given two weeks before the paper-based test, students were told that the test was a practice test, and they would not be scored. The test was delivered through a Course Management System (CMS) application, i.e., Moodle, which was installed at the university domain and students could log in to the application by using their student portal log-in details on their computer or smartphone. The test is a part of the compulsory online learning module for General English course, and it was attempted after finishing all lessons and quizzes. Although the standard time for the test is two hours, the time limit set in the application was three hours, in case of Internet connection problems. Students were not given any feedback during or after the test, so they did not know either their scores or the correct answers.
Data analysis

The scores in both tests were compared using statistical analysis. To decide which formula was applicable to the data in this research, the Shapiro-Wilk Test was run by using R, open-source software for advanced statistical computing, to find out whether the data were normally distributed. The normal distribution was decided at the significance level of 0.05. The data distribution was considered normal if the p-value was higher than 0.05. After obtaining the normality, the hypothesis was tested. The formula used for hypothesis testing depended on whether the data were normally distributed, i.e., the paired sample t-test (normally distributed) or the Paired Sample Wilcoxon Test (not normally distributed), also calculated by using R. The null hypothesis was that both scores were similar, while the alternative hypothesis was that they were statistically different. The null hypothesis is accepted if the p-value is greater than 0.05; otherwise, the alternative hypothesis was accepted. Further analysis was also conducted by categorizing the sample based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) level. The scores were converted to the CEFR level based on Tannenbaum and Baron (2012). The distribution analysis was also performed to decide which formula to use for hypothesis testing. The number of students for each CEFR level is presented in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TOEFL scores</th>
<th>CEFR level</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Males</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&lt;337</td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>337 – 457</td>
<td>A2</td>
<td>209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>460 – 540</td>
<td>B1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>543 – 623</td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;623</td>
<td>C1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that only three CEFR levels were available, which is lower than what Mustafa (2018, p. 55) found in the previous year, and the students at the CEFR level of A2 dominated the sample. In the CEFR category, A1 and A2 were considered basic users level 1 and level 2 of the language, and B2 consisted of independent users level 1.
Results

After administering the online-delivered and the paper-based test, 974 participants took both tests within the duration of no fewer than 100 minutes, and the descriptive summary of the results is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Description of the test results in percentage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests</th>
<th>Sections</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paper-based</td>
<td>Listening comprehension</td>
<td>33.11%</td>
<td>6.00%</td>
<td>88.00%</td>
<td>0.110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Structure &amp; written expr.</td>
<td>31.04%</td>
<td>7.50%</td>
<td>80.00%</td>
<td>0.092</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading comprehension</td>
<td>33.31%</td>
<td>6.00%</td>
<td>68.00%</td>
<td>0.085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>32.59%</td>
<td>15.71%</td>
<td>70.71%</td>
<td>0.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet-based</td>
<td>Listening comprehension</td>
<td>47.28%</td>
<td>8.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0.240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Structure &amp; written expr.</td>
<td>46.68%</td>
<td>10.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0.209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading comprehension</td>
<td>54.83%</td>
<td>10.00%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0.218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>49.81%</td>
<td>12.86%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0.189</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The objective of this research was to find out whether the scores obtained in an unsupervised Internet-delivered test were statistically different or similar to those obtained in a supervised paper-delivered test. In order to decide which formula should be used to test the hypotheses, the data normality was calculated by using the Shapiro-Wilk Test, because the number of data was less than 2,000 with a significance level of 0.05. The results are presented in the following table.

Table 4: Results of Shapiro-Wilk Test for data distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests</th>
<th>Sections</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paper-based</td>
<td>Listening comprehension</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Structure and written expr.</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading comprehension</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score (total)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet-based</td>
<td>Listening comprehension</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Structure and written expr.</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading comprehension</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score (total)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on Table 4, all data were not normally distributed because p-values for all pairs were not higher than the significance level of 0.05. Therefore, the hypothesis testing was based on the Paired Sample Wilcoxon Test. The results of the hypothesis testing are presented in the following table.

Table 5: Results of Paired Sample Wilcoxon Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test sections</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening Comprehension</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure and Written Expression</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Comprehension</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the results presented in Table 5, p-values for total scores, as well as scores in each subtest were less than 0.05, which means that the scores between the supervised paper-delivered test were significantly different from the scores in the unsupervised Internet-delivered test.

Further statistical analysis was conducted by categorizing the samples based on the scores in the paper-delivered test. The scores were categorized based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), i.e., A1-C2. However, in this research the highest level was B1. The data distribution was analyzed for each dataset, and the results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Shapiro-Wilk Test for each CEFR level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests</th>
<th>Sections</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paper-based</td>
<td>Listening comprehension</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Structure and written expression</td>
<td>0.155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading comprehension</td>
<td>0.057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B1</td>
<td>0.099</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>0.355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A2</td>
<td>0.379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B1</td>
<td>0.012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internet-based</td>
<td>Listening comprehension</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Structure and written expression</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading comprehension</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A1</td>
<td>0.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A2</td>
<td>0.373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B1</td>
<td>0.928</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the Shapiro-Wilk Test, only listening comprehension and reading comprehension scores for the B1 level were normally distributed (p > 0.05) for both the supervised paper-delivered and unsupervised Internet-delivered tests, and thus the Paired Sample T-Test was conducted for the two categories, but the Paired Sample Wilcoxon Test for other data categories.

Table 7: Results of Paired Sample Wilcoxon Test or T-Test for CEFR

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test sections</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening Comprehension</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure and Written Expression</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Comprehension</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *based on Paired Sample T-Test

From the results of hypothesis testing presented in Table 7, only scores in listening comprehension at a B1 level were not statistically different between the supervised paper-delivered test and the unsupervised online test (p > 0.05). In general, the participants in all proficiency levels obtained higher scores when the test was delivered online, as presented in the following table.

Figure 1: Scores in the paper-delivered and Internet-delivered tests
In Figure 1 above, the line represents the scores in the paper-delivered test, and the scattered points are scores in the unsupervised Internet-delivered test. The figure illustrates that participants who obtained very low scores in the paper-delivered test could obtain very high scores in the unsupervised Internet-delivered test. The same trends can also be observed for participants at all levels of proficiency determined by the paper-delivered test.

A more detailed analysis was conducted by categorizing the scores between genders. This analysis was to find out whether scores were different between the proctored paper-delivered and unproctored Internet-delivered test for males and females. The data distribution was analyzed for each dataset, and the result is presented in Table 8.

Table 8: *Shapiro-Wilk Test for males and females*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tests</th>
<th>Sections</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PBT</td>
<td>Listening comprehension</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Structure and written expression</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading comprehension</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IBT</td>
<td>Listening comprehension</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Structure and written expression</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading comprehension</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the Shapiro-Wilk Test, none of the datasets was normally distributed (p < 0.05) for both the supervised paper-delivered and unsupervised Internet-delivered tests, and thus, the Paired Sample Wilcoxon Test for other data categories. The results of the calculation in R are presented in Table 9.

Table 9: *Results of Paired Sample Wilcoxon Test for males and females*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test sections</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening Comprehension</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure and Written Expression</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Comprehension</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the results of hypothesis testing presented in Table 9, the scores were found significantly different between the paper-based and Internet-based tests for both males and females ($p < 0.05$). Therefore, in general males and females obtained different scores between the paper-delivered and Internet-delivered tests. Further analysis by combining both gender and CEFR level was possible due to the availability of data after categorization. For this analysis, the data were categorized into the CEFR level as in Table 2 for males and females. The normality test, using the Shapiro-Wilk Test, resulted in the following statistic.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CEFR Level</th>
<th>p-value for PBT Males</th>
<th>p-value for PBT Females</th>
<th>p-value for IBT Males</th>
<th>p-value for IBT Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1 level</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2 Level</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1 Level</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.318</td>
<td>0.815</td>
<td>0.997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All levels</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the Shapiro-Wilk Test in Table 10, the data were all normally distributed ($p > 0.05$) for the B1 level except for males in the supervised paper-delivered test. Therefore, the Paired Sample T-Test was used for females at the B1 level, and the Paired Sample Wilcoxon test was used for the other datasets. The results of those tests are presented in Table 11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CEFR Level</th>
<th>Sample size Males</th>
<th>Sample size Females</th>
<th>p-value Males</th>
<th>p-value Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1 Level</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A2 Level</td>
<td>209</td>
<td>648</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1 Level</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.528</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Levels</td>
<td>246</td>
<td>728</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * based on Paired Sample T-Test

The results of the analysis showed that the p-value for males at the B1 level was larger than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$), which suggests that the null hypothesis was accepted. Therefore, the
scores between the supervised paper-delivered and the unsupervised Internet-delivered tests were not significantly different.

Based on the Paired Sample T-Test and the Paired Sample Wilcoxon Test, the scores were comparable between proctored paper-delivered and unproctored Internet-delivered tests for students within the B1 level in the listening comprehension subtest. By controlling the gender variable, the scores were also comparable for female students at the B1 level in all subtests combined. For a better description of the sample, Table 12 presents the descriptive statistic for the samples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Med</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>95% CI of Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B1 in Listening Comp.</td>
<td>PBT</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>33.9</td>
<td>32.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IBT</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>33.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1 for males</td>
<td>PBT</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>77.5</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>81.2</td>
<td>71.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IBT</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>63.31</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The plots which show the differences between supervised paper-delivered and unsupervised Internet-delivered tests are shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Scores between paper-delivered and Internet-delivered test for B1 level

Figure 2 illustrates that students with the B1 level appear to have a similar pattern for the listening comprehension subtest. The figure shows some differences for some students; however, based on the statistical analysis presented in Table 7, there was no evidence for significant differences. A similar pattern is also shown in the B1 level for males.
Discussion

The objective of this research was to find out whether the scores obtained in an unsupervised Internet-delivered language test were statistically similar to the scores in a conventional language test, i.e., a supervised paper-delivered test. The data were collected by conducting both types of a test with 974 EFL learners. The test results were compared by using either the Paired Sample T-Test or the Paired Sample Wilcoxon Test, depending on the data distribution, at the significance level of 0.05. The results show that the scores between both tests were significantly different for combined listening, structure, and reading subtests and almost all separate subtests. Similar results were found when the analyses were conducted based on either the gender or CEFR level, and when we combined them. The comparable subtest was the listening comprehension section where the scores between both tests did not show any evidence of a statistical difference. However, it was only the case for participants whose TOEFL score in the supervised paper-delivered test was between 460 and 540 or B1 for the CEFR.

In a more detailed analysis, the mean score for male students within the B1 level did not show significant differences between supervised paper-delivered and the unsupervised Internet-delivered tests (p > 0.05). However, this statistical analysis result was not conclusive because the sample size which qualified for the B1 level was very small, i.e., six students. Statisticians have warned researchers of the inappropriateness of using a small sample size to make any generalization in many fields (Biau, Kernéis, & Porcher, 2008; Lock, Lock, Morgan, Lock, & Lock, 2017; Schönbrodt & Perugini, 2013). Therefore, we do not have conclusive evidence to claim that an unsupervised Internet-delivered test is an adequate substitute for a supervised paper-based placement test.

Our results contrast with those in previous research such as Rios and Liu (2017) and Hollister and Berenson (2009). However, those research studies dealt with non-language tests. In Rios and Liu (2017), the supervision was also conducted online for a test of critical thinking, reading, writing, and mathematics. The participants were native speakers of English; therefore, they did not have to commit cheating, which involves looking up meanings from dictionaries. In addition, they were enrolled in an online course and completed the test individually, which did not allow for getting help from other students. Therefore, although the test was not supervised, it is expected that their scores were similar to a test under the proctored situation. Furthermore, research conducted by Hollister and Berenson (2009) involved testing
“students’ competency with basic computer literacy as well as their ability to apply computer skills to solve real-world problems in business environments.” The test required students to “perform tasks in a simulated computer environment,” and students had received training on the required skills for the test. Therefore, it was most likely that students would take the test without cheating, leading to scores similar to students who sat for the supervised test.

The tests in research conducted by Rios and Liu (2017) and Hollister and Berenson (2009) above were not similar to a language test. In a language test, students can cheat just by looking up words from a dictionary, an online phrase bank, or even a corpus. In addition, "some forms of assessment are more prone to student cheating in a non-proctored setting" (Hollister & Berenson, 2009, p. 291). In the current study, the material used for the test was the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), which is a multiple-choice test. It is easy for the students to get help from other students in a multiple-choice test. This is evident from significant differences between supervised paper-delivered and unsupervised Internet-delivered tests, where the scores in the unsupervised test were much higher. This did not only apply to low achieving learners as in Rahimi and Goli (2016). In the current research, participants with all levels of English proficiency obtained much higher scores when the test was delivered online in an unsupervised environment.

Based on the current research result, we know that the shortcomings of an unsupervised Internet-delivered test outweigh its promising efficiency. This finding should add to the literature in language testing as advise for educators. In addition, using an unsupervised online test for a research purpose in language teaching will lead to a biased scientific conclusion, resulting in absurd evidence which tries to generalize an observed phenomenon, which is not necessarily true. However, if an unsupervised online test is unavoidable, Cluskey, Ehlen, and Raiborn (2011) suggested eight control procedures to minimize the shortcomings of an unsupervised Internet-delivered test, six of which are applicable to a language test.

1. The schedule should be uniform so that all the participants take the test at the same time.
2. The time should be limited so that the participants do not have enough time to cheat.
3. The questions should be randomized so that participants do not answer the same questions at the same time.
4. Each question should only appear on the screen once.
5. The participants should only be given onetime access to the test.
6. The test should be designed to only be able to access by using Blackboard’s Respondus Lockdown Browser (RLB), which disables exit/return and copy/paste.

   Based on the suggestion proposed by Cluskey et al. (2011), the test can be designed by using a system which does not allow the function of exit/return and copy/paste. Once the test participants log in to the system, they should not be able to switch to another application until they complete the test. This feature is called Respondus Lockdown Browser which can be enabled in either open-source CMS, e.g., Moodle, or paid CMS, e.g., Blackboard. The participants will be asked to download the Respondus Lockdown Browser if they access the test in a regular browser. However, they can still look up unknown words from a dictionary on their smartphones. Therefore, time should be set for each question, and the question disappears once the time expires, making the test participants focus more on answering the test. To prevent students from helping each other during the test, the test schedule should be uniform and the questions randomized. However, further research should test whether this unsupervised Internet-delivered test protocol can give better results than those in the current study.

   The results of the current study are subject to some limitations. The instruction for the Internet-delivered test was given by the teachers who taught the classes. There was a possibility that some teachers emphasized that the scores in the test would influence their final grade to make them take the test seriously, and that message might be passed to other classes. If the researcher gave the instruction, the number of students with an intention to cheat might not be as many. Another limitation is that most participants were less proficient language users. If the numbers of participants in all CEFR levels were similar, the results might be different. In addition, the data were not available for all levels, i.e., only A1-B1; therefore, the results of this study might not apply to EFL learners at the B2 and A1 levels.

   **Conclusion**

   The question raised in this research was whether an unsupervised Internet-delivered language test could be an alternative for a no-stakes test such as a placement test and a test for research purposes. To answer the question, the scores obtained in an unsupervised Internet-delivered test were compared to the scores in a supervised paper-delivered test by using statistical analysis, i.e., the Paired Sample Wilcoxon Test for total scores and subtest scores, because the data were not normally distributed and the Paired Sample T-Test for listening and reading sections of participants at the B1 level. The results of the analysis show that the scores
in both tests were incomparable except for the listening comprehension subtest by B1 level participants. The scores tended to be much higher in each level of English Proficiency for the unsupervised Internet-delivered test compared to the supervised paper-based counterpart. Therefore, an unsupervised online language test is not recommended, although it guarantees much efficiency. What we have learned from this study should be treated as a proof which invalidates previous language research results which used an unsupervised online test and thus open an avenue for other studies to re-investigate the problems of research questions in the study.

Finally, although this study was intended to provide an insight into the modes of language tests, it also has implications in the pedagogical point of view. On some occasions, an online language placement test cannot be avoided for a large-scale language training program. If this is the case, after the students were divided into classes which match their placement test scores, teachers might find that the students perform lower than what is expected, for the reasons that this research has described. Therefore, teachers should anticipate this possibility of preparing teaching materials, especially in selecting the language level to be taught. Another pedagogical implication concerns assessment in an online language learning course. If a written online test has to be administered, teachers should not rely solely on the result of the test in grading the students. They need to crosscheck this score with another assessment, such as an oral online interview, the facility of which almost all, if not indeed all, online course management platforms have.

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286


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