The Asian EFL Journal
May 2019
Volume 23, Issue 3.4

Senior Editors:

Paul Robertson

Published by the English Language Education Publishing

ASIAN EFL JOURNAL

The EFL Professional's Written Forum

Table of Contents

Dominance Construction in Monologic Political Discourse
Based on Selected Public Speeches of
President Rodrigo Roa Duterte

Ramon S. Medriano, Jr.

Pangasinan State University – School of Advanced Studies

Urdaneta City, Pangasinan Philippines

Presley V. De Vera, Ed. D., D. Comm.

Pangasinan State University

Lingayen, Pangasinan Philippines

Bioprofile

Ramon S. Medriano, Jr. is the Sales Executive and Training Manager of TESOL Asia. Concurrently, he is the Head Reviewer of the English Language Education (ELE) Journals and editor of the Asian EFL Journal, a Scopus-indexed journal. He delivers lectures on Teaching ESP (English for Specific Purposes) and Teaching Business English. He has been teaching English for 15 years and he is currently on his graduate studies in Communication Arts –English at Pangasinan State University – School of Advance Studies. He can be reached at angelmon1106@gmail.com

Presley V. De Vera holds a Doctorate degree in Education (Ed.D.) and a Master's Degree in Communication Arts-English. She also finished Bachelor of Laws (L.l.B.). In tireless pursuit for academic expertise, she pursued a second post graduate degree, i.e. Doctor of Communication (DComm) at the University of the Philippines Open University (UPOU) and she is now a candidate for the conferment of the degree after her successful completion and defense of her dissertation. She is affiliated at Pangasinan State University as an Associate Professor where she teaches both at the College and the Graduate Studies Department. She also served as the Chair of the Communication Arts Department in the University's satellite in Lingayen, Pangasinan as well as the Chair of the Master's Degree Programs of the University's Graduate School. She is active in the Gender and Development (GAD) enterprise, being a member of the National

Gender and Development Resource Pool of the Philippine Commission on Women (PCW) that has deployed her to various engagements as a gender resource person in different institutions. She has attended and served as presenter in various regional, national and international conferences.

Abstract

Anchored on Foucauldian Discourse Analysis, this study traced and analyzed evidence of "dominance construction" in spoken corpus, wherein the subject corpora are political speeches of Philippine President Rodrigo Roa Duterte (PRRD). Discourse segments from the speeches were extracted using content analysis meant to isolate those exhibiting characteristics of "monologic discourse" (Freire's criteria). Monologic discourses were equivalently ascribed as discourse vehicles of dominance construction. On these primordially identified and isolated discourse segments revolved the core analyses of the study. The speech acts feature and rhetoric strategies inherent in the monologic discourse segments were explored. To intensify the investigation, contrastive analysis was further used to determine definitive patterns in the way rhetoric strategies and speech acts would characterize monologic discourses if they were found in varied political speech types entailing different types of audiences and different purposes for delivering a speech.

As to the findings, a considerable volume of monologic discourses were observed across PRRD's different types of speech, thus giving evidence that PRRD uses political speeches to peddle his dominance construction. Moreover, inherent in his monologic discourses are seemingly consistent patterns and characteristics, such the use of certain types of illocutionary acts (i.e. assertive, commissive, verdictive, directive, declarative, and expressive). PRRD's monologic discourses are also laced with his ample use of rhetoric strategies that cleverly combines "ethos, logos, and pathos" (based on the Aristotelian typology of rhetoric strategies). However, a quantitative analysis that measured the rates in which these rhetoric strategies appear in the speeches reveals that PRRD uses them in different proportions. Ethos is mostly manifested, while Pathos is least manifested. A quasi-quantitative co-occurrence analysis was employed to determine patterns of association between PRRD's use of rhetoric strategies and illocutionary acts, which thenceforth revealed some degree in which some rhetoric strategies do coincide with the use of certain types of illocutionary acts although the study waives to declare this as strongly conclusive because the extent of association can range only from very low to moderate.

The study projects a pedagogical significance, especially for the benefit of language teachers and literature teachers. It arouses interest in using political speeches as discourses that can be tackled for class discussions, or even for purposes of literary criticism. Students must be exposed to authentic uses of language and its reproduction of power differentials and how this phenomenon is subconsciously conveyed in verbal communication.

Keywords: dominance construction, political discourse, speech acts, rhetoric strategies, Foucauldian discourse analysis, Aristotelian rhetoric

Introduction

Foucauldian discourse analysis (FDA) is a perspective of analyzing both written and spoken discourses, the latter of which is viewed as a vehicle in manifesting the actual power relationships in society (Scrift, 2006). In this sense, as popularized by Foucault, language then becomes one of the vivid tools, aside from practices and traditions, of "dominance construction". In literature, the latter is also termed as "expressions of dominance" (Dunbar & Burgoon, 2005).

Dominance construction is a social construct which points out to various patterns of expressing dominance that are intelligible on the social level, since people in a society recognize conventional signs and indicators of dominance in both verbal and nonverbal communication. The theoretical framework of Foucault's discourse analysis incites language scholars to explore the dynamics of using language as a vehicle for dominance construction, especially among persons in society who are likely to have direct interests in using language for such purposes like politicians, among others.

Freire (in Coben, 1998) provided one of the earliest intellectual insights on how to recognize dominance construction through the rudiments of language use, wherein Freire refers to so-called "Monologic discourses" (Mefalopulos, 2009). In terms of power sharing and distribution, Freire mentions the opposition between a "Monologic discourse" and a "dialogic discourse". The former, he also refers to as "extension", and the latter as the genuine essence of "communication". (Wells, 2006). Accordingly, a monologic discourse (as opposed to a dialogic discourse) is characterized by "transmission, cultural invasion, and domination" (Mefalopulos, 2009). While, dialogic discourse involves mutual dialogue, monologic discourse involves transplanting knowledge and imposing one's understanding of reality upon another. Thus, the

core characteristics of Monologic discourse are "transmission", "superiority", and "cultural invasion".

As vehicles for dominance construction, Monologic discourses drastically affect audiences or readers who feel demeaned as not only passive, but incapable of questioning. Monologic discourse assumes an inability of the recipients to choose to adopt or to refuse new knowledge [outside the speaker's view] (Freire, 1973). This provides the theoretical framework to this study's identification of dominance construction in the public speeches of Philippine President Rodrigo Roa Duterte (PPRD). In the context of this study, those segments from PRRD's public speeches that depict monologic discourse are considered as manifesting dominance construction. Pieces of monologic discourse coming from a political leader are attempts to cause indoctrination and dominance. Dominance construction is essentially the impetus for monologic discourse in which a speaker lends an impression of his / her power and influences his / her audience's knowledge by projecting ideas to them in the guise and instrumentality of political authority.

The aforementioned context of explaining language use is the essence of FDA as adopted by this study, and while FDA has its traces its origins in the late 70s, there has not been sufficient exploration of this theory to underlie language researches even decades after it was introduced. This is the impetus for this current study to adopt it as a discourse analysis framework to analyze the speeches of PRRD. Accordingly, FDA is preferred by scholars who criticize more traditional forms of discourse analysis as failing to account for the political implications of discourse, like how figures in authority use language to express their dominance, and request obedience and respect from those subordinate to them. It may also look at the language used by teachers towards students, or military officers towards conscripts. This approach could also be used to study how language is used as a form of resistance to those in power (Scrift, 2006).

Some previous studies also anchored on discourse analysis were reviewed, though they do not necessarily employ the FDA framework. Berowa (2019), for instance, conducted a discourse analysis of PRRD's speeches only to investigate the context and conditions surrounding his use of cuss words, and thus the factors that trigger PRRD's use of swear terms. As such, Berowa produced an inventory of the pragmatic functions associated to swearing. Similarly, the study of Sabio & Lintao (2018) also involved discourse analysis, but only bent to describe PRRD's stylistic and reasoning strategies. In both these aforementioned studies, no further attempts were made to delve deeper into the inherent dominance construction that underlie PRRD's discourse orientations. At any rate, it would have been a merit to hypothesize

that his use of cuss words goes beyond the mere issue of underlying pragmatic functions but instead points out to a reproduction of PRRD's peculiar orientation about power relationship and power play. Likewise, it may just be scratching the surface of the issue to merely take not of stylistic and reasoning strategies manifest in PRRD's speeches, when a phenomenon ulterior to these factors is actually at play, such as PRRD's inclination to Monologic discourse which might actually be a catalyst that informs his nuanced stylistic and reasoning strategies. Thus, the "power dimension" of language seems to be absent if not evaded in the framework of prior language studies, even by those that already deal\t on discourse analysis.

The theory of Speech Act is historically attributed to Wittgenstein but was given prominence by the British philosopher Austin in 1955. Speech acts refer to the "basic units of linguistic interaction" (Griffiths, 2006, in Okoro, 2017), wherein the theoretical assumption is that any utterance a person makes entails the performance of an act, such as stating a fact or opinion, confirming or denying something, making a prediction or a request, issuing an order, asking a question, and so on. Speech acts are tied to sentences" (Verschueren 1999 in Okoro, 2017). This means that a ceremonial or political speech is not a speech act but a sequence or series of speech acts. On the perspective of the speech act theory, people do more things with words than what their words ordinarily encode. The most crucial part of the Speech Act Theory is a tripartite distinction of Speech Acts into different kinds which are the Locutionary act, the Illocutionary act and the Perlocutionary act (Okoro, 2017). The locutionary act is the act of saying something, illocutionary act is the act performed in saying something, while the perlocutionary act is the act performed by saying something, the effect the utterance has on the psychological state of the hearer (Okoro, 2017).

The illocutionary forces of utterances have been classified by notable scholars like Austin, Searle and Keith Allan (Okoro, 2017). Austin classified illocutionary forces of speech acts into five: "verdictives, behavities, expositives, commisives and exercitives",

On the concept of rhetoric and rhetoric strategies, scholars agree on a common concept of "rhetoric" which is ascribed as the art of persuasion, or the study of the art of persuasion, and an individual act of persuasion (Williams, 2015). Accordingly, there are three modes of persuasion, also known as types of rhetoric strategies. These are "ethos" (i.e. The rhetor is perceived by the audience as credible or not); "pathos" (i.e. The rhetor attempts to persuade the audience by making them feel certain emotions); and "logos" (i.e. The rhetor attempts to persuade the audience by the use of arguments that they will perceive as logical) (Williams, 2015). Lutzke & Henggeler (2009) proposed an instrument (i.e. a questionnaire) that can be used

to recognize the use of logos, ethos, and pathos. The instrument serves as a theoretical basis for the construction of one of the instruments of this study.

Anchored on the above concepts, the objectives pursued by this study is to determine the speech acts feature and rhetoric strategies that are inherent in the Monologic discourse segments extracted from selected political speeches of PRRD (i.e. as linguistic evidences of his "dominance construction"). Three types of speeches of PRRD were investigated, to wit: (a) Speech delivered in an academic setting; (b) Speech delivered in a press conference; and (c) Speech delivered before diplomats.

The DIDSs were then further analyzed in terms of speech acts features (i.e. locution, illocutionary act; and perlocutionary effect). The locutions were further subjected to rhetoric analysis to reveal their underlying usage of rhetorical strategies, and classify these strategies into "Ethos, Logos; and Pathos". The final set of analysis aimed to determine the nature and degree of association between the speech acts features and rhetoric features that co-exist within the same DIDS units. This was done to determine possible patterns on the co-occurrence of particular classes of illocutionary acts and rhetorical strategies, which then leads to characterizing PRRD's orientation for expressing dominance in his speeches delivered in various settings.

Methodology

This study basically uses the Discursive Approach (Taylor, 2001). Specifically, it employed the macro-level discourse analysis of the language that characterizes the political speeches of PRRD, wherein the focus of analysis is particularly on the monologic discourse segments that can be extracted from the discourse body of his political speeches. The assumption in this study is that language as carried out in political discourse is essentially infused with expressions of dominance, a fact suggested by Foucault (McIntyre, 2012). To pursue this analysis, this study used Well's (2006) dichotomy between "monologic discourse" and "dialogic discourse", which are actually concepts corresponding to Freire's distinction of "Extension" from "Communication", respectively (Mefalopulos, 2009). The monologic discourse segments that were extracted and isolated from the selected political speeches of PRRD are herein operationally taken to exemplify the use of language for dominance construction.

Three (3) distinct public speeches of PRRD were analyzed, each representing speeches that are delivered in three (3) different settings namely, (a) Academic Setting; (b) Press Conference Setting; and (c) Diplomatic Setting.

Since this is a qualitative study, "criterion sampling" (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006) is used to conduct the selection of PRRD's political speeches as well as their classification. The researcher wanted to deal with some representations of political speech of PRRD based on the speech's purpose. This was the main criterion for selecting the speeches. Considering that the aim of this research is to enable an intensive description of a political discourse using Foucauldian, pragmatic, and rhetoric analyses, such an aim is further carried out to determine if certain patterns are consistent or different if the subject speech would vary according to purpose. However, it should be noted that the list of speech purposes adopted by this study is not exhaustive in itself, since there can be other speech purposes beyond the three that is operationalized for this study.

The study assumes the format of a case study, thereby data presentation and analysis is on a case to case basis. The three subject cases of this study pertain to the three types of speech of PRRD, each represented by a single sample. Individualized analyses are accorded to each case, and this procedure was done in discussing the findings for each research question. A "synthesis" is also provided to conclude the discussions per research question to enable the comparison and contrast of the findings across the three cases. In the following discussions, the objective of each research question is initially stated, followed by the discussions on data treatment. This is to show how the latter is used to achieve the objective of each research question.

The first objective of the study is to extract and isolate the discourse segments from the body of the political speech of PRRD (i.e. in each of the three sample speeches) that manifest dominance construction. The extracted discourse segments were operationally labeled as "Dominance-Infused Discourse Segments" (or DIDs for brevity). Frequency count was employed to report the number of DIDSs obtained from each speech. Moreover, the extraction of a unit of DIDS bypasses the grammatical structure of the text from where it is extracted. Thus, a unit of DIDS may be extracted as a single sentence or more than a single sentence from the text, or an entire paragraph or it may even cover more than a paragraph if the extracted unit so appears in that structure in the original text. An entire unit is extracted as it is deemed to cover an entire single thought cluster that is pragmatically perceived to be included so that an entire DIDS unit is intelligible even if it stands independent and loosened from the text where it is extracted.

A particular discourse segment is subjected to the content analysis by evaluating it in terms of all the indicators. The threshold of significance for considering a discourse segment as

Monologic or dominance-infused is when the rating reaches, at least, above 50 points, meaning that majority of the indicators are found intact. The researcher sought the assistance of a pertinent professional expert to review and validate the extraction of the DIDS from the three speeches.

The second research objective is to conduct a pragmatic analysis, specifically to describe the DIDs in terms of their "speech acts features" using pragmatic content analysis. This content analysis profiled the DIDSs in terms of (a) Locution, (b) Illocutionary Act, and (c) Expected Perlocutionary Effect. A combination of Austin's and Searle's Models of Illocutionary Forces was used. The third research objective is to conduct a rhetorical analysis, specifically to describe the DIDs in terms of their inherent "rhetorical strategies" using the method of De Vera (2018). This analysis entails extracting the RFSS units from each "locution" (which, in turn, were extracted from the DIDSs). The rhetoric analysis employed a specialized content analysis tool (CAT) which adopts from the Aristotelian typology of rhetorical strategies. Adjacently, the researcher also used Mshvenieradze's (2013) special method of analyzing rhetorical strategies from the perspective of "Deictic Grammar".

The final research objective is to determine the extent of "association" between the types illocutionary acts and rhetorical strategies in the same unit of discourse segment in which they are manifested. "Association" here is not taken as equivalent to a "statistical correlation", but rather to the phenomenon of "co-occurrence", which is a quasi-quantitative analysis adopted from Contreras (2011). In this method, cross tabulation was conducted individually for each unit of DIDS, and then finally a summary cross tabulation that synthesizes the findings of all the DIDS in each of the three (3) political speeches. The researcher determined the frequency in which a specific rhetorical strategy co-occurs with a particular type of illocutionary force. The "frequency of co-occurrence" is then given an equivalent interpretation to what we mean by "extent of association". To determine the extent of association (or frequency of co-occurrence), a specialized rubric is prepared. This rubric consists of a five-point scale depicting an ascending hierarch of levels of frequency of co-occurrence. These scales are" "Very Low (lowest level), Low, Moderate, High, and Very High (highest level)".

Results and Discussion

PRRD's three types of speeches are referred to in the following discussions using codes, to wit: "Speech delivered in academic setting" (Speech 1), "Speech delivered in a press conference (Speech 2), and "Speech delivered before diplomats" (Speech 3).

1. **On the Dominance Infused Discourse Segments in Selected PRRD Public Speeches**

The DIDSs extracted from the three speeches fairly account for all DIDS levels, except for Speech 2 that has no account (0%) for "Moderate DIDS Level". For Speech 1 and Speech 3, their respective sets of DIDSs classify into all the five (5) DIDS levels, i.e. "Moderate, Above Average, High, Very High, and Outstanding" (Fig. 1).
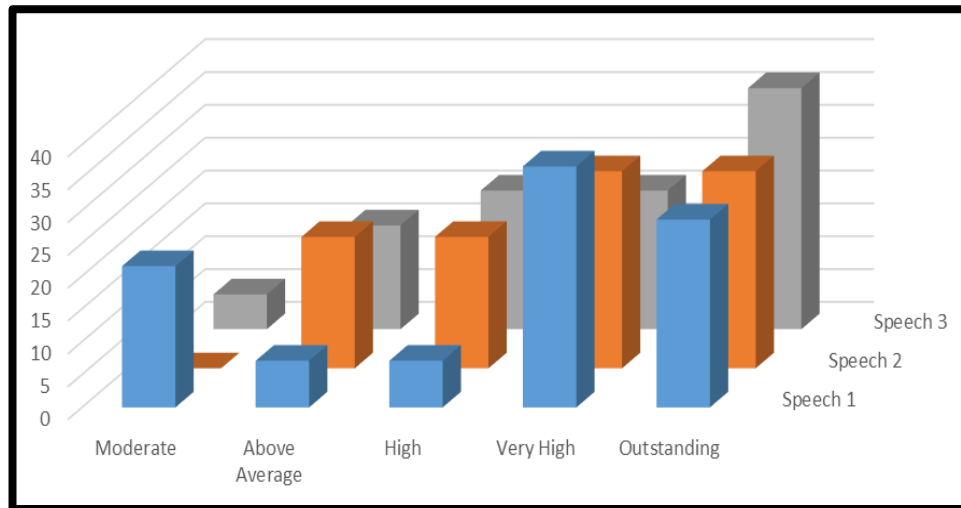
Legend: Speech 1 (Academic Setting); Speech 2 (Press Conference); Speech 3 (Diplomats)

DIDS Qualifying Points	Description (DIDS Level)	Speech 1	Speech 2	Speech 3
60	Moderate	3 (21.5%)	0 (0%)	1 (5.3%)
70	Above Average	1 (7.1%)	2 (20%)	3 (15.8%)
80	High	1 (7.1%)	2 (20%)	4 (21.1%)
90	Very High	**5 (35.7%)**	**3 (30%)**	4 (21.1%)
100	Outstanding	4 (28.6%)	**3 (30%)**	**7 (36.7%)**
Total		14 (100%)	10 (100%)	19 (100%)

Fig. 1. Frequency distribution of DIDS Levels in the three types of speech of PRRD.

Moreover, in Speech 1, there is the greater likelihood to find more number of DIDSs characterized as "Very High" DIDS level. This level corresponds to a score of "90" which meets

almost entirely all the DIDS qualifying criteria. Speech 2 is relatively superior to Speech 1 because of its greater likelihood to generate more number of DIDSs that are characterized as "Very High" to "Outstanding" DIDS levels. An outstanding DIDS level corresponds to a score of "100", which meets all the DIDS qualifying criteria. The inclusion of all criteria means that dominance construction in the discourse segment is fully maximized. Speech 3 appears to be superior to both Speech 1 and Speech 2 because of its likelihood to generate more number of DIDSs characterized as "Outstanding" DIDS level (7 or 36.7).

Based on the above, PRRD is likely to exhibit dominance construction in its highest extent when he delivers political speeches before diplomats. His manifestation of dominance construction gets relatively weaker in his speeches delivered in a press conference, and it is weakest in the case of his political speeches delivered in an academic setting.

2. On Speech Acts Features of Dominance- Infused Discourse Segments in Selected PRRD Public Speeches

A total of six (6) classes of illocutionary acts were found to be manifested generally across the three types of speeches of PRRD, to wit: (a) Assertive, (b) Commissive, (c) Verdictive, (d) Directive, (e) Declarative, and (f) Expressive (Fig. 2). This means that the three types of PRRD speech generally exhausts all classes of illocutionary acts. This means that the dominance construction of PRRD is characterized by an extensive use of all classes of illocutionary acts. This finding also confirms that all classes of illocutionary acts can possibly be exploited for purposes of dominance construction, or at least, in as far as PRRD's political speeches are concerned.

No.	Class of Illocutionary Acts (with specific description)	Rate			AWM
		Speech 1	Speech 2	Speech 3	
1.1	Assertive (Claiming)	15%	46.2%	18%	26.4%
1.2	Assertive (Reporting)	NULL	7.7%	NULL	2.6%
2.1	Commissive (Promising)	20%	NULL	23%	14.3%
2.2	Commissive (Threatening)	5%	NULL	9%	4.7%
3	Verdictive (Assessing)	50%	23%	27%	33.3%

4.1	Directive (Requesting / Begging)	10%	NULL	9%	6.3%
4.2	Directive (Ordering)	NULL	7.7%	NULL	2.6%
5	Declarative (Declaring a war)	NULL	15.4%	9%	8.1%
6	Expressive (Welcoming / Inviting)	NULL	NULL	5%	1.7%
	TOTAL No. of Classes of Illocutionary Acts Manifested	4	4	6	

Legend: Speech 1 (academic setting); Speech 2 (Press Conference); Speech 3 (Diplomats)

Fig. 2. Comparative Synopsis of the Speech Acts Features of Three (3) Types of PRRD Speeches

PRRD's choice of strategies in deploying different classes of illocutionary acts is very limited. PRRD's account of "verdictive illocutionary acts" is only indicated by one strategy (i.e. assessing). Same goes with his accounts for "declarative" (i.e. declaring a war), and "expressive" (i.e. welcoming / inviting). There are instances that PRRD accounts for two strategies, such as his accounts for "assertive" (i.e. claiming and reporting), "commissive" (i.e. promising and threatening), and "directive" (requesting / begging and ordering).

"Speech 2" obtained the highest density / rate for "assertive (claiming)" at 46.2%, compared to Speech I (15%) and Speech 3 (18%). It means that this particular class-description of illocutionary act seem most likely manifested in this particular speech type of PRRD. Thus, PRRD is most likely inclined to use "assertive (claiming)" as a speech act feature of his dominance construction in a speech delivered in a press conference. Although this class of illocutionary act also occurs in his speeches delivered in academic setting and before diplomats, the findings show that they come in lesser rate or density in these speeches.

3. On the Rhetoric Strategies in Dominance-Infused Discourse Segments of Selected PRRD Public Speeches

Across the three types of PRRD speeches, "Ethos" figures constantly to have the highest frequency of occurrence among the three rhetorical strategies. There is a minor breakage in consistency since Speech 3 features an additional rhetorical strategy that ties up with "Ethos" having the highest frequency of occurrence. In Speech 3, "Pathos" was observed to have the same status as "Ethos" being the two rhetorical strategies with the most frequent occurrence. Thus, there appears to be greater consistency in the rhetorical features between PRRD speeches delivered in an academic setting and in a press conference. There is a slight deviation in the rhetoric features of PRRD's speech before diplomats (Fig. 3).

Rhetorical Strategies			Total No. of Occurrences
ETHOS (Freq / Rate)	LOGOS (Freq / Rate)	PATHOS (Freq / Rate)	
44 (43%)	32 (31%)	27 (26%)	103 (100%)
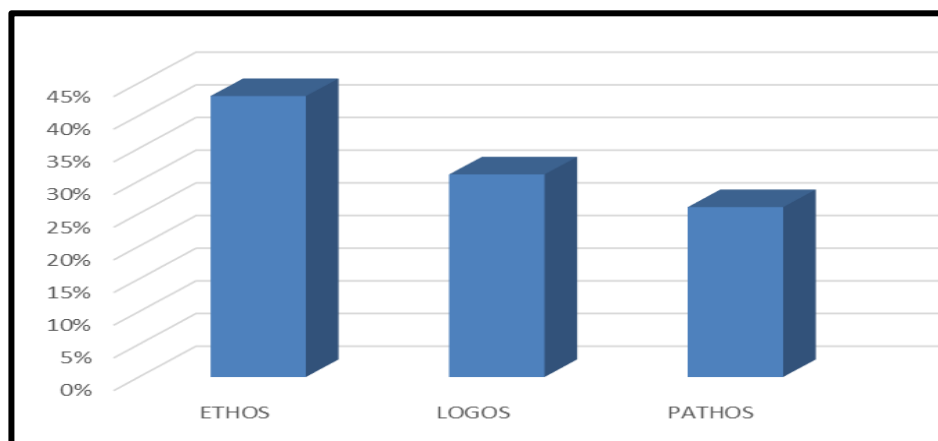
Fig. 3. Frequency of occurrence of rhetoric strategies in the DIDS taken across PRRD's
   Three Types of Political Speeches

There appears to be an almost perfect consistency across the three speech types wherein "Pathos" figures constantly to have the lowest frequency of occurrence among the three

rhetorical strategies, except in the case of Speech 3 wherein the strategy with the lowest frequency of occurrence is "Logos".

PRRD's political speeches, in general, are highly characteristic of the use of "Ethos" as indicated by its overall frequency count across the three types of speeches (44 or 43%). This strategy figures most prominent relative to PRRD's dominance construction. "Logos" ranks second to "Ethos" (32 or 31%), whereas the rhetorical strategy having the least occurrence is "Pathos" (27 or 26%).

4. **On the Association between Speech Acts Features and Rhetorical Strategies in Dominance-Infused Discourse Segments**

"Ethos" co-occurs or associates with the most number of classes of illocutionary acts in the case of Speech 3 with a total number of 7 manifestations of co-occurrence. The extent of such manifestations of co-occurrence range from "very low" (minimum) to "low" (maximum), majority of which show a "very low" extent of co-occurrence. "Ethos" was noted to co-occur with the following classes of illocutionary acts, to wit: "assertive (claiming), commissive (promising), commissive (threatening), verdictive (assessing), directive (requesting / begging), declarative (declaring a war), and expressive (welcoming / inviting). In contrast to this, "Ethos" combines to a relatively less number of classes of illocutionary acts in the case of Speech 2 and Speech 1. Respective to these two speech types, Ethos co-occurs only with a total of 5 classes of illocutionary acts (Fig. 4)

Class of Illocutionary Acts (with specific description)	Rhetoric Strategies		
	ETHOS	**LOGOS**	**PATHOS**
Assertive (Claiming)\	2	0	2
Assertive (Reporting)	NULL	NULL	NULL
Commissive (Promising)	4	2	2
Commissive (Threatening)	1	0	1
Verdictive (Assessing)	7	9	3
Directive (Requesting / Begging)	2	1	1
Directive (Ordering)	NULL	NULL	NULL
Declarative (Declaring a war)	NULL	NULL	NULL

Expressive (Welcoming / Inviting)	NULL	NULL	NULL

Fig. 4. Co-occurrence of speech acts features and rhetoric features in the DIDS taken from PRRD's speech delivered in an academic setting

Rubric for determining the Extent of Co-occurrence of Speech Acts Features and Rhetoric Features in the DIDS taken from PRRD's speech delivered in an Academic Setting

Range	DESCRIPTION (Extent of Occurrence)
0	No Co-Occurrence (NC)
1- 4	Very Low
5 – 8	Low
9 - 12	Moderate
13 - 16	High
17 – 20	Very High

"Logos" co-occurs or associates with the most number of classes of illocutionary acts in the case of Speech 3 with a total number of 6 manifestations of co-occurrence. The extent of such manifestations of co-occurrence consistently register under the range of "very low". "Logos" was noted to co-occur with the following classes of illocutionary acts, to wit: "assertive (claiming), commissive (promising), commissive (threatening), verdictive (assessing), directive (requesting / begging), and expressive (welcoming / inviting). In contrast to this, "Logos" co-occurs with relatively less number of classes of illocutionary acts in the case of Speech 2 and Speech 1. Ethos co-occurs only with a total of 4 classes of illocutionary acts in the case of Speech 2. On the other hand, Ethos co-occurs only with a total of 3 classes of illocutionary acts in the case of Speech 1.

"Pathos" co-occurs or associates with the most number of classes of illocutionary acts in the case of Speech 3 with a total number of 7 manifestations of co-occurrence. The extent of such manifestations of co-occurrence register under the range of "very low" (minimum) to "low" (maximum). "Logos" was noted to co-occur with the following classes of illocutionary acts, to

wit: "assertive (claiming), commissive (promising), commissive (threatening), verdictive (assessing), directive (requesting / begging), declarative (declaring a war) and expressive (welcoming / inviting). In contrast to this, "Logos" co-occurs with relatively less number of classes of illocutionary acts in the case of Speech 2 and Speech 1. Pathos co-occurs only with a total of 2 classes of illocutionary acts in the case of Speech 2. On the other hand, Ethos co-occurs only with a total of 5 classes of illocutionary acts in the case of Speech 1.

Conclusion

Dominance infused discourse segments (DIDSs) varies in number as manifested in the three (3) types of speech of PRRD, i.e. speech delivered in an academic setting, in a press conference, and before diplomats. The DIDSs from the speeches of PRRD have qualifications ranging from "Moderate" (lowest) to "Outstanding" (highest) in terms of their points in meeting the indicators for Monologic discourse.

All six (6) classes of illocutionary acts are manifested in the dominance infused discourse segments extracted from the three types of speeches of PRRD, to wit: (a) Assertive, (b) Commissive, (c) Verdictive, (d) Directive, (e) Declarative, and (f) Expressive, although the strategies to deploy each of the aforementioned classes of illocutionary acts are very limited.

The three rhetorical strategies, "Ethos, Logos, and Pathos" are manifested "in the dominance infused discourse segments extracted from the three types of speeches of PRRD, although with different proportions. Ethos is mostly manifested, while Pathos is least manifested.

The use of Ethos, Logos and Pathos are associated with most of the classes of illocutionary acts featured across the different types of speeches of PRRD. In the instances wherein association occurred, the extent of association ranges from very low to moderate.

On account of the general findings about the very low to moderate extent of association between PRRD's use of rhetorical strategies and the different classes of illocutionary acts, future researchers may investigate the tenability or even benefits of reinforcing the mutual association between speech acts features and rhetoric features in political speeches in order to discover if their close coordination generates good effects on dominance construction.

The study offers recommendations for language and literature pedagogy, particularly the integration of "power relations" as an aspect of literary criticism, or in courses that impart lessons on speech acts and rhetoric strategies. Students can learn, not just the neutral purpose of speech acts and rhetoric but how these can be exploited in authentic language use to peddle dominance construction, or in detecting dominance construction from speakers.

References

Berowa, A.M.C. (2019). President Rodrigo Roa Duterte in the Spotlight: The Pragmatic Factors and Functions of Swearing in Public Discourse. The Asian EFL Journal March 2019 Volume 21, Issue 2.4. English Language Education Publishing. Retrieved from https://www.elejournals.com/1930/asian-efl-journal/asian-efl-journal-volume-21-issue-2-4-march-2019/.

Coben, D. (1998), Radical heroes. Gramsci, Freire and the Politics of Adult Education, New York: Garland Press.

Cohen D, Crabtree B. (2006). Qualitative Research Guidelines Project. Better Evaluation. Retrieved from https://www.betterevaluation.org/en/evaluation-options/Criterion.

Contreras, R.B. (2011). Examining the Context in Qualitative Analysis: The Role of the Co-Occurrence Tool. Atlas.Ti Newsletter. Retrieved from https://atlasti.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/05/contreras_nl201108.pdf.

De Vera, P.V. (2018). Variance in the Use of Invitational and Intrusive Rhetoric in Online EFL Teaching Discourse. The Asian EFL Journal December 2018 Volume 20, Issue 12.3. English Language Education Publishing. Retrieved from https://www.elejournals.com/1844/asian-efl-journal/the-asian-efl-journal-quarterly-volume-20-issue-12-3-december-2018/.

Dunbar, N.E. & J.K. Burgoon (2005). Perceptions of Power and Interactional Dominance in Interpersonal Relationships. SAGE Journals: Journal of Social and Personal Relationships. Retrieved from https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/abs/10.1177/0265407505050944.

Freire, P. (1973). Extension or Communication. New York: The Seabury Press (in Reviews of Paulo Freire's Books, Schugurensky (n.d.)). Retrieved from http://schugurensky.faculty.asu.edu/freire/jl.html.

Lutzke, J. & M.F. Henggeler (2009). The Rhetorical Triangle: Understanding and Using Logos, Ethos, and Pathos. School of Liberal Arts, Indiana University. Retrieved from https://www.lsu.edu/hss/english/files/university_writing_files/item35402.pdf.

McIntyre, K. (2012). Foucault on Freedom and Domination. The partially Examined Life. Retrieved from https://partiallyexaminedlife.com/2012/01/31/foucault-on-freedom-and-domination/.

Mefalopulos, P. (2009). Dialogic Approaches to Development\: Beyond Media and

Messages. The World Bank: Monologic Communication. Retrieved from http://blogs.worldbank.org/publicsphere/category/tags/monologic-communication.

Mshvenieradze, T. (2013). Logos, Ethos, and Pathosin Political Discourse. Theory and Practice in language Studies, 3(11)1939-1945. Retrieved from https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/c735/50e647326fa2f6b49a55679c01d62ed63669.pdf.

Okoro, C.N. (2017). A Speech Act Analysis of the Formal Declaration of Interest for Presidency and Inaugural Speeches of President Muhammadu Buhari. Language in India, 17(10).

Sabio, D. and Lintao, R. (2018). The language of PDU30: A discourse analysis of selected speeches of President Rodrigo Duterte. The Asian EFL Journal December 2018 Volume 20, Issue 12.2. English Language Education.
Retrieved from https://www.asian-efl-journal.com/tag/volume-20-issue-12-2-december-2018/.

Schrift, A.D. (2006). Twentieth Century French Philosophy. Key Themes and Thinkers. MA, USA: Blackwell Publishing.

Taylor, S. (2001). Locating and Conducting Discourse Analytic Research. SAGE.
Retrieved from https://koppa.jyu.fi/avoimet/hum/menetelmapolkuja/en/methodmap/strategies/discursive-approaches.

Wells, G. (2006). Monologic and Dialogic Discourses as Mediators of Education. Research in the Teaching of English, 41(2),168-175. Retrieved from https://www.jstor.org/stable/40039099?seq=1#page_scan_tab_contents.

Williams, G.H. (2015). Ethos, Pathos, Logos: The Three Rhetorical Appeals. PBWorks. Retrieved from http://georgehwilliams.pbworks.com/w/page/14266873/Ethos-Pathos-Logos-The-3-Rhetorical-Appeals.

Utilizing Local Guide to Improve EFL Students' English Writing Skill: An Outdoor Learning Process Strategy

Tusyanah Tusyanah

Universitas Negeri Semarang, Central Java, Indonesia

Risma Nur Anissa

Universitas Negeri Semarang, Central Java, Indonesia

Norma Chayatina

Universitas Negeri Semarang, Central Java, Indonesia

Wijang Sakitri

Universitas Negeri Semarang, Central Java, Indonesia

Sri Utami

Universitas Negeri Semarang, Central Java, Indonesia

Bio-Profiles:

Tusyanah is an English lecturer at the Economics Faculty, Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia. Her research areas cover teaching and learning in higher education, English for Specific Purposes and strategies in EFL classroom. She can be contacted at tusyanah@mail.UNNES.ac.id.

Risma Nur Anissa is an asistant lecturer in Economics Faculty, Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia. Her research arears cover in Financial Economics, Business Administration and Accounting. She can be contacted at rismanuranissa1@gmail.com.

Norma Chayatina is a student of Management Department in the Economics Faculty, Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia. Her research arears cover in Human Resource Development She can be contacted at normachayatina@gmail.com.

Wijang Sakitri is an English lecturer at Economics Faculty, Semarang State University (UNNES), Indonesia. She teaches English, Business English, English for Managers and Business English Correspondence. She is interested in education, and ESP researches. She can be contacted at wijangsakitri@mail.unnes.ac.id.

Sri Utami pursued her master's degree in International Institute of Social Studies of Erasmus University in the Netherlands majoring in Local and Regional Development (LRD) in 2009-2010. She has been actively involved in facilitating the dialogue platforms for local economic development for cluster of industry, tourism, and agricuture in several municipalities. She can be contacted at sriutami@mail.unnes.ac.id.

Abstract

APJII mentioned there were 143.26 million internet users in Indonesia in 2017. Then, Gunduz (2017) revealed that there were many purposes of people doing online activities; such as communication, interaction, doing business, and self-expressions. Local Guide is a self-expression social media and it is a feature of Google Maps which let us contribute reviewing the places. The objectives of this study are to; (1) describe the implementation of Outdoor Learning Process (OLP) strategy through Local Guide utilization, (2) know the improvement of students' English writing skill after having the strategy. It was One Group Pre-test Post-test Design. There were pre-test and post-test to know students' English writing improvement during the implementation of this strategy. The quantitative data were analyzed by SPSS 22.

The results of the study showed that: 1) the implementation of Outdoor Learning Process (OLP) strategy through Local Guide utilization consists of three (3) phases; they were: at first, preparation phase. The second was the implementation phase which students were given 3 (three) months to explore their world and reviewed the places they visited. The third phase was monitoring and evaluation. There were 278 students to explore the places during OLP learning strategy and then to review them in English. They had to consider the vocabulary, grammar, punctuations and other writing. The pretest and posttest scores were from 80.91 to 84.29. Then, the significance of the pretest and posttest analyzed with one-sample t-test is 0.000. If 0.000 <0.05; it means that there was significant difference of students' skills English writing between pretest and posttest. Furthermore; based on the observation; students' responses were very enthusiastic and happy to follow the learning strategy.

Keywords: Local Guide, Outdoor Learning Process (OLP), English Writing Skill

Introduction

Local Guide is a self-expression social media and it is a feature of Google Maps which let us contribute reviewing the places. There are a lot of Indonesian Local Guides; even Indonesian is included in the top five countries with the most Local Guide accounts in the world (Rahman, 2018). Then, IISPA (Indonesian Internet Service Provider Association) mentioned that there were 143.26 million internet users in Indonesia in 2017.

There are many online activities on internet. Gunduz (2017) revealed that there were many purposes of people doing online activities; such as communication, interaction, doing business, and self-expressions. These activities can be executed at Local Guide. From the initial observation on students who are the users of Local Guide, it is found that they like Local Guides because of the variety of benefits they can get if more points and levels are achieved. For example, if internet users reach Level 1 (0-4 points), they can take part in special contests held by Google, Level 2 (5-49 points), they can get access to the latest products and features from Google and internet users can also explore the Google campus and get the latest information on Google Maps (Marsela, 2015).

When Local Guide's reviews are checked, most Indonesian students use Indonesian language in reviewing. They use Indonesian because they use it spontaneously although they realize that improving English language skill is vital in the globalization and digitalization today. Therefore; it needs a strategy to improve students' English skills; it is utilizing Local Guide of Google Maps.

According to Huda et al (2017) that there are three (3) reasons for having good English; first, most countries around Indonesia use English as the first or second language. Secondly, English is one the most popular international languages and third, English is used to convey information in the world. Therefore, it will be more meaningful and has a positive influence for English Skills if students use Local Guide in English.

The use of English when reviewing places at Local Guide will make students consider grammar, word choice, spelling and other writing elements. The continuous use of english will make students accustomed to writing English, encouraging them to look for new words which can be used to review places. Furthermore; there are many students' for students when they review the places. The points they get will upgrade their levels which allow them get prizes.

As one of the social media which is widely used by the youths, utilizing Local Guides can be an alternative strategy to make students improve their English writing skills in a fun way. Students are instructed to actively carry out outdoor activities by traveling to new places and then recording their travelling at Local Guide. This also involves Outdoor Learning Process (OLP)

which is often seen as relevant to supporting, teaching science or geographic topics, because it provides an opportunity to illustrate or exemplify the classroom learning (Harris, 2018).

OLP makes students move outside the classroom and it is good for their physics and psychologies. According to Harris (2018) that outdoor learning was used in various formats to support the personal, social and emotional development of children. It was also supported by a research conducted by Yıldırım and Akamca (2017) that outdoor learning could improve the cognitive, cognitive, social-emotional and motor skills of preschoolers.

From the background above, the research questions were: 1) How is the implementation of Local Guide utilization to improve English writing skill?, 2) Is there any significant influence of Local Guide utilization on students' skill in English writing?

Review of Related Literature
Local Guide

Local Guide is a global explorer community who writes reviews, shares photos, answers questions, edits places, and checks facts on Google Maps. Everyone who participates in the Local Guide will get points, levels and badges.

There are many activities to earn points; such as; rating a place, describing experience with reviews, sharing photographs and videos, providing insights with answers, responding to questions about a place, updating information, adding missing places, or verifying information by checking the facts. Here is the list of contributions and the points earned:

Table 1. List of Contributions and the Points Earned at Local Guide

Maps contribution	Points earned
Review	10 points per review
Review with more than 200 characters	10 bonus points per review
Rating	1 point per rating
Photo	5 points per photo
Video	7 points per video

Answer	1 point per answer
Respond to Q&As	3 points per response
Edit	5 points per edit
Place added	15 points per place added
Road added	15 points per road added
Fact checked	1 point per fact checked

Local Guide users can upgrade and reach higher levels as they earn points for all contributions. And it is the list of the level and badges at Local Guide.

Table 2. Local Guides Levels and Badges

Local Guides levels

Reach higher levels as you earn points for your contributions.

Level	Points	Badge
Level 1	0 points	No badge
Level 2	15 points	No badge
Level 3	75 points	No badge
Level 4	250 points	
Level 5	500 points	
Level 6	1,500 points	
Level 7	5,000 points	
Level 8	15,000 points	
Level 9	50,000 points	
Level 10	100,000 points	

Point and level updates take up to 24 hours. The points will not expire even if they can be reduced if the content is deleted. Google uses automatic spam detection to delete reviews which might be spam. It is the steps to provide reviews at Local Guide:

1. On a computer or smartphone, open Google Maps and make sure it is logged in.

2. Search for a place.

3. On the left, scroll down and click Write a review.

4. In the window that appears, click the star to rate the place and write a review.

When the users do review, they can add photos to upgrade the points. And it is a sample review in the Local Guide.
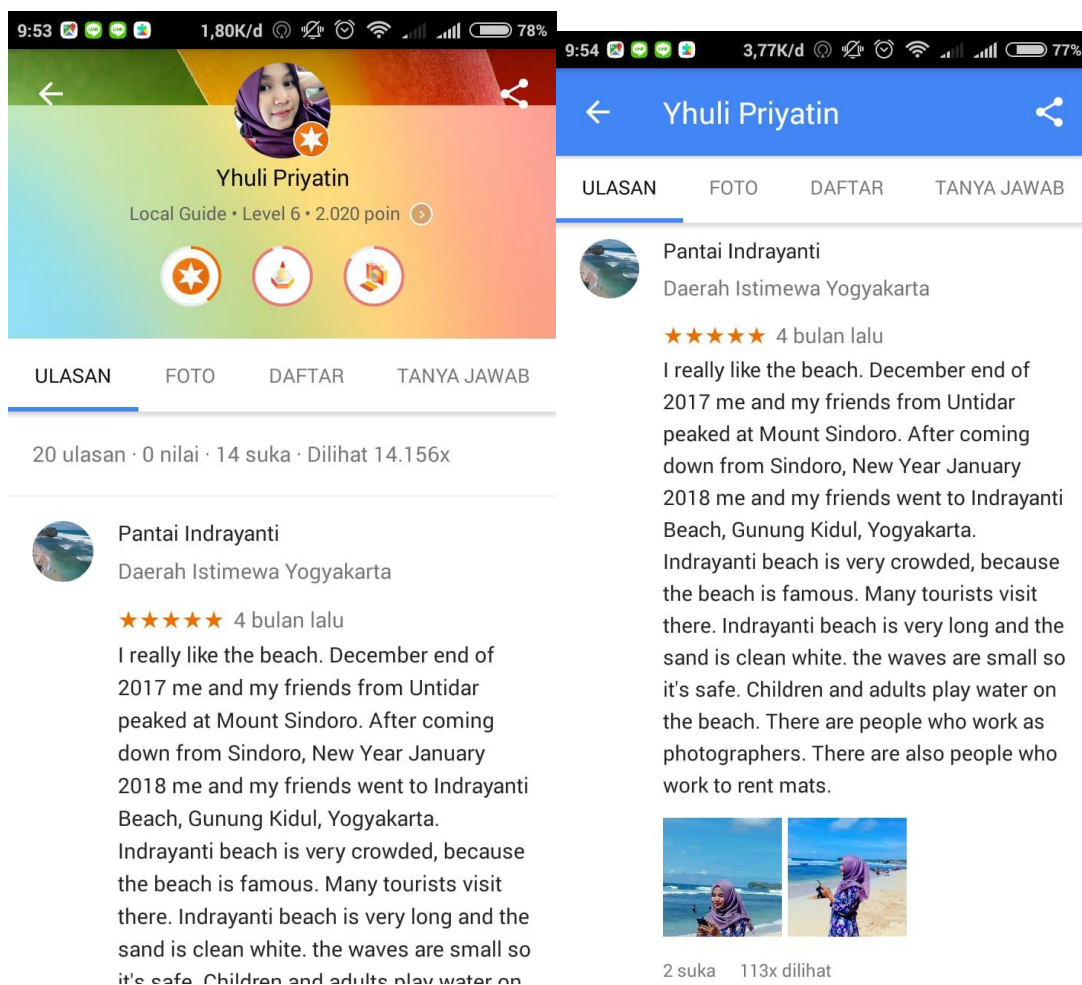
Figure 1. a Local Guide Review

Outdoor Learning Process (OLP) Strategy

Outdoor Learning is defined as something which is outside the wall (Zink and Burrows 2008). Then, it is believed that outdoor learning can provide a more impressive and stimulating learning experience (Dillon et al., 2006; Nundy, 2001; Peacock, 2006) and improve excitement,

interest and motivation to learn (Bell et al., 2009). Furthermore; outdoor learning focuses on risk and adventure to encourage students to exceed the limits of their normal comfort zone and to overcome new challenges and to develop skills (Cooper, 2003).

The benefits of outdoor learning programs especially in early childhood are to improve cognitive, socio-emotional and physical-motoric skills, awareness, ability to determine causal relationships, observation skills, creative thinking skills, concentration and imagination (Herrington and Studtmann 1998).

According to Gair (1997), there are six characteristics of outdoor learning:

1. It does not take place in the classroom.

2. Participants are directly involved in the activity.

3. Activities are implemented using real objects and senses.

4. Instead of memorizing available knowledge, the relationship among objects or events is found and explained.

5. It is learning through practice and experience.

6. Because it is outdoor learning, children find outdoor activities interesting and fun.

The sample of outdoor learning is forest school in England where students are directly involved in learning in the outside environment (Harris, 2018). The results of outdoor learning in the school are providing new opportunities for students, teachers and principals to interact, exchange ideas in learning. It is conducted by the school to provide a more flexible and responsive learning environment.

English Writing Skills

Writing is one skill of English language skills; i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing. According to Javed et.al, (2013) the writing skill is more complicated than that of other language skills. In addition, Jones et. al (2010) states that writing is a fundamental component of language. It needs understanding how to express the ideas into words. And for creating sentences, it needs to consider grammar, diction, punctuation, spelling, and many more. Basically the writing skill requires a well-structured way of the presentation of thoughts in an organized and planned way. Writing is an activity to produce a sequence of sentences arranged in a particular order and connected together in certain ways.

There were many researches related to social media for learning in the classroom. First, Salam (2017) did a research on "Implementation of Outdoor Learning Method in Improving Skills of Writing" and he found that outdoor learning can improve the ability to write and organize classes of elementary school students in Gowa Regency. Second, the research

conducted by Harun and Salamuddin (2016). They did research on "Promoting Social Skills through Outdoor Education and Assessing Its ' Influences" and they found that outdoor learning influences changes in learned social skills such as teamwork, leadership abilities and the ability to cope with change.

Considering those innovative learning strategies, we suppose that utilizing Local Guide can be an alternative learning strategy to improve students' writing skills since learning should be fun and experiencing.

Method of Investigation

Quantitative study

It was a 'pretest - posttest' study. It was a design in which one or more experimental groups were exposed to a treatment or intervention (Sugiyono, 2010). This research was conducted at the Faculty of Economics, Universitas Negeri Semarang 278 students were given a pretest before using the Local Guide. After three (3) months using the Local Guide, it was held posttest to measure the improvement of English writing.

There were two research instruments to investigate the issue. First, the essay test to check students' English writing skill. Second, the observation to understand students' impressions toward the learning with Local Guide using.

Scoring Technique

It used the analytic scale to assess the test papers. O'Malley and Pierce in Tusyanah (2016) stated that analytic scale separated the features of a composition into components which were scored separately. In giving score to students' writings, the researcher used the scoring guidance taken from Heaton's categories in five components; they are fluency, grammar, vocabulary, relevance and mechanics.

In classifying the score, we used the measurement of students' achievement suggested by Harris in Tusyanah (2016). The total score was 25. When a student got 25, it means s/he got score 100 (25 x 4) because the range was 10-100 as we could see in Table 2. The lower score, the lower points s/he got.

Table 3. Criteria of Students' Ability

Criteria of Assessment	Grade
91-100	Excellent

81-90	Very good
71-80	Good
61-70	Fair
51-60	Poor
Less than 50	Very poor

The Hypothesis Development

The hypothesis is an essential research device which guesses a focus of the investigation and permits researchers to reach a probable conclusion. It is an idea or explanation for something that is based on known facts but has not yet been proved. The hypothesis of the study is: H_a (the active hypothesis) "There is significant difference between pre-test and post-test after utilizing Local Guide

The Research Analysis Methods

The data were collected through essay test and then, they were analyzed by descriptive analysis and simple regression analysis. Descriptive analysis was used to describe the circumstances of each variable on the implementation of Local Guide in improving students' English writing skills. Regression analysis is to test the hypothesis above.

Findings

The Implementation of Utilizing Local Guide for Better Writing

The implementation of Outdoor Learning Process (OLP) strategy through Local Guide utilization consists of three (3) phases. Here it is the practical suggestion:

Practical Suggestions

EFL Level   : Intermediate - Advanced

Duration   : 90 days

Preparation phase which students already had Gmail accounts as their Local Guide accounts. Then, giving the instructions for students to review with at least 4 (four) English sentences in a single post for at least 3 (three) places per week for 3 (three) months.

The second was the implementation phase which students were given 3 (three) months to explore their world and reviewed the places they visited. It was held for three months. Students

should earn at least 500 points or Level 5 in the end of the treatment. The more points or level they earn, they get better scores.

The third phase was monitoring and evaluation. It was related to giving rewards and reinforcement. Once a week on the day of face to face learning, the lecturer announced the best student who would get a souvenir. It made students more motivated to give comments on the next topics; whereas; the passive students were encouraged to be more active.

The data were analyzed descriptively and here it is the recap of students' levels on Local Guide:
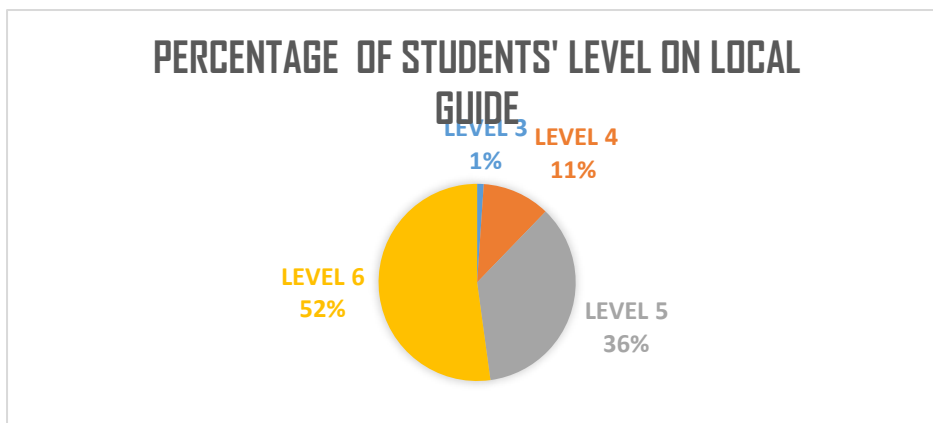
Figure 1. Percentage of Students Level on Local Guide

Based on student level acquisition in the Local Guide, it can be seen that the highest achievement is at level 6 with the percentage of 52%. It can be identified that most students are very enthusiastic and they enjoy writing English in Local Guide. Based on the results of observations and interviews of the authors with several students that their enthusiasm because learning using social media is easy to operate, other than that interested in prizes offered by Local Guides when reaching a high level. If students are very enthusiastic and enjoy learning outside the classroom using a Local Guide then their motivation to learn English goes up.

The Effectiveness of Local Guide Utilization

The researchers give score on students' English writing. Before utilizing Local Guide, students should write and submit the essay test with the topic "Johar Market". Johar Market is a popular market in Semarang. Students should write at least 150 words and here it is the writing sample:

Pre Test Writing

RESP-269

Johar market

If you want to shop clothes, books, souvenirs then you may visit Johar market. It is popular among local people and visitors Johar market is located in the center of Semarang city. It has hundreds of shops and stores. You may find anything you want there.

But because it is a traditional market, you need to bargain the price to get the cheaper one. For example, if you want to buy a dress, it is OK if you bargain the half of the price because <u>the seller usually overestimate</u> the price. It also happens to others products; such as souvenirs, fruits, vegetables, and anything. If you are not a good bargainer, sometimes you may regret to purchase a certain item.

Johar market was burnt last year but it was built and now, it has good buildings. It is more elegant now because the sellers have their own shops and they cannot sell in the corridor or pavement walk like what happened in the past. Just come to Johar Market where you may meet friendly sellers and get products with affordable price if you are good bargainer.

When we see the writing above, it can be seen that there are some mistakes on spelling and grammar. It is analyzed based on Heaton's categories in five components; they are fluency, grammar, vocabulary, relevance and mechanics. It has 85/ very good criteria.

After 90 days or 3 (three) months, there was posttest with our university as the topic. It is a well- known topic also. Thus; it is expected students can write and describe it well. Here it is the sample of post test writing:

Post Test Writing

RESP-269

UNNES

It is a popular state university in Semarang. If you want to be a teacher, come and study here. It is excellent to create the prospective teachers. But it is not only teachers, you may become any professions.

UNNES is located at Sekaran, Gunungpati. It is about 10 km from the Semarang city. Similar to others universities, it has many lecturers, many students and of course, many buildings where they study or do research or do discussion. Because, it is a conservation university, so it focuses on how to maintain the green environment. If you visit UNNES, each building is surrounded by trees and plants.

Besides attending the course, here you can follow various self-development activities. There are many organizations or clubs that you can choose according to your interests. Let's say, if you like scientific discussion or research, then you may join research forum, if you like sports, there are also many sports community available. And there are also leadership, social,

youths and many more forums to provide better environment to build and develop each student's capacity and skill. UNNES offers brighter future for its students; it is for creating good people to share the good things for more people.

Pretest and posttest writings above are from the same student. It is also analyzed based on Heaton's categories in five components; they are fluency, grammar, vocabulary, relevance and mechanics. It has 91/ excellent criteria. There are 278 writings analyzed and given scores. The table of students' writing on pre-test and post-test can be seen on Appendix 1.

Then, to find out the effectiveness of Local Guide for English Writing data are analyzed by one sample t-test. It was used to determine the difference in the average score of posttest and pretest after outdoor learning using the Local Guide media.. Then, it is the result of one sample t-test on table 4.

Table 4. The Results of *one sample t-test*

ne-Sample Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre_test	278	80.91	2.482	.149
Post_test	278	84.29	5.644	.338

One-Sample Test

	Test Score = 0					
					5% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
				Mean		
	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Difference	Lower	Upper
Pre_test	543.631	277	.000	80.914	80.62	81.21
Post_test	249.011	277	.000	84.288	83.62	84.95

Based on the test results above the average pretest score is 80.91 and the posttest average score is 84.29. Then, the significance is 0.000 <0.05; H_a is accepted. It means that the average posttest score is different from the average pretest score, so it can be concluded that there is a significant increase in the English writing skills through Local Guide.

The increase can be identified through the average score of the post test which is more than the average score of the pretest. The result of this study is consistent with Salam's research

(2017) and Tusyanah's research (2016). They found that learning carried out outside the classroom will improve students' writing skills.

Discussion

Utilizing Local Guide for Improving English Writing Skills

Google Maps offers various features such as driving mode, offline mode, editing the name of a place, audio navigation, timeline features and Local Guides. Local Guides in Indonesia are currently included in the top five countries with the most Local Guides in the world. There are more than 140 million information has been provided by Local Guides from Indonesia (Rahman, 2018).

There are various places which can be reviewed, rated or described in the Local Guide; for example tourist attractions, schools, markets, parks, popular places and even unpopular places. This will help other people who are finding out information about the place they want to visit. In this era of globalization and digitalization, many internet users are searching for information before deciding something, including visiting a place. And one of the references for finding information is through a Local Guide. Some use Indonesian and some use English to give the reviews. Local Guides use English since the readers of their reviews are not only from Indonesia but also from overseas.

When we will go to a place, for example the Lawang Sewu, then we can find information about Lawang Sewu through the Local Guide. The steps to view reviews from Lawang Sewu are:

1. Open Google Maps
2. Type Lawang Sewu in the search menu
3. The following results:
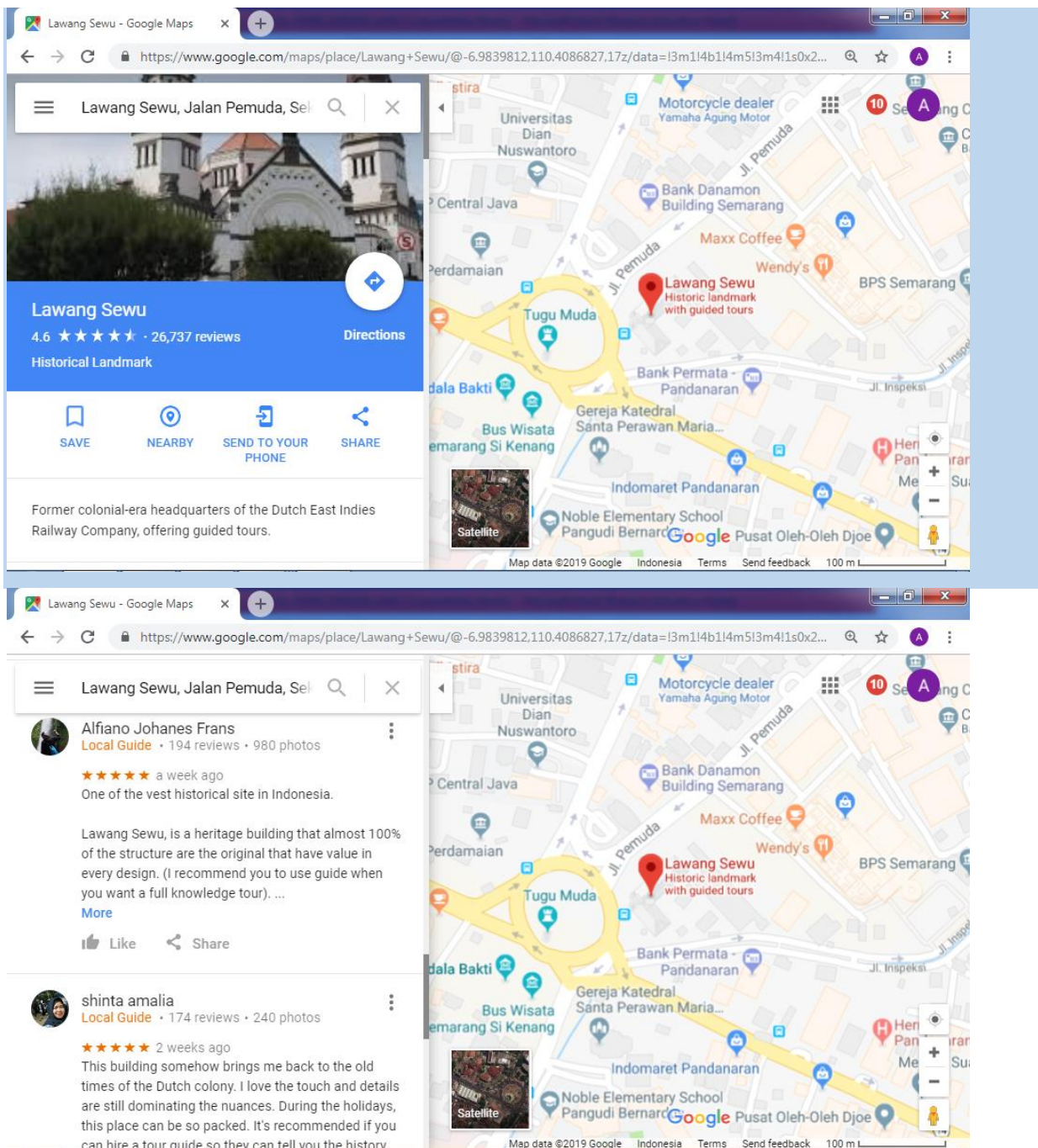
Figure 2. Local Guide Reviews of Lawang Sewu

Local Guide readers will understand the real conditions of Lawang Sewu and this certainly helps them decide to go to the place or not. The reviews are varied, can be positive or negative. Respondents of the study are expected to write in English only at their Local Guide account since English should be improved to face the international rivalry and communication.

Indonesian students are expected to be able to compete at international level; hence, mastery of communication in English is absolutely necessary. Educators are required to help them master English language skills.

At first each student reviewed a place in English by visiting it. The places can be visited are museums, beaches, and other places. However, when the monitoring phase was conducted on week 4, some stuudents did not review at their local guide account. Then, the researchers decided to let students go outside for one hour. The lecturer who is the researches conducts the learning outside the classroom by visiting at least five places around UNNES; Conservation Monument, Auditorium, Ulul Albab Mosque, Arts Building, and many more. When they walked around the place, the researchers instructed them take pictures which were then uploaded and reviewed in their local guide account.

From the observation, it was found that students really enjoyed learning in class by visiting places that they thought could refresh themselves so students would feel happy and excited when learning outside the classroom. This condition also had a positive impact when students reviewed using English in the local guide, it was proven for three months out of 278 students around 52% of them could reach level 5 in the local guide so that the scores achieved in the posttest were quite high. This also proves that learning outside the classroom by using a local guide will help students improve their writing skills in English.

Local Guide as a social media allows students write or review any places. There were 145 of 278 respondents or 52% students reached level 6 (six) in 3 (three) months. Those who were active and reached levels above 5 said that they liked writing on a Local Guide because they could store photos and shared their activities publicly. There are many benefits of being Local Guide, i.e. getting some perks from Google; such as discount coupons at a hotel, a restaurant or a mall, getting access to Google's products and many more. Then, they can contact, interact, and meet Local Guides globally in Meet ups. They can also organize their own meet up. Finally, they may got a chance to visit Local Guide Annual Submit at Google's Headquarter in USA. (Gangwar, 2019)

Some respondents stated that this learning made them go out and said they were happy to go out to take photos with their friends. Psychologically, a millennial person likes social media because he can share and express all the feelings through social networking sites. Furthermore; internet makes it easier for millennial teenagers to establish relationships (Ainiyah, 2018).

The Effectiveness of Local Guide for Better English Writing

The pretest and posttest scores were from 80.91 to 84.29. Then, the significance of the pretest and posttest analyzed with one-sample t-test was 0.000. If 0.000 <0.05; it means that there was significant difference of students' skills English writing between pretest and posttest writings.

It indicates that the use of a Local Guide for 3 (three) months can significantly improve student writing skills. This might be different if the duration is reduced or added. English language skills must be practiced regularly and this habit make students more skilled in writing English.

When some students were interviewed, they said that they like spontaneous English writing at Local Guide because there are many advantages. Here they are some advantages of utilizing Local Guide for improving English writing skills:

a) It makes them practice writing in English. Students do English writing routinely and it will certainly improve their writing skill because learning a language will be more effective when it is practiced

b) It makes students move a lot as part of exercise for health. Local Guide is an activity reviewing various places. To review many places for upgrade the level and points, someone certainly needs to go to many places. By actively visiting various places, they can walk, run or move to support their health.

c) It makes them happy exploring places. Everyone certainly needs a vacation. Among the benefits of being a Local Guide is being able to visit interesting place. They can go and visit a place alone or with their friends. It can be happy moments for being Local Guides.

d) They can get facilities or gifts from Google. As mentioned above, the Local Guide will get rewards from Google based on the points they collect.

e) They can get many friends from Local Guide. There is a local guide community at each region and sometime they hold the activities for meeting up and add more friends.

However; there are many obstacles of using Local Guide. Here are some obstacles:

a) There are some students who are not familiar with the Local Guide, so the lecturers should explain on Local Guide.

b) Some students face difficulty to access internet because of limited facilities. It makes them unable to review at Local Guide.

c) Students' self-perception if writing is the most difficult language skill. Some students prefer speaking to writing which makes them less interested in writing English in Local Guide.

Then, outdoor gives experiences for students and allows them get familiar with the environment. When students are at outdoor, they can feel the air, the sky, the plants, buildings and many more. It activates their mind to express their feelings or ideas in words. Tusyanah, et al (2016) did a research on "The Contribution of Classical Music Given Outdoor to Improve Indonesian High School Students' Ability in Descriptive Text Writing". They found that CMGO is one alternative in ELT combining 'classical music' and 'outdoor teaching' gave

contribution in improving students' skills to produce descriptive texts. CMGO actually gave contribution in improving students' skills to produce descriptive texts. The posttest mean of the experimental group was higher (from 60.27 to 65.20) than the control group (from 60.86 to 62.31).

Being a Local Guide and providing reviews for various places is a spontaneous writing activity. This helps students get used to writing in English and will improve their writing skills when testing in class. In a recent study of Joaquin, Kim and Shin (2016), these "spontaneous" prewriting activities were examined of students taking an English as a Second Language placement examination. They coded students' notes to examine five types of prewriting activities: 1) drafting, 2) free writing, 3) outlining, 4) listing and 5) clustering. The small majority of the 513 students used prewriting with outlining (52%) and listing (29%) as the most frequently applied prewriting techniques. Students who prewrote outperformed those who did not and although free writing seemed to be related with higher essay exam scores- differences between the types of prewriting were not statistically significant. The authors did find a significant relationship between the elaborateness of students' prewriting and their essay scores.

Then, Nguyen et.al (2018) also stated that prewriting tasks in Vietnamese English L2 classes might help to overcome students' experienced difficulties and support them in their writing. Prewriting can be seen as a process of discovery, allowing for mistakes and restarts. It mostly occurs at the beginning of writing process, but more and more, teachers are encouraging students to use this technique whenever they are writing.

The discussion above strengthens the idea to utilize Local Guide. It is spontaneous writing which can make students write routinely and fun. Since, Local Guide' review does not require long paragraphs, some students do not think if it is hard. Writing at Local Guide is doable, and it can encourage students write more and more.

Conclusion

Based on the discussion, it can be concluded that:

1.   The implementation of Outdoor Learning Process (OLP) strategy through Local Guide utilization consists of three (3) phases; they were: at first, preparation phase. The second was the implementation phase which students were given 3 (three) months to explore their world and reviewed the places they visited. The third phase was monitoring and evaluation. There were 278 students to explore the places during OLP learning strategy and then to review them in English. Some students revealed that they were happy to be the Local Guide because they could

record their visits on Google, could get many benefits from Google Maps and could improve their English writing skill.

2.   The pretest and posttest scores were from 80.91 to 84.29. Then, the significance of the pretest and posttest analyzed with one-sample t-test is 0.000. If 0.000 <0.05; it means that there was significant difference of students' skills English writing between pretest and posttest. Thus; H_a (the active hypothesis) "There is significant difference between pre-test and post-test after utilizing Local Guide" is accepted because there is a significant difference on students' skill in producing English text.

Limitations and Future Research

This study has contributions for English writing skill but still there are some limitations. First, it needs good internet connection to post the rates, reviews or photos. Some students find it difficult to connect to the internet. It automatically influences students' writings on their Local Guide account because of this problem. Thus; it needs supports from the institution for providing better facilities and infrastructures. Second, it happens in Indonesian University and English is the foreign language; the results may be different for students where English is the second language.

Thus; for the next researches, it can have other variables; such as Internet Facilities, Mobile Phone Specification, Lecturers' Teaching Style or others to maximize the influence of Local Guide for better English. Then, it can have other social media for improving English speaking skill and other skills.

References

Bell, P., Lewenstein, B., Shouse, A. W., Feder, M. A. (Eds.). 2009. "*Learning science in informal environments: People, places and pursuits*". Washington, DC: National Academies Press.

Cooper, G. 2003. "The demise of real experience and the case for outdoor education". *ECOS* 24:10–14

Dillon, Justin, Mark Rickinson, and Dawn Lorraine Sanders. 2006. "The Value of Outdoor Learning : Evidence from Research in the UK and Elsewhere." *School Science Review* 87(320).

Gair, NP . 1997. *Outdoor education: Theory and practice*. London, UK: Cassell.

Gangwar, Anil. 2019. *What is all about Google Local Guide? What are its advantages? accessed on*

https://www.quora.com/What-is-all-about-Google-Local-Guide-What-are-its-advantages-1

Gunduz, Semseddin. 2017. "European Journal of Education Studies Relationship Between Social Networks Adoption And." *European Journal of Education Studies* 3(6): 199–214.

Harris, Frances. 2018. "Outdoor Learning Spaces : The Case of Forest School." *Area*: 222–31.

Harun, Mohd Taib, and Norlena Salamuddin. 2016. "Promoting Social Skills through Outdoor Education and Assessing Its ' Effects Promoting Social Skills through Outdoor Education and Assessing Its ' Effects." *Asian Social Science* 10.

Herrington, Susan, and Ken Studtmann. 1998. "Landscape Interventions : New Directions for the Design of Children ' s Outdoor Play Environments." *Landscape and Urban Planning* 42: 191–205.

Huda, Husnul, Nuna Mustikawati Dewi, and Lulut Widyaningrum. 2017. "Mengemas Kelas Bahasa Inggris (EFL) Melalui Joyful Learning Based Social Constructivism Pedagogy." *Dimas* 17(2): 237–52.

Jones, C. D., Reutzel, D. R., & Fargo, J. D. Comparing two methods of writing instruction: Effects on kindergarten students' reading skills, The Journal of Educational Research, 103(5): 327-341.

Javed, Muhammad et. al. 2013. A Study of Students' Assesment in Writing Skills of the English Language, International Journal of Instruction. 6 (2).

Marsela, Marry. 2015. Ada Program Berhadiah di Google Maps. https://www.cnnindonesia.com/teknologi/20151118180219-185-92550/ada-program-berhadiah-di-Google-maps

Nundy, S. 2001. "*Raising achievement through the environment: The case for fieldwork and field centres*". Walsall, UK: NAFSO

Peacock, A. 2006. "*Changing minds: The lasting impact of school trips*". Exeter, UK: University of Exete

Rahman, Adi Fida. Orang Indonesia Bagikan 140 Juta Informasi di Google Maps. https://inet.detik.com/cyberlife/d-3927547/orang-indonesia-bagikan-140-juta-informasi-di-Google-maps

Tusyanah, et.al. 2016. The Influence of Activeness And English Usage On Social Media Toward Indonesians' English Writing Skills**,** Surabaya**;** Petra University Press.

Tusyanah, Maftukhah, I., Arief, S., & Sakitri, W. 2016. The Contribution of Classical Music Given Outdoor to Improve Indonesian High School Students' Ability in Descriptive Text Writing. *Asian EFL Journal*. *Senior Editors*, 34.

Salam, Rosdiah. 2017. "Implementation of Outdoor Learning Method in Improving Skills of Writing." *International Journal of Social Science and Humanities Research* 5(3): 504–12.

Sugiyono. 2010. *Metode Penelitian Pendidikan Pendekatan Kuantitatif, Kualitatif, dan R&D*. Bandung: Alfabeta.

Yıldırım, Günseli., Akamca, Guzin Ozyilmaz. 2017. "The Effect of Outdoor Learning Activities on the Development of Preschool Children." *South African Journal of Education* 37(2): 1–10.

Zink, Robyn, and Lisette Burrows. 2008. "' Is What You See What You Get ?' The Production of Knowledge in-between the Indoors and the Outdoors in Outdoor Education ' Is What You See What You Get ?' The Production of Knowledge in-between the Indoors and the Outdoors." *Physical Education and Sport Pedagogy* 13(3): 251–65.

Appendix 1 The Results of Pretest, Posttest and Local Guide Points

No	Respondents	Pretest	Posttest	Points
1	RESP-01	81	91	208
2	RESP-02	82	91	433
3	RESP-03	84	71	1635
4	RESP-04	82	86	429
5	RESP-05	80	91	615
6	RESP-06	78	91	270
7	RESP-07	80	86	242
8	RESP-08	78	76	506
9	RESP-09	82	86	527
10	RESP-10	80	81	1081
11	RESP-11	78	76	615
12	RESP-12	78	86	261
13	RESP-13	78	86	532
14	RESP-14	82	91	303
15	RESP-15	80	86	666
16	RESP-16	82	86	624
17	RESP-17	80	81	1287
18	RESP-18	81	86	775
19	RESP-19	79	86	570
20	RESP-20	77	86	542
21	RESP-21	78	91	455
22	RESP-22	80	91	446
23	RESP-23	77	91	454
24	RESP-24	84	91	639
25	RESP-25	77	81	782
26	RESP-26	79	86	321
27	RESP-27	78	76	267

28	RESP-28	78	86	374
29	RESP-29	81	86	532
30	RESP-30	76	86	1212
31	RESP-01	81	91	258
32	RESP-32	78	86	1228
33	RESP-33	79	86	377
34	RESP-34	79	86	414
35	RESP-35	80	86	569
36	RESP-36	79	86	255
37	RESP-37	78	81	313
38	RESP-38	79	86	364
39	RESP-39	80	86	760
40	RESP-40	77	80	90
41	RESP-41	83	86	503
42	RESP-42	80	91	364
43	RESP-43	81	80	615
44	RESP-44	80	76	491
45	RESP-45	84	86	1012
46	RESP-46	81	81	1470
47	RESP-47	79	81	363
48	RESP-48	82	81	1180
49	RESP-49	82	81	1053
50	RESP-50	81	81	607
51	RESP-51	86	91	2575
52	RESP-52	81	81	352
53	RESP-53	82	81	2130
54	RESP-54	83	82	423
55	RESP-55	86	91	538
56	RESP-56	83	76	1009
57	RESP-57	78	81	428

58	RESP-58	81	96	278
59	RESP-59	80	81	347
60	RESP-60	80	76	529
61	RESP-61	86	86	1230
62	RESP-62	83	86	350
63	RESP-63	84	76	1173
64	RESP-64	79	81	945
65	RESP-65	82	81	613
66	RESP-66	83	91	576
67	RESP-67	81	91	269
68	RESP-68	83	81	546
69	RESP-69	81	81	539
70	RESP-70	81	86	661
71	RESP-71	79	76	674
72	RESP-72	78	76	258
73	RESP-73	83	76	1183
74	RESP-74	82	76	1003
75	RESP-75	82	76	1077
76	RESP-76	82	76	1113
77	RESP-77	79	86	374
78	RESP-78	79	76	448
79	RESP-79	80	91	338
80	RESP-80	78	76	507
81	RESP-81	82	71	1495
82	RESP-82	82	81	765
83	RESP-83	80	86	901
84	RESP-84	82	71	922
85	RESP-85	83	81	1067
86	RESP-86	83	81	434
87	RESP-87	81	86	691

88	RESP-88	80	81	671
89	RESP-89	75	76	184
90	RESP-90	86	86	1986
91	RESP-91	79	96	358
92	RESP-92	84	86	355
93	RESP-93	81	86	462
94	RESP-94	82	86	622
95	RESP-95	82	96	435
96	RESP-96	84	91	600
97	RESP-97	82	96	449
98	RESP-98	83	86	795
99	RESP-99	78	91	589
100	RESP-100	82	86	379
101	RESP-101	81	76	541
102	RESP-102	82	91	436
103	RESP-103	84	96	426
104	RESP-104	85	86	1283
105	RESP-105	85	81	3629
106	RESP-106	80	86	330
107	RESP-107	81	86	335
108	RESP-108	83	86	717
109	RESP-109	81	86	448
110	RESP-110	80	86	399
111	RESP-111	86	91	833
112	RESP-112	82	91	338
113	RESP-113	83	81	365
114	RESP-114	84	96	1310
115	RESP-115	82	86	566
116	RESP-116	81	91	443
117	RESP-117	80	86	686

118	RESP-118	83	91	365
119	RESP-119	79	86	108
120	RESP-120	83	91	1538
121	RESP-121	80	86	490
122	RESP-122	80	86	372
123	RESP-123	80	86	532
124	RESP-124	81	86	733
125	RESP-125	83	86	645
126	RESP-126	82	81	301
127	RESP-127	84	91	419
128	RESP-128	83	86	463
129	RESP-129	81	71	1005
130	RESP-130	78	81	1134
131	RESP-131	83	91	647
132	RESP-132	82	86	675
133	RESP-133	82	81	644
134	RESP-134	81	91	361
135	RESP-135	80	86	615
136	RESP-136	82	86	528
137	RESP-137	83	91	1755
138	RESP-138	77	91	682
139	RESP-139	79	86	333
140	RESP-140	80	86	510
141	RESP-141	78	86	545
142	RESP-142	80	86	737
143	RESP-143	80	86	1371
144	RESP-144	79	91	824
145	RESP-145	85	91	1025
146	RESP-146	83	81	831
147	RESP-147	83	91	590

148	RESP-148	85	81	833
149	RESP-149	81	86	1083
150	RESP-150	82	81	712
151	RESP-151	85	76	957
152	RESP-152	85	86	1168
153	RESP-153	85	71	987
154	RESP-154	86	76	1023
155	RESP-155	84	81	1027
156	RESP-156	86	86	573
157	RESP-157	86	81	1030
158	RESP-158	83	81	718
159	RESP-159	80	81	706
160	RESP-160	85	91	1005
161	RESP-161	85	86	496
162	RESP-162	82	81	1075
163	RESP-163	85	81	606
164	RESP-164	84	86	865
165	RESP-165	84	81	518
166	RESP-166	83	91	567
167	RESP-167	79	71	219
168	RESP-168	77	76	248
169	RESP-169	79	86	216
170	RESP-170	82	86	234
171	RESP-171	81	86	306
172	RESP-172	82	91	229
173	RESP-173	82	86	265
174	RESP-174	79	76	320
175	RESP-175	79	86	363
176	RESP-176	74	86	320
177	RESP-177	77	81	264

178	RESP-178	77	81	529
179	RESP-179	81	86	373
180	RESP-180	78	71	319
181	RESP-181	78	76	210
182	RESP-182	79	86	231
183	RESP-183	78	86	259
184	RESP-184	76	81	217
185	RESP-185	79	86	618
186	RESP-186	77	86	214
187	RESP-187	78	81	218
188	RESP-188	81	86	220
189	RESP-189	79	76	246
190	RESP-190	82	86	319
191	RESP-191	80	81	375
192	RESP-192	77	86	220
193	RESP-193	83	81	322
194	RESP-194	76	81	242
195	RESP-195	79	81	208
196	RESP-196	78	81	255
197	RESP-197	82	91	270
198	RESP-198	80	91	243
199	RESP-199	83	86	302
200	RESP-200	81	81	230
201	RESP-201	81	91	226
202	RESP-202	83	86	277
203	RESP-203	81	86	208
204	RESP-204	77	81	246
205	RESP-205	80	96	518
206	RESP-206	78	76	1362
207	RESP-207	78	76	254

208	RESP-208	77	76	204
209	RESP-209	81	71	251
210	RESP-210	77	81	221
211	RESP-211	79	86	205
212	RESP-212	79	81	278
213	RESP-213	79	81	390
214	RESP-214	78	86	344
215	RESP-215	81	86	275
216	RESP-216	80	76	279
217	RESP-217	85	86	831
218	RESP-218	83	91	755
219	RESP-219	79	91	472
220	RESP-220	84	91	372
221	RESP-221	83	91	411
222	RESP-222	83	91	704
223	RESP-223	81	91	1079
224	RESP-224	80	86	425
225	RESP-225	82	91	386
226	RESP-226	79	86	639
227	RESP-227	77	86	225
228	RESP-228	85	91	644
229	RESP-229	81	91	401
230	RESP-230	82	86	808
231	RESP-231	80	91	682
232	RESP-232	87	91	432
233	RESP-233	79	86	310
234	RESP-234	77	91	210
235	RESP-235	78	76	207
236	RESP-236	78	86	206
237	RESP-237	80	86	327

238	RESP-238	80	86	760
239	RESP-239	83	91	821
240	RESP-240	84	71	860
241	RESP-241	85	76	1022
242	RESP-242	83	86	325
243	RESP-243	80	81	379
244	RESP-244	81	86	339
245	RESP-245	78	76	421
246	RESP-246	81	81	881
247	RESP-247	81	76	737
248	RESP-248	79	76	510
249	RESP-249	83	86	379
250	RESP-250	80		505
251	RESP-251	81	86	580
252	RESP-252	83	91	517
253	RESP-253	78	86	1038
254	RESP-254	82	86	829
255	RESP-255	84	86	449
256	RESP-256	77	76	438
257	RESP-257	80	81	644
258	RESP-258	83	86	1259
259	RESP-259	79	71	222
260	RESP-260	83	86	1013
261	RESP-261	85	86	600
262	RESP-262	79	91	821
263	RESP-263	79	81	563
264	RESP-264	82	91	358
265	RESP-265	83	81	957
266	RESP-266	79	76	318
267	RESP-267	78	76	347

268	RESP-268	86	91	903
269	RESP-269	85	81	1115
270	RESP-270	77	86	554
271	RESP-271	82	86	600
272	RESP-272	83	81	548
273	RESP-273	81	81	323
274	RESP-274	84	86	507
275	RESP-275	80	81	647
276	RESP-276	79	91	784
277	RESP-277	82	71	1012
278	RESP-278	78	86	648

How Good Indonesian EFL Students Realize Subject-Verb Agreement in Joint Construction Practice?

Adip Arifin

STKIP PGRI Ponorogo, East Java, Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Adip Arifin is currently a lecturer at English Education Department, STKIP PGRI Ponorogo, East Java, Indonesia. He pursued his master on English education at State University of Semarang in 2014. To develop his professional career, he is currently taking his Ph.D. at the same university. His research interest includes SLA, Discourse Analysis, and TEFL as well. He can be further reached at adiparifin@yahoo.com

Abstract

Realizing the correct grammatical rule in English sentence can be seriously complicated for many Indonesian EFL learners. They have to work and deal with a number of "complexities" in English grammar, which are totally different and not as complex as the rule in their mother tongue. As a matter of fact, the complexities in English grammar often cause the students' error. One common error resulted from the significant difference of English and Indonesian grammar is subject-verb agreement. Considering the importance of subject-verb agreement in English writing, therefore, this study aims to intensively investigate the realization of subject-verb agreement in joint construction practice and revealing the source of errors as well. The course applies Genre-based approach in teaching writing practice. The study employs document analysis to achieve its goal and involves 30 students, divided into six groups of five. They are fourth semester students of English Language Education department at STKIP PGRI Ponorogo, Indonesia. Each group is required to write one essay text in the third meeting of the course by expanding the same topic on national education. In this study, the joint construction texts are the main source of data. The researcher also administer semi-structured interview to six students who made subject-verb

agreement errors to know their source of error. To classify the identified errors, Richards' classification on labeling the error is employed; they are omission, addition, misinformation, and misordering. The findings depict that the identified errors meet the four categories of error. The most frequent error belongs to misinformation (47.6%), and were subsequently followed by omission (28.5%), addition (23.8%), and misordering (4.7%). In addition, the result of semi-structured interview reveals that interlingual and intralingual become the major source of error.

Keyword: Subject-verb agreement; Indonesian EFL writing; joint construction practice

Introduction

One of the common tasks for Indonesian EFL students is writing a piece of paper, such as essay, narrative, exposition, and essay text. In writing a text, realizing the complete thought through the correct and acceptable rule (grammar) is fully essential. In this phase, grammar plays very significant and important role as its function to realize a good grammatical sentences. The correct grammar enables the reader to easily digest the writer's expressed thoughts. Even though grammar plays very significant role in structuring good sentences, but many students Indonesian EFL learners are not fully aware with it. They often "disobey" the rule, as they experience in their first language (*Bahasa Indonesia*).

For the sake of this reason, Indonesian EFL students often recognized writing activities as the most challenging skills to master. To begin with, this perception is also supported by a number of researches which showed that writing requires students' very hard effort and skill (see Napitupulu (2017), Nurjanah (2017), Arifin *et al*, 2014; Mali and Yulia (2012), and Stapa and Izahar (2010). Many students often failed to compose such a good writing. As Hyland (2004) highlighted, EFL writing is commonly shorter, less cohesive and fluent, and contains more errors. In Indonesian EFL context, the phenomena as argued by Hyland are easily found in students' text writing. For many of them, writing seems as the most difficult skill to master, compared to other three English skills. In addition, their scores in writing are not better than other skills. Even though they are in the university level, it does not automatically guarantee that they have advanced skill in writing. Therefore, they often view writing skill as the most time consuming and exhausted learning, compare to other skill. This perspective, of course, is not totally true because every skill has its own way to develop and master.

In fact, it is obviously true that writing a text is a time consuming process for many Indonesian EFL learners, since they are given the narrow exposure to write. As a result, making error is inevitable for them. James (1998) claims that language error is "unintentionally deviant and is not self-corrigible by its author". In one hand, making error is positively significance since it drives the students to achieve better. Through error, learners will understand what is grammatically acceptable and what is not. Therefore, Olasehinde (2002) pointed out that making error is necessary for shaping the normal learning curve of student. On the other hand, making error is considered embarrassing for Indonesian EFL learners. As suggested by Ellis (1997:35), **"e**rrors reflect gaps in a learner's knowledge, they occur because the learner does not know what is correct." They often frustrated for applying English grammatical rules in their writings. In Indonesian context, the subject verb agreement (further recognized as SVA) seems to be the endless problematic issue for English teachers to address.

The "ignorance" of the subject verb agreement often appeared in both spoken and written language that learners exposed to use. This basic premise has been proved by a number of studies during a decade. Those studies have been intensively investigating the errors of English learners on applying grammatical rules which dealt with subject verb agreement, among others are studies done by Napitupulu (2017), Nurjanah (2017), Mali and Yulia (2012), and Stapa and Izahar (2010). Mali and Yulia (2017) and Nurjanah (2017) have investigated Indonesian EFL learners on writing a piece of text individually. Both researchers applied error analysis to help them answering the main question. In fact, their study results have one thing in common; the subject verb agreement has been the significant error of students, particularly in misinformation and omission type. Another study by Napitupulu (2017), resulted the similar finding. Subject verb agreement placed in the second most frequent grammatical error in students' writing. Unfortunately, referring to aforementioned studies, none of them tried to further explore how if they work jointly. They were focused on investigating learner's error as the individual, as the independent writer.

In responding to aforementioned studies, similar growing body of research in Indonesia has also largely focused on improving the learners' grammatical errors during the last five years (see Djahimo, 2018; Hatta, 2018; Larekeng, 2018; Mardiana, 2018; and Choo and Huat, 2017). Those studies were intended to help the Indonesian English learners achieve better in writing the English text using various methods and techniques of teaching. Practically, the study was purposively done to overcome the Indonesian EFL learners in writing better grammatical

sentences. This matter of fact is not something surprising for English teachers in Indonesia, because as widely known, the basic grammar in *Bahasa Indonesia* is totally different with English grammar. The difference lies on many core grammatical elements, such as; tenses type, sentence pattern, and subject verb agreement.

As other study on grammar conducted by Hendriani, she investigated the students' preference on learning grammar methods. Her study involved 154 participants in Indonesian Higher education context. The result of her study informed us that 108 participants (70.13%) were preferred to involve in explicit teaching grammar, or deductively. Other 38 participants preferred to engage in the opposite way, that was implicit teaching grammar (inductive). Hendriani's study clearly suggests that the fact of giving explicit grammar teaching is definitely necessary. Despite Hendriani's study, the method of teaching grammar for Indonesian English learners is also become the concerns of Indonesian English scholars and teachers at moment. Even though the study revealed that learners preferred to the explicit teaching grammar, but then, it contributes much on learners' lack of understanding on subject verb agreement. As known, the explicit teaching of grammar is characterized by the use of most direct instructions in which limit learners to discover and use the rule in more authentic situation. In practice, they are understand the rule, but fail to apply the rule. The function of explicit teaching is to provide clear guidance to the students. Explicit teaching of grammar also enables the learners to pay attention more on any elements of the sentence or text that have not been well organized (see Feez, 2002; Hyland, 2007; Martin & Rose, 2008).

Conceptually, subject verb agreement is widely understood as a type of grammatical rule in which the subject must agree with the verb (Choo and Huat, 2017: 103). Moreover, in English sentence pattern, especially simple present, singular verbs follow the singular subjects, whereas plural verbs follow plural subjects (Stapa & Izahar, 2010: 4). The grammatical rule of subject verb agreement is only applicable for simple present tense. If learners put the wrong pair of subject verb agreement, they will not be able to transmit the message precisely. As a result, the reader may be misunderstood the message writer sent. For instance; "Adam and Paul greets me every day." Referring to the example, the reader may be misunderstood the meaning of the sentence. Readers may simply think the writer (speaker) wants to tell the reader (hearer) that "Adam and Paul greet me every day" together or "Adam greets me every day" and "Paul greets me every day" too, which means they both greet me every day but in different occasion. From the example, it is easily

identified the importance of realizing the correct subject verb agreement in written form of language.

The source in which causing the error were suggested by prior experts, among others were; Richards (1971), Corder (1973), Dulay and Burt (1974), and Ellis (1994). One of the widely adopted taxonomies to label the source of error is suggested by Richards. He formulated the sources of learners' error in three ways, namely interlingual, intralingual, and developmental. He further argued that interlingual occurs when the rule of learner's mother tongue "interferes" the rule of target language being learned. It occurred as a result of the use of elements from one language while speaking or writing another language. Differ with interlingual, intralingual occurs within the target language itself. It has nothing to do with learners' mother tongue at all. Intralingual reflects learners' way to overgeneralize the language rule. In this case, learners think that the particular rule is applicable for all situation (environment), whereas not. The third source of error is developmental errors. It occurs when the learner builds up the prediction about the target language on the basis of limited knowledge and experience.

Considering the significance of subject verb agreement in writing, and to fill the gap as previously stated, the present study is intensively aimed at investigating students' error on subject verb agreement in joint construction practice. Besides, another big question to address through this study is finding out the source of error which leads them to commit such error(s). The impetus of this present research also comes from the researcher's strong interest in studying Indonesian EFL learners' writing, which still hiding numerous problems to address. Moreover, studies on investigating group of learners' writing error on subject verb agreement are found little.

Methodology

Research Design

Considering the nature of the problem in the present study, the error analysis design is employed, which mainly specified on analyzing the students' error in subject-verb agreement within their writing. Error analysis is basically descriptive in nature. To apply the design, four steps of procedure are subsequently applied, as follows: (1) collecting the sample, (2) identifying the error, (3) describing the error, and (4) explaining the error. Sawalmeh (2013:3) argued that researchers interested in error analysis observed that errors are beneficial for both learners and teachers since it provides information to the teachers on students errors. Therefore, it helps the

teachers in three ways, firstly to correct their errors, secondly to improve their teaching and thirdly to focus on those area that need reinforcement (Al-haysony, 2012).

Participants

The participants were four semester students of English Language Education department at a private college in Indonesia, pursuing the four year graduate (bachelor) in English Education. During the study, the Genre-based approach is applied in exposing the students with writing practice. It is chosen because genre based writing has a number of advantages which meet the students' need under the context of study. As suggested by Hyland (2004), genre based writing is characterized by the following . To have adequate data, the study involved 30 students of STKIP PGRI Ponorogo, divided into six groups of five. They were 12 male and 18 female, in the age of 19 to 22. All of the participants were taught English since they were in the elementary school, started in the age of seventh. In case of ethnicity, the subjects under the study were Javanese at all. Besides, they have also the same mother tongue; that is Javanese language. Even though their mother tongue was Javanese at all, the subjects in a whole were able to speak Indonesian very fluently, as its role which serves as national language and second language as well. All of the participant's names are pseudonymized.

Data and Instrument

During the course, the participants were engaged in teaching writing with a particular topic which considerably discursive in nature. After that, each group of subject was assigned to write a 350-500 word essay on the topic in the given time (60 to 75 minutes). Each group was given the same topic, which was about national education. Hence, the data were mainly taken from the group of students' written work of their progress task II. Each group was required to write one essay text which used a lot of present tense in the third meeting of the course. The use of present tense requires more on the use of subject verb agreement in acceptable ways. Thus, the joint construction text was the exclusively data main source. The sentence containing the realization of subject-verb agreement was the primary data in real.

Then, in order to obtain deeper information from the participants point of view, the researcher employed semi-structured interview to six students who made various subject-verb agreement errors in their writing. This enabled the researcher to explain why the error is

committed. To classify the observed sources of error, Richard's taxonomy (1974) were applied, as follows: (1) interlanguage, (2) intralanguage, and (3) developmental error.

Data Analysis

To specify the types of error, Dulay's *et al* (1982) framework on classifying learner's error was adapted, they were; (1) omission, (2) addition, (3) misformation; and (4) misordering. The chosen framework used to determine the types of subject verb agreement error and its frequency as well. Moreover, the data gained through semi-structured interview were analyzed to confirm the errors they made in writing. To further discuss, the omission error is made if the learner omits the obligatory element of rule, such as in the example: "My uncle policeman" (omitting "is"). Addition error means adding the unnecessary elements, such as in the example: "Learners writes a short academic text" (adding unnecessary "s" in predicate "write"). Misinformation error happens when learners put the incorrect forms of the verbs in position of the correct ones, such as in the example: "The learners is discussing the advantage of using gadget in education" (placing the wrong finite "is", instead of "are"). Misordering error is observed when learners made wrong sequence of word order, as in the example: "A good teacher build up you." instead of "A good teacher build you up."

Findings and Discussion

Subject-verb agreement errors

The following section presents the result of identification on students' work errors after getting the intensive courses. Before writing the text in joint construction practice, the students are explicitly taught how to write a good essay text. The teacher situates the students to write in accordance following the English grammatical rule in practice. The students are exposed to write an essay text independently, with different topics. This is done in order to give adequate practice on writing an essay text. The teaching of text was based on the approach of genre based writing.

As genre based approach suggested, before writing, the students are scaffolded with four stages; building knowledge of field (BKOF), modeling of text (MOT), independent construction of text (ICoT), and joint construction of text, known as JCoT (Emilia and Hamied, 2015). The teaching and learning process was initiated with introducing and equipping as well students with adequate knowledge related to the field, which meant the students were exposed to build their own

understanding on essay text. The researcher, who acted as the lecturer, explained the generic structure and the lexicogrammatical features of the text. Coming to the second stage, the students are engaged in modeling of text. The researcher provided three essay texts with various topics in order to give better understanding for students on essay text. The three texts were mainly taken from internet source. After that, the researcher asked the students to start writing the text on the benefit of the internet independently. The first meeting was closed by submitting the students' independent text.

As the first meeting, the second meeting was done through a series of stages in genre based approach, involved building knowledge of field (BKOF), modeling of text (MOT), and independent construction of text (ICoT). With similar stages, the students were instructed to practice writing the essay text independently. The first and the second meeting did not apply the last stage in genre based approach, which was joint construction of the text (JCoT). This was intentionally done to help the students as individual independently gain adequate knowledge on subject matter. At the end of the second meeting, the students are required to write another essay text in political issue.

Differed with the first and the second meeting, the third meeting ended up with construction practice of the text. Therefore, the students worked together to write an essay text. From six groups of students' written works on essay, twenty-one (21) subject-verb agreement errors were identified. The errors found were varied in case of their type and the number as well. Table 1 displays detailed findings of errors types, number and their percentage, and the selected sample in which the errors occurred in context. From the table 1, it was obviously observed that the subject-verb agreement error types found in the students' written works involve four different classifications of errors, as Richards expounded. The most frequent subject-verb agreement error belongs to misinformation (47.6%), and subsequently followed by omission (28.5%), addition, (23.8%), and misordering category (4.7%). The detail findings can be simply observed at the table below:

Table 1. Subject-Verb Agreement Errors Found in Students' Work

No.	Classification of error	Number of error	Percentage	Sample of error
1	Omission	6	28.5%	

				The information spread[1] throughout the nation very quickly.
				National examination force[2] the students to study hard before joining.
				[1] omit the singular marker of main verb *spread*
				[2] omit the singular marker of main verb *force*
2	Addition	5	23.8%	*Through learning, students hopes[1] to reach the brighter future.*
				At least, students in Indonesia spends[2] twelve years of formal schooling.
				[1] add unnecessary singular marker –s for singular main verb *hope*
				[2] add unnecessary singular marker –s for singular main verb *spend*
3	Misinformation	10	47.6%	*Education have[1] to elevate students' morality.*
				The government don't[2] provide appropriate facilities for students in suburban places.

				[1] misuse of wrong verb *have* for the singular subject *education*
				[2] misuse of wrong auxiliary verb *don't* for the singular subject *government*
4	Misordering	1	4.7%	*Many parents pick up[1] the student to school.* [1] misplace of the phrasal verb order *pick up*, instead of *pick the student up*

As presented in the table above, misinformation error takes the most frequent error that students made. According to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005), misinformation error may happen because of the use of an incorrect form of a morpheme or structure. In addition, Wee *et al* (2010) argued that "the wrong forms of the verbs are chosen in place of the right ones." For the detail of students' error also can be seen in the following figure:
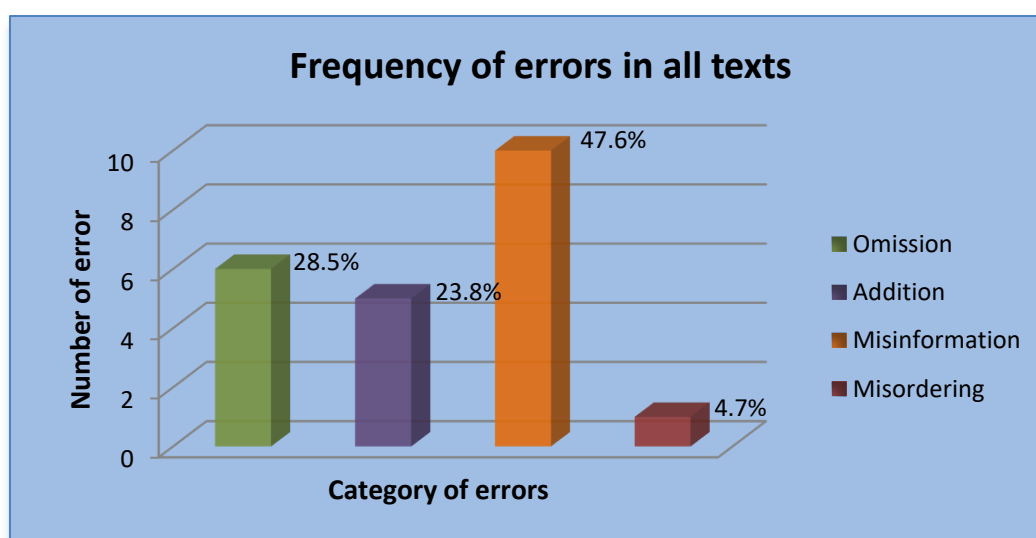
Figure 1: The frequency of identified errors in the whole students' texts

Based on the figure above, it can be easily identified that the students' error in misinformation category is considered significant in contributing to the number of error found. It was 10 errors which equal to 47.6% of the total errors. The omission error is subsequently followed by other types of error, namely omission, addition, and misordering. To have clearer description on students' errors, the following figure presents the error found in each text.
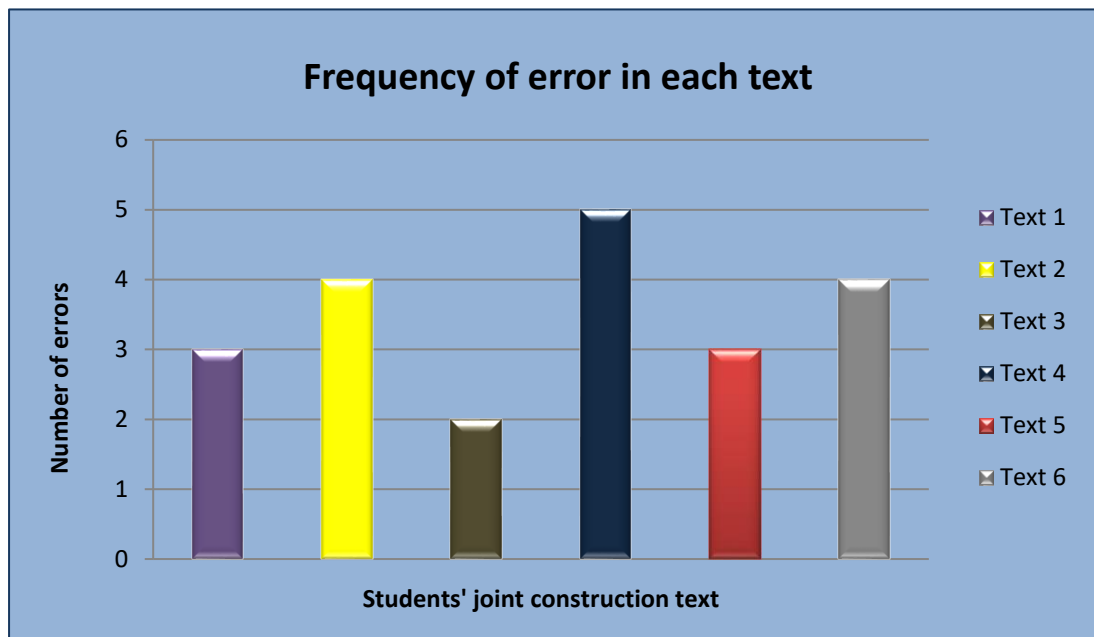
Figure 2: The frequency of identified errors in each text

Explanation of error

To further explain the identified error types, let observe carefully the following examples of each error type, started from omission category.

[1a] *The information spread[1] throughout the nation very quickly.*

In above sentence [1a], the category of omission error occurred in the main verb *spread.* The error occurs due to the writer does not attach the singular marker –*s* in the v main verb *spread.* The addition of –*s* definitely represents that the main verb in which implies singular meaning. In sentence [1a], the subject, *The information*, is classified as singular noun which depicts the uncountable noun. According to Langan (1996), words that come between the subject and the verb in a sentence do not change the subject-verb agreement within the sentence. Moreover, since the words, *The information*, belongs to uncountable noun, it has singular meaning. As argued by

Greenbaum (1989), uncountable nouns are considered singular. As expounded by Pilleux (2003), that EFL learners often make such type of the error when they omit the inflection form of –s, attached to the verb after the third singular person (thing) in order to agree with the singular subject. He further provides the example, such as in the following way "He write…"(instead of "He writes…"), and "It sound..." (instead of ""It sounds…").

Omission

Referring to the identified omission error above [1a], the correct form of the sentence needs to add singular marker –s, for the main verb *spread.* It is done to realize that the verb deals with singular meaning. As a result, the grammatical correction for above error [1a] performed in the following way:

[1b] *The information spreads throughout the nation very quickly.*

Another example on students' omission error can be observed in the following sentence:

[1c] *National examination force*[2] *the students to study hard before joining.*

In aforementioned sentence [1c], the category of omission error also occurred in the main verb *force.* The error occurs due to the writer does not attach the singular marker –s in the v main verb *force.* The addition of –s definitely represents that the main verb in which implies singular meaning. In sentence [1c], the subject, *National examination*, is classified as singular noun which depicts the countable noun. Moreover, since the words, *National examination*, is presented without –s, it automatically belongs to singular noun. To be the correct one, the sentence [1c] needs to add singular inflection –s at the end of the main verb *force.* The sentence [1d] is the correct form of the previous sample [1c], in which omission error is found.

[1d] *National examination forces the students to study hard before joining.*

After analyzing the six students' written works on essay, the researcher found six (6) omission errors or equal to 28.5% of the total identified errors (see figure 1). The omission error, as Dulay *et al* (1982) suggested, refers to "the absence of an item that must appear in a well formed utterance." As derived from its root "omit", the core meaning of omission is simply defined as "to fail to include or do something."

Addition

Regarding to the addition type of error, the students made five errors, equal to 23.8% of the total error. Dulay *et al* (1982) suggested that addition error refers to "the presence of an item that must not appear in well-formed utterances or sentences." In case of addition errors, as shown

in figure 1, the students under the study made the most addition errors for inflection –s/–es, added in the main verb since the subject is plural. The samples of addition of the –s/–es verb shown in the following sentence;

[2a] *Through learning, students hopes[1] to reach the brighter future.*

The example suggests that the subject is definitely plural noun. The writer might be "carelessly" add –s to form inflected verb *hopes.* Accordingly, the sentence [2a] should be corrected in the following way;

[2b] *Through learning, students hope[1] to reach the brighter future.*

Similar with the previous example on students' addition error, the next example is also realized with error on adding –s to the main plural verb *spend.* The subjects under the study made the addition errors realized in inflection –s/, added in the main verb *spend* which follows the plural subject *students in Indonesia.* This occurrence seems to be confusing for the students, since the last word (Indonesia) is functioned as the noun accompanying the subject. As occurred in the following sentence;

[2c] *At least, students in Indonesia spends[2] twelve years of formal schooling.*

The students might think that the last word, "Indonesia" seems to be the singular noun.Therefore, the students added inflection –s to the predicator *spend*. Accordingly, the sentence [2a] should be corrected in the following way;

[2d] *At least, students in Indonesia spend twelve years of formal schooling.*

Misinformation

Based on the findings, as shown in figure 1, misinformation takes the most frequent error committed by the students. There are ten errors and equal to 47.6% out of the total errors. The number which significantly appeared was due to the incompetency of learners to apply the accepted rule of subject verb agreement. According to Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) misinformation error occurred due to the use of an incorrect form of a morpheme or structure. Furthermore, Vásquez (2008) clarified that misinformation errors are the result of the lack of English vocabulary, and the wrong use of the meanings provided by the dictionary, for instance: English auxiliary verb *have* is commonly understood by Indonesian EFL learner as *punya,* which means *possess*. If auxiliary verb *have* is joined together with preposition *to*, they become phrasal verb *have to.* Due to the change of verb function, the prior verb and the phrasal verb have the totally

different in Indonesian meaning. As its new meaning, phrasal verb *have to* becomes *harus* (similar with *must*). Thus, some Indonesian learners under the study got confused to apply.

It is rather not surprising, if the participants under the study committed misinformation error in most. As the sample presented in table 1, the participants failed to apply subject verb agreement construction. As shown in the sample [3a] below:

[3a] *Education have[1] to elevate students' morality.*

Based on the sample above, the error lies on the wrong placement of auxiliary verb *have* which followed the singular subject. Based on the Cambridge online dictionary, the word *education* belongs to uncountable noun which has no plural form. Therefore, it agrees with singular verb. Singular verb *has* is morphologically derived from *have+s,* and spelled *has.* Accordingly, the correct one for the error in sample [3a] performed in the following sentence:

[3b] *Education has[1] to elevate students' morality.*

Similar with error in sample [3a], another misinformation error is recognized in the sample [3c]. The participants were not fully aware that the subject *The government* is singular form, thus, they should join singular verb as well. Seemingly, the students are again failed to put the suitable auxiliary verb *does* following the singular subject *The government.* The students' error on misinformation category could be seen in the following sample [3c]:

[3c]   *The government don't[2] provide appropriate facilities for students in suburban places.*

Looking at the sample [3c] as shown above, it is obviously seen that the verb did not agree with the subject. *The government* as the singular subject must be followed by singular auxiliary verb in the form of negative one. Accordingly, the correct form of sample [3c] could be performed in the following sample [3d].

[3d]   *The government doesn't[2] provide appropriate facilities for students in suburban places.*

Misordering

The misordering error found as the fewest one compared to other types of errors. The researcher found only one misordering error within the students' text. Misordering error caused by the wrong placement of a word or group of words in a given environment of the sentence. The misordering error is identified in the following sentence;

[4a] *Many parents pick up[1] the student to school.*

Based on the sample, the researcher simply identified that the student was not fully aware to the construction of phrasal verb *pick up.* The phrasal verb *pick up* when it deals with person or third singular pronoun, functioned as the object, then the position of the object placed in the middle, between the phrasal verb. The student was not realized that the object should sit in the middle, becomes *pick the student up*. Accordingly, the correct form for aforementioned error is in the following way;

[4b] *Many parents pick the student up[1] to school.*

Factors Causing Students' Error

Regarding to the number of error presented and discussed in the previous section, this subsection is intensively figuring out the source of students' error. Therefore, the question on what factor(s) causing the error was the guideline to keep in track on this section. Based on the semi-structured interview, involving six students who made the errors, the researcher found three factors which boosted the students to make such errors in realizing subject verb agreement in the sentence. The most frequent source of error belongs to interlanguage, which caused by the interference of mother tongue. In addition, Richards (1974) pointed out that interlanguage (IL) occurred as a result of the use of elements from one language while speaking another. Similar to Richards, Saville-Troike (2006) highlighted that interlingual (IL)' refers to the intermediate states (or interim grammars) of a learner's language as it moves toward the target language. In other words, the interlingual errors happen at the level of "between language", between the mother tongue and the target language, as the result of negative transfer of a mother tongue into a target language.

Regarding to the interlingual source of error, most of interviewees also informed the researcher that they were accustomed to use Indonesian grammatical rules to structure English sentences. They argued that English grammatical rules were more complex than Indonesian rules in which they were exposed to use. For most interviewees, constructing English sentences was not as simple as in Indonesian language. Their mother tongue did not require any different verb forms referring to different tenses; present tense, past tense, and past participle tenses. They also added, that English grammar was complicated enough in case of subject verb agreement. Indonesian language was not necessarily fitting the subject and predicate. Consequently, the Indonesian EFL learners often forgetted to apply subject verb agreement when writing the essay text. Hence, the problem would automatically boost them to commit interlingual errors on the subject-verb agreement.

Another factor which influenced the students making error was intralingual. As its basic meaning of *intra* which refers to "within"*,* it occurs within the target language itself. Intralingual reflects the general characteristics of learning rule. Saville-Troike (2006) further argued that intralingual errors are also considered as the developmental errors and often represent incomplete learning of L2 rules or overgeneralization of them. He added that intralingual errors happened at the level of 'within target language'. This type of intralingual error involves overgeneralization, ignorance of rules restrictions, incomplete application of rules, and false concept hypothesized (Richards, 1974). Based on the interview result, there were only two interviewees who stated that they committed intralingual error, due to their lack of knowledge on English grammar.

Confirming the prior two sources of error, the interesting finding also suggested that one interviewee acknowledged himself for committing developmental error. According to Richards (1974), developmental error occurs when the learner attempts to build up the hypothesis about the target language on the basis of limited experience. The problem appeared when the student applied inflection –s to uncountable noun *information,* becomes *informations.* The student thought that to form plural noun, he could simply add inflection –s as he did before. It was clearly identified that the student committed the developmental error. The result of interview suggested that few students were still find countable or uncountable noun difficult to differentiate. The possible reason might be caused by the limited number of uncountable noun that students memorized. Due to the level of difficulty, most of the informants admitted they sometimes added inflection –s to uncountable nouns.

Pedagogical Implication

Referring back to the discussion and the error explanation as discussed in prior sections, the pedagogical implication that can be suggested are formulated in the following way;

Firstly, by doing such study of error analysis, both the teacher and the language learner will get more knowledge and information about the students' error, whether in spoken or written form. As explained in the previous chapter, foreign language learning is a process of trial and error, form the hypothesis and then prove it. At those processes, the language learners are possible to make errors. The teachers should learn to tolerate it, guide the students and motivate them. Students' errors, in some ways, inform the teacher how far the students' progresses in achieving the ultimate goal of foreign language learning. Furthermore, the students' error can be used as the valuable

feedbacks for the teacher, and then assess it to determine the level of students' achievements toward the ultimate goal of foreign language learning.

Secondly, errors are absolutely needed by the learners themselves, because they function as a device of learning the target language. After knowing their errors, the students will handle and fix them soon, otherwise, the errors will be repeated and fossilized. In fact, together with other theories, error analysis has enriched the second language learning theory by using the errors to obtain feedback from the learners. With the feedback, both the teacher and the language learners make harder efforts to achieve the more closely ultimate goals of foreign language learning. At the end, the error analysis can keep teacher to closely focus on specific aspect of languages rather than viewing universal aspects of language.

No such a perfect theory in the language learning and other fields, as well as the error analysis theory. Certainly, error is significant and informative for the English teachers, since it is used to help them identifying students' lack. First, there is a danger in huge concern on learners' errors, because it treats the students' motivation on learning the target language. If the teacher tends to become so happy with highlighting students' errors, then it probably lead to the neglecting of the right ones, as if it negates the students' achievements in the foreign language learning. Moreover, minimizing of errors is an important process to improve the learners' competencies toward the ultimate goal of foreign language learning.

Referring back to findings and discussion on the previous section, another pedagogical implication that can be formulated is the English teachers need to seriously address the issue on Indonesian EFL learners' grammatical incompetence. There is no doubt that the findings have proved learners' significant error on such employed categories. Besides, the teacher also needs to consider the use of students' preference on teaching grammar, whether implicit or explicit.

Conclusion

The overarching aim of the study was to, firstly, aimed at investigating students' error on subject verb agreement in joint construction practice, and secondly, finding out the source of error which leads the students to commit such error(s). These questions have been guided the researcher to work on it. As a result, the study firmly confirmed that the students under the study made a number of errors. The study suggested that the most frequent error found was misinformation, and subsequently followed by The most frequent error belongs to misinformation (47.6%), and were

subsequently followed by omission (28.5%), addition (23.8%), and misordering (4.7%). Responding the various identified, the results of semi-structured interview revealed that interlingual and intralingual become the major source of error. The interlingual errors happen as the result of negative transfer of a mother tongue into a target language, while intralingual happens due to the complexity of the English rule to realize subject verb agreement in the sentence. Another factor which was not significantly contributed to the students' error was developmental, which only one informant admitted.

Acknowledgment

References

Al-haysony, M. (2012). An Analysis of Article Errors among Saudi Female EFL Students: A Case Study. *Asian Social Science Canadian Center of Science and Education*, 8(12). Retrieved from http://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/ass/article/view/20759

Arifin, A. *et al* (2014). Mistakes within the Descriptive Texts Produced by Undergraduate Students. *English education Journal,* 4(2). Retrieved from https://journal.unnes.ac.id/sju/index.php/eej/article/view/6664

Choo, Y. B. and Huat, G. S. (2017). Hand-Shape Coding to Improve Subject-Verb Agreement in Writing for Year Four Pupils. *The English Teacher*, 46(3). Retrieved from https://journals.melta.org.my/index.php/tet/article/view/465

Djahimo, S. E. P. (2018). Applying Consciousness Raising Tasks in Teaching Grammar in EFL Students in Indonesia. *Asian EFL Journal,* 20(11). Retrieved from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com

Dulay, H., Burt, M., and Krashen, S. (1982). *Language Two*. New York: Oxford University Press, Inc.

Ellis, R. and Barkhuizen, G. (2005). *Analysing Learner Language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis (1997) *Second language Acquisition Research and Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Emilia, E., & Hamied, F. A. (2015). Systemic Functional Linguistic Genre Pedagogy (SFL GP) in a Tertiary EFL Writing Context in INDONESIA. *TEFLIN Journal*, 26(2), 155. http://doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v26i2/155-182

Feez, S. (2002). Heritage and in Novation in Second Language Education. In A. M. Johns (Ed.), *Genre in the Classroom: Multiple Perspectives.* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Greenbaum, S. (1989). *A College Grammar of English*. New York: Longman Inc.

Hatta, K. (2018). The Effects of Dialogue Journal Writing (DJW) in Engaging and Empowering Writing Skill. *Asian EFL Journal,* 20(11). Retrieved from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com

Hendriani, S. (2018). Grammar Teaching Method Preferred by Indonesian Students. *Asian EFL Journal,* 20(11). Retrieved from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com

Hyland, K. (2004). *Genre and Second Language Writing*. Michigan: Michigan University Press.

Hyland, K. (2007). Genre Pedagogy: Language, Literacy and L2 Writing Instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *16*(3). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.07.005

James, C. (1998). *Errors in Language Learning and Use: Exploring Error Analysis.* New York: Longman

Langan, J. (1996). *College Writing Skills* (4th ed.). New York: The McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.

Larekeng, S.H. (2018). Spices Learning Model in Maximizing the Students' Writing. *Asian EFL Journal,* 20(11). Retrieved from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com

Mali, Y. C. G. and Yulia, M. F. (2012). Students' Subject-Verb Agreement Errors in Paragraph Writing Class. *LLT Journal*, 15(2). Retrieved from http://e-journal.usd.ac.id/index.php/LLT/article/view/320

Mardiana. (2018). The Effects of Cooperative Learning Techniques and Sociological Learning Styles on Academic Writing Ability. *Asian EFL Journal,* 20(11). Retrieved from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com

Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2008). *Genre Relations: Mapping Culture*. London: Equinox Publishing.

Napitupulu, S. (2017). Analyzing Linguistic Errors in Writing an English Letter: A Case Study of Indonesian Undergraduate Students. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics.* 5(3). Retrieved online from: http://www.sciencepublishinggroup.com

Nurjanah, S. (2017). An Analysis of Subject-verb Agreement Errors on Students' Writing. *ELT-Echo Journal,* 2(1). Retrieved from: https://www.syekhnurjati.ac.id/jurnal/index.php/eltecho

Olasehinde, M. O. (2002). Error Analysis and Remedial Pedagogy. In Babatunde S. T. and D. S. Adeyanju (eds.). *Language, Meaning and Society*. Ilorin: Itaytee Press and Publishing Co.

Richard, J, C. (1974). *Error Analysis: Perspective on Second Language Acquisition*. London: Longman Group Ltd.

Sawalmeh, M. H. M (2013). Error Analysis of Written English Essays: The case of Students of the Preparatory Year Program in Saudi Arabia. *English for Specific Purposes World*, 14(40). Retrieved from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/265210536_.

Saville-Troike, M. (2006). *Introducing Second Language Acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sawalmeh, M. H. M (2013). Error Analysis of Written English Essays: The case of Students of the Preparatory Year Program in Saudi Arabia. *English for Specific Purposes World*. Issue 40, vol. 14.

Stapa, S. H. and Izahar, M. M. (2010). Analysis of Errors in Subject-Verb Agreement among Malaysian ESL Learners. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature,* 16(1). Retrieved from http://ejournals.ukm.my/3l/article/view/1005/917

Vásquez, D. A. L. (2008). Error Analysis in a Written Composition. *Profile: Issues in Teachers` Professional Development,* No. 10. Retrieved from http://www.scielo.org.co/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S1657-07902008000200008

Wee, R., Sim, J., and Jusoff, K. (2010). Verb-form errors in EAP writing. *Educational Research and Review*, 5(1). Retrieved from: http://www.journals.org/article/article1379602472_Wee%20et%20al..pdf

An Alternative to English: Filipino as Medium of Instruction in Teaching Geometry

Allan Tarubal Tabuyo

Faculty of College of Teacher Education

Cagayan State University – Lal-lo Campus

Lal-lo, Cagayan, Philippines

allantabuyo1238@teachers.org

Bioprofile

Allan Tarubal Tabuyo was born in Lal-lo, Cagayan, Philippines. He finished his tertiary education at Cagayan State University – Lal-lo Campus with the degree Bachelor of Secondary Education major in Mathematics. He took up his Masteral Degree in Cagayan State University, Aparri Campus under the program Master of Science in Teaching major in Mathematics. At present, he is a regular faculty and College Research Coordinator in the College of Teacher Education at Cagayan State University – Lal-lo Campus and teaching Mathematics and Professional Education subjects.

Abstract

The goal of the study is to determine whether Filipino (national language of the Philippines) can effectively be used as alternative to English as medium of instruction in teaching Mathematics particularly in Geometry.

This study used the quasi-experimental design specifically the two-group pre-test – post-test design. It involved the comparison of students' pre-test and post-test and gained scores, which were exposed to English and Filipino as mediums of instruction in teaching Geometry.

It was conducted among the 60 students of the College of Teacher Education grouped into two. One group was exposed to English while the other group was exposed to Filipino.

Results indicate that both groups perform better in the post test than in the pre-test; however, the students exposed to Filipino as medium of instruction performed better than those

exposed in English; hence, Filipino can be used as medium of instruction which can improve the Mathematics performance of students.

Introduction

In any relationship or situation, communication is the driving force (Wilkins, 1974). For instance, Brandal (2005) as cited by McDougald (2009) argued that since the development of communicative skills, language learning requires social interaction between the teacher and the students and among the students themselves. Hence, it is vitally important to know when communication should take place, where it should take place, and why one should communicate (Wilkins, 1974).

In education, the main component is communication (Wilkins, 1974). However, educators have become so involved with delivering the curricula that they fail to acknowledge "how" they deliver it because effective classroom communication requires the teacher and students to be able to send and receive messages accurately (Wilkins, 1974). It is by recognizing and appreciating communication diversity (i.e., culture) allows children to feel good about themselves, and that if the classroom teacher and the speech teacher were to team up, they could coordinate interaction with the students and provide beneficial bilingual and bicultural programs (Wilkins, 1974).

Bilingualism and bilingual education are realities in the modern world, a social phenomenon as Miller (2013) put it. Bilingual education in the Philippines is defined operationally as the separate use of Filipino and English as the media of instruction in specific subject areas (Espiritu, 2002). However, in the study of Sibayan (1975), no Filipino learned English first, which proves that it is a second language.

Teachers must understand the nature of language and the nature of dialect differences and then they must decide how to approach the problem--they can recognize "non-standard" dialect and eradicate it, leave the student language alone, or accept bidialectalism (Wilkins, 1974). The classroom should: provide a variety of stimuli; provide a secure, comfortable feeling; be adapted to fit the activity; and give some privacy and individuality (Wilkins, 1974). Hence, effective teaching depends on successful communication (Wilkins, 1974).

The need to connect with students is necessary to successfully transfer learning. Thus, the medium of instruction plays a role. Success in mathematics is also influenced by the medium of instruction used inside the class (Launio, 2015). Students try to learn Mathematical skills while learning English at the same time (Vizconde, 2006).

Among the different factors affecting level of achievements as considered by several studies, is the language factor (Domingo, 2016). The need to answer the challenge of both attaining mastery of the content and the English language is an issue that science and mathematics teachers should address (Vixconde, 2006) for some students in universities perceive themselves as being deficient and feel that they were systematically excluded from classroom discussions and activities (Sultana, 2014).

In the Philippines, the English language is used in teaching of mathematics, which is quite a problem to some classroom teachers (Philippine Journal of Education, 2012) for even though some students might wish to engage in mathematical conversations, they may not have the tools to do so (Rittenhouse, 1998).

Educators are faced with the challenge of addressing the needs of the growing number of students whose primary language is not English (Gibbons, 2003) as cited by Vizconde (2006). The rate of first college students who get low grades in the content areas is alarming, particularly in the subjects of Sciences, Mathematics, and Engineering (Daempfle, 2003). This can be attributed to the second language (English) which can impede their possibilities of learning (Sultana, 2014).

The idea of having different language for schools and home was started by the European who colonized the Americans (Mackey, 1978). It was recommended that three major regional languages be used together with English (Koo, 2008). Also, code-switching from local dialect to standard teaching was identified by Blake and Van Sickle (2001) as cited by Vizconde (2006) can improve the performance of students. Furthermore, Vizconde (2006) questioned if proficiency in English would help the teaching of science and mathematics effective.

Currently, students can hardly cope up with the demand of universities in using the second language (English) in meeting their requirements (Doiz, Lasagabaster, and Sierra, 2012). Anent to this, this study aimed to determine whether national language can be used as an alternative to English as medium of instruction in teaching non-language subjects like Mathematics to improve students' performance.

Statement of the Problem

The study is aimed at determining whether Filipino can be used as alternative to English as medium of instruction in teaching Geometry. Specifically, it aimed to seek answers to the following questions:

1. What is the performance of the respondents in the pretest?
2. What is the performance of the respondents in the posttest?
3. How comparable is the pre-test scores of the participants expose to Filipino and English as medium of instruction in the teaching of Geometry?
4. Is there a significant difference between the pre-tests and post test scores of the participants exposed to English and Filipino?
5. Is there a significant difference in the gain scores of students expose to Filipino and English as medium of instruction in the teaching of Geometry?

Research Methodology

Research Design

This study used the quasi-experimental design specifically the two-group pre-test – post-test design to determine the effectiveness of the two mediums of instruction used in the teaching of Mathematics. The design involved the comparison of students' pre-test and post-test and gained scores, which were exposed to two different mediums.

Locale of the Study

The study was conducted at Cagayan State University at Lal-lo campus. The locale chosen since the students enrolled in the two programs of the college can understand and use Filipino in their daily conversation. Hence, students are already exposed in the use of the language.

The college is composed of 435 students manned by highly qualified faculty members. It offers two programs, the Bachelor of Secondary Education (BSE) and the Bachelor of Elementary Education (BEE). The BSE program offers various specializations such as English, mathematics, biology, social science, physical science and Filipino.

Respondents and Sampling Procedure

The respondents of the study were the first year Bachelor of Secondary Education students of the College of Teacher Education at Cagayan State University at Lal-lo. The classes were randomly sampled and came up with 30 respondents in each group.

The first group was exposed to English as medium of instruction, while the other was taught using the Filipino medium.

Research Instrument

The instrument used in the study was the pre-test and post-test. The teacher-made test was a multiple-choice type developed by the researcher and validated to the second-year students but were not included as subjects of the study. The test consisted of 20 items and covered the topics on Polygons, Perimeter, and Area of Polygons. T-test and gained score were used to determine the effectiveness of the medium of instruction.

Gathering the Data

Prior to the conduct of the study, a letter of request to conduct study was forwarded to the Office of the Associate Dean of the College of Teacher Education. Upon approval, the pre-test was conducted to both groups to measure their entry knowledge on the concept taught. A table of specification was prepared for this purpose. Two-week lesson using English and Filipino as separate media was done by the students' subject teacher. After the lesson was taught, the post-test was personally administered to the respondents. Result of which was analyzed to determine the respondents' performance.

Analysis of Data

The main purpose of this study was to find out the effectiveness of Filipino as the medium of instruction. The performance of the respondents were described using mean and standard deviation. The effectiveness of the mediums of instruction were determined using t-test.

Results and Discussion

Performance of the Two Groups in Their Pre-test

      The performance of the students in the pre-test is present in table 1. It shows that the two groups exposed to English and Filipino as medium of instruction has a mean of 10.43 and 10.20 respectively. It means that the students performed satisfactorily in the pre-test. This revealed that the students still have the knowledge about the basic concepts in Geometry since most of them got the easy items.

Table 1

Performance of the two groups in their pre test

Medium of Instruction	Mean (n=30)	Standard Deviation	Descriptive Value
English	10.43	1.77	Satisfactory
Filipino	10.20	1.49	Satisfactory

Performance of the Two Groups in Their Post test

      Table 2 shows the performance of the two groups in the posttest after being exposed in separate medium of instruction. With mean scores of 14.17 and 15.30, the two groups performed very satisfactorily. This indicates that students can perform well in Geometry whether they taught using the English or Filipino as the medium of instruction. This could be attributed to the strategies used by the teacher and the persistence of the students to learn the lesson.

Table 2

Performance of the two groups in their post test

Medium of Instruction	Mean (n=30)	Standard Deviation	Descriptive Value
English	14.17	1.39	Very Satisfactory
Filipino	15.30	1.69	Very Satisfactory

Comparison of Pre-Test Scores of the Two Groups Exposed to English and Filipino as Separate Medium of Instruction

Table 3 presents the comparison of pre-test scores of the two groups exposed to English and Filipino as separate medium of instruction. The critical t-value of 0.68 when the value of the degrees of freedom is 29, is greater than the computed t-value of 0.55 which means that there is no significant difference between the pre-tests of the two groups. Table 1 revealed that both groups performed satisfactorily in their pre-test.

Table 3

Comparison of the pre-test scores of the two groups exposed to English and Filipino as separate medium of instruction

Medium of Instruction	Mean (N=30)	Standard Deviation	Computed t-value	Critical t-value
English	10.43	1.75	0.55^{NS}	0.68
Filipino	10.20	1.49		

NS – not significant at 0.05 level of significance

Comparison of Pre-Test and Post-Test of the Two Groups Exposed to English and Filipino as Separate Medium of Instruction

It was hypothesized that there is no significant difference between the pre and post-test scores of the two groups. As gleaned in Table 4, the mean of the pre-test of the group exposed to English is 10.43 while the post-test score is 14.17 with a variance of 3.08 and 1.94, respectively. The computed t-value of 9.13 is greater than the critical t-value of 2.00 which means that there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievements of the groups. The same with the first, the second group exposed to Filipino as medium of instruction has a mean of 10.20 in the pre-test and 15.30 in the post-test with variance of 2.23 and 2.84, respectively. Hence, there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test achievement of the groups since the critical t-value of 2.00 is less than the computed t-value of 12.40. This shows that the two groups improved with the medium of instruction they were exposed to.

These findings imply that either English or Filipino as the medium of instruction used in the teaching of Geometry, the students' performance can still be improved.

Table 4

Comparison of pre-test and post-test of the two groups exposed to English and Filipino as separate medium of instruction

| Test | **Medium of Instruction Exposed to** | | | | | | | |
| | **English** | | | | **Filipino** | | | |
	Mean	**Standard Deviation**	**Computed t-value**	**Critical t-value**	**Mean**	**Standard Deviation**	**Computed t-value**	**Critical t-value**
Pre-test	10.43	1.75	9.13*	2.00	10.20	1.49	12.40*	2.00
Post-test	14.17	1.39			15.30	1.69		

*- Significant at 0.05

Comparison of the Gained Scores of the Two Groups Exposed to English and Filipino as Separate Medium of Instruction

The t-test for independent samples was used further to compare the mean gains of the two groups. The result shown in table 5 revealed that the improvement in the achievement of the students in the group exposed to Filipino as medium of instruction was significantly greater than that of the group exposed to English as medium of instruction. This finding means that Filipino can be used as medium of instruction in teaching Geometry. Further, result indicates that Filipino as a medium of instruction is more effective than using English only.

This is similar to the findings of Launio (2015) that teaching Mathematics with the supplementation of language (Hiligaynon) known to students improves their performance in Mathematics.

Table 5

Comparison of the gained scores of the two groups exposed to English and Filipino as separate medium of instruction

Medium of Instruction	**Mean (n=30)**	**Standard Deviation**	**Computed t-value**	**Critical t-value**
English	3.73	2.13	2.89*	2.01

Filipino	5.10	1.47

*–Significant at 0.05

Conclusions

As revealed from the findings of the study, the respondents performed satisfactory in the pre-test. After they were exposed to the different mediums of instructions, their performance gradually increased to very satisfactory. However, respondents who were exposed to Filipino as the medium of instruction in teaching Geometry had more gained scores than their counterparts. This concludes that the medium of instruction used in teaching Geometry significantly affects the learning performances of students. Filipino as medium of instruction can be used in teaching to improve students' performance in Mathematics.

Recommendations

In accordance with the findings and conclusions, the following recommendations are presented:

1. Filipino should be used as a medium of instruction in teaching Geometry to enhance learners' understanding of the topic.
2. Mathematics teachers could explain the lessons in Filipino, especially when the teacher notices that the students are having difficulty in understanding the topic.
3. School administrators should recommend to their teachers the use of Filipino as supplement for teaching Geometry.
4. A similar study on the use of Filipino may be conducted using different subjects in Mathematics.

References

Daempfle, P. A. (2003). An analysis of the high attrition rates among first year college science, math, and engineering majors. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice*, *5*(1), 37-52.

Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (Eds.). (2012). *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges*. Multilingual matters.

Domingo, D. (2016). Content Area Effectiveness: English VS Filipino Medium of Instruction. International Journal of Social Sciences. Retrieved from: https://www.research gate.net/profile/Dahlia_Sagucio/publication/299477353_CONTENT_AREA_EFFECTIV ENESS_ENGLISH_VS_FILIPINO_MEDIUM_OF_INSTRUCTION/links/576c48ec08a edb18f3eb278a/CONTENT-AREA-EFFECTIVENESS-ENGLISH-VS-FILIPINO-MEDIUM-OF-INSTRUCTION.pdf

Espiritu, C. (2002). Language policies in the Philippines. *National commission for culture and the arts*.

Koo, G. (2008). English Language in Philippine Education: Themes and Variations in Policy, Practice, Pedagogy and Research. Asia-Pacific Journal of Research in Early Childhood Education. Retrieved from: http://www.pecerajournal.com/data/?a=21774

Launio, R. (2015). Instructional Medium and Its Effect on Students' Mathematics Achievement. International Journal of Multidisciplinary and Current Research. Retrieved from: http://ijmcr.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/05/Paper12462-465.pdf

Macky, W.F (1978). The Importance of bilingual education models. *In Georgetown University Round Table on Language and Linguistics 1978: International Dimension of Bilingual Education*. James E. Alatis, (Editor). Washington D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

McDougald, J. (2009). The Use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the EFL Classroom as a Tool to Promote L2 (English) among Non-native Pre-service English Teachers. *The Asian EFL Journal.* Retrieved from: http://asian-efl-journal.com/wp-content/uploads/mgm/downloads/92352100.pdf

Miller, J. (1983). *Many Voices- Bilingualism, Culture and Education*. London: Billing and Sons Ltd.

Philippine Journal of Education, 2012

Rittenhouse, P. S. (1998). The teacher's role in mathematical conversation: Stepping in and stepping out. *Talking mathematics in school: Studies of teaching and learning*, 163-189.

Sibayan, B. P. (1975). Survey of language use and attitudes towards language in the Philippines. *Language surveys in developing nations: Papers and reports on sociolinguistic surveys*, 115-143.

Sultana, S. (2014). English as a Medium of Instruction in Bangladesh's Higher Education Empowering or Disadvantaging Students? *The Asian EFL Journal.* Retrieved from:

https://www.asian-efl-journal.com/7985/main-journals/english-as-a-medium-of-instruction-in-bangladeshs-higher-education-empowering-or-disadvantaging-students/#squelch-taas-tab-content-0-2

Visconde, C. J. (2006). Attitudes of Student Teachers towards the use of English as Language of Instruction for Science and Mathematics in the Philippines. *Editors: Paul Robertson and Joseph Jung*, *1*(3), 7.

Wilkins, D. A. (1974). *Second-language learning and teaching*. London: Edward Arnold

Adopting Learning Management System in Indonesian Higher Education: The Encountering Challenges to the Transformation

Ahmad Ardillah Rahman

Muhammad Ahkam Arifin

Al-furqan

Institut Parahikma Indonesia & Alauddin State Islamic University Makassar (UIN)

Declaration form

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

Bio-profiles

Ahmad Ardillah Rahman is a lecturer at the Faculty of Education of *Institut Parahikma Indonesia*. He received his bachelor's degree in both English Education Department of *Alauddin State Islamic University Makassar (UIN)* in 2013 and German Education Department of *Makassar State University (UNM)* in 2016. He obtained his master's degree from *Monash University*, Australia, majoring Master of Education program. His research interests are in the areas of teaching and learning practices, educational technology and educational policy. He can be contacted via ahmadardillahrahman@parahikma.ac.id or ahmadardillahrahman@gmail.com

Muhammad Ahkam Arifin is a permanent lecturer at English Teaching Faculty at *Institut Parahikma Indonesia*. He is also teaching at Language Centre of *Universitas Islam Negeri Alauddin Makassar* and *Universitas Negeri Makassar*. His research interest includes bilingualism, blended learning or teaching English with technology, language assessment, English curriculum program evaluation, English teaching methodology, and second language acquisition studies. He can be contacted via ahkam.arifin@parahikma.ac.id or ahkam.arifin@gmail.com

Alfurqan is an English educator in Islamic State University of Makassar who has been teaching English since 2012. Besides, he also devotes his career in teaching English in some private institutions in last five years. He received his bachelor in English language education from Islamic State University of Makassar. Al furqan, then, accomplished his master's degree majoring in Teaching of English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) in Monash University in 2019. He can be contacted via alfurqan8475@gmail.com

Abstract

As a third world country, Indonesia undergoes a huge digital divide compared to other developed nations. With this condition, educators and university staff should transform the practices of education by adapting to technological platforms of Learning Management Systems (LMS) as one of the ways to accelerate the increasing quality of Indonesian education. The purpose of this paper is, therefore, to evaluate the implementation of LMS in Indonesian higher educations. There are three aspects elaborated from the practices: technical issue, organisational issue, and demographic issue. It is found that the major problem with the technical issue is the lack of teachers' expertise on computers literacy. Furthermore, the lack of systematic procedure in implementing the system, the absence of faculty members' commitment towards the transformation, and the less involvement of university leaders in promoting the system are concluded as challenges from the organisational issue. From the demographic issue, it is apparent that the government should provide equal educational access across Indonesia for the new transformation to be effective. Given the various challenges, some further recommendations are offered to tackle the problems.

Keywords: Digital Technology, Learning Management Systems, Indonesian Higher Educations.

Introduction

The rapid development of the digital technology has offered various benefits for educators in conducting teaching and learning practices. The face to face mode of teaching and learning can now be integrated with the use of technological supports such as computers and the internet to be employed as the medium of an online delivery mode of learning. In many universities around the globe, the Learning Management System (LMS) has been widely used in educational contexts. LMS can be defined as a web-based learning system that is used for

planning and delivering materials, tracking students' development, and mediating synchronous and asynchronous communication among learners and educators through online (Unwin et al., 2010).

The potential of this system to be employed in teaching and learning practices in higher education is continuously discussed. Some researchers established that managing the courses through technological platforms such as *Moodle, Blackboard* and *Edmodo* can encourage the deeper sense of connection and allow students to have more access to open resources in learning (Dougiamas & Taylor, 2003; Watson & Watson, 2007).

The great advantages and the increasing trend of the LMS in developed countries have also motivated policy makers in Indonesian higher educations to spend a large amount of investment to adopt and incorporate similar platforms in their institutions. However, despite the great benefits of employing the LMS to support teaching and learning, there are some obstacles influencing its effectiveness in terms of technical, organisational, and social problems that need to be carefully evaluated before being able to maximise the usage of the system. Therefore, it is argued that the digital technology, particularly the LMS platform, has not changed the teaching and learning practices in the context of Indonesia as a developing country.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this paper is to evaluate using current information and literature the implementation of LMS in Indonesian higher education particularly to identify several problems occurred which limit the success of the LMS platforms to be implemented in teaching and learning practices. Looking at whether higher educations in Indonesia are well prepared to conduct the teaching and learning practices using the LMS platform is significant in order to gain insights on what to do to encourage the effectiveness of teaching and learning in Indonesian Higher Education.

The objective of this study is to review existing and available literature on the dynamics of LMS implementation in Indonesian higher education; to consider various benefits of the LMS implementation; to identify some problems encountered by policy makers, institutional leaders, lecturers and students in optimizing the potential benefits of the LMS implementation; and to address recommendations in which the policy makers, institutional leaders, lectures and students can respond so that the expected outcomes of the LMS implementation could be achieved. The results of this investigation are expected to influence how policy makers, university leaders, lecturers, staffs and students can adapt and understand their new roles in the implementation of LMS.

Methodology

The methodology of this study was a synthesis research in which the existing empirical studies surrounding the issue of learning management system in higher educational institutions are descriptively integrated and synthesized. Onwuegbuzie, Leach, & Collins (2011) explain this method of research as the process where data and result from previous empirical studies are evaluated and mixed to be able to draw conclusions. To be able to gain worthy empirical and conceptual data, Monash University database have become the main source of literature. Eric Journal and Scopus have been the major sources of literature search as those journals providers are highly recognized in educational field. Specific keywords such as 'learning management system', 'blended learning', and 'educational technology' were typed and used in order to broaden and specify the search. It was aided with the use of Boolean operators (AND, OR, and NOT) to further focus the search. Reference list of the selected literature have also been manually checked to evaluate the provenance of authors in the field of educational technology and learning management system. After an exhaustive search and selection of literature, based on the relevance of the literature and the objectivity of the authors, the final list of research articles were examined and synthesised.

The discussion of this review will be organised in two sections. Firstly, an overview of regulation and actual implementation of LMS in Indonesian higher educations will be presented. Secondly, the challenges of LMS based on technical and sociocultural issues will be elaborated that will also be followed with some recommendations.

Discussion

LMS in Indonesian's Higher Education: An Overview

Before discussing and evaluating the effectiveness of LMS implementation in Indonesian higher education, it is important to look at the regulated policy of educational system towards the use of information and communication technology (ICT). In this section, the concerns will be on the national policy transformation towards educational technology and the actual implementation of LMS platforms in higher education in Indonesia.

The improvement for the educational system of Indonesia has been the focus of the government in recent years. The government has realised that as a third world country, Indonesia undergoes a huge digital divide compared to other developed nations. Quibria, Ahmed, Tschang, and Reyes-Macasaquit (2003) expressed that some educators in developing countries in Asia, particularly Indonesia, have experienced difficulties in the educational system dealing with and providing support regarding the technological devices. These

difficulties have led to huge gap with other developed nations in terms of delivering materials and accessing online resources and information. Similarly, Hussein, Aditiawarman, and Mohamed (2007) stated that the use of technology-based components in Indonesian higher education is less progressive compared to developed nations, or even compared to other South East Asian countries such as Thailand, Singapore, and Malaysia.

Having realised the problem, policy makers in Indonesia had tried to bridge and minimise the gap by investing more funding in educational field by increasing the allocation of national expenditure up to 20% since 2008 (Asian Development Bank & OECD, 2015). Another transformational decision to encourage the use of information and technology in education that has been taken by the national government is establishing 'Presidential Decree Number 66 the year 2010'. The program states that the higher educational institutions are inquired to integrate the model of a virtual and distance learning with the face to face mode of teaching and learning practices in universities (Indonesian Ministry of Higher Education, 2011). With this national policy, educators and university staffs have to transform the practices of education by adapting to technological platforms of LMS in order to fulfil the demand of the central government and Indonesian Ministry of Higher Education.

For the government, the integration of technology in educational institutions with the use of LMS is believed as one of the ways to accelerate the increasing quality of higher education in Indonesia. However, the actual implementation of universities to the system is far from ideal because it is difficult for many universities to fulfil the demand of the government to radically shift the educational practices from non-mediated technology teaching to LMS platforms. This radical changing on the nature of teaching and learning has made educators frustrated in doing their roles because of the inadequate skills to integrate technological devices such as *Blackboard, Edmodo* and *Moodle* in their teaching practices. Besides, the culture of learning through technology-based platform has not properly shaped through all the elements of higher institutions including educators, staff, students, and even university leaders.

What reveals in the higher educational practices in Indonesia has been alerted by Selwyn (2016) suggesting that the use of technology in schools or institutions has been wrongly interpreted by most of the policy makers. The policy makers think it is adequate to simply incorporate technology in education and therefore will automatically enhance and transform the teaching and learning process. In fact, several problems such as the lack of human resources and infrastructural provision might occur if there is not enough preparation to make the transformation. One of the most crucial elements of incorporating a new technological system in a university is the readiness of institutions itself. In succeeding the adoption and

implementation of a new platform of LMS, many different aspects of education should be upgraded and improved. These aspects cover not only the technical skills of using LMS in teaching and assessing students but also organisational issues that the whole members of institutions should be embedded in the system. If all the institutional elements are not involved, it is almost impossible to run the LMS in a proper way.

To sum up, this section has attempted to provide a brief summary relating to the regulations of Indonesian government towards the use of LMS in higher institutions and the surface of the LMS implementation in Indonesia. It can be concluded that the universities are struggling with an adaptation of the new transformational policy of technological platform of LMS to achieve the maximum outcomes. In the light of the fact that the policy makers are radically shifting from the non-mediated technology teaching and learning to using the technology-based platform, the changes and transformations would meet some other challenges that will be discussed in the following section.

The Challenges of LMS Adoption

To this point, the discussion has been the regulation and the actual implementation of LMS in Indonesian higher education. In this section, I will now move on to review the challenges faced by the government and educators in higher institutions to adopt the LMS system in the teaching and learning process. There are three aspects of challenge that will be further elaborated: technical issue, organizational issue, and demographic and sociocultural issue.

a. Technical Challenges

For the successful integration of the LMS platforms to the educational system in higher education, the fundamental issue that needs to be considered is the technical issue namely the capacity of human resources in using IT systems and also the availability of advanced technological infrastructure to support the LMS (Quimno, Imran, & Turner, 2013). These two key challenges can generally be seen faced by developing countries when they just started to adjust to the new transformational idea of technology-based platforms (Bhuasiri, Xaymoungkhoun, Zo, Rho, & Ciganek, 2012; Quimno et al., 2013). The similar condition can be found in Indonesian education context where a top-down pressure from governments and societies to give a place for the use of technological platforms in teaching and learning process has forced many institutions in Indonesia to prematurely employ the LMS without considering the readiness of both educators and infrastructural provision.

It is obvious that educators play a significant role in succeeding educational reform towards technological use in universities (Howard & Mozejko, 2015), especially for the use of a new technology-based platform of LMS, the understanding of the way how it should be used and the familiarity of educators towards the system are crucial to succeed the adoption. Similarly, previous research has shown that two out of six important prerequisites to successfully apply a blended learning system which is based on LMS platforms are IT skills and pedagogical competence of educators (Ozkan & Koseler, 2009). Therefore, lecturers are required to have IT skills and pedagogical competence at the same time where they can experiment and develop their teaching practices by working with LMS platforms and incorporating a virtual and a face to face mode of learning in a course.

However, the Indonesian government has failed to equip members of universities particularly staff and lecturers with skills and understanding about the new system before the transformation. The policy and encouragement of the government to maximise technological resources, unfortunately, are not followed by visible and appropriate training for educators. Kuntoro and Al-Hawamdeh (2003) suggested that the vast majority of educators in Indonesian higher institutions, especially in the eastern part of Indonesia, are not familiar with the e-learning system. This is absolutely a crucial challenge where the government should ensure that lecturers and educators should be able to operate and employ the LMS platforms before releasing the new policy and rules. Lecturers and other staff should have been supported with training in order for them to be able to solve technical problems when using the LMS. Therefore, instead of having a radical change in the policy, long-term strategic approaches should be situated to make sure that the integration of LMS platforms in teaching and learning process run well. The continuous training and tight lecturers' recruitment procedure in an institution are two crucial points that need to be conducted and strengthened as the initial work before coming to the policy transformation (Arifin, 2017; Thompson 2016).

A further factor to consider as a huge problem regarding technicality is a shortage of technological infrastructure among all the universities in Indonesia to adopt LMS platform. Despite a large amount of money spent by the government to support higher educations in Indonesia to employ the LMS, the overall average of technological infrastructure in Indonesia is still low. According to Unwin et al. (2010) who evaluate the implementation of LMS in Africa, technological infrastructure is one of the biggest obstacles influencing the unsuccessful implementation of LMS platforms in many universities in African countries. Similarly, evidence is raised in Cambodia where the lack of the human resources and poor technological infrastructure among schools in the country have made it difficult to use e-learning system in

their educational practices (Richardson, 2008). The similar condition can be seen in Indonesian universities, particularly in rural areas in the eastern part of Indonesia where staff and educators do not employ the LMS because of the unavailability and the scarcity of technological resources in their institutions.

To conclude this section, the literature identifies two important components that have been systematically lacking in the introduction of LMS in Indonesian higher educations. Those two components are the lack of human resources in implementing the LMS and the scarcity of technological infrastructure to support the adoption. Therefore, the government should be encouraged to continually build the physical infrastructure as well as enhance the professional competence of lecturers, staff, and administrators across universities in using IT so that the LMS can be properly implemented.

b. Organisational Challenges

Having described the problems from technical perspectives, it is now important to discuss the obstacles of adopting the LMS platforms from the organisational issue in Indonesian Higher Education. For institutions to comprehensively implement the LMS platforms where lecturers can manage their teaching, transfer information, assess their students, and communicate through online platforms, policy makers in universities cannot just simply pay to use the system and introduce it to students. Watson and Watson (2007) argued that one of the primary challenges is to be able to make this platform understood by the whole community in institutions. Therefore, it is important to encourage not only lecturers and students but also all staff and members of institutions to be involved in the adoption of the system. However, for a developing country like Indonesia, introducing a new transformational platform to an institution is a difficult and complex process that requires time in order for it to be constructed and infused in an organisation.

The first challenge in an organisation to adopt a technology-based system is the lack of systemic procedure in implementing the system throughout an institution. It is suggested by Ozkan and Koseler (2009) that to implement the e-learning system of LMS; institutional environment should be managed, designed, and well organised where all university staff including administrative staff and lecturers comprehensively understand their work roles in the learning management system. It is important that the members of an institution are structurally working with the same objectives and culture using computational operation through LMS platforms. As a result, the synchronous system can be achieved where all parts of education including administrative works such as course instruction, student tracking, devices and tools

management, and technological maintenance can be handled by staff under the similar platforms of LMS instead of giving all responsibilities only to lecturers.

However, according to Quimno et al. (2013), the ideal condition as mentioned above is not what appear in educational institutions in many developing countries since most universities are simply integrating the system into their institutions without having a clear guidance on the way administrative and teaching staff should be managed. It should be noted that LMS platforms do not only deal with computers, technology, software, and hardware, but it is beyond that where lecturers and staff have to experience a new situation with different roles and responsibilities. Therefore, Unwin et al. (2010) suggested that training given to members of institutions does not merely to enable them to operate and run the LMS, but more importantly to get them involved and engaged with the new culture and roles in the integration process of LMS to teaching and learning practices in universities.

Another difficult challenge that might appear in the transformation of digital technology in teaching and learning process in a developing country is the aspect of awareness and attitude of university staff and lecturers towards the implementation of LMS platforms. It is suggested from literature that despite the encouragement of policy makers to adopt the new approach in conducting the educational practices, many lecturers and staff cannot transform their previous paradigm into the new manner of doing their work roles with the platform (Hannon, 2013). For example, in most universities, with the integrated platforms that have been provided by the university leaders, lecturers still teach in the same pedagogical approach that they are comfortable working with without putting their commitments to maximise the LMS to enhance teaching and learning.

Likewise, Unwin et al. (2010) indicated that despite the immense interest of teachers in Africa towards the use of LMS platforms, some looked at the platform only as advanced technology that requires a large amount of money and skills. Thus, they did not show a positive attitude to interpret the system as something that can deepen learner's learning and improve the depth understanding of students. As a result, integrating this LMS platform to the teaching practices becomes more challenging since many staff and lecturers, if not entire elements, of an organisation still maintain their culture, attitude, and old practices which are proven as big obstacle to adopt the system successfully. This case is supported by Bhuasiri et al. (2012) who argued that in pursuing a new system in an organisation, a transformation should be followed with a change of mindset of all members within an institution. Indeed, the effective implementation of LMS platform will not be achieved unless the revolution of thinking about technology exist among educators.

The third challenge in the transformation is the lack of involvement of university leaders in succeeding the LMS. According to Bhuasiri et al. (2012), the full and active involvement of university leaders and stakeholders is a key aspect in the development of the e-learning and LMS transformation to be implemented. University leaders should be responsible for understanding the existing system in order for them to mediate and provide the condition which is needed by all the staff and lecturers throughout institutions. Therefore, it is important for them to be competent and able to operate the system. Besides, university leaders have to have a capacity to recognise all the scopes of LMS implementation in education including its technicality, pedagogy, administration, and organisation so that they can easily promote the active roles of all members in the institution towards the transformation.

However, there are many gaps between ideal roles of institutional leaders and their actual work in the transformation. Unwin et al. (2010) suggested that many administrators seem not ready to lead the change where they made roles and policies without having a convincing plan and clear objectives to achieve in the use of the LMS system. It is important to note that leaders are the model of the entire staff in adopting a transformation. Once leaders accept and respond the transformation appropriately, the significant majority of groups will immediately accept and follow. Therefore, the commitment and responsibility of the administrators and university leaders at the institutional level are the most necessary features for successful adoption of LMS platforms.

In summary, it has been explained that there are three obstacles from the organisational issue that should be carefully evaluated before attempting to implement LMS platforms in higher institutions in Indonesia. Those obstacles are the lack of systemic procedure of an institution towards the LMS, the negative attitude and behaviour of institutional members on the transformation, and the absence of university leaders' contribution regarding organising and managing the new system. The section that follows moves on to consider the obstacles from the geographical and social issue.

c. **Geographical and Social Challenges**

The section below will attempt to describe in greater detail the challenges and problems of implementing the LMS platform in Indonesia from two important points namely geographical and social issues. Firstly, it is apparent that Indonesia is endowed with remarkable geographical diversity consisted of thousands of islands. It makes a greater challenge in terms of practising equal education throughout the country including to adopt the LMS platform. Though the rules and the policy from the government obviously explain that teaching and learning at university level should be integrated with the use of technological devices to

enhance the educational practices, providing equal access to the involvement of every university towards the transformation has not been easy due to the tremendous disparity in terms of geographical condition. Jacob, Wang, Pelkowski, Karsidi, and Priyanto (2012) argued that with its geographical condition, Indonesia probably faces the most obstacles in terms of affording access and equity of educational practices in the higher educational environment. It is difficult and complex for the government to meet all the demands of universities that spread across many islands from the eastern part to the western part of Indonesia.

This condition is worsened with the developmental policy of the government where the expansion of infrastructural improvement and teachers' training is mainly focused in many universities in urban areas which caused unequal education among all the universities in the country (Rye, 2008). Similarly, Zuhairi, Wahyono, and Suratinah (2006) admitted that there is a huge gap in terms of facilities, infrastructural provision, and teachers' quality between university in urban areas and rural areas in Indonesia. In the big and populated cities like Jakarta, Surabaya, Malang, and Makassar, the use of technology in some universities like LMS platform is partly prosperous where more advanced facilities are provided by the government. In other rural regencies, however, the computer literacy of lecturers, students, and staff is low, and the access to internet connection and technological facilities are inadequate. As a result, the adoption of LMS platforms cannot be effectively implemented in all universities throughout the country.

The second problem appearing in the transformation of education towards technology and LMS is economic disparities among society in Indonesia. With the reform of the educational system, the demand of using technological devices obviously increase that automatically obliges students to have their own devices and computers to access their learning from their home. Unwin et al. (2010) argued that the access of students to the personal laptop in many developing countries, however, remains the main problem that needs to be taken into account before implementing the LMS platforms. The ultimate challenge from this notion is that not all students in Indonesia can afford to buy a laptop or technological device to deal with the LMS platform. Some students coming from low-income family must encounter the economical hurdle to catch up with the policy and to fulfil the requirement of having their own devices. It is found that Indonesia has experienced a significant lack of the ownership of computers and internet access where a study conducted in ten cities has shown that only 5 percent of Indonesians have a laptop or PC in their home (Unicef, 2011). This economic case is a challenging and ironic condition where the government have to deal with before successfully incorporating the LMS system in educational practices.

However, the government should be optimistic to look at the emerging trend of Indonesia with the digital world where it is suggested that by the rapid growth of social media, Indonesia is in the second-largest population on Facebook and third-largest on Twitter (Socialbakers, 2017). Despite the lack of infrastructural provision and economic rate compared to other countries, the internet and mobile usage has increased year by year in Indonesia which indicates that the implementation of LMS platforms basically has big potential to be adopted. Still, the social behaviour of society should be changed that they should be encouraged to access not only social media but also academic resources through online platforms.

d. Recommendations

All in all, in order for the government to be able to maximise the potential outcomes of the LMS usage and minimise the obstacles faced by universities in adopting the system, some recommendations are stated as follows:

Firstly, to make LMS practical throughout the country, it is crucial that technology can be accessible by all elements of education. Therefore, instead of focusing the infrastructural development merely in urban areas, the government should support the development of LMS by equally distributing the funding to build technological infrastructure and provide teachers' training in both rural and urban areas.

Secondly, affording a short-term training is not significant to enhance the development of all elements in using the LMS system. The impactful and meaningful outcomes can only be achieved if the training provided is consistent and regular. Therefore, it is essential to provide university leaders, lecturers, and staff with a gradual training and continual assistance during the implementation of LMS.

Thirdly, intensive monitoring for lecturers and staff throughout the institution should be conducted where lecturers and staff should be regularly evaluated by the government and experts where the development of their professional career pathway and their incentives will be based on their performance in doing their roles in the transformation.

Fourthly, it is important to strengthen the institutional organisation by encouraging the active involvement and joint effort among stakeholders, governments, and university leaders to make a mutual partnership in order for them to have the same vision and objectives regarding the transformation.

Conclusion

This paper attempts to examine the adoption of LMS platforms in higher education in Indonesia. It has explored the general context of higher education towards the use of technology

and LMS platforms. It can be argued that with the regulated policy from the government that has encouraged the use of technological features in teaching and learning practices, the present condition of LMS implementation in Indonesia still experiences various problems in terms of technical, organisational, and geographical and social issues. Therefore, it can be argued that the LMS adoption has not significantly transformed teaching and learning practices in Indonesian higher education.

Two major problems from the technical issue are the lack of expertise of Indonesian people on computers literacy and the hurdles on technological infrastructures. Furthermore, there are three challenges from the organisational issue that need to be enhanced namely the systemic and systematic procedure of institutions in implementing the system, the awareness and commitment of teachers and staff towards the transformation of LMS, and the active involvement of university leaders in promoting the system. Additionally, the government has to encounter a challenge due to the geographical and social condition of Indonesia to provide equal educational services to every city and university throughout the country as well as to change the social attitude of people regarding educational technology.

Fortunately, the statistic showing that Indonesian people actively engage with technological devices in social media platforms is an emerging signal that the academic platform of LMS is also possible to be well implemented in the country. However, the effective implementation of the system will not be achieved unless all the obstacles and challenges are solved. Thus, some recommendations are suggested in the previous part of this essay to solve the problems.

On the whole, the conclusions and the recommendations of this study about the implementation of LMS platforms in higher education in Indonesia are applicable and can be shared in global contexts, particularly with cases in the context of other developing countries. The central issues occurred related to the transformation of education using digital technology and LMS platforms are evidently typical such as the cases in Africa, Cambodia and other developing countries (Richardson, 2008; Unwin et al., 2010). Hence, the preceding recommendations can be taken into consideration as efforts for improvement in dealing with the educational transformation of using LMS in teaching and learning practices in higher education.

Acknowledgement

References

Arifin, M. A. (2017). The teaching methodology and assessment of character education in Indonesian English curriculum: Teacher`s perceptions. Asian EFL Journal, 20(5), 12-28.

Asian OECD Development Bank (2015). *Education in Indonesia: Rising to the Challenge*, OECD   Publishing, Paris. http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264230750-en

Bhuasiri, W., Xaymoungkhoun, O., Zo, H., Rho, J. J., & Ciganek, A. P. (2012). Critical success factors for e-learning in developing countries: A comparative analysis between ICT experts and faculty. *Computers & Education, 58*(2), 843-855.

Dougiamas, M., & Taylor, P. (2003). Moodle: Using learning communities to create an open source course management system.

Hannon, J. (2013). Incommensurate practices: Sociomaterial entanglements of learning technology implementation. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning, 29*(2), 168-178.

Howard, S. K., & Mozejko, A. (2015). Teachers: Technology, change and resistance. *Teaching and digital technologies: Big issues and critical questions*, 307-317.

Hussein, R., Aditiawarman, U., & Mohamed, N. (2007). *E-learning acceptance in a developing country: a case of the Indonesian Open University.* Paper presented at the German e-Science conference.

Indonesian Ministry of Higher Education. (2011). Panduan penyelenggaraan model pembelajaran pendidikan jarak jauh di Perguruan Tinggi. Retrieved from https://luk.staff.ugm.ac.id/atur/PanduanPJJ-2011.pdf

Jacob, W. J., Wang, Y., Pelkowski, T. L., Karsidi, R., & Priyanto, A. D. (2012). Higher Education Reform in Indonesia: University Governance and Autonomy. In H. G. Schuetze, W. Bruneau, & G. Grosjean (Eds.), *University Governance and Reform: Policy, Fads, and Experience in International Perspective* (pp. 225-240). New York: Palgrave Macmillan US.

Kuntoro, R. D., & Al-Hawamdeh, S. (2003). E-learning in higher educational institutions in Indonesia. *Journal of Information & Knowledge Management, 2*(04), 361-374.

Onwuegbuzie, A. J., Leach, N. J., & Collins, K. M. (2011). Innovative qualitative data collection techniques for conducting literature reviews/research syntheses. *The SAGE handbook of innovation in social research methods. Sage, Thousand Oaks*, 182-204.

Ozkan, S., & Koseler, R. (2009). Multi-dimensional students' evaluation of e-learning systems in the higher education context: An empirical investigation. *Computers & Education, 53*(4), 1285-1296. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2009.06.011

Quibria, M. G., Ahmed, S. N., Tschang, T., & Reyes-Macasaquit, M.-L. (2003). Digital divide: determinants and policies with special reference to Asia. *Journal of Asian Economics, 13*(6), 811-825. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/S1049-0078(02)00186-0

Quimno, V., Imran, A., & Turner, T. (2013). *Introducing a sociomaterial perspective to investigate e-learning for higher educational institutions in developing countries.* Paper presented at the 24th Australasian Conference on Information Systems (ACIS).

Richardson, J. W. (2008). ICT in education reform in Cambodia: problems, politics, and policies impacting implementation. *Information Technologies & International Development, 4*(4), pp. 67-82.

Rye, S. A. (2008). *Conditions of Connectivity: The Internet and the time-space of distance education in Indonesia*: Norges teknisk-naturvitenskapelige universitet, Fakultet for samfunnsvitenskap og teknologiledelse, Geografisk institutt.

Selwyn, N. (2016). *Education and technology: Key issues and debates*: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Socialbakers. (2017). In Facebook and Twitter Statistics by Country. Retrieved from https://www.socialbakers.com/statistics/

Thompson, C. (2016). The magic of mentoring: a democratic approach to mentoring trainee teachers in post-compulsory education. *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, *21*(3), 246-259. doi: 10.1080/13596748.2016.1195172

Unwin, T., Kleessen, B., Hollow, D., Williams, J. B., Oloo, L. M., Alwala, J., . . . Muianga, X. (2010). Digital learning management systems in Africa: myths and realities. *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning, 25*(1), 5-23. doi:10.1080/02680510903482033

Watson, W. R., & Watson, S. L. (2007). What are learning management systems, what are they not, and what should they become. *TechTrends, 51*(2), 29.

Zuhairi, A., Wahyono, E., & Suratinah, S. (2006). The historical context, current development, and future challenges of distance education in Indonesia. *Quarterly Review of Distance Education, 7*(1), 95.

Language Background and English Proficiency Levels of the Ibanag, Ilocano, and Itawes

Maribel Fontiveros-Malana

Cagayan State University – Andrews Campus

Tuguegarao City, Cagayan Philippines

maribelmalana@ymail.com

Abstract

This research assessed the language background and proficiency levels of the Ibanags, Ilocanos, and Itawes. The subject of the study were 60 first year students who were officially enrolled at Cagayan State University. It ascertained that ninety-five percent of them first learned English in elementary, and the rest learned English only when they were already in high school. The Ilocanos spoke to their peers in their own dialect, but the Ibanags spoke Ibanag, Ilocano and Itawes. About 95% of the Itawes spoke Itawes with their peers. The Ilocano and Ibanag frequently used another dialect. The test on English Proficiency which covered parts of speech, vocabulary, comprehension, and word order were found out to be very satisfactorily proficient. The Ilocano and Ibanag, and Itawes had a total mean score of 5.75, 5.1 and 5.2, respectively. The three groups were loyal to their own dialect. Based on the findings of this study, the student-respondents, in general, are loyal to their own dialect/language in their communication activities. The groups perform similarly when it comes to written English. The language background of the student- respondents does not affect their English language proficiency. Therefore, language background is insignificant to learning English as a second language. This study recommends that since speaking English in our communication activities at home, school or in our community is a good way to improve proficiency, it should still be encouraged. Though the students performed very satisfactorily in their proficiency test, there is still a need to further investigate on the other aspects of the English language learning with different subjects of different backgrounds or performance levels since the result of this study may not be true to all. L2 learners especially those of lower proficiency lack the ability to verbalize their thoughts and express themselves clearly and

accurately. So, teachers should still encourage the use of the English language among students especially to those who are less or not proficient. Finally, teachers should utilize strategies that provide opportunity to enhance their language proficiency.

Keyword: language background, English language proficiency, communication activities

Introduction

Language is the most indispensable element of culture. It is never possible to understand the components and idiosyncrasies of of another culture without its medium of communication. Learning a second language necessitates the learner to face the challenges of meaningfully appreciating the semantic and semantic components of the language. Withstanding these conditions is the learner's goal of having a mastery of the target language regardless of the learning facilities.

The English language is a dynamic medium of communication, Malana (2018). As a second language of the Filipinos, it is highly indispensable especially to some adults and to many students. It is also a discipline most tertiary education students choose to major and teach not only in our own Philippine educational institutions but also in schools in most parts of the world.

The position of the English language, be it in the field of entertainment, business or science, is undeniably dominant. English is an international language with speakers all over the world. In fact, the number of second and foreign language speakers of English has exceeded the native speakers and English has gained a lingua franca status in different fields (Jenkins 2003: 2).

Since communication necessitates insightful and dynamic expression of thoughts, this study is geared towards the direction of finding specific degrees of English language mastery of the local cultural groups – Ibanag and Ilocano, and Itawes – in terms of their grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic proficiency.

The role of cultural language in this study is to serve as springboard in exploring proficiency and relationship to language proficiency.

The Ibanags are an ethno-linguistic minority numbering a little more than half a million people who inhabit the province of Cagayan and Isabela. Ibanag speak the same language under the same name. However, due to the Philippine Government's attempts at displacing minority languages and imposing Filipino as a lingua franca, the use of Ibanag language has now diminished.

The Iloco or Ilocano people are the third largest Filipino ethno-linguistic group. They also refer to themselves 'samtoy' from the Ilocano phrase "sao mi ditoy", meaning "our language here". Today, the Ilocanos are the dominant ethnic group in northern Luzon, and their language – the Ilocano – has become the lingua franca of the region.

The Itawes have been called in various names such as "Itawit", "Itawiq", "Tawics", "Itawi", "Itaves, and "Itabes". However, the early natives of Cagayan referred to one another by the group description of Ibanags, or the Y-Rita which means "those from the south". Occasionally, Y-raya, meaning "upstream people", was also used. Based on dialect, the people appear to be the most versatile group in the province. They speak both Ibanag and Ilocano, but because many Itawes live with the Ibanag, Ibanag has become a standard language. The Itawes dialect has one peculiar characteristic such as the frequent us of double consonant like cc, kk, ww.

The English language is the current lingua franca in the international business and science and technology. When United Kingdom became a a colonial power, English served as the lingua franca of the colonies of the British Empire. Learning a second language prepares one to to face the call and challenges of a multi-cultural world.

The term second language refers to any language other than one's mother-tongue. Most would consider English as L2 as they learned it after acquiring their L1. Language proficiency is the ability of an individual to speak or perform an acquired language. Proficient speakers demonstrate both accuracy and fluency and use a variety of discourse strategies.

ACTFL declares that a limited proficient student is one who comes a non-English background who has sufficient difficulty in speaking, reading, and writing, and understanding the English language.

Conceptual Framework

Second language acquisition seeks to quantify how and by what processes individuals acquire a second language – an idea emphasized by Krashen (1978) in a theory he developed called the Second Language Acquisition Theory. Bodies of knowledge like these, explain that constant exposure bring about not only familiarity but mastery, not only of the word meanings and concepts behind the words but of the conventions of thoughts in the way they are properly conveyed that any foreign or second language can be learned.

The Natural Order Hypothesis also suggests that the order the learner follows is 1.) They produce single words; 2.) They string words together based on meaning and not syntax;

3.) They begin to identify elements that begin and end sentences; and 4.) They identify sentences' different elements within sentences and rearrange them to produce questions. This is how second language learner acquire a target language.

Mental Discipline Theory claims that the human mind inherently contains all the attributes of faculties and thus postulates the concept that the human mind is innately endowed with natural capacities such as faculties of remembering, imagining and reasoning which grow with constant exercise.

In this study, a strong assumption considers the concept that to learn proficiently any second language among non-native speakers is never far-fetched with unceasing skillful and vibrant interest to embrace culturally the semantic and syntactic structures of a language.

Statement of the Problem

This study attempted to ascertain the level of English language proficiency of the Ibanags the Ilocanos, and Itawes and the relationship of their language background to their proficiency levels. Specifically, this study sought to answer the following questions:

1. What is the profile of the respondents in terms of:
   a. age and sex
   b. last high school attended
   c. year level when English was first learned
   d. language dominantly used with parents, peers, and community

2. What is the level of proficiency of the respondents?

3. What is the significant relationship of the language background and the English proficiency levels of the Ibanag, Ilocano, and Itawes?

Hypothesis

This study tested the lone hypothesis that there is no significant relationship in the language background and level of English language proficiency of the Ibanags, the Ilocanos, and the Itawes.

Methodology

Research Design

This study utilized the Descriptive Method using Survey and Correlation Techniques. The survey method was used to elicit information about variables necessary and related to knowing the language background and English language proficiency of the respondents. On the other hand, correlation method was used to ascertain the relationship of language background and language proficiency of each of the cultural groups mentioned.

Respondents and Sampling Procedure

The researcher had 60 student-respondents, 30 of them come from the College of Education, and the other 30 come from the College of Business Entrepreneurship and Accountancy. Twenty of these student speak Ibanag; 20 speak Ilocano; and another 20 speak Itawes. Although some of them can speak other languages, the researcher made sure that each was purposely chosen based on the language they dominantly speak. Purposive sampling was utilized in the light of objectively coming up with authentic and legitimate pieces of information and/or baseline date indispensably needed in this research.

Locale of the Study

This research was conducted in Cagayan State University-Andrews Campus, Caritan Centro, Tuguegarao City the fact that the respondents – Ibanag, Ilocano, Itawes – have considerable number of enrollees in the aforementioned campus. Specifically, the researcher focused her attempts to study the language background in relation to English language proficiency of the student-respondents during the school year 2010-2011

Research Instrument

The researcher made use of the Survey Questionnaire, constructed by the researcher herself, to gather relevant information and data from the respondents. It consisted of two parts and was pre-tested to 60 3rd year students in the College of Teacher Education. The first part consisted of a survey on the profile of the respondents and their exposure to the English language, and the second part consisted of a test questionnaire that will elicit the level of proficiency of the respondents in the English language.

Data Gathering Procedure

The data for this study were gathered by the researcher with the help of some faculty who were in constant meeting with the second year students in CBEA and COED. After permission was sought, the researcher administered the test to the second year classes in both colleges were the respondents were identified. The test was given at different sessions to allow students ample time to answer the questionnaire, and to see to it that reliable date will be collected. Besides, the students could not be accommodated at once because they belonged to different sections and different schedules. The sessions involved a paper-and-pencil tests was also a survey of their profile, and a proficiency test in English. The test included grammar covering form classes/content words and function words, vocabulary and comprehension.

Statistical Tools an Analysis

This study utilized the simple frequency counts, percentage and weighted mean to determine the average scores of the respondents in both their language background and English language proficiency. The scale of interpretation is shown in Table 1 and Table 2.

Results and Discussion

A. Profile of Students (age and sex)

Table 3. a. Profile of respondents according to age and sex

	Ilocano		Ibanag		Itawes		Total	
Category	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Age 16 and below	6	30	4	20	10	50	20	33
17 and above	14	70	16	80	10	50	40	67
Sex Male	6	30	3	15	5	25	14	23.33
Female	14	70	17	85	15	75	16	76.67
When English was first learned Public	18	90	20	100	19	5	57	95

Private	2	10	-	-	1	5	3	5
Type of high school attended								
Public	14	70	17	85	17	85	48	80
Private	6	30	3	15	3	15	12	20
Language spoken with peers								
Ilocano	20	100	4	20	1	5	25	42
Ibanag	-	-	15	75	-	-	15	25
Itawes	-	-	1	5	19	95	20	33
Language spken with community								
Ilocano	20	100	-	-	-	-	20	33
Ibanag	-	-	19	95	-	-	19	32
Itawes	-	-	1	5	20	100	21	35

Table 3 presents the profile of the students according to age, sex, where English was first learned, type of school attended, language spoken with peers, and language spoken with community. As to age, the table reveals that 67 percent of the students fall under ages 17 and above, while 33 percent fall under the ages 16 and below.   In terms of sex, the females outnumber the males at 76.67 percent of the total number of respondents. Five expressed that they only started learning English at home. Further, the table shows that eighty percent were educated in a government /public school. Those who had their high school in private institutions is 20 percent. It is inferred that most of the respondents have graduated from high schools that are not equipped with facilities that are used to enhance learning.

The table also shows that the language used by the Ilocano students to speak to their peers is Ilocano, while 95 percent of the Itawes used Itawes to communicate with peers. On the other hand, 75 percent of the Ibanags used Ibanag, but 20 percent of them Ilocano to talk with peers. The Ilocanos and Itawes used their respective dialect to speak with the community, and 95 percent of the Ibanags used Ibanag. A few of them used Itawes to speak with the community.

Table 3.b. Profile of respondents according to language background

CATEGORY	Ilocano		Ibanag		Itawes		Total	
(Language first learned to speak)								
Ilocano	20	100	-	-	-	-	20	33
Ibanag	-	-	18	90	1	5	19	32
Itawes	-	-	1	5	19	95	20	33
English	-	-	1	5	-	-	1	2
(Language frequently used at home)								
Ilocano	19	95	-	-	-	-	19	32
Ibanag	-	-	19	95	-	-	19	32
Itawes	1	5	-	-	20	100	21	35
English	-	-	1	5	-	-	1	2
(Language best understood when listening)								
Ilocano	16	80	-	-	-	-	16	27
Ibanag	-	-	15	75	-	-	15	25
Itawes	-	-	-	-	19	95	19	32
English	4	20	5	25	1	5	10	17
(Language spoken fluently)								
Ilocano	20	100	1	5	-	-	21	35
Ibanag	-	-	16	80	-	-	16	27
Itawes	-	-	-	-	15	75	15	25
English	-	-	3	15	5	25	8	13
(Language used best in writing)								
Ilocano	1	5	1	5	-	-	6	10
Ibanag	-	-	-	-	-	-	9	15
Itawes	-	-	-	-	2	10	2	3
English	19	95	19	95	18	80	43	72
(Language best understood when reading)								
Ilocano	1	5	-	-	-	-	5	8
Ibanag	-	-	1	5	-	-	5	8
Itawes	-	-	-	-	-	-	16	27
English	19	95	19	95	19	95	34	57
(Language used when thinking)								

Ilocano	12	60	1	5	-	-	13	22
Ibanag	-	-	12	60	-	-	12	20
Itawes	-	-	-	-	8	40	8	13
English	8	40	7	35	12	60	27	45

In the first item "language first learned to speak", 100 percent of the Ilocanos first learned to speak Ilocano while 95 percent of the Itawes first learned to speak Itawes. However, only 90 percent of the Ibanags learned to speak Ibanag first. The remaining 10 percent first learned to speak Itawes or English.

For the item "language frequently used at home", 100 percent of the Itawes frequently used Itawes at home, while 95 percent of both the Ilocano and the Ibanag frequently used Ilocano and Ibanag, respectively, at home. For the item "language best understood while listening", 95 percent of the Itawes best understood Itawes while 5 percent understood English.

In the item "language spoke fluently", 100 pecent of the Ilocanos sope Ilocano fluently, while eighty percent of the Ibanags spoke Ibanag fluently. The other 15 and 5 percent of them spoke Itawes and Ibanag, respectively. In writing, 95 percent of both the Ilocanos and the Ibanags can write best in English while only 80 percent only from the Itawes. Similarly, 95 percent of all the groups could best understand English than any other language. For the Ibanags, 60 percent used Ibanag when thinking, 35 percent used English and 5 percent used Ilocano. Among the Itawes, 60 percent used English when thinking and 40 percent used Itawes when thinking.

Table 4. Over-all language proficiency of the respondents

	Ilocano		Ibanag		Itawes		Total	
CATEGORY	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
69 – 87	-	-	2	10	1	5	3	5
52 – 68	2	10	1	5	2	10	10	8
35 – 51	3	15	4	20	6	30	13	22
18 – 34	11	55	7	35	7	35	25	42
1 - 17	4	20	6	30	4	20	14	23
Mean	**63.05**		**65.02**		**58.85**		**61.32**	**VS**
SD	**7.94**		**13.51**		**11.07**		**11.03**	
Index of Mastery	**63.05**		**62.05**		**58.85**		**61.32**	

From the data shown in Table 4, the mean. values of 63.05 for Ilocano, 62.05 for Ibanag, and 58.85 for the Itawes do not significantly differ. The finding implies that the linguistic competence of the three groups of students is similar. The table further shows the level of proficiency of the students. The Ilocanos are very satisfactorily proficient as shown by the index of mastery of 63.05. Similarly, the Ibanag students are very satisfactorily proficient with an index of mastery of 62.05, likewise with the Itawes who garnered an index of mastery of 58.85. In general, the total index of mastery of the groups falls between 52 and 68 which clearly reveals that they performed very satisfactorily.

B. On Relationship in the Language Background and Proficiency Level

It can be inferred from the results in the language background and proficiency level of the respondents that language background is not significantly related to the proficiency of the students. The students, even if they totally use their own language (dialect) in their communication activities, or sometimes use other languages including English, does not necessarily affect their ability to use English proficiently. In the study of Lingan (2019), she found out students are fair users of English (in school), and that language exposure (among other profile variables) is not significantly related to communicative competence.

Conclusion

Based on the findings of this study, the conclusions are herein stated:

1. The student-respondents, in general, are loyal to their own dialect/language in their communication activities.
2. The groups perform similarly when it comes to written English.
3. The language background of the student- respondents does not affect their English language proficiency. Therefore, language background is insignificant to learning English as a second language.

Recommendations

Based on the conclusions made, it is strongly recommended that:

1. Although this study revealed that language background is not related to English language proficiency, the researcher still recommends that students practice speaking

English in their communication activities at home, school or in our community because it is a good way to improve proficiency.

2. Though the students performed very satisfactorily in their proficiency test, there is still a need to further investigate on the other aspects of the English language learning.

3. The subjects of this study were students from the CTED and CBEA where students are performing very well. Therefore, the result of this study may not be true to all. It is recommended that a similar study of different groups of respondents may be conducted.

4. L2 learners especially those of lower proficiency lack the ability to verbalize their thoughts and express themselves, clearly and accurately. There is a need therefore to intensify the teaching of vocabulary or at least strategize vocabulary acquisition as recommended by Calanoga (2019) and Lingan (2019).

5. Teachers should still encourage the use of the English language among students especially to those

References

Calanoga, M. M. (2019). Productive Vocabulary: A Predictive Variable of Pre-Service Teachers'Competence. The Asian EFL Journal, Vol 23, issue 3.2. The English Language Education Journal.

Lingan, L. M. (2019). Prospective Teachers' Level of Communicative Competence as Bases for English Language Enhancement Program. Asian EFL Journal, Vol 21, issue 2.4. English Language Education Publishing

Malana, M. F. (2018). First Language Interference in Learning the English Language. Asian EFL Journal/Journal of English as an International Language, Vol 13, issue 2.2. p 32 46. English Language Education Publishing

Krashen, S. D. (1978). The Monitor Model of Second Language Acquisition: In Gingras, R.C. (Ed.) Second Language Acquisition & Foreign Language Teaching, Washington: Center for Applied Linguistics

ASIAN EFL JOURNAL   The EFL Professional's Written Forum

A Discourse Analysis on Economic Plenary Debates over the General Appropriations Bill in the Philippines

Ali G. Anudin

Philippine Normal University

anudin.ag@pnu.edu.ph

ali_anudin@dlsu.edu.ph

Bio-Profile:

Ali G. Anudin is an associate professor of the Faculty of Arts and Languages at the Philippine Normal University, Manila. He just recently completed his academic requirements in Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics at the De La Salle University, Manila. His research interests are in line with Sociolinguistics, Discourse Analysis and Language Teaching. His participation in nationwide research endeavors related to the implementation of the K-12 curriculum, involve a number of contributions to curriculum modifications based on outcomes-based education, as well as contributions to the preparation of instructional materials. His latest work includes the writing of Senior High School textbooks – *Oral Communication* and *Reading and Writing*.

Abstract

This study analyzes the discourse of the Senate plenary debates in the Philippines over budget/economic issues in terms of the pronominal choices of the participants, and the strategic and persuasive tactics they employ during debates. The framework of Bramley (2001) is adopted to examine the lexical choices, i.e., the pronominal choices of the participants in the plenary debates. In terms of the goal of discerning tactics and strategies used during public debates, Gee's (1995) discourse analysis tools is used, which includes the semiotic, world activity, socio-culturally-situated, identity and relational, political, and the connection building — which, taken together, can help one explicate what is being attempted and achieved in the public discourse. It was found that the tactics or strategies

determined from analysis of the transcripts of the 2017 General Appropriations Bill closely associated with the operational categories explained in Gee's work: *identity building, world building, activity building and connection building*. Gee's (2001) discourse analysis tools were helpful in discerning the tactics used by participants in the Senate debates. The study may also help in understanding the language and the motives of political leaders in the country through the pronominal choices of legislators. It was found that based on the seven sessions (shown in table 3 of this study) which is equivalent to 155,433 word corpus, that use of the pronoun *I* ranks first with 2,199 occurrences (1.41%); second is the use of the pronoun *we* with 2,144 (1.38%) occurrences; third is the pronoun *they* with 952 (.61%) occurrences; and fourth is the use of the pronoun *you* with only 294 (19%) occurrences.

Introduction

Language, in general, is an avenue to access information, share thoughts or ideas – it is what connects us and it is likewise the tool used to stream out emotions. Malimas, Carreon and Peña (2018) posit that since communication is inherent in people's day-to-day activities, using language is indispensable. Thus, " analyzing how people in different speech communities use language to express their message provides an insight to the various ways that people can interpret language (p. 389)."

Correspondingly, language predominantly has power in the fields of law, politics and most importantly in the realm of economics. When we talk about this field, we may undoubtedly think about the sources of funds, talk about debates as to the allocations of budgets in the different sectors or agencies of the country, and discuss appropriations to alleviate poverty. This makes the topic of the study so interesting especially in the arena of discourse in politics.

Van Dijk (2000) posits that more than any other kind of discourse, political discourse is exceptionally ideological. He describes ideologies as the basis of the social representations of groups where the notion broader than any kind of socially shared mental representation.

This means that if we focus on politicians or legislators, we shall typically have at least *two* ideologies as expressed in their text and talk: First, the professional ideologies that trigger

their functioning as politicians. And second, the socio-political ideologies they adhere to, e.g., as members of political parties or social groups. The study particularly examined how politicians, purposely, the senators in the Philippines function as they forward and argue interests of economic-political nature.

The context of this study is on the Senate Plenary Debates over the Fiscal year 2017 General Appropriations Bill**.**

The General Appropriation Act (GAA) is what the Philippine government plans to spend for its programs and projects, as well as the sources of funds. The budget method includes budgeting and the budget. Budgeting refers to methods and practices of government planning, adopting and executing financial policies and programs (Department of Budget and Management, 2017).

The budget refers to a plan of expressing in monetary terms the operating program and means of financing of a government for a definite period of time. The national budget is spent for the implementation of various government programs and projects, the operations of government offices such as the payment of salaries, construction of buildings (DBM, 2017).

Apart from being the general annual budget of the Philippines, the GAA contains almost everything one needs to know about the financial operations of the country - how taxes, fees, and levies are collected, where it is deposited, how funds are allocated and released, etc. But as a development tool, the real value of the GAA rests on how the money of the taxpayers is allocated across the thousand and one needs of the people.

Thus, this study examined the public discourse concerning the provisions and structure of the general annual budget of the Philippines handled by the legislative body, as the discourse has been generated using the transcripts on the Senate plenary debates. Mainly, the study focused on the *pronominal choices of the participants in the debates*, and the *strategic and persuasive frames (tactics) used by the participants* in the budget plenary debates held at the Senate of the Philippines.

Specifically, the study focused on the use of personal pronouns of the debate participants – the Senators of the republic of the Philippines. Allen (2007) espoused that politicians present themselves as being able to identify with the wants, interests and needs of the audience or the people in general. They present themselves in that way to be seen as good politicians i.e. fitting leaders of the country. The manner politicians present themselves in their

speeches, by referring to themselves; their audience and also their opposition can successfully be used to persuade the audience to agree with them. When giving speeches, politicians have a tendency to present the positive aspects of themselves and the negative aspects of their opponents. One way of achieving this is by intentionally using *specific personal pronouns*, which refer to themselves or others.

The personal pronouns *I, you, we* and *they* were specifically chosen because they are the most interesting pronouns from a political perspective, because they are the ones who signify who the speaker identifies with. They are also noteworthy because they have the influence to include and exclude the audience, as well as detach *self* from *other*. These pronouns are small words that can have the capability to change the effect the speech has on the audience.

Furthermore, this study looked at persuasive language used to describe the initiative using the discourse analysis tools of Gee with the goal of distinguishing rhetorical structures, tactics and strategies used during public debates.

By probing texts with communication tools one might see undoubtedly the relationship between policy and politics. Karapetjana, (2011) posits that the political maneuvering by small groups seeking special interest could be assumed as merely another type of free market capitalism, and by extension, a fundamental characteristic of western democracy.

This is not to say that a discourse analysis, however, simply follows the money. Using communication tools in the analysis of the public debate about the general appropriations or the national budget could provide insights into our national narratives and the competing images of national identity that underlie Philippine's public discourse.

There seem to be a number of studies on political debates especially in the international community, and now perhaps emerging gradually in the Philippine arena. Most of these studies done internationally focused on Presidential Debates, and the common ground seemed to have revolved around the pronominal choices (e.g. Karapetjana, 2011; Beard, 2000; McKinney and Banwart, 2005) . A few studies also looked into the effects of presidential debates.

Karapetjana (2011), in his study on *Pronominal Choice in Political Interviews,* claimed that the way politicians speak and present themselves is a part of their personality and a way to show themselves as individuals, and so are pronominal choices. The use of personal pronouns can build an image of the politician in question, both negative and positive. Karapetjana's study

suggested that the pronoun *I* implies a personal level, and makes it possible for the speaker to show authority and personal responsibility as well as commitment and involvement. Her research also showed that the personal pronoun *we* can be used by the politician if he or she wishes to share the responsibility, and also to create involvement with the audience Karapetjana also found that the plural form of the pronoun *we* is used when the decisions are controversial, to give a sense of collectivity and sharing responsibility. She continues by claiming that *I* is mostly used to make general statements, and that politicians sometimes avoid using *I*, because of its distancing effect.

Beard (2000), for instance, talked about the pronominal choices in political speeches. He found that these types of speeches differ depending on if the politician who makes the utterance wants to share the responsibility with other people or colleagues or not. Pronominal choices can also vary depending on how confident the speaker is that others will share his views and opinions. Additionally, Collins (1990) argued that personal pronouns are used to refer to people or things, which the speaker is speaking to, or talking about and they can be used as a way for him to refer to himself.

Moreover, Fairclough (2003) argued that pronominal use in politics is closely tied to the notions of identity and ideology: PNs can indicate (or obscure) collectivity and individuality or they can be used for 'self' or 'other' referencing or as a way to polarize representations of ingroups and outgroups.

Quirk, A., Svartvik J., Greenbaum, S. and Leech G. N. (1972) stated that object pronouns are used as either the object, subject complement or prepositional complement of a clause. The objective personal pronouns are: *me, us, you, him, her, it* and *them*.

Very few studies looked into the particular pronominal choices, structure, and tactics when it comes to plenary debates in the parliament or any form of government. Markedly, there are no studies so far in the Philippines on the Senate Plenary Debates. Thus, the study is significant in unveiling what goes on inside the plenary debates in the legislative body.

Statement of the problem

This study aimed at conducting a discourse analysis of the Senate plenary debates in the Philippines over budget/economic issues in terms of the pronominal choices of the participants, and strategic and persuasive frames or tactics employed by the participants – to

help constituents and future leaders comprehend what transpires in such debates.

Research framework

The present study is anchored on two frameworks. To answer the first research question, the transcripts of the 2017 General Appropriations Bill in the Senate plenary debates were examined using Bramley's (2001) model. On the other hand, Gee's (2001) framework was adopted to help determine strategic techniques participants use to advance what they want in the plenary debates.

Bramley (2001) argued that politicians use the pronoun *I* to present themselves as individuals and speak from their own perspective, preferably highlighting one's good qualities and accomplishments. The pronoun *you* is used by the speaker to address parts of, or the entire audience.

According to Bramley, however, the pronoun *you* is more complicated, because it is also a generic pronoun that can be used in a very general way, where *you* is referring to anyone. *We* can be used to invoke a group membership or a collective identity, and create a separation between *us* and *them*. The pronoun *they* is used in political speeches to create an image of *other* and to divide people in groups. Bramley further suggests that a politician's pronominal choice indicates his or her varied identity, more specifically his or her individual or collective identity. He states that the primary concern of a politician is to create an image of the reality according to them, and pronouns are of major importance in doing so.

This study is also anchored on the framework developed by Gee (2001). This is to answer research question number 2. The framework endeavors to build upon the work of the last fifty years by foregrounding a modern discourse analysis approach to explain a contemporary public debate.

The transcripts in this study were analyzed using the work of Gee (1995) because it presents an opportunity to move fast and apparently to the heart of the words spoken by the participants in the debates, and permit close analysis of the tactics and strategies and the connections among the participants.

Gee's work focuses on capturing the "work being done" by speakers/writers, and is an analysis of sign systems pertinent to a given situation, the world understood from this perspective as built by speakers and the relationships and identities they create in words. In this case Senate testimonies, Gee's approach will allow one to look beyond the individual words

emanated by the speakers and center on what he terms "the world-building tasks of language."

This approach allowed the scrutiny of text for semiotic world-building activity, the construction of socio-culturally-situated identity and relationships, as well as the political and connection-building capacities of language to explicate what is being attempted and achieved in the public discourse. With the ideas of Gee, the study brought communications methods to bear on the text to reveal the argumentative or persuasive structures used by speakers in their descriptions of activities in the Senate plenary budget debates.

In terms of pedagogical implications, the study may provide an avenue to help both teachers and students. For instance, the awareness of linguistic features in this kind of discourse will help students recognize the linguistic features of discourse used in the senate debates and/or other related political discourse. It may also help students understand tactics political leaders use to advance arguments specifically in representing their constituents. Thus, may allow students to get to know their leaders better and will help them decide whom to vote for in future political elections. Furthermore, the study may also allow teachers to apply more effective methods to teach speaking skills, and will help those who are interested in this field.

Generally, a discourse analysis of the national budget by focusing on the language being used and the rhetorical work being done, also help us understand and use language in an efficient way in day-to-day conversations as well as in formal conversation. Enriching our public speaking skill and creating a persuasive debate in order to demonstrate our significant role in our society, our voice becomes more influential in life, and makes listeners feel interesting in what we say. Thus, our communicative ability will be improved.

Method

Research design

The study employed the descriptive qualitative method in the presentation of data. Descriptive method is intended to shed light on current issues or problems through a process of data collection that enables to describe the situation more completely than was possible using this method. According to Creswell (2013) in using qualitative research, researchers could explore social or socially fashioned occurrences through an in-depth analysis of individuals or groups. This is the most fitting method for this particular study because it offers accuracy, categorical facts and concrete answers necessary to determine the course of action, in this case the rationale behind the choices of pronouns of the participants and the tactics they use to

forward their intention.

The corpus

The study is based on the corpus of 400 pages of transcripts of the Senate Plenary debates on the 2017 General Appropriation Act taken from the public domain of the Senate of the Philippines from the period of November 15 to November 22, 2017. The transcripts are also available online at senate.org.

Unit of analysis

The procedure for analyzing the data included a close reading of the texts (transcripts from the plenary debates/deliberation), connected with the process of examining pronominal choices, and analyzing tactics use by the debate participants.

The data collected were mainly analyzed on the basis of the following points:

Pronominal choices

Textual analysis was used to see in what context the pronouns *I, you, we* and *they* were used in the speeches. The search function in Microsoft Word was used to search for the pronouns in the speeches. The representative examples of pronominal choices in context offered a sense of how the pronouns *I, you, we* and *they* were used. The examples are presented in the results section of this study, as well as in a short discussion of why the pronoun used in that particular sentence may have been used, and whom the pronoun is referring to.

The study also included a search in the data to see how many occurrences of each pronoun were found in the speeches.

These pronouns (*I, you, we* and *they)* were specifically selected because they are the most interesting ones from a political perspective – they indicate who the speaker identifies with. They are also interesting because they have the power to include and exclude the audience, as well as separate *self* from *others.* They are relatively small words that can have the capability to change the effect the speech has on the audience.

On how to analyze the strategic and persuasive frames

This examination looked at persuasive language used to describe the

initiative using the discourse analysis tools J. P. Gee with the goal of discerning rhetorical structures, tactics and strategies used during public debates.

Gee's approach is to focus on the six building tasks of language, incl uding the semiotic, world activity, socio-culturally-situated, identity and relational, political, and the connection building — which, taken together, can help one explicate what is being attempted and achieved in the public discourse.

Analyses of the texts are followed by discussions focused on language behaviors: what rhetorical work is being done by the participants in the debates, what discourse reveal about the developing identities of the speakers, and what social realities are being created by the context and the debates.

The communications suppositions here probably are that there are evident relationships between the language used in certain Senate briefs and opinions which emerge into the public discourses that frame debate; and that those relations can be seen more clearly by applying discourse analysis

The discourse analysis tools of Gee offered a shared approach and a reliable vocabulary to assess and deliberate the rhetorical transactions that appeared in the texts.

Gee's approach is to focus on the six building tasks of language, including the semiotic, world activity, socio-culturally-situated, identity and relational, political, and the connection building — which, taken together, can help one explicate what is being attempted and achieved in the public discourse.

The size of the data, however, was limited to at least one agency (budget proposal by a particular government agency, e.g. DPHW, SUCs…) per session.

Results and Discussion

The results are divided into two main sections with subcategory heading to facilitate smooth discussion. These sections answered the two research questions respectively.

On the pronominal choices of the participants in the senate debates

The results for the pronominal choices are allocated into five parts; the first four parts give definitions and examples of the pronouns *I, you, we* and *they*. The last part exemplifies

how many occurrences of personal pronouns were found in the Senate debates, discounting the generic pronouns.

On the use of the pronoun *I*

Bramley (2001) espoused that the pronoun *I* is not used as a replacement for the speaker's name. It is the way for him or her to refer to himself or herself. In political discourses, *I* can be used by the speaker to express his or her opinion making the speech more subjective. It also displays the authority of the speaker and it can be a way to illustrate concern with the audience and to recount a story.

Bramley (2001) described further another significant function of the first person singular pronoun of *I* in political discourses (speeches or debates) which includes giving a sense of *here and now,* suggesting that *I* captures the moment. *I* can also be used to build a 'relationship' with the audience, because using *I* makes the speech seem as if it is on a more personal level. *I* might also be used to show commitment to the audience and personal involvement in issues; *I* gives the speaker a personal voice that distances him from others. This means that it cannot always be expected that the other members of his party agree with the speaker's opinions when the pronoun *I* is used. These could be essentially observed in the following Senate debate sample transcripts.

(1) *Senator Honasan.* Mr. President, again, looking at the sponsorship speech of the lady Senator as a reference, *I* strongly believe that the numbers, as she validly pointed out, should be a consequence of the measuring device that we will be applying. (p. 2 Session 4)

(2) *Senator Lacson.* Thank you, Mr. President. *I* have only one area of interest and this concerns transparency in the implementation of all government projects. NEDA is in charge of the Regional Project Monitoring Committee (RPMC), am *I* correct. (p. 24)

Examples (1) and (2) show how the use of *I* conveys the speaker's personal opinion about the issues he or she responds to. By using the singular personal pronoun *I,* the each senator evidently states that this is his or her opinion, without the suggestion that another person agrees with him on the issue.

(3) *The President Pro Tempore* (Senator Drillon). That is the law, that is what *I* am trying to say. That is the law and because if it is the policy of this administration not to

merge Landbank and DBP, that is a policy issue which would defer too insofar as these two government banks are concerned. Insofar as the Chair is concerned, there is basis for the merger because while the mandates are different, the fact is, on a day-to-day operation, there is no difference in the way the two banks operate today, and it will strengthen the government bank. But *I* take exception to the opinion expressed that it would require legislation because the authority. (p. 6 of session 3)

(4) *Senator Drilon*. *I* will raise policy issues at the confirmation hearing of the Secretary of Foreign Affairs. For tonight in these budget debates, *I* will raise a very basic issue and this is as regards our career ambassadors. (p. 124)

Examples (3) and (4) show how the President Pro Tempore uses *I* to show his passion as president of the Senate, in a way suggesting that he is one who defends policies and makes sure they are enforced.

(5) *Senator Legarda*: And *I* must admit, and for me, the biggest challenge here is we must make these agencies realize the urgency of the situation. That it is not budget as usual or business as usual because people are hungry and needy and jobs have to be created. And so, a 24/7 construction in infrastructure spending will be embarked on by government. They also created an inter-agency or internal DBM mechanism where monitoring of all these projects will be done. (p. 29 session 3)

(6) *Senator Legarda*. *I* am one with the gentleman in caring for our farmers and he is correct in stating that. That is the reason why we are providing free irrigation for our farmers next year. That is just one of the interventions needed. Of course, farm-to-market roads, as we always say it here is needed and crop diversification. They just have to learn to diversify and the safety nets must be provided by the government. (p. 49 session 3)

Examples (5) and (6) show a way for Sen. Legarda, as the Chair for the Finance committee, to express her compassion for the people as a legislator, by expressing her desire to promote a secure, comfortable and resilient environment. Using *I* in this context, helps her to be considered as a responsible Chair, i.e. it puts her in a positive light (Bramley, 2001).

(7) *Senator Pangilinan*: In the end, of course, *I* am biased because she is my daughter. Frankie, when she was 10 said, she is turning 16 now, she said we should treat our farmers like our parents because they are the ones who feed us. And until this

119

government, until society gives the farmers and the fisher folk the respect they deserve and the recognition they have long been denied, we will never reach sustainable economic growth in this country. (p. 62 session 3)

Example (7) shows how the interpellator Sen. Pangilinan uses the pronoun *I* to give information about his personal life. This is a way for him to let the audience get a glimpse of him as an individual. Giving information about oneself can be regarded as a way to let people know you as a person, not only as a politician. This might lead to receiving more approval from the people who listened to the speech, because it might be easier to approve of someone if you feel as if you knew him better.

The following are other cases where the pronoun *I* is used:

Examples taken from *Session 1 Senate Debates over the Fiscal year 2017 General Appropriations Bill:*

(8) *Senator Sotto*. Mr. President, *I* ask that the Minority Leader, Sen. Ralph Recto, be recognized. (p. 2)

(9) *Senator Legarda*. Yes, Mr. President. In fact, as *I* speak today, there is a summit and an expo of our Ambisyon Natin*,* the vision of NEDA until 2040. May *I* just state that by 2022, this is insofar as the vision is concerned, poverty rate, hopefully, will be reduced to 17%. (p. 15)

Examples taken from *Session 2 Senate Debates over the Fiscal year 2017 General Appropriations Bill:*

(10) *Senator Sotto*. Mr. President, before the break, on the Floor was the Minority Leader, Sen. Ralph Recto, and sponsoring the House bill is the Chairman of the Committee on Finance, Sen. Loren Legarda. May *I* ask that the two be recognized again. (p. 1)

(11) *Senator Recto*. And *I* knew *I* get the support of the sponsor. She thinks the same way as the Minority Leader. (p. 6)

Examples taken from *Session 3 Senate Debates over the Fiscal year 2017 General Appropriations Bill:*

(12) *Senator De Lima*. So, *I* take that if a law would be passed on that authorizing the merger or the consolidation, then the economic managers would have no objection. *I*

guess, if there is a law. (p. 4)

(13) *Senator Honasan.* ***I*** am glad that the sponsor mentioned that because from our…***I*** just wanted to make sure that ***I*** have the attention of the Sponsor. (p. 26)

Examples taken from *Session 5 Senate Debates over the Fiscal year 2017 General Appropriations Bill:*

(14) *Senator Recto.* Let me begin by saying that all government agencies should: 1) know their client; and 2) ensure quality service at the least possible cost. With regard to SUCs and CHED, *I* suppose the challenge is, more or less, the same--access to quality education at the least possible cost. (p. 9)

What can be observed from the examples are the apparent advantages of using *I,* which show personal connection that is especially useful when positive information or comments are delivered. Beard (2000) however, claimed that the disadvantage of its use is evidently to pinpoint whom to put the blame on when something goes wrong. It can also be seen as an effort of the individual speaker to place himself beyond or outside the shared responsibility of his contemporaries, in this study, the fellow senators of either the President of the Senate, the Chairman or the Interpellator.

On the Use of the pronoun *you*

Allen (2006) explained that the pronoun *you* frequently refers to the individual (s) the speaker is speaking to. While the pronoun *you* has various functions, one of which is to operate as an indefinite (generic) pronoun. The indefinite *you* can be a substitute for *I* and refer to the speaker, and also be used by the speaker to involve himself as a member of a classification.

Allen (2006) also argued that it has also been proposed that indefinite *you* is not used to discuss actual experience but it is used to discuss 'conventional wisdom'. In this sense, *you* is used to express common sense or commonly admitted truth, with the hope of receiving the agreement of the audience.

If the indefinite form of the pronoun *you* is used, it can be ambiguous whom the speaker is referring to. It can be used to refer to anyone and/or everyone. Allen (2006) stated that the indefinite form of *you* involves the speaker among the referents, even if this is not always the case. If the speaker uses the pronoun *you,* it is up to the audience to decide if they see themselves as part of that group or not. The generic *you* can be used by politicians to criticize

the opposition by including or excluding them from generalizations.

The succeeding examples of the pronoun *you* show how it can be used to talk to diverse groups of people as well as a generic pronoun.

(14) *Senator Recto.* **You** cannot increase productivity and create jobs without credit. (p. 39)

(15) *Senator Recto.* **You** must have a projection because **you** have a cash program. *(p. 48)*

You in example (24) may refer to the entire members of the Senate or to everybody present – showing its generic function. The first **you** in example (26) refers to the administration, while the second use of **you** in the same example refers now to DBM in particular.

Presumably, the Senate plenary debates are directed to the Senate – particularly to the members of the Finance Committee, other Senators present, and all government agency representatives – thus several occurrences of **you** in the data refers to it. Even if the examples show how **you** refers to the administration of specific agency in the government, it is rather difficult to categorize, because it could also refer to people who are not members of Senate, but who probably are politically involved.

(16) *Senator Pangilinan.* Yes, irrigation is basic. Without irrigation, one can plant but he will not harvest. So, **you** really need irrigation and it begins precisely with this kind of support. Ultimately, Mr. President, it is unjust that those who feed us....(p.60 session 3)

(17) *Senator Recto.* Moving forward. It is easier to hit these targets—that is what I am saying. But I do not blame **you** for having those targets.

Example (16) uses you to address to the general population who at the moment do not have access in listening to the speech. Example (17) you, based on the previous transcripts which stipulates as one of the targets of President Duterte, refers to President Duterte himself who at the exact moment is not present to hear what the Senator had to say.

(18) *Senator Recto.* Meaning to say….That is why we do not even count it in the budget. We see that the budget is P3,350,000,000,000.00 and then may stand by authority *dapat ang* unprogrammed, P67.5 billion, **you** are giving authority to spend to the President

more than P3.350 billion, P3.350 billion plus P67 billion, *pero may* certain conditions to follow-- *[Congress - both Senate and House of Representatives]. (p. 68 session 3)*

Examples (18) shows how *you* is being used to speak to both the member of the Congress (Senate and Lower House) and the country as a whole.

On the use of the pronoun *we*

Perhaps one of the most significant pronouns in political speeches or discourses is the pronominal *we.* Bramley (2001) contended that the pronoun we expresses "institutional identity," that is if an individual speaks as a representative of an institution.

Karapetjana (2011) claimed that *we* is sometimes used to convey the image of one political party as a team, and therefore a shared responsibility. The use of the pronoun *we* can be divided into two categories: the inclusive *we,* which can be used to refer to the speaker and the listener/viewer and the inclusive *we,* that refers to both the speaker and the listener or listeners. *We* is also used occasionally by politicians to avoid speaking about themselves as individuals, and instead insinuate that others are involved, perhaps to lead negative attention away from the speaker in question.

Bramley (2000) said that by using the pronoun *we,* the speaker includes others in the utterance, creating a group with a clear identity, making others responsible for potential issues as well. Beard (2000) stated that the benefit of using the pronoun *we* in political speeches is that it helps share responsibility.

Nonetheless, the *others* that are included or drawn into the issue to share the responsibility may not agree with it. This use of *we* makes the *self* smaller, by making it a part of a collective. Bramley (2001) maintained that when *we* is used in political speeches, its main function is to create a group where several individuals are involved, instead of referring to one particular person. The following examples show whom *we* refer to and who it excludes in the Senate plenary debates.

(19) *Senator Legarda***.** Mr. President, it is not saying that *we* will actually put a cap on our growth target, Mr. President. The economic team is just one in saying that, yes, *we* could even achieve higher than seven or eight percent but *we* want to temper the expectations of people and it is probably best to have conservative estimates or targets insofar as growth is concerned than curb it down later when *we* have not reached the growth target. (p. 20 session 1)

In example (19), **we** is used as a way to describe the fact that the decision to create programs under the General Appropriations Act is not the lower house's responsibility alone but it includes the Senate as well implying that if the members of those who drafted the Act are not careful then everybody else in the law making body will be responsible as well.

(20) *The President Pro Tempore*. **We** are not questioning that. That is why **we** are saying, if that is the policy of this administration, so be it. *(p. 7 session 3)*

We used as I - *We* is also used occasionally by politicians to avoid speaking about themselves as individuals, and instead insinuate that others are involved, perhaps to lead negative attention away from the speaker in question. Clearly, Examples (20) exemplifies the use of the pronoun *we* to actually mean *I.*

(21) *Senator Legarda*. **We** are 126th in the world, Mr. President, as far as GDP per capita. *(p. 11 session 1)*

Examples (21) also illustrates the Chair's attempts to create unity, both in the Congress and among the people, by making them feel involved. In example (36), *we* refers to the Philippines as a country.

(22) *Senator Honasan***.** Mr. President, I think the directions should be: **We** Filipinos are naturally happy. **We** are a happy people. This is a blessed country. And the indicator so far, what **we** have on our plate tells us that **we** can quantify and qualify this. *Ang pinag-uusapan lamang naman dito* is quality of life.

In example (22), Sen. Honasan uses the pronoun *we,* to refer more to *others* than *self.* Using **we** in example (22) to refer to the Philippines as a nation, creates a togetherness, and a feeling of sharing problems. Using *we* in this context makes him seem like a good politician, because it is a way to express that he cares about the people in the nation and that he is involved.

On the Use of the pronoun *they*

Bramley (2001) explained that **they** just like **we** is used to create an *us* and *them* separation. It could make the speaker appear less responsible for his or her actions and show ideological distinction among people and positive presentation of self of the speaker.

Also, Karapetjana (2011) argued that the pronoun **they** can be used to distance **self** from *other* both consciously and subconsciously. By separating *us* from *them,* the speaker occasionally creates an image of *them* being inferior to *us.*

Politicians use third person plural *they* to separate themselves or their 'group' from *others,* i.e. *they* excludes *I.* *They* points to those who are not we, and is used to form an oppositional relationship between him or her and others, often with negativity towards the others.

Bramley (2001) emphasized that the pronoun *they* can also be used in a neutral context, where the speaker does not speak of the *others* in a negative or positive way, even if they are still not part of the same group as him or her. Studies of political pronoun usage have illustrated that *they* can be used for distancing the speaker from the people spoken of.

The following examples exemplify how *they* is used in the speeches or debates and to whom it refers, as well as examples of the indefinite version.

(23) *Senator Legarda.* Since the gentleman cited Singapore, Mr. President, **they** are No. 1 in ASEAN and their GDP per capita is $84,000.

Examples (23) shows the use of the pronoun *they* to create an *us* and *them* separation. In example (23) Sen. Legarda obviously used the pronoun *they* to refer to Singapore, and Sen. Aquino referred to China when he used the pronoun *they.*

(23) *Senator Legarda.* Mr. President, according to DOF and it is very clear, **they** inherited this problem. It does not mean, however, that **they** are not acting on it. In fact, there had been those that have been auctioned already and 800, still, are to be auctioned and the rest have already been auctioned. There are pending cases, there are legal issues, the others are going to be auctioned and some had been auctioned. So, in short, action is being taken.

Example (23) makes Sen. Legarda as a legislator and the Chair for the committee of finance, appear less responsible using the pronoun *they* in this particular case even if DOF and the Committee of Finance should have shared the responsibility. By using the pronoun *they* she creates a positive presentation of the her being the chair of her committee and as a speaker of that particular moment as well.

(24) *Senator Legarda.* Let me just state, Mr. President. I am glad the gentleman is putting it on record because as he knows in every committee hearing, I started my hearing by stating to the agency their total unobligated as of that date and what **they** can

spend in 2017. Aside from that, we already took note and mentioned to them what **they** should spend till December of 2016 from the 2015 GAA.

Clearly, both Sen. Legarda and Sen. Recto used the pronoun *they* to consciously distance self from others. In this case both Senators show in example (24) that they distance themselves by implying the blame to the DPWH and DEPED. By separating *us* from *them* (Members of Congress versus heads of agencies), the speakers/Senators occasionally create an image of *them* being inferior to *us.*

(25) *Senator Legarda*. It makes a lot of sense. Again, Mr. President, **they** did not plan this budget…although **they** had sometime in July to tweak a little but basically, it is not their budget. And so, **they** had to project which borrowing, et cetera. And a 3% deficit spending to GDP is a comfortable level of deficit. But perhaps, next year, **they** can answer more for the NEP. *[they = Duterte administration]*

Sen. Legarda in examples (25) shows as a legislator or politician that the use of the pronoun *they* separates herself or her group (Finance Committee) from *others (Agencies or other opposing Senators),* i.e. *they* excludes *I. **They*** points to those who are not we, and is used to form an oppositional relationship between him or her and others, often with negativity towards the others

(48) *Senator Legarda.* Mr. President, according to DOF and it is very clear, **they** inherited this problem. It does not mean, however, that **they** are not acting on it. In fact, there had been those that have been auctioned already and 800, still, are to be auctioned and the rest have already been auctioned…

Examples (48) the senator exemplifies the use of the pronoun they to show neutrality where they do not speak of the other agencies in a negative or positive way.

Table 3. The occurrences of personal pronouns in the Senate debates

Sessions	I		You		We		They		Total Word Count
1	236	1.22 %	34	0.18 %	354	1.83 %	69	0.36 %	19,388

	I	%	you	%	we	%	they	%	Total
2	350	1.50%	21	0.09%	308	1.32%	116	0.50%	23,338
3	251	1.32%	29	0.15%	241	1.26%	116	0.61%	19,061
4	684	1.57%	122	0.28%	699	1.61%	279	0.64%	43,539
5	238	1.60%	18	0.12%	165	1.11%	112	0.75%	14,862
6	262	1.31%	36	0.18%	220	1.10%	110	0.55%	20,059
7	178	1.17%	34	0.22%	155	1.02%	150	0.99%	15,186
TOTAL	2,199	1.41%	294	0.19%	2,142	1.38%	952	0.61%	155,433

Table 3 shows the overall occurrences of the pronouns *I, you, we*, and *they* in the debates. The use of the pronoun *I* ranks first with 2,199 occurrences (1.41%) in terms of the number of used. Bramley (2001) argued that the significant function of the first person singular pronoun of *I* in political discourses which includes giving a sense of *here and now,* suggesting that *I* captures the moment. *I* can also be used to build a 'relationship' with the audience, because using *I* makes the speech seem as if it is on a more personal level. *I* might also be used to show commitment to the audience and personal involvement in issues; *I* gives the speaker a personal voice that distances him from others. This means that it cannot always be expected that the other members of his party agree with the speaker's opinions when the pronoun *I* is used.

With 2,144 (1.38%) occurrences, the pronoun *we* closely follow in second to the use of the pronoun *I*. This supports the claims of Bramley (2000) that by using the pronoun *we,* the speaker includes others in the utterance, creating a group with a clear identity, making others responsible for potential issues as well. Furthermore, the benefit of using the pronoun *we* in political speeches is that it helps share responsibility. Other than using we for sharing

responsibility, it is frequently used as a politeness strategy in the political arena. In a study conducted on the politeness stratetegie prevalent during the senate hearings on the *Mamasapano* incident in Maguindanao, Philippines, Asistido and Asistido (2018) found that those senators who were 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 (p. 121)."

As shown in table 3, politicians or legislators moderately use the pronoun *they*. Only 952 (.61%) occurrences of the pronoun *they* were seen in the transcripts of the seven sessions of the senate debates. One probable reason could be attributed to what Karapetjana (2011) argued that the pronoun *they* can be used to distance *self* from *other* both consciously and subconsciously. By separating *us* from *them,* the speaker occasionally creates an image of *them* being inferior to *us.* Politicians think twice to project themselves as such because looking down at others may make them look bad and unpopular. Another reason could also be is that most contemporary politicians would lie to be identified with the solid majority especially to the members of the current administration, thus avoiding playing safe as what the use of the pronoun *they* projects. Bramley (2001) emphasized that the pronoun *they* can also be used in a neutral context, where the speaker does not speak of the *others* in a negative or positive way, even if they are still not part of the same group as him or her.

Last on the list is the use of pronoun *you*. Evidently, based on the 294 (19%) occurrences, only very few politicians would like to use the pronoun *you* in their speeches. Allen (2006) stated that the indefinite form of *you* involves the speaker among the referents, even if this is not always the case. If the speaker uses the pronoun *you,* it is up to the audience to decide if they see themselves as part of that group or not. The generic *you* can be used by politicians to criticize the opposition by including or excluding them from generalizations. No politician in this time and age would want to appear antagonistic to their fellow politicians simply because they generally do not want to look bad in the eyes of the people and of course the unforgiving mass media.

On the strategic and persuasive frames (tactics) used to facilitate the senate plenary debates

The tactics or strategies determined from analysis of the transcripts of the 2017 General Appropriations Bill closely align with the operational categories explained in Gee's work: *identity building, world building, activity building and connection building*.

Identity building

In introductory remarks made by the debate participants certain phrases were used repeatedly to establish an identity within minds of the audience. This tactic is what Gee labels as "socioculturally-situated identity and relationship building, that is using cues and clues to assemble situated meaning about what identities and relationships are relevant to interaction…" (Gee, 1999).

The identity being created in the Senate debates was not of a single person or of a single group but of broadly groups of people who care about the issues under consideration and whose views are being represented.

Concise examples are offered in the testimony given by a senator interpellator (Senator Ralph Recto) before the Senate finance committee on General Principles:

> *"But to better analyze it, the budget should be held up to higher exacting standards. In short, to view it from the prism of what **we want to achieve as a nation**. It should be gauged by how many poor it would deliver from poverty, how many jobs it would create, how it will and where it will spur growth, how it will distribute opportunity, and how many people it will liberate from chronic hunger." (Page 2 in the transcripts of the Senate debates)*

Clearly, the interpellator here subtly wants to be identified as one of those who are working for a better nation.

Another example is taken from a transcript in session six (6) of the Senate debates. It shows that the chairman is trying to build herself by subtly identifying herself to be supportive of a particular law long before she became member of the Senate:

> *"Quite familiar, Mr. President. I was not yet in the Senate then, I covered it as a young journalist then but I was supportive. The gentleman is referring to this law during the Ramos administration which created the Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao in 1996, correct, Mr. President?" (Page 3 of session 6)*

Another viable example of identity building is exemplified in the excerpt of a transcript below where senator Legarda claimed to be knowledgeable in national security by identifying herself through her master's degree in National Security Administration. In a study conducted by Malimas, Carreon and Peña (2018) on Filipino Women Politicians' Campaign Speeches,

they found *women politicians* speech styles denote the character, intellect, and capabilities they want voters to perceive of them (p. 401)." Evidently, the senator used the "identity building" tactic to establish herself as a credible entity when it comes to national security.

"Of course, Mr. President, the President is the recipient of the information and the existing staff. There will be staff who will gather the information from the relevant agencies of government and analysis will be made and this information will be fed to the president.

As a student of national security and that is my masteral degree, I am a great believer in intel information. And when I have intelligence gatherers who give me information, this is analyzed and I do not take it hook, line and sinker. I am sure the President will not take all the information given to him even by the National Security Council hook, line and sinker. I am certain that the President has very large antennas and would be able to tell which is actually very accurate." (Page 82 of Session 2)

The general idea observed on the sample transcripts is evidently the creation of group identity (hence constituent identity), which is instrumental in the creation of political reality. Thus, the tactic serves as a basis for the assertion and negotiation of power throughout the Senate debates.

Using such phrases at the beginning of testimony builds an identity emphasizing the significance of organizational work and gives authoritative weight to later assertions.

World building

A central tactic or strategy employed by advocates (Chair or senator proponent speaking on behalf of a particular agency) and interpellators (senators who ask questions for checks and balances) of the appropriations bill was indication to create a specific picture of the world (in the study's case the scenarios in the Philippine setting). This is what Gee (2001) termed *world building*, which is using cues or clues to build or construct situated meaning about what is taken as reality and what is taken as present and absent and what is probable, possible, and impossible.

The following statements made by Sen. Recto initially shows how *world building* as a tactic may work to advance his purpose in the Senate debates. His choice of words implies a subtle appeal to make things a reality, which later will support his arguments for budgetary allocations.

"It is the budget that translates rhetoric to reality. It redeems promises made. In governance, funds proposed in the budget speak louder than words.

The budget is also the annual expression of development plans. A program that is not funded remains marooned in fantasyland. The budget is what separates "drawing" from reality.

I agree with the good chairperson when she emphasized in her sponsorship speech that the budget is more than a row of numbers.

Indeed, it is more than a spreadsheet, and should not be seen as an accounting ledger." *(Page 3 of Session 1)*

Below is a statement from a senator interpellator (Senator Recto) during his introductory remarks:

"but to better analyze it, the budget should be held up to higher exacting standards. In short, to view it from the prism of what we want to achieve as a nation.

It should be gauged by how many poor it would deliver from poverty, how many jobs it would create, how it will and where it will spur growth, how it will distribute opportunity, and how many people it will liberate from chronic hunger." *(taken from pages 3-4 session 1 of the Senate debates)*

Using the phrase *how many* in the above statement is repeatedly inserted into the interpellator's speech to advance *world building*. The use of his terms projects a vision of a world in which some groups (especially the poor) are victims of unfairness and harmfully excluded from what is rightfully theirs. This serves the world building function of assembling situated meanings about a reality fraught with injustice, and suggests a need for helpful action.

To further show how the *world building* tactic is used to advance the goal of the interpellator it is important to analyze the remaining statement of the same senator (Sen. Recto):

"And I know that you will agree with me that although the biggest chunk of the budget funds overhead, its main objective, however, is how to overcome poverty and things that set us back from progressing. So, for P3.3 trillion, how many people will march away from the poverty line by December next year?

For P3.3 trillion, how many jobs will be created? Sa puntong ito, matagal na po akong proponent ng pagkakabit ng jobs odometer sa national budget. Dapat isama na natin

iyan sa BESF. For P3.3 trillion, how far will the GDP needle move?...

To truly measure a budget's efficacy, then we must subject it to the following tests: its poverty-reducing, job-creating, growth-inducing potential.

Sen. Recto presented himself as person more concerned with results than with politics; perhaps more precisely, he presented himself as a pragmatist more than a partisan. Yet, close examination of his discursive choices reveals a particular posture unrelated to solutions. Saying, …*to truly measure a budget's efficacy, then we must subject it to the following tests: its poverty-reducing, job-creating, growth-inducing potential,* identifies him as one who works with poor people and one who supports welfare of the majority of Filipino people (especially referring to the poor).

The next evidence of *world building* is exemplified in the following example where Sen. Recto again maneuvered using "world building" by describing using facts, statistical data why Philippines is considered to have a young population.

"Now, when it comes to labor, how many 15 years old and above is our actual labor force? They are 15 years old and above, hindi ba? That is the international standard. We are a young population. In effect, our labor force is roughly 68 million Filipinos, okay? Our labor force participation rate, those looking for a job is 65%, iyong naghahanap ng trabaho. And we are saying that we have one of the lowest unemployment figures.

…If I compare it to Vietnam, to Thailand, their labor participation rate is much higher than the PhilippinesAt iyong labor participation rate natin mababa. If we look at Vietnam, Thailand, they are hitting the 70%, and we are similar to them. They are a young population. They are a very young population. So the younger your population, the average Filipino today is 23 to 24 years old. We are a young population." (pages 3 and 4 of session 2)

Sen. Recto further demonstrated *world building* tactic through the following statement:

"Mining and quarrying, 219,000. Kapag nawala iyong mining sa Pilipinas, 219,000 din ang mawawalan ng trabaho. And where are they located? Caraga, that area of the country. So kung isasarado natin iyong mga mina diyan, recession ang Caraga, among others.

So essentially, what I am trying to say here is, where are we going to create those 12 million new jobs? What will be the labor force by 2022? It is easy to make these projections. Ito iyong dapat pinaghahandaan natin. That is what I just wanted to drive at." (Page 5 of session 2)

Senator Sonny Angara, Vice Chairman for the State Universities and Colleges also displayed the use of *world building* tactic by advancing the idea that all SUCs to adopt University of the Philippines move on instituting higher tuition fees to those who are rich so that the real poor students are properly subsidized. The context was taken from his statement below:

"It is not an easy debate, Senator Villanueva is here, he was at the committee and we discussed it at length also what would be the best. That is why I think UP over time has developed some sort of socialized tuition whereby the rich pay more in order to subsidize the truly poor. I suppose that would be ideal if all SUCs were to adopt some kind of modification of that given the fact that we want to help the really truly poor." (Page 28 of session 5)

Activity building

Next tactic is *activity building*, which is an additional approach used by debate participants to describe their own efforts as logical responses to the world they encountered. The discourse meaning is situated in the described activity and one's participation in it. In Gee's (1996) vocabulary, the task of language would constitute activity building.

In some ways the world the communicator claims to act in response to be the same one that has been created linguistically. In these cases, identity, world and activity building discourses are used in combination.

Sen. Legarda, chairman of the finance committee, exhibited the tactic *activity building* when she personally injected *her personal effort* to have come up with a resolution that the country should adopt the model used by the Kingdom of Bhutan while talking about the current GDP, which implies appeal to emotions so that she could perhaps later persuade other colleagues in the debate to support her.

"Yes, Mr. President. Happiness is a state of mind. If the source of one's happiness is not on external factor, then one can always be happy and be in a happy state of mind. In fact, I am glad that the gentleman asked that question because I think apart from

measuring our socio-economic factors, we should measure the quality of life or our happiness—the gross national happiness of our nation.

...And I hope that the NEDA—in fact, I have a resolution of years back—that they would adopt what they have done in Bhutan successfully. Of course, the pundits and the critics will say, "How can a one million population kingdom in the Himalayas succeed in a 104 million archipelagic nation?" But we could pilot it in a province, probably, in my home province of Antique or in Cagayan de Oro or even in a barangay. But what I am saying is that this is an economic model which has been successful in one remote kingdom. Does that answer the gentleman's question on my state of happiness?" (Page 13 of session 4)

Another significant example of *activity building* where the discourse meaning is situated in the described activity and one's participation in it, manifested in the statement of Sen. Lacson below. It emphasizes that the communicator claims to act in response to the same activity where he is part and could be part of the future repercussions.

"*I hope the DPWH family knows or understands where I am coming from kasi madadamay ang implementing agency rito. Di ba nakakasuhan din ang mga implementing agencies? So, again, for the education of Senator..." (Page 38 of session 6)*

Similarly, Sen. Hontiveros emphasized her assertion on the Revised Administrative Code in the recent discussion and promised to actively do so in the coming year. Below is the excerpt showing Sen. Hontiveros move using the *activity building* tactic.

"Since this year is the year as a Centennial Senate, interestingly by next year, these two laws I just cited, which served as basis for automatic appropriations for interest and principal amortizations of government debts, will mark their 30th and 40th year of enactment, respectively. So, I will continue to discuss this matter of Automatic Appropriations Law and its important and constant role that it plays in our national budgets with the good sponsor as we enter later on in the period of amendments." (Page 88 of session 2)

Sen. Angara, as shown in the transcript below, subtly asserted himself to have participated actively by mentioning explicitly that he had been to the school. The implication is he knows and he has done his job in terms of the allocation of budget to the different SUCs.

This use of *activity building* by the Senator here is a tactic to let the audience know that he has done his job.

> *"I have been to that school but I do not know whose district it is in. When I went I was a guest of Congressman Vic Ortega at that time, that went up by ₱13 million.*
>
> *Ilocos Sur Polytechnic went up by ₱2.8 million; Mariano Marcos, I believe this is the one in Ilocos Norte went up by ₱9.4 million; North Luzon Philippines State College went up by ₱6 million; Pangasinan State University went up by ₱8.2 million; University of Northern Philippines, I think this is in Ilocos Sur went up by ₱1.5 million…"* (Page 7 of session 5)

Connection building

The fourth tactic used by debate participants was to describe their position on the initiative in terms of its connection between a historical past and the envisioned future. There is a link between the action of approving the initiative and the future individuals and society. Terms as *future*, *better*, and *generation* indicate a tactical effect to create a reality in which the current debate and current actions are unavoidably linked to the destiny of the nation and the world.

The statement of Sen. Legarda below evidently shows the use of *connection building* by highlighting the implication of the projection that by 2022, because of the efforts of the current government, the poverty incidence will decrease. Moreover, the senator explicitly said to give credit where credit is due, which subtly advanced her purpose.

> *"So, what we are saying is that there is, of course, this ambition, this dream, this vision of limiting, if not totally, curbing the poverty level. It is desired that by 2022 we have brought down our poverty incidence to 17%. Just to give credit where credit is due, the government target for poverty incidence of between 20% or 23% for the year 2015 during the Aquino administration was achieved. There are already 1.4 million less Filipinos in 2015 than in 2009 despite the increase in population."* (Page 14 of session 1)

Sen. Legarda once again retorted the interpellator using the *connection building* tactic by explicitly claiming that, "…*this will generate jobs. I understand that we will create at least a million jobs, of the two million jobs projected for 2017 just from the construction sector alone…*"

"And so, with a 5.4% of GDP investment on infrastructure spending and, as we know, infrastructure spending, construction has a multiplier effect. This will generate jobs. I understand that we will create at least a million jobs, of the two million jobs projected for 2017 just from the construction sector alone. And so, hopefully, this will be a game changer for next year's economy notwithstanding the recent world events and we have been proactive, the government has been proactive in anticipating changing scenarios in the world and will provide the proposed safety nets to cushion the possible impact of the BPO sector getting hurt a little, if any, or remittances of overseas Filipinos." (Page 25 of session 3)

Sen. Recto again unmistakably use the *connection building* tactic by using the conditional if and could in his projection of what could possibly happen if the government would allocate a particular budget for an agency. The following excerpt from a transcript shows the use of the tactic.

"And I said if government can spend this money, the economy would not just grow by 6% or 7%. I think any president today, because of how strong the economy is, will generically grow by 6% to 7%. But if we improve the absorptive capacity of the government to spend, the utilization rate, easily government can grow by 10% to 13% and we could create more jobs in the process and reduce poverty at a faster rate, not to mention be more competitive in Southeast Asia and in the entire global community." (Page 10 of session 5)

Sen. Sotto's recount of his participation in the past discussion on the topic is evidently an attempt to remind the people present in the Senate debate that he has done his part before and now is still so much part of it. The manifestation is shown in the question he asked below.

"*Unfortunately, I was then acting Minority Leader, that is why it was not renewed. I wanted to ask a lot of questions, but I was not the opportunity. Anyway, probably we will have this opportunity in the 17th Congress. I have read in the report of the LBRMO that one of the accomplishments of NTC this year is the information drive against text scam and text spam…* (Page 7 of session 7)

In Sen. Legarda's defense of the DICT budget, she employed the *connection building* tactic again by giving the statistical projection that "…by 2018, poverty statistics and labor force statistics will be provincially representative and quarterly GDP is now released ten days earlier."

"The PSA website is now adopting the open data platform with the newly created department of ICT, the DICT to include administrative data from various agencies. And, the Philippine Statistics Development department is tasked to monitor also the Philippine Development Plan accomplishments. By 2018, poverty statistics and labor force statistics will be provincially representative and quarterly GDP is now released ten days earlier. Poverty statistics are posted yearly and PSA will be producing more decentralized statistics to aid policy-making." (Page 5 of session 4)

This move of using the *connection building* anticipated the favorable support of the majority as shown in the later discussions.

Sen. Legarda has had consistently used the *connection building* tactic because it appeared, as shown by evidences in the Senate transcripts, that the senator has successfully yielded support from the majority. Notice how she handled the discussion on the economic policies using the tactic:

"And so, the economic policies of the NEDA which can be reflected or are reflected in the Philippine Development Plan should embrace all policies emanating from the five dimensions of national security. So, if the gentleman would ask me what would reflect our national interest, everything that we are doing must be able to provide our people with living in a safe, healthy and resilient environment. And so, I would say that the Philippine Development Plan would contain all elements leading to that kind of vision…So that we could have a secure, comfortable and resilient environment. And, this is contained in our AmBisyon Natin 2040 where NEDA has planned, not just for six years, but 25 years." (Page 8 of session 4)

The senator used the cause-effect analogy to show the probable results if and when the government fully embrace all policies reflected in the Philippine development Plan, which when being followed would result to a secure, comfortable and resilient environment in the coming 25 years. The *connection building* seemed so convincing for the interpellators to object.

As mentioned earlier, the consistent move of Sen. Legarda using the *connection building* anticipated the favorable support of the majority as shown below.

Senator Sotto. *Mr. President, I move that we consider the budget of the National Economic Development Authority, together with its attached agencies, be submitted for consideration.*

The President Pro Tempore. Is there any objection? [Silence] There being none, the motion is hereby approved.

Senator Sotto. The same goes for the NEDA Philippine Institute of Development Studies, Mr. President. I so move.

The President Pro Tempore. Is there any objection? [Silence] There being none, the motion is hereby approved."

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to conduct a discourse analysis of the Senate plenary debates in the Philippines over budget/economic issues in terms of the pronominal choices of the participants, and strategic and persuasive tactics employed by the participants. The first research question,

The study may help in understanding the language and the motives of political leaders in the country through the pronominal choices of legislators. Bramley's model was instrumental in answering research question number one. It was found based on the seven sessions (shown in table 3 of this study) which is equivalent to 155,433 word corpus, that the use of the pronoun *I* ranks first with 2,199 occurrences (1.41%); second is the use of the pronoun *we* with 2,144 (1.38%) occurrences; third is the pronoun *they* with 952 (.61%) occurrences; and fourth is the use of the pronoun *you* with only 294 (19%) occurrences.

Apparently, the data revealed that the most probable motivating purposes for a legislator or politician to use the pronoun *I* in his speech is to come across as respectable, responsible and dependable entity and to portray himself in a positive way and emphasize his or her personal qualities. Bramley (2001) explained that the illustrations of personal qualities that legislators or politicians desire to express comprise being someone with principles, moral, power and who are not afraid to take action when necessary.

For research question number two, it was found that the tactics or strategies determined from analysis of the transcripts of the 2017 General Appropriations Bill closely associated with the operational categories explained in Gee's work: *identity building, world building, activity building and connection building*. Gee's (2001) discourse analysis tools were helpful in discerning the tactics used by participants in the Senate debates.

There are already many existing studies that are focused on pronominal choices in

politics, but most of these studies are limited to presidential debates, working in the same country. One interesting area of study is probably to compare and analyze pronouns in politics used by legislators from different countries to see if there are differences. Furthermore, it would also be interesting to explore other tactics or strategies used by politicians in other venues that require public debates, as it will give people ideas to the kind of legislators they vote for office.

Legislative discourse, like one examined in this study, is contextually important because it helps shape the minds of people – the legislators themselves, the influential groups and institutions, and the public at large. As Van Dijk (2001) puts is at all levels of text structure, we may accordingly examine not only how politicians propose or argue against budget proposals but also how they are geared towards the mind control of the recipients, from preferred mental models of specific events to more general social representations about Us and the Others.

References

Allen, W. (2007). Australian political discourse: Pronominal choice in campaign speeches. In M. L. Mushin. (Ed.), *Conference of the Australian Linguistic Society.* (pp. 1-13).

Asistido, R. & Asistido, M.T. (2018). Politeness Strategies Prevalent during the Senate Hearings on the *Mamasapano* Incident in Maguindanao, Philippines. *The Asian EFL Journal, 20* (12.3), p. 115.

Beard, A. (2000). *Language of Politics.* London: Routledge

Bramley, N. R. (2001). *Pronouns of politics: the use of pronouns in the construction of 'self' and 'other' in political interviews.* Retrieved on December 17, 2018 at https://digitalcollections.anu.edu.au/bitstream/1885/46225/5/01front.pdf

Collins, C (1990). *English grammar.* London: Collins ELT.

Department of Budget and Management (2017). General Appropriations Act FY 2017. Retrieved on November 28, 2018 at https://www.dbm.gov.ph/index.php/budget-documents/2018/general-appropriations-act-fy-2018/gaa-volume-ia-ib

Fairclough, N. (1995). *Critical discourse analysis: The critical study of language.* London, UK: Longman.

Fairclough, N. (2003) *Analysing discourse: Textual analysis for social research.* London and New York: Routledge.

Gee's (2001). *An introduction to discourse analysis: Theory and method.* New York, USA: Rutledge.

Gee, J.P. (1996) *Social linguistics and literacies: Ideology in discourses.* London: Briston, Penn, Taylor & Francis.

Gee, J.P. (2005) Meaning making, communities of practice, and analytical toolkits. *Journal of Sociolinguistics, 9* (4), pp. 590-594.

Kaid, L. L., McKinney, S. M., & Tedesco, J. C. (2007). Introduction: Political information efficacy and young voters. *American Behavioral Scientist*, *50*(9), pp. 1093–1111.

Karapetjana, I. (2011). Pronominal choice in political interviews. *Baltic Journal of English Language, Literature and Culture*, *1*, 36–45.

Malimas, M.A, Carreon, J.A., & Peña**,** N.W. (2018). Critical discourse analysis of filipino women politicians' campaign speeches. *The Asian EFL Journal, 20* (12.2), 386-401.

McKinney, M. and Banwart, M. (2005) Rocking the youth vote through debate: Examining the effects of a citizen versus journalist controlled debate on civic engagement. *Journalism Studies, 6* (2), 153-163.

Quirk, A., Svartvik J., Greenbaum, S. and Leech G. N. (1972). *A grammar of contemporary English.*: London, UK: Longman Group Limited.

Van Dijk, T. (1995). Discourse analysis as ideology analysis. In C. Schäffner & A. Wenden (Eds.), *Language and peace, (*pp. 17-33). Aldershot: Dartmouth.

Van Dijk, T. (1997). *Discourse studies: a multidisciplinary introduction.* London Thousand Oaks, California. : Sage

Van Dijk, T. (2000). Multidisciplanary CDA: A plea for Diversity. In R. Wodak & M. Meyer (Eds.), *Methods of critical discourse analysis* (pp. 95-120). London: Sage.

Characteristics of Male and Female Spoken Interaction

Helen T. Asio, Ph.D.

Isabela State University

City of Ilagan, Isabela, Philippines

helen.asio@yahoo.com.ph.

Bioprofile

Dr. Helen T. Asio holds the academic rank of Associate Professor 2. She obtained her Doctor of Philosophy degree in Rhetoric and Linguistics at Saint Paul University, Philippines, Tuguegarao City. She has been teaching English subjects for 21 years at the Department of Arts and Sciences, Isabela State University, Ilagan Campus where she is also currently designated as its Director for Extension and Training Services.

Abstract

This study examined the characteristics of male and female spoken interaction in Philippine Indie Movie entitled "Ang Babaeng Humayo" ("The Woman Who Left"). Utilizing the descriptive research design with Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA) as an approach, and the Jefferson transcription system symbols, a total of 22 scenes with conversations lasted for one minute and more involved in the study. The study revealed that the females dominated the males in mixed gender on speech initiation; percent of time looking at the partner while listening; timed-pause/ long pause; voice volume; sequence of turn; insertion sequence; repair mechanism; and power and gender relationship. On the other hand, the males dominated the females in mixed gender on the total amount of speech, percent of time looking at the partner while speaking, micro-pause, pitch and agreements and disagreements. Finally, Horacia, the main character in the movie, shows the characteristics of a woman of today- strong, brave, dependable and still beautiful even under pressure.

Keywords: spoken interaction, turn-taking, indie movie, repair mechanism

Introduction

Social interaction is the primordial means through which the business of the social world is transacted, the identities of its participants are affirmed or denied, and its cultures are transmitted, renewed and modified. Through processes of social interaction, shared meaning, mutual understanding, and coordination of human conduct are achieved. In recent work within anthropology, scholars are interested in how societies reproduce social order, critics of traditional perspectives in psychological anthropology and learning theory, and linguistic anthropologists attempting to rethink basic issues in reference, pragmatics, and context have all converged in their recognition of face-to-face interaction as a strategic site for the analysis of human action (Goodwin, 1990)

Social interaction is a face-to-face process that consists of actions, reactions, and mutual adaptation between two or more individuals. The goal of social interaction is to communicate with others. Social interaction includes all language, including body language and mannerisms. Goffman (1974), one of the forefathers of this theoretical perspective, emphasized the importance of control in social interactions. According to Goffman, during an interaction, individuals will attempt to control the behavior of the other participants, in order to attain needed information, and in order to control the perception of one's own image.

In the literature, Trudgill (1972) found a kind of sex differentiation for speakers of urban British English. His study demonstrated that "women informants" … use forms associated with the prestige standard more frequently than men". His study also discovered that male speakers place a high value on working class nonstandard speech. He offers several possible reasons for the finding that women are more likely to use forms considered correct: (1) The subordinate position of women in English and American societies makes it "more necessary for women to secure their social status linguistically"; and (2) while men 5 can be rated socially on what they do, women may be rated primarily on how they appear – so their speech is more important. As for American literature, research has not shown a noticeable difference in terms of the usage of standard forms by men and women.

Skuse (2012) investigated, firstly, how repair sequences and other side sequences and their subsequent discourse within the task do or do not present opportunity for learning; secondly, how members of the classroom orient to specific roles and identities within the talk-in-interaction to facilitate learning and promote the classroom as a place for learning. Further he investigated the dynamic and complex nature of language classroom discourse. The results show that repair and other side sequences and their subsequent discourse within the task generally provide opportunity for negotiation for meaning and modified input, which by

extension, provides opportunity for language learning; that expert/novice, teacher/student identity dichotomies are oriented to throughout the task to aid in the learning process; that the collaborative nature of classroom discourse provides much opportunity for learning, and that turns within the discourse may function simultaneously on a number of levels and facilitate both the forming and renewing of the language classroom context. The research also shows that CA can add to our understanding of the social nature of second language acquisition (SLA).

Lakoff (1975) and Holmes (1992) also claim that in some languages, the male speaker's form is longer than that of the female's. For example, women are more likely to say "Will you help me with these groceries, please? " than to say"help me". Another example is Yana, a North American Indian language. For the word "deer" Yana women say *ba* while men use *bana* or women say *yaa* for the word "person" but men say *Yaa-na* and so is Japanese where some male forms are longer.

Tamayo (2018) determined the discourse patterns and the language used in instruction by the English instructors along adjacency pairs. 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 found out that 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. She concluded 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.

Research Objectives

The present study aimed to investigate power and gender in Philippine Indie Movie. Specifically, it aimed to determine how male and female characters differ in terms of the following characteristics of spoken interaction: turn-taking, delivery, volume and pitch, sequence of turn, insertion sequence, repair mechanism, agreements and disagreements.

Methodology
Research Design

This study utilized the descriptive research using Qualitative Content Analysis. In the Qualitative Content Analysis (QCA), it analyzed the text through systematic analysis by

classifying textual material by following methodical, sequential procedure in which a coding system and the rules were applied. Greater emphasis on developing the coding system from the data rather than primarily from prior theory, a greater emphasis on the importance of context and interpretation of meaning along with recognition that frequency were done during the study.

Subjects of the Study

      The subjects of the study were the actors and actresses representing the characters of the Movie, "Ang Babaeng Humayo" (The Woman Who Left) namely, cast: Charo Santos-Concio as Horacia Somorostro, John Lloyd Cruz as Hollanda, Nonie Buencamino as Magbabalot, Sharmaine Centenera-Buencamino as Petra, Michael de Mesa as Rodrigo Trinidad, Kakai Bautista as Dading, Marjorie Lorico as Minerva**,** Mayen Estanero as Nena**,** Lao Rodriguez as Father**,** Jean Judith Javier as Mameng**,** Mae Paner as Warden**,** Jo-Ann Requiestas as Taba**,** Daniel Palisa as Harry**,** Romelyn Sale.

Data Gathering Procedure

      In gathering the data needed in the study, the following steps were employed:

1. Material Selection

      The study utilized the Video and its English subscripts, ***The Woman Who Left*** (***Ang Babaeng Humayo***). It is a 2016 Philippine drama film shot in black-and-white, written, produced, edited, and directed by Lav Diaz. It was selected to compete in the main competition section at the 73rd Venice International Film Festival where it won the Golden Lion Award. This was the first film of Charo Santos-Concio who returned to acting after she stepped down as President and CEO of ABS-CBN Corporation.

2. Securing the Corpus of the Study

      The researcher purchased a copy of the CD of the movie "The Woman Who Left" (Ang Babaeng Humayo). Since the movie has an English subscript, this was used in Jefferson Transcription to analyze the conversation between or among characters. Speech initiation, Total amount of speech, Speech volume and pitch, the sequence of turn, insertion sequence, agreements, disagreements, decision making and problem-solving; desire for closeness, togetherness, and affinity; display of empathy; tendency to seek of peers; and display of sensitivity, openness, and self-control were noted.

3. Coding Scheme Development/Selection

The study utilized the Jefferson Transcription System Symbols as shown below:

Jefferson Transcription System Symbols:

Symbol	Description
(.)	A micropause - a pause of no significant length.
(0.7)	A timed pause - long enough to indicate a time.
(( ))	An entry requiring comment but without a symbol to explain it.
> <	Arrows showing that the pace of speech has quickened.
< >	Arrows showing that the pace of the speech has slowed down.
: : :	Colons - indicate a stretched sound.
Underlining	Denotes a rise in volume or emphasis.
↓	Drop in intonation
→	Entered by the analyst to show a sentence of particular interest. Not usually added by the transcriber.
(h)	Laughter in the conversation/speech.
CAPITALS	Louder or shouted words.
↑	Rise in intonation
[ ]	Square brackets show where speech overlaps.
( )	Unclear section.
=	Will be at the end of one sentence and the start of the next. It indicates that there was no pause between them.

4. Dividing the Material in Unit

After copying the English subscript of the movie, the researcher divided the material in unit based on the scene of the movie. Scenes with conversations lasted for one minute, and more were included in the study.

5. Coding

Once the material was divided into units, coding was made.

6. Evaluating the Reliability of Coded Material

Once coding was completed, inter-rater reliability was checked. The result of the coded material was submitted to two experts, English teachers who also finished Doctor of Philosophy in English, in order to verify or counter check the correctness of the coding made by the researcher, prior to the presentation of findings and drawing out of conclusions.

Data Analysis

In the analysis of verbal communication among characters, the researcher used the "Jeffersonian Transcription" or the "Jefferson Transcription System." It is a conversational analysis code used by academics looking at speech patterns. It can also be useful for anyone trying to annotate a conversation or the style of a participant in a conversation. It takes quite a bit more time than general transcription. Jefferson Transcription provides a method for annotating speech with details of performance, acts, texts, movement, the interaction between actors, content, and context.

With the use of "Jeffersonian Transcription," Frequency Count and Percentage Distribution were employed to determine the conversation style of a participant in terms of voice volume and pitch, and delivery in terms of using micro-pause and timed pause, and overlapping. As to the speech initiation, the total amount of speech, the sequence of turn, the percentage spent looking at the partner while speaking and spent of time looking at the partner while listening simple observation was employed. On the other hand, in the assessment of agreements, disagreements, decision making and problem solving; desire for closeness, togetherness and affinity; display of empathy; tendency to seek of peers; display of sensitivity, openness and self-control among characters in the movie as well as to the identification of emerging themes and Philippine Culture depicted in the movie, aside from observation, thematic analysis was used.

Results and Discussions

The data used in this study was derived from the Philippine Independent Movie entitled, "Ang Babaeng Humayo" ("The Woman Who Left"). This independent movie has a total time of 3 hours and 44 minutes. Since the study includes only scenes having a conversation that lasts for more than 1 minute, there is only a total of 22 scenes included in the study which composed of 14 scenes for a conversation with mixed gender and eight for a conversation of the same gender.

The male and female character has spoken interaction regarding:

1 Turn Taking

1.1 Delivery (Micro-pause and Timed-pause)

Table 1. Characters of Mixed Gender regarding Delivery (Micro-pause/Short Pause)

Scene #	Male	Female	Total	
	MICRO-PAUSE/SHORT PAUSE			
	(f)	**(f)**	**(f)**	**(%)**
34	42	1	43	14.19
35	11	6	17	5.61
45	30	2	32	10.56
49	10	2	12	3.96
53	28	1	29	9.57
58	16	3	19	6.27
65	15	12	27	8.91
74	12	7	29	9.57
77	8	1	9	2.97
81	-	2	2	.66
83	41	15	56	18.48
90	-	9	9	2.97
91	3	11	14	4.62
95	5	-	5	1.65
Total	**221**	**72**	**303**	**100.00**

Table 1 shows the characters of mixed gender regarding delivery (Micro-pause). As noted from the table, there is a total of 303 micro-pauses performed by the characters of mixed

147

gender which dominated by the males with 221 over the males with 72. Among the 14 scenes, there were eleven scenes (34, 35, 45, 49, 53, 58, 65, 74, 77, 83, 95) found to have the males dominated with 42, 11, 30,1,28, 16, 15, 12, 8, 41 and 5 seconds respectively. While the females dominated only in three scenes (81, 90 and 91) with 2, 9 and 11 seconds respectively. All the identified scenes are indicating that the males dominated the females are the scenes where the males were given more amount of speaking time.

Table 2 Characters of Mixed Gender in Terms of Delivery

(Timed-Pause/Long Pause)

| Scene # | TIMED-PAUSE/LONG PAUSE | | | |
| | Male | Female | Total | |
	(f)	(f)	(f)	(%)
34	3	-	3	7.89
35	-	6	6	15.79
45	3	1	4	10.53
65	1	-	1	2.63
74	-	3	3	7.89
81	1	1	2	5.26
83	5	1	6	15.79
90	-	4	4	10.53
91	-	7	7	18.42
95	2	-	2	5.26
Total	**15**	**23**	**38**	**100.00**

In table 2, it presents the result of the study on the characters of mixed gender in terms of delivery (Timed-Pause). It can be seen that out of fourteen scenes, there is a total of 38 timed-pauses executed by the characters of mixed gender. It was dominated by the females with 23 timed- pause over the males with 15 long pause. Out of fourteen scenes, there were five scenes (34, 45, 65, 83 and 95) which showed that the males dominated with 3, 3, 1, 5 and two long pauses respectively. On the other hand, there are fourteen scenes (35, 74, 90, and 91) were found to have females dominated with 6, 3, 4 and seven long pauses respectively. Furthermore, in every situation where a person is asking an apology, he/she is given the floor

to explain or justify his/her actions why he/she committed such mistake. Therefore, a person who is pleading for understanding is given more time to speak, and in terms of the manner of speaking, generally, slowly and with expected to have more timed-pause due to the feeling of apprehension towards the recipient of the apology

Table 3. Characters of Mixed Gender in Terms of High Pitch

Scene #	HIGH Male (f)	Female (f)	Total (f)	(%)
34	17	2	19	18.27
35	1	7	8	7.69
45	9	3	12	11.54
49	4	2	6	5.77
53	11	-	11	10.58
58	9	3	12	11.54
65	6	3	9	8.65
74	2	3	5	4.81
77	1	1	2	1.92
81	1	2	3	2.88
83	7	4	11	10.58
90	-	4	4	3.85
91	1	1	2	1.92
Total	**69**	**35**	**104**	**100.00**

Table 3 shows the characters of mixed gender in terms of high pitch. It is revealed in the table that there is a total of 104 high pitch demonstrated by the characters of mixed gender which was dominated by the males with 69 over the females with 35.

Out of 14 scenes, there were seven scenes (34, 45, 49, 53, 58, 65 and 83) which were found to have males that dominated with 17, 9, 4, 11, 9, 6, and seven respectively. On the other hand, there were also four scenes (35, 74, 81 and 90) that the females dominated with 7, 3, 2 and four high pitched utterances respectively.

Table 4. Characters of Mixed Gender in Terms of Low Pitch

			LOW PITCH	
Scene	Male	Female	TOTAL	
#	(f)	(f)	(f)	(%)
34	49	3	52	12.09
35	22	22	44	10.23
45	40	3	43	10.00
49	16	2	18	4.19
53	22	13	35	8.14
58	14	8	22	5.12
65	20	17	37	8.60
74	17	12	29	6.74
77	10	7	17	3.95
81	6	5	11	2.56
83	47	25	72	16.74
90	4	15	19	4.42
91	4	17	21	4.88
95	9	1	10	2.33
Total	**280**	**150**	**430**	**100.00**

Table 4 shows the result of an investigation into the characters of mixed gender in terms of using low pitch. It can be seen that there is a total of 430 low pitch demonstrated by the characters of mixed gender. It was dominated by the males with 280 over the females with 150. Out of fourteen scenes, there were seven scenes (34, 45, 49, 53, 58, 65 and 83) that were dominated by the males with 49, 40, 16, 22, 4, 17, 10, 6, 47, and 9 respectively, while the females dominated only in two scenes (90 and 91) with 15 and 17 low pitched utterances.

Table 5. Characters of Mixed Gender in Terms of Voice Volume/ Emphasis per Scene

| Scene # | VOICE VOLUME/EMPHASIS | | | |
| | Male | Female | Total | |
	(f)	(f)	(f)	(%)
34	21	-	21	32.30
49	7	1	8	12.31
53	10	1	11	16.92
58	1	-	1	1.54
65	1	-	1	1.54
77	-	7	7	10.77
81	-	4	4	6.15
83	-	-	-	-
90	2	6	8	12.31
95	-	4	4	6.16
Total	**42**	**23**	**65**	**100.00**

Table 5 presents the characters of mixed gender in terms of voice volume/emphasis per scene. It shows that males dominated with 42 emphases over the females with 23 emphases. Out of fourteen scenes, there were only six (6) scenes (34, 49, 53, 58 and 65) found to have the males dominated in terms of using emphasis with 21, 7,10, 2, 1 and 1 respectively, while the females dominated four scenes (77, 8, 90, and 91) with 7, 4 and 4 emphases. It was noted by Ridge (1985), that high individual with high status speaks louder.

Table 6. Characters of Mixed Gender as to Sequence of Turn per Scene

Scene	Male 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	(f)	Female 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	(f)
34		1	1					1	3	2								2
35								1	1	2		1	1	2	4			10
45	1								1	1			1		1			2
49		1						1	2			1						1
53	2	2	2						6	1								1
65	2	2				1			5				4	3				7
74	1								1	1	2	1		1	3			8
77						1			1	1				2	1			4
81	2			1					3				2					2
83	5	1			3		1		10	1	1							2
90										3	1							4
91						1	1		2							1	1	2
95										1								1
Total	13	7	3	0	4	2	2	4	35	12	4	4	7	8	9	1	1	46

Code:

1-Statement-Answer	5-Request/Offer-Acceptance
2-WH Question-Answer	6-Request/Offer- Rejection
3-Yes/No Question- Yes-Answer	7-Apology- Acceptance
4-Yes/No Question- No Answer	8-Question-without/no answer

Table 6 shows the frequency distribution of characters of mixed gender as to the sequence of turn per scene. There is a total of 35 sequences of turn applied by the male characters and 46 by the females. For the males, scenes 83 and 65 have the most sequence of turns, and the least, in scenes 35, 45, 74 and 77 with 1 each while for the females have the most in scenes 35 and 74 with the frequency of 10 and 8 and the least in 49, 43 and 94 with 1 each.

It is worthy to note that in terms of the question without/ with no answer, the males dominated with four over the females with one.

Table 7. Characters of Mixed Gender as to Sequence of Turn

Sequence of Turns	Male (f)	Female (f)	Total (f)	(%)
Statement-Answer	13	12	25	30.86
WH-Question-Answer	7	4	11	13.58
Yes/No- Question-"Yes" Answer	2	4	6	7.41
Yes/No Question-"No" Answer	1	7	8	9.88
Request/Offer-Acceptance	4	8	12	14.81
Request/Offer-Rejection	2	9	11	13.58
Apology-Acceptance	2	1	3	3.70
Question- without an answer	4	1	5	6.17
Total	**35**	**46**	**81**	**100.00**

There are more types of sequences of turns, but table 19 shows the sequence of turns commonly used by the characters in the study.   Among the sequence of turns involved in the study are: Statement-Answer, WH-Question-Answer, Yes/No- Question-"Yes" Answer, Yes/No Question-No Answer, Request/Offer-Acceptance, Request/Offer-Rejection and Apology-Acceptance. As can be seen in the table, there is a total of 81 sequences of turns performed by male and female characters. Out of 81 sequences of turns, the female dominated with 46 over males with 35.

Among the included sequences of turns, *Statement-Answer* sequence has the most with 25 followed *by Request/Offer – Acceptance* with 12 while the least is the *Apology- Acceptance* with three as shown in the extracts below.

Extract 1: (scene 35)

    Horacia: You're feverish. You have fever! (*Statement- Answer*)

    Hollanda: Had a few drinks.

Extract 2: Hollanda: Some money for your food. (*Request/Offer – Acceptance*)

Hollanda: Thanks, Ma'am.

Extract 3: (Scene 83)

Hollanda: I told myself, I will go to the island, so no one else gets involved and then, this. I got you involved.

Horacia: It's nothing. Don't worry about me.

(Apology- Acceptance)

For the males, the most commonly used sequences are the *Statement- Answer* and *WH-Question-Answer* with 13 (*Statement- Answer)* and 7 (*WH-Question-Answer)* while the least is the *Yes/No Question- "No" Answer* with 1.

Extract 3: (Scene 58)

Balot vendor: Where did you learn that? (*WH-Question-Answer)*

Horacia: In the dark. Someone taught me how.

Extract 4: Scene 83)

Hollanda: I'm embarrassed, Ma'am. I'm such a bitch. I am useless. Why didn't those guys kill me instead?

Horacia: You have to get well. You got to be strong. So you can go home.

(*Statement-Answer*)

On the other hand, for the females, *Statement-Answer* and *Request/Offer-Rejection* have the most with 12 *(Statement-Answer)* and 9 *(Request/Offer-Rejection).*

Extract 5: (Scene 35)

Horacia: Here. Wear my jacket.

Hollanda: No need, Ma'am.

(*Request/offer- rejection*)

As to the given questions without received answers, the males dominated with four against the males with one. The extracts below depict how the listener is ignoring the questions:

Extract 6: (Scene 34)

Balot Vendor: *Know what? Sometimes I believe in God. And you, Renata? Do you believe in God?* (silence)

Balot Vendor: (stands up*) I'll just roam around and sell. Not much sales here. I'll return later. (Question –without answer)*

Table.8 Characters of Mixed Gender as to Insertion Sequence

Gender	IR	IRF	IRFR	IRFRF	TOTAL	
	(f)	(f)	(f)	(f)	(f)	(%)
Male	4	8	-	2	14	30.43
Female	18	5	5	5	32	69.57
TOTAL	22	13	5	7	46	100.00

Table 8 shows the characters of mixed gender as to Insertion Sequence. Based on the table, there is a total of 46 insertions which was dominated by the females with 32 over the males with 14. Among the four insertion sequence used in the study, the IR insertion sequence was found to be dominating with 22 over the other insertion sequence, IRF with 13, IRFR, 5 and IRFRF with 7.

In terms of the four insertion sequence used in the study, the males used the most number of IRF sequence with eight while the least, IRFR sequence with only two. On the other hand, the females used the most of the IR with 18, and the least was on the other three patterns with five each. The result reveals that the females are already contented when their listener answered them. Unlike, the males who utilized more IRF sequence means that they need more elaboration or explanation of the given answers.

Table 9. Characters of Mixed Gender in Terms of Repair Mechanism

Types of Repair Mechanism	Male	Female	Total	
	(f)	(f)	(f)	(%)
Self-Initiated self repaired	1	-	1	7.69

Other Initiated self-repaired.	4	5	9	69.23
Self-initiated other-repaired	-	-	-	-
Other-initiated other-repaired	1	2	3	23.08
Total	6	7	13	100.00

Table 9 shows the result of investigation as to the characters of mixed gender in terms of repair mechanism. As observed from the table, there is a total of 13 repairs made as to the four types of repair mechanism used in the study. The females dominate it with seven over the males with 6. Among the four repair mechanism used, both gender have the most on other-initiated self –repaired with 9 for the females and 4 for the males and have the least on self-initiated self-repaired with one each. In both genders, they do not have an entry on self-initiated other-repaired.

Below are examples of repairs made in the study:

Scene #	Examples	Repair Mechanism
34	Balot vendor: Selling had been the family's business ever since. So also ended up doing this. A job passed on to me. *I'll be luck soon, who knows? It's just a matter of luck. Right? Am I right?* Horacia*: Of course.* Balot Vendor*: I mean, fuck. I don't want to be forever unlucky!* Fuck them! Fuck them! Fuck them!	Self-initiated Self-repaired
35	Horacia: You're feverish. *You have fever.*	Other-initiated

			Hollanda: *Had a few drinks.*	Other-repaired

	53		Horacia: Give them each. I"ll pay for it.	
			Balot vendor: Silly, *what did you say?*	Other-initiated
			Horacia: *Give balot to each one of them*.	Self-repaired

Table 10. Characters of Mixed Gender in Terms of Agreements

Scenes	Male	Female	Dialogs	Verbal/Non-verbal Acts of Disagreements
34		1	*"Selling had been the family's business ever since. So I also ended up doing this. A job passed on to me. I'll be luck soon, who know? It's just a matter of luck. Right? Am I right?"*	*"Of course."*
83	1		*"The doctor said, I should make you drink alcohol so your blood will circulate well. Just a little."*	*"Thank you, Ma'am."*
	1		*"Drink, that up.*	*"Okay, Ma'am."*
90	1		*"You've read it? Mother fucking meddler! You've read it?! You've read*	*"Yes, Ma'am."*

			it?! Fuck you, meddler!”	
Total	3	1		

Table 10 shows the frequency distribution of characters of mixed gender in terms of agreements. As can be seen from the table, the males dominated with three over the females with 1. From the four examples of verbal and non-verbal acts of agreements, the three are very common like "*yes*," *of course*” and “*okay*” but it is included here the answer "*thank you*." The "Thank you" answer here does not only imply that the person who says is not only thankful to the speaker but actually, he/she accepts the idea. He/she does not directly answer "yes" to the statement, but he/she agrees to the idea given by the speaker. The result illustrates that the males accept suggestions from opposite sex. They are open-minded persons. Moreover, they give importance to the opposite sex since they do consider the ideas of the females.

Table 11. Characters of Mixed Gender in Terms of Disagreements

Scenes	Male	Female	Dialogs	Verbal/Non-verbal Acts of Disagreements
35	1		*“...You want me to take you to the hospital?”*	*“No, need, Ma'am. I can do it, Ma'am.”*
	1		*“Where are you from? I'll bring you to your house.”*	*“I can do this. Thanks.”*
	1		*“Here. (She removes her jacket and gives it to Hollanda) Wear my jacket.”*	*“No need, Ma'am.”*

158

	1		"Wear it now."	"I can't take this, Ma'am."
45	1		"Go ahead and punch me! So that you'll know that you can fight those three especially if they're drunk! Go ahead!"	"Fuck. I don't want to!"
49		1	"...He went down here and bought balot from me. It's that a miracle friend? Amazing, isn't it?"	Silence (stares at Trinidad's house)
58			"Want some ballot?"	"No, thanks. I'm still full."
63			"You're quiet. Want me to sell that?"	"Selling balot doesn't suit you, Renata."
			"Should selling ballot suit its seller?"	"Not really."
	1		"But if the pretending is good?"	"I don't know. But I can tell who's pretending"
65		1	"Your sales will be my down payment for your help."	"No need to pay me."
74	1		"Don't be stubborn. Eat some more."	"Later, please."

	1	*"If you feel dizzy or your headaches, let me know. The doctor said should your body x-rayed. He also said you should tell him the history of your epilepsy. He said we should report what happened to you."*	*"No, Ma'am."*
	1	*"Would have been better if they finished me off."*	*"Don't say that. Don't say that. Stop crying now. Hush."*
83	1	*"I told myself, I will go to the island, so no one else gets involved. And then, this. I got you involved."*	*"It's nothing. Don't worry about me."*
	1	*"I'm embarrassed, Ma'am. I'm such a bitch. I am useless. Why didn't those guys kill me instead?"*	*"You have to get well. You got to be strong. So you can go home."*
	1	*"There's few more left. Let's drink more of this, Ma'am. Please?"*	*"Enough, Hollanda. Don't be stubborn!"*
	1	*"I want to get drunk."*	*"Enough."*
	1	*"Please, Ma'am."*	*"Stop it! Hollanda… Enough!"*
90	1	*"I want to thank you."*	*"I should be the one thanking you."*
			"I know, Ma'am."

	1	*"You don't know me. No, you don't. Because if you do, you'll be scared of me."*	
91	1	*"I'm sorry. I had been caught off-guard."*	*"It's my fault."*
95	1	*"I'm Celina Talavisan. I'm your lawyer. Don't worry. It is a pro bono work. No need to pay for anything. I'm here to help you. I'll make sure I'll act upon all those things done to you. I've also requested for a doctor to check your condition."*	*"No need, Ma'am."*
Total	**12**	**9**	

Table 11 presents the frequency distribution of characters of mixed gender in terms of disagreements. The males dominated with 12 over the females with 9. From the table, it could be noticed the different utterances to show disagreements. In scene 63, the answer "*Selling balot doesn't suit you, Renata.*" to the question *"You're quiet. Want me to sell that?",* means that the recipient of the question (Balot vendor) here contradicts to the statement of Renata's "*selling*" of balot. Likewise in scene 74, the statement "*Would have been better if they finished me off!*" is opposed by the recipient by saying "*Don't say that. Don't say that. Stop crying now. Hush.*"

Conclusions

The textual medium of the work is a creative blend of fact, and fiction often referred to as faction in which natural, real-life events and characters commingle with their symbolic counterparts. The unique stylistic aspects of narrative characterization are exemplified through the manipulation of the 'doing,' and 'saying' of the characters. The movie, as one of the mass media, used to be very stereotyped in each representation of gender. Representations of gender

in the movie are now more complicated, and less stereotyped than in the past. Women and men generally equal, although male characters may still be to the fore. Horacia, a woman character shows the characteristics of a woman of today- strong, brave, dependable and still beautiful even under pressure, which lessen the portrayal of men as being more active, decisive, courageous, intelligent and resourceful when compared to the woman as described in the past.

References

Goodwin, C. and Heritage, John (1990). Conversation analysis. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, Vol. 19, 283-307.

Goffman, E. (1974). Frame analysis: An essay on the organization of experience, New York: Harper & Row.

Lakoff, R. (1975a). Language and woman's place. Language in society, 2, 45-80.

Lakoff, R. (1975b). Language and woman's place. New York: Harper & Row Publishers.

Tamayo, R. A. (2008). Spoken Discourse Analysis Along Adjacency Pairs in English as Second Language (ESL) Classrooms. Asian EFL Journal, 23(2.3). https://www.asian-efl-journal.com/11676/main-journals/2019-main-journal/volume-23-issue-3-2-2019/

Trudgill, P. (1972) Sex, Covert Prestige and Linguistic Change in the Urban British English of Norwich. Language in Society, 1, 2, 179-195, Oct 72.

Skuse, G.E. (2012). A conversation analysis approach to interaction within an English as a foreign Language (efl) class Information gap task. http://asian-efl-journal.com/wp-content/uploads/mgm/downloads/55223900.pdf

ASIAN EFL JOURNAL — The EFL Professional's Written Forum

Correlates of Grade 11 ESL Students' Reading Ability

Luis Luigi Eugenio A. Valencia

Leyte Normal University

luisluigivalencia@gmail.com

Bio-Profile:

Mr. Luis Luigi Eugenio A. Valencia is an instructor at Leyte Normal University. He is currently pursuing Ph.D. in English – Language at the University of San Jose – Recoletos in Cebu City. His research interests are in second language acquisition, vocabulary acquisition, reading strategies, and critical discourse analysis.

Abstract:

Language teachers all over the world agree that developing listening, speaking, writing, and reading skills are pedagogically challenging. Reading ability is a cognitive activity used by a person to interact with a certain text that may be influenced by psychological and sociological factors. This study was designed to determine which of the factors (cognitive styles, self-concept, class participation, and anomie) correlates with the reading ability of the Grade Eleven ESL students. There were ninety respondents taken from the different programs of the Senior High who answered the survey questionnaire and the reading test. The results of the data gathered from the survey questionnaire were organized, analyzed and summarized using descriptive statistics. Results show that most of the respondents were visual learners, extrovert, sequential and analytic in terms of their orientation to a learning task and have an average degree of self-concept. It is recommended that to improve reading ability among senior high school students, they should be versatile enough not only in one but several cognitive styles. Moreover, teachers should expose students to various reading activities and reading tasks to hone their ability in reading.

Keywords: Reading ability, cognitive styles, self-concept, class participation, Grade 11 ESL students

Introduction

The Philippines is the only country in Asia, and among the three remaining countries in the entire world, that run a 10-year basic education cycle before the year 2010. The Filipinos are expected to compete with the rest of the globe, but it is already disadvantaged by the number of years that is spent in schools and the breadth and depth of studying.

In response to the issue, Department of Education (DepEd) pushed the passage of a law that will implement the so-called K to 12 program, which will institutionalize pre-school and add two more years of high school in the country's basic education cycle. K to 12 program is the latest effort of the government to elevate the educational system to the global 12-year standard. K to 12 means one year of kindergarten and 12 years of elementary and secondary education. Through this reform, the Philippines is catching up with global standards in secondary education and is attaching a high value to kindergarten. In effect, the structure, the curricula, and philosophy of the educational system are undergoing some improvements.

Senior High School (SHS) covers the last two years of the K to 12 program and includes Grades 11 and 12. In SHS, students go through a core curriculum and subjects under a track of their choice. Senior high school completes basic education by making sure that the high school graduate is equipped for work, entrepreneurship, or higher education. This is a step up from the 10-year cycle where high school graduates still need further education (and expenses) to be ready for the world ("K to 12," 2012).

Meanwhile, the reading ability is described as "a cognitive ability which a person can use when interacting with texts" (Urquhart & Weir, 1998). Despite the widespread influence of a multi-divisible view of reading on current practice, this view is greatly challenged. Oller (1979) advocated the idea that language ability is essentially unitary or holistic. It has been discussed in language teaching and testing circles since the 1970s (as cited in Liu, 2010). His famous Unitary Competence Hypothesis (UCH) holds that language performance involving different skills and in different contexts draws on the same set of sources. Language ability could consequently be assessed as a whole, using integrative tests, such as cloze and dictation tests.

According to the Annual Reviews Organization, psychological factors refer to thoughts, feelings and other cognitive characteristics that affect the attitude, behavior, and functions of the human mind. These factors can influence how a person thinks and later affect his decisions and relations in his daily life. The three known psychological factors are personality traits, psychodynamic processes and learned cognition. Human beings learn cognition through their day to day interaction. In turn, leads to psychodynamic processes that affect or influence their

personality traits. Psychological factors lead to the dynamism of the human mind and their behaviors. People subconsciously refer to their psychological factor to approach different life situations.

Meanwhile, Trinity Education (2016) added that sociological factors refer to the aspects that directly influence or affect lifestyles. Some important social factors include religion, ethnicity, family, physical status, economic status, education, location, life partners, children, and political systems. Numerous factors affect or direct lifestyles in any population. Some other social factors include family life, school environment, violence on TV or in the home, weak or strong social ties (such as a lack of strong friendships), socioeconomic status, neighborhood (clashing or cohesiveness of cultural norms), education level obtained, poor social influences (such as gang behavior), societal norms and influences (such as farming community versus inner-city), and religious influences.

In the study of Nuñez (2003), she believed that psycho-sociological factors have a significant impact on communicative competence of the students. She found out in her study that the majority of college first-year education students generally used organizing and evaluating their learning as their language learning techniques. Furthermore, Nuñez (2003) stated that in sociological factors, most students who prefer a facilitating teaching style are average in their class participation, and they agree that they have a feeling of uncertainty or cultural toward their first language.

Results of a study conducted by Shang (2010) investigated the Taiwanese EFL learners' most frequently used of reading strategy is metacognitive strategy, followed by compensation strategy, and then followed by cognitive strategy. Moreover, he also found out that a significant positive relationship between the use of reading strategies and perceptions of self-efficacy. Reading strategies, however, were unrelated to reading achievement.

In another study conducted to Taiwanese students of English as a foreign language reading classes by Wu (2011) suggests that decreasing students' anxiety and creating a low-anxiety classroom environment might help improve students' reading comprehension performance.

Many senior high school students make mistakes in English reading comprehension questions. Mostly errors are in vocabulary, complicated sentence structures, or long texts which may cause the difficulty of reading comprehension. In the past, teachers seldom assist students in reading skills but teach them grammar and vocabulary. However, reading is regarded as an active mental process that requires meaning shifts from the text itself to the reader. Thus, teachers need to conduct exercises prior to, during, and after the reading, assignments to assist

students in reading more effectively. Wu (2011) contends that most of the research centers on the discussion of listening, speaking, and writing. Little attention has been paid to reading.

In reality, students need a massive amount of comprehensible inputs, and reading materials usually provide the most available source. Reading is a process involving the activation of relevant knowledge and related language skills to achieve an exchange of information. It requires that the reader focus on the materials and integrate previously acquired knowledge and skills to comprehend the passages.

This study believes that psychological and sociological factors affect the reading ability of SHS students. These psycho-sociological factors may have a positive or negative effect on the students' reading ability.

The abovementioned studies are the few studies that have been conducted before by researchers relative to the reading ability of students, but none have yet delved with psychological and sociological factors relative to reading ability has been conducted. This argument has driven the researcher to conduct a study which will impact further knowledge about these factors and its relation to the reading ability of Senior high school students. Thus, this study aimed to investigate the relationship between the psychological and sociological factors toward the reading ability of SHS students.

Specifically, this study finds out:

1. The preferred cognitive style of SHS students in terms of the following:

    1.1 Sensory Preference

    1.2 Relations with Others

    1.3 Relations with Ideas

    1.4 Orientation to Learning tasks

    1.5 Overall Orientation

2. The self-concept level of SHS students.

3. The level of SHS students in terms of the following sociological factors:

    3.1 Class Participation

    3.2 Anomie

4. The reading ability level of SHS students.

5. The significant relationship between the self-concept and the reading ability of SHS students.

6. The significant relationship between the sociological factors and the reading ability of SHS students.

Theoretical Framework

This study is based on the theory of Social Cognitive approaches to learning which is postulated by Albert Bandura (1986) and Schema Theory by Richard Anderson (1977).

Social Cognitive is a theory that focuses on the cognition of the learner's mental involvement as an essential component of social learning. In another way, people are neither driven by inner forces nor automatically shaped and controlled by the environment. In social cognitive theory, the adoption of values, standards and attributes is governed by a much broader and more dynamic social reality (Bandura, 1986).

What people think, believe, and feel, affects how they behave (Bandura, 1985). The natural and extrinsic effects of their actions, in turn, partly determine their thought patterns and emotional reactions. The personal factor also encompasses the biological properties of the organism. Physical structure and sensory and neural systems affect behavior and impose constraints on capabilities. Sensory systems and brain structures are, in turn, modifiable by behavioral experiences (Greenough, Black, & Wallace, 1987).

Schema Theory was immediately applied to understanding the reading process, where it served as an important counterweight to purely bottom-up approaches to reading. The Schema Theory approaches to reading emphasize that reading involves both the bottom-up information from the perceived letters coming into the eye and the use of top-down knowledge to construct a meaningful representation of the content of the text (Anderson, 1977).

Furthermore, Schema Theory is an explanation of how readers use prior knowledge to comprehend and learn from the text. The fundamental tenet of schema theory assumes that written text does not carry meaning by itself. Instead, a text-only provides directions for readers as to how they should retrieve or construct meaning from their own previously acquired knowledge. This previously knowledge is called the readers' background knowledge (prior knowledge), and the already acquired knowledge structures are called schemata (Rumelhart, 1980 as cited in Adnyana, 2013).

In this study, Schema Theory is used to establish the respondents' use of background knowledge upon reading the text. It also verifies the individuals' use of prior knowledge and relating it to the reading material.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of this study aims to show the relationship of Psycho-sociological factors towards the reading ability of senior high school students. In this study, psychological and sociological factors will be considered as the independent variables.

Psychological variables include cognitive style and self-concept, and sociological variables include class participation and anomie. Moreover, the dependent variable is the reading ability of the students. Cognitive style, self-concept, class participation, and anomie will be correlated to the reading ability of the respondents. Cognitive style refers to the preferred way an individual processes information. In this study, the respondents will be identified if they are visual, auditory or hands-on learners.

Meanwhile, self-concept is how you think about yourself and how you see yourself as a person. In this study, the respondents will be identified if they are introvert or extrovert. This study will also find out if the respondents actively participate in class discussions. On the other hand, anomie refers to students' eagerness to learn the language and attitude towards the culture of their native tongue.

To give a clearer image of what the study aimed to show, a conceptual diagram is presented. The diagrams aimed to show if there is a significant relationship between Psychological (Cognitive Style, Self-Concept) and Sociological factors (Class participation, Anomie) and the reading ability of SHS students. This significant relationship is presented by the single-headed arrow aiming directly to the reading ability which is the dependent variable.
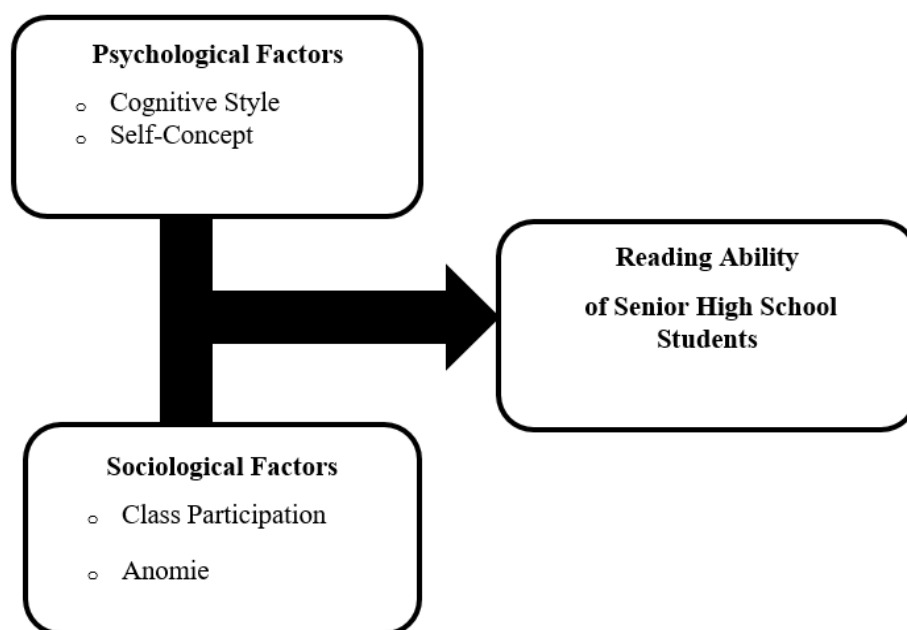

Figure 1. A diagram showing the conceptual flow of the study

Methodology

This study uses a descriptive and correlational approach using survey questionnaires of psycho-sociological factors and the reading ability of SHS. The descriptive method describes existing conditions without analyzing the relationship among variables. Meanwhile,

correlational method involves collecting data to determine the degree (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003)

The Respondents

The respondents of this study were the Senior High School students of Sagkahan National High School. SNHS was chosen because Sagkahan was one of the areas in Tacloban City that experienced massive devastation after the super typhoon Yolanda hit. Because of this, it is assumed that it made an impact among the residents in the said area especially on the students, concerning their psycho-sociological factors and reading ability.

Some students came across such traumatic experiences during the super typhoon. These experiences might have caused or triggered psycho-sociological effects within them. These might have an effect to their reading ability.

The respondents belonged from the different programs of Senior High in SNHS, namely: General Academic System (GAS), Home Economics (HE) and Technical Vocational (Tech Voc) who were enrolled in the School Year 2016-2017. In the chosen school, there are eight sections in Senior High namely; Charity, Diligence, Faith, Honesty, Hope, Integrity, Prudence, and Wisdom.

The total number of population of the SHS students is 361. This study used 90 respondents composed of 25% from the male population and 25% from the female population.

Simple Random Sampling was used for choosing the respondents in this study. This method gives each member of the population an equal and independent chance of being selected (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003). Fish Bowl Technique was used to choose the respondents. There was a corresponding number for each student in every section which was inside the fish bowl, and the researcher picked the 25% from the male and female (separated) in every section.

The tables below show the number of the respondents from each section who were part in the study.

Table 1

Distribution of the Female Respondents of the Study

Program	Sub-Program	Section	Total No. of Students	25%
GAS (General Academics Strand)	Comp. Programming	Wisdom	28	7
		Integrity	24	6
	Comp. Servicing	Charity	5	1
		Prudence	20	5
Home Economics	Cookery	Honesty	17	4
	Bread and Pastry	Diligence	40	10
	Food & Beverages	Hope	36	9
Technical Vocational	Electrical Installation Maintenance	Faith	2	1
		Total	172	43

The total number of the female SHS students is 172. The researcher selected only 43 students as the result from getting 25% in each section from the respective program who were part of the study.

Table 2

Distribution of the Male Respondents of the Study

Program	Sub-Program	Section	Total No. of Students	25%
GAS (General Academics Strand)	Comp. Programming	Wisdom	9	2
		Integrity	32	8
	Comp. Servicing	Charity	33	8
		Prudence	12	3
Home Economics	Cookery	Honesty	33	8
	Bread and Pastry	Diligence	8	2
	Food & Beverages	Hope	14	4
Technical Vocational	Electrical Installation Maintenance	Faith	48	12
		Total	189	47

The total number of the male SHS students is 189. The researcher selected only 47 students as the result from getting the 25% in each section from the respective program who were part of the study.

Research Instrument

The instruments used in this study were a survey questionnaire comprising the scale of the psychological and sociological factors and a reading test.

Survey Questionnaire. The first part of the questionnaire determined the Demographic Profile of the respondents, consisted of name, section, gender, age, home address. The second part determined the Psychological factors namely, style orientation scale for language learning (SOS-L) for the cognitive style and the self-concept. The last part of the survey questionnaire was the sociological factors namely, the class participation and the anomie.

Style Orientation Scale for Language Learning (SOS-L). It was an instrument or checklist developed by Oxford designed to assess the learner's general approach to learning a new

language or his or her language learning style. It gives a clear indication of the learner's overall preferences in language learning.

Five major activities represent five different aspects of the student's language learning style namely: Sensory Preferences, Relations with Others, Relations with Ideas, Orientation to Learning Tasks, and Overall Orientation.

The checklist on Sensory Preferences indicated whether the student is a visual, auditory or hands-on learner. The checklist on Relations with Others tells of the learner's extroversion (the degree to which a learner gets energy from people and events outside himself) or introversion (the extent to which a learner receives energy from ideas, feelings or concepts inside himself). The activity on Relations with Ideas determined how intuitive or sequential a learner is, while the activity on Orientation to Learning Tasks showed how much a learner needs to delay reaching decisions and finishing tasks. Lastly, the activity on Overall Orientation determined if the learners were global or analytic.

Self-Concept Inventory. Majority of the statements are positive statements. The statements 5,8,13,17,18,25 and 38 are negative statements indicating a negative self-concept.

A score 35-38 denotes a high self-concept, 29-34 average self-concept and 28 below a low self-concept. The self-concept inventory sheet was used to get the self-concept of the students as the respondents of the study. It asked the students what they honestly feel or think about themselves.

The third part of the survey questionnaire focused on the Sociological factors which are divided into two parts namely,

Class Participation. Each statement has six choices. The respondents selected their choice for each item by putting a check mark on the right side of the statement. The interval scoring in the interpretation of the responses were as follows: (5.6-6.0) - Strongly Agree; (4.6-5.5) – Agree Slightly; (2.6-3.5) – Disagree Slightly; (1.6-2.5) – Disagree; (1.0-1.5) – Strongly Disagree.

Anomie. It measures the degree of the student's feeling of social uncertainty and cultural dissatisfaction toward his first language and the Filipino language –speaking group, this prompting his utmost desire to learn Filipino and English whose speaker has another differing culture philosophy and underlying strategies implicit in contrasting teaching styles. Responses to the items were scored as follows: Strongly Agree-6; Agree-5; Agree Slightly-4; Disagree Slightly-3; Disagree-2; Strongly Disagree-1.

The interval scoring in the interpretation of data for the feeling of anomie was as follows: 4.6-6.0- Dissatisfied; 2.4-4.5- Slightly Dissatisfied; 1-2.5- Satisfied.

The Reading Test. The reading test comprises fifty (50) items — the test composed of two sub-parts: text reading and visual reading. Test items are in multiple-choice format and scored one point for each correct answer given.

The first sub-test order text reading made of excerpts and articles from Social Science, Math and Biology books evaluated students' ability to understand reading rationale.

The second sub-test was composed of items aimed at assessing students' study skills in the same particular areas locating information in a dictionary, table of contents, and the index of a task.

The oral reading part was made up of map reading and analyzing the keyboards of an electric calculator. In the first sub-test, the ability to follow directions was evaluated using a map. Success in tracing the different places in the map was dependent on the examinees' comprehension of directions. The second visual reading sub-test was a test of students' skills in using prepositions, other function words, adjectives, and adverbs.

Data Gathering Procedure

The school that was involved in the study was given a formal communication addressed to the Principal of the school, to request permission to conduct this study and master list of the students was requested. The respondents were formally informed by the researcher of their participation in the study. They were given consent forms to elaborate further the kind of study which they are in. The researcher personally administered the questionnaires to randomly sampled 90 students.

There was a separate survey questionnaire for Psychological Factors and Sociological Factors. The participants were given survey questionnaires to respond to each item that measured the psycho-sociological factors.

The following day, a test for the reading ability of the SHS students was administered in two classrooms. The classrooms were reserved by the researchers to gather the respondents in answering the test in one session. The respondents were given one hour to answer the test.

After the data gathering, the respondents, together with the teacher who assisted the researcher, were given a certificate of participation and recognition.

Data Analysis

The results of the data gathered from the survey questionnaire were processed through SPSS. The data were organized, analyzed and summarized using descriptive statistics such as the mean and standard deviations. Both results from the Style Orientation Scale for Language

Learning (SOS-L), Self-Concept Inventory, Class participation, and Anomie survey questionnaires had undergone the same process. In terms of all the survey questionnaires, the scoring was done by getting the sum (total score) of each activity and divided by the total number of items in every questionnaire. On the reading test, each question had a corresponding answer, and every correct answer is given one point.

Pearson's Product Moment Coefficient or Pearson's r was used to determined correlation between Psycho-sociological Factors and Reading Ability.

Presentation, Analysis, and Interpretation of Data

This part presents the analysis and interpretation of the data gathered through survey questionnaire and reading test. It also discusses the relationship between psycho-sociological factors and the reading ability of senior high school students.

1. Senior High School (SHS) Students' preferred Cognitive Style and Self-concept level (Psychological Factors)

Table 3 shows the frequency and percentage distribution of the SHS students in terms of their preferred cognitive style and self- concept. It indicates that 36 (40%) out of 90

Table 3
Distribution of the SHS Students in Terms of the Psychological Factors on Preferred Cognitive Style and Self-Concept Level

Psychological Factors	Frequency	Percentage
Cognitive Style		
1. Sensory Preference		
a) Hands-on	10	11. 1
b) Visual	36	40
c) Auditory	19	21.1
d) Both Hands-on and Visual	4	4.4
e) Both Visual and Auditory	3	3.3
f) Both Auditory and Hands-on	9	10
g) Both Visual, Auditory and Hands-on	9	10
Total	90	100%
2. Relation with Others		
a) Extrovert	37	41.1
b) Introvert	26	28.9
c) Both	27	30
Total	90	100%
3. Relation with Ideas		

174

respondents are visual on their sensory preference, 19 (21.1%) are auditory, 10 (11.1%) are hands-on. Furthermore, 37 (41.1%) are extrovert, and 26 (28.9%) are introvert on their relations with others, 22 (24.4%) are closure, and 32 (35.6%) are open in terms of their learning tasks, 13 (14.4%) are intuitive and 46 (51.1%) are sequential to their relation with ideas, while others are 27 (30%) in global and 32 (35.6%) in analytic   in terms of their overall orientation. The table further shows that 20 (22.2%) have high self- concept, 56 (62.2%) are average, and 14 (15.6%) has low self- concept.

a) Sequential			
b) Intuitive		46	51.1
c) Both		13	14.4
	Total	31	34.4
4. Orientation to Learning Tasks		90	100%
a) Closure			
b) Open		22	24.4
c) Both		32	35.6
	Total	36	40
5. Overall Orientation		90	100%
a) Global			
b) Analytic		27	30
c) Both		32	35.6
	Total	31	34.4
Self-Concept		90	1000%
a) High			
b) Average		20	22.2
c) Low		56	62.2
	Total	14	15.6
		90	100%

The table shows that most of the students are visual learners. It means that they learn better with visualized pictures, numbers, words or pages. Furthermore, it shows that the students find it effective when pictures and tangible instructional materials are involved in the discussion. Most of the students are extrovert in relation to others. It means that they get their strengths from the people around them. They learn effectively by engaging themselves on certain activities rather than secluding themselves and working alone. The data further revealed that the students are sequential in their relation with ideas. They do things systematically, categorize and sort out information. Students like to plan on things they will do rather than

relying on their instinct. Unlike the intuitive learners, they believe in the things which they have not seen, and they rely on their imagination and their perception.

Moreover, the results showed that the students were both open and close in their orientation to the learning task. They follow directions in doing their assignments for them to meet deadlines. In the same manner, they also do not follow a specific procedure or take a particular step, but they still manage to attain their desired goal. The result also showed that the majority of the learners are analytic. They may be more likely to respond to a problem with logic first instead of emotion. These students also tend to organize things a lot. They tend to read a certain part or an excerpt rather than understanding the whole.

The table also shows that majority of the students (62.2%) have an average self-concept. They have a normal mental picture of who they are as a person. The statements were composed of 38 items, of which 31 were positive, and seven were negative. Majority of the students (62.2%) agreed to the positive statements regarding their self-concept. It means that they are capable of coping with their problems. They also tend to understand why other individuals feel less about themselves. They receive compliments without feeling embarrassed.

Furthermore, they can repair themselves. They reflect on themselves and change their behavior if needed. This is contrary to those individuals who have a negative self-concept. People who are like this are sensitive to criticisms. They are unresponsive to praises. They also tend to feel like they disliked by the people around them and are less able to interact with people.

This is similar to the findings of Nuñez (2003) where majority of the respondents are also extrovert, visual, concrete and analytic except closure. When it came to psychological factors, majority of the college freshmen education students generally used organizing and evaluating their learning as their language learning techniques.

As Gulliver and Ghinea (2009) indicated that personality type and cognitive style affect information assimilation, self-perceived achievement and student level of confidence. The results provide a better understanding of the impact of personality on the student experience of multimedia, thus allowing one to determine whether personalized educational multimedia would support or enhance the student learning experience.

Lien (2014) says that reading materials are the key for students to enjoy extensive reading. It might be not so important to give intensive reading instruction in class always but it is more significant to give students some freedom to choose reading materials and enjoy reading.

Baumeister, Campbell, Krueger, & Vohs (2003) opposed that the students frequently display a decline in self-concept during elementary school and the transition to the middle level. Self-concept is frequently positively correlated with academic performance, but it appears to be a consequence rather than a cause of high achievement.

2. Senior High School (SHS) students' Class Participation and Anomie (Sociological Factors)

Table 4 shows the frequency and the percentage distribution of Senior High School students in their class participation and anomie. There were 68 (75.6%) out of 90 respondents who were average in their class participation, 22 (24.4%) were high and 0 for low. The table further shows that majority (64.4%) of them are dissatisfied towards their native language, 32 (35.6%) are slightly dissatisfied, and 0 for satisfied.

Table 4

Distribution of SHS Student's Sociological Factors in terms of Class Participation and Anomie Level

Sociological Factors	Frequency	Percentage
Class Participation		
a. High	22	24.4
b. Average	68	75.6
c. Low	0	0
Total	90	100%
Anomie		
a) Dissatisfied	58	64.4
b) Slightly Dissatisfied	32	35.6
c) Satisfied	0	0
Total	90	100%

The table shows that most of the students are average in terms of their participation in a class discussion. It means that they are active learners. They tend to engage and take part in the different activities given by their teachers like debates, role plays, and simulation games. They allow themselves to be an independent learner rather than relying on their teachers. For these students, the discussion must be interactive and emphasize cooperative learning. They are motivated when their peers are also engaged in learning and are eager to participate during class discussions. The table further shows that majority (64.4%) of the respondents strongly agree in terms of social uncertainty and cultural dissatisfaction toward their native language. It

also shows that they prefer learning a second language rather than being stuck in their native language. Furthermore, Waray speakers are the most dissatisfied towards their native language.

This supports the study of Nuñez (2003) where students like teachers who allow students' personal flexibility and help students see themselves as independents learners.

Contrary to the study of Aidinlou and Ghobadi (2012) wherein the findings show that there is a large number of students with behavior problems, such that the classroom environment is not safe, whether physically, socially or emotionally. It draws a negative effect on student motivation. Moreover, researchers have proven that learners' tendency to participate in class arguments depend on many factors (Tatar, 2005).

3. Reading Ability of Senior High School Students

Table 5 shows the mean, standard deviation, frequency and percentage distribution of senior high school students in their reading ability. There are 10 (11.1%) out of 90 students who are good in terms of their performance in reading, 25 (27.8%) are fair, 43 (47.8 %) conditioned, and 12 (13.3%) failure.

Table 5

Reading Ability Level of the Senior High Students

	Mean	Sd	Frequency	Percentage
Excellent	0	0	0	0
Very good	0	0	0	0
Good	32.9	1.4	10	11.1
Fair	27.4	2	25	27.8
Conditioned	17.1	3.6	43	47.8
Failure	12.5	2.9	12	13.3
Total	90	10	90	100%

The table shows that some (47.8%) of the students are in conditioned level in terms of their reading ability. It means that they had difficulties in answering the reading test. They could hardly comprehend some texts that resulted to low scores.

4. Correlation between the Students' Psychological Factor (Self-Concept) and Reading Ability

The result of the correlation analysis between the respondents' self-concept and reading ability shows that there is no significant relationship between the self-concept and the reading ability of the students (r= .165, p > .05) at 0.05 level of significance. This indicates that having a positive or negative attitude towards ones' self has no significant association towards his or her reading ability.

5. Correlation between the Students' Sociological Factors Reading Ability

Table 6 shows the correlation between the sociological factors and the reading ability of the students. The results of the findings showed that there is no significant relationship between class participation (r= -.109, p > .05) and anomie (r=.070, p > .05) to the reading ability of the students.

This indicates that even if the students are good and can interact in the class discussion, it has no relation to their reading ability. Moreover, their satisfaction or dissatisfaction towards the use of their native language has also no relation with their reading ability.

This supports the study of Nuñez (2003), wherein the result of the analysis showed that

Table 6
Correlation between the Students' Sociological Factors and Reading Ability

	r
Class participation vs. Reading Ability	-.109
Anomie vs. Reading Ability	.070

majority of the learners prefer average class participation and most of the respondents are Cebuano speakers who slightly agreed that they have a feeling of social uncertainty and cultural dissatisfaction towards their first language. Nevertheless, there was no correlation between the sociological factors mentioned.

Conclusions

In conclusion, the respondents learn better with tangible instructional materials. They learn best by interacting with other people and even if they follow or do not follow a process, they still manage to attain their desired goal. Also, they prefer a step-by-step way of learning and may be more likely to respond to a problem with logic first instead of emotion. The respondents prefer an interactive class discussion rather than the teacher being the center of the

discussion. Moreover, they chose to be bilingual instead of being stuck in their native language. Most of the respondents have difficulties in reading comprehension.

Pedagogical Implications

 1. On the basis of the conclusions drawn from this study, the following implications are made:

2. The students should be versatile enough to use not one but several cognitive style.

3. Teachers should expose students to various reading activities and reading tasks to hone their ability in reading. Also, at a young age, students should be taught with reading vis-à-vis comprehension.

4. Teachers should be hands-on in giving the students various reading exercises.

5. Every school should commence a program that would impart knowledge and strengthen the reading ability of the students.

6. Classrooms must establish a reading corner within to provide an area where students could use their leisure time to read books and other instructional materials.

References

Aidinlou, N. A., & Ghobadi, S. (2012). Examination of relationships between factors affecting on oral participation of elt students and language development: a structural equation modeling approach. *International Journal of English Linguistics, 2*(5), 2-8. http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v2n5p131

Anderson. R. C. (1977). *The notion of schemata and the educational enterprise: general discussion of the conference*. Retrieved from http://education.stateuniversity.com/ pages/2175/Learning-Theory-SCHEMA-THEORY.html

Adnyana, M. (2014). Teaching reading comprehension through collaborative learning to the eighth grade students of SMPN 2 sukawati In academic year 2013/2014. 4-13.

Bandura, A. (1985). Model of causality in social learning theory. In *Cognition and psychotherapy* (pp. 81-99). Springer, Boston, MA.

Bandura, A. (1989). Social cognitive theory. *Annals of Child Development*, 6, 5-8.

Baumeister, R. F., Campbell, J. D., Krueger, J. I., & Vohs, K. D. (2003). Does high self-esteem cause better performance, interpersonal success, happiness, or healthier lifestyles?. *Psychological science in the public interest*, *4*(1), 1-44.

Du, B., & Liu, H. (2014). Networking misconduct of the students and regulatory emotional self-efficacy. *Open Journal of Social Science*, 2, 114-119. Retrieved from http://scirp.org/journal/paperinformations.aspx?paperID=45827

Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (2003). Observation and interviewing. *How to design and evaluate research in education*, *5*, 455-463.

Greenough, W. T., Black, J. E., & Wallace, C. S. (1987). Experience and brain development. *Child Development*, 58, 539-559.

Gulliver, S. R., & Ghinea, G. (2009). Cognitive style and personality: impact on Multimedia perception. *Emerald Insight*, *34*(1), 39-58. http://dx.doi.org/10.1108 /14684521011024119

K to 12 program. (2012).Retrieved from www.gov.edu.com

Lien, H. Y. (2014). EFL learners' vocabulary size in relation to their choices of extensive reading materials. *Asian EFL Journal*, *16*(4), 57-75.

LLC Company, (2016). What are psychological factors? Reference an IAC Publishing. Retrieved from https://www.reference.com/world-view/psychological-factors-1a0d49d475ccbf16

Liu, F. (2010). Reading abilities and strategies: a short introduction. *International Education Studies, 3*(3), 153-156. Retrieved from http://files .eric.ed .gov/

Nuñez, G. (2003). Pscho-sociological factors and communicative competence of freshmen education students of the leyte state university. *Unpublished thesis.* Leyte Normal University. Tacloban City

Rumelhart, D. E., Hinton, G. E., & Williams, R. J. (1988). Learning representations by back-propagating errors. *Cognitive modeling*, *5*(3), 1.

Shang, H. F. (2010). Reading strategy use, self-efficacy and EFL reading comprehension. *Asian EFL Journal*, *12*(2), 18-42.

Tatar, S.(2005). Why keep silent? the classroom participation experiences of non-native-english-speaking students. doi: 10.1080/14708470508668902

The handbook of research for educational Communications and technology. Retrieved From: http://www.aect.org/edtech/ed1/04/04-04.html

Trinity Education (2016). Retrieved from: https://www.references.com/world-view/ sociologicalfactors17698b3261cfe105

Urquhart, A. H., & Weir, C. J. (2014). *Reading in a second language: Process, product and practice*. Routledge.

Wu, H. J. (2011). Anxiety and reading comprehension performance in English as a foreign language. *Asian EFL Journal*, *13*(2), 273-307.

Integrating Humanitarian Values in Teaching Translation of Indonesian Aphorisms into English

Kasnadi
Faculty of Language and Arts
STKIP PGRI Ponorogo

Sutejo
Faculty of Language and Arts
STKIP PGRI Ponorogo

Adip Arifin
Faculty of Language and Arts
STKIP PGRI Ponorogo

Bio-Profiles:

Kasnadi is currently a lecturer at Faculty of Language and Arts, STKIP PGRI Ponorogo, East Java, Indonesia. After getting his Ph.D. in 2013 from State University of Surabaya (UNESA), he intensively did a number of studies on Indonesian Linguistics, Literature, and Discourse Analysis as well. Besides, at least fifteen books on Indonesian literature have been published nationally. He has been active presenting his research papers at various national and international conferences. Kasnadi can be contacted at kkasnadi@gmail.com

Sutejo is currently an lecturer at Faculty of Language and Arts, STKIP PGRI Ponorogo, East Java, Indonesia. He has been teaching English since 1992 on the various subjects. His research interests include Indonesian linguistics and literature, sociolinguistics, and **social and cultural issues. Sutejo has been publishing twenty seven books during his professional career. He has also been active presenting research papers for various international and national conferences. He can be contacted at** sutejo.alwaroqi@yahoo.com

Adip Arifin is the alumnus of State University of Semarang (UNNES) in 2014. He is currently a lecturer at English Education Department, STKIP PGRI Ponorogo, East Java, Indonesia. He has been teaching English since 2012 on various subjects. His research interest includes SLA, Discourse Analysis, and TEFL as well. To develop his professional career, he is currently taking his Ph.D. at the same university he pursued his master. He can be further reached at adiparifin@yahoo.com

Abstract

Indonesia is a country of high diversity culture. One of the manifestations of Indonesian's virtuous culture is the development of aphorisms in the social's life. Indonesian traditional aphorisms are the idioms which contain lots of humanitarian values for the daily life's guidance. Therefore, the virtuous values within those aphorisms, which can be followed by the youth, are worth transmitted. One of the ways applicable to transfer those values is through the teaching of Indonesian traditional aphorisms translation into English. This research is aimed at exploring the students' translation quality on Indonesian traditional aphorisms into English. This research employed descriptive qualitative case study as the design. The data were gathered from the fourteen translated texts containing ten Indonesian traditional (Javanese) aphorisms. The participants involved in this study were fourteen sixth semester Indonesian EFL students who previously got "A" in translation course. To analyze the data, Newmark's taxonomy on investigating translation quality was employed, focusing on four aspects; they were loan word, cultural equivalent, functional equivalent, and addition. To meet validity, the researchers interviewed five selected participants regarding to their understanding on humanitarian values inserted in the translation processes. The findings suggested that the students' translated texts were containing a number of inappropriateness on three categories (loan word, cultural equivalent, and functional equivalent). The cultural equivalent became the most category ignored by the students. Another finding also suggested that cultural values (especially humanitarian values) were taken into account by the participants, even though the lacks of understanding on cultural value are found.

Keywords: Humanitarian values; Aphorisms; Teaching translation

Introduction

One of the compulsory subjects for undergraduate Indonesian EFL learners is translation. Basically, this subject deals with how translating source of language into the target

language in appropriate manners. Translation does not merely mean as textually translate the language source into the target language, such as Indonesian language into English, but beyond that, more importantly, they translate value, meaning, and message. Referring to Newmark (1988), translation is defined as "a craft consisting an attempt to replace a written message and or statement in one language by the same message or statement in another language." Similarly, Haroon and Daud (2017) stated that "translation is the transfer of messages in one language to another language." For Indonesian EFL learners, translation process happens any time they learn English, even in simple process, for instance: the students cognitively translate the teacher's question, so that they give appropriate answer for the teacher in English. Translation subject is also expected to equip the learners with adequate knowledge and experience of doing translation. Therefore, the learners will have sufficient capability to translate any kind of language sources, as required by most universities in Indonesian context.

In operationalizing translation process, the students as translators have to realize the equivalent form and meaning of the source language (SL) into the target language (TL). Therefore, there should be exactly linearity both in the words form (sentence structure) and their meanings. Nida and Taber (1974), in slightly contrast, point out "translation process as a dynamic process in which the three steps of translation involved; they are analysis, transfer, and restructuring. Nida and Taber (1974) further explain that analysis happens when the translator firstly analyze both the meaning and the structure of the source language texts in a whole. After comprehending the meaning and identifying the structure, the translator needs to transfer his/her comprehension into the target language. As the final step, the translator needs to reconstruct the source language meanings into the target language meanings in accordance to accepted target language rules.

Little bit different with Nida and Taber, Larson (1984) provides similar model for doing translation process. Larson model is basically proposed as the development of the prior model, as proposed by former experts. In his model of translation process, Larson (1984) expounds the following steps, firstly, study and analyze words (including grammatical structure, context of situation, and cultural context) in source language text. After having understanding the source language text, the translator has to restructure, reconstruct, and represent the form and meaning into the target language, by strictly obeying the target language rules. Referring to above theories, one thing which is fundamental in doing translation is the conveyed meaning and message from the source language into the target language should be equally translated. Thus, translation is not only process of translating words, phrases, sentences, and texts from the source language into the target language, but also transferring meaning, moral message,

and culture value, and even "incarnating the culture in the same time" (Gao, 2009). As argued by Hilman (2015), "culture is a challenge for a translator in translating a text." With this in mind, the translator then needs to master internal and external elements of both source and target language, such as grammatical rules, dictions, and context of culture.

In cultural context, Newmark (1988:94) highlights the culture as "the way of life and it manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression". Therefore, the cultural context is embedded element of language that cannot be ignored by the translator. Related to cultural translation, Simon (1997) outlines its complexity, as in the following way:

> "[Culture] often appears in translation studies as if it had an obvious and unproblematic meaning. Translators are told that in order to do their work correctly they must understand the culture of the original text, that texts are "embedded" in a culture. The difficulty with such statements is that they seem to presume a unified cultural field which the term inhabits; the translator must simply track down the precise location of the term within it and then investigate the corresponding cultural field for corresponding realities (Simon, 1997)."

Newmark and Simon highly suggest that a translator needs to adjust what is beyond in the language source (such as meaning and value) into the target language. Furthermore, the translators should grab deeper to provide equal translation text. So that, there will be no loss and missing "message" in the translated target texts, because in the same time, translator takes the role as the communicator. A good translator should ideally re-contextualize source language text into the target language text (House, 2015).

In Indonesian EFL tertiary education context, the translation subject is often given by highlighting numerous concepts but minimum exposures and experiences. The translation mostly focuses on literal translation, which tends to explore the surface structure more rather than deep structure. Therefore, the common practices in teaching translation for Indonesian EFL learners are translating various English texts into Indonesian, and vice versa, for instance: narrative texts, descriptive texts, academic texts, exposition texts, short story, and other text types (see e.g.: Hartono, 2010; Zulprianto, 2013; Djatmika, *et al*., 2014; Yuwono, 2015; Al Farisi, 2015; and Sandra, 2018). Thus, most of Indonesian EFL learners are familiar with various types of text. The studies have also confirmed that those aforementioned various texts were easily found and used as the source language (SL). For many Indonesian EFL learners, translation process can be very hard, exhausted, and challenging phase since they have

minimum exposure to empirically experience and operationalize translation process. In fact, they get only two credits of translation subject along the pursuing of bachelor degree.

In one hand, the giving of two credits only for translation subject is dilemma. The teacher always requires the students for being the good translators who are able to appropriately translate the source language into the target language in various manners. But in the other hand, the narrow and limited exposure to teach translation is simultaneously given, due to the limited time allocation. This gap has been appearing since very long time in Indonesian EFL context, without any concrete solution so far, whereas the Indonesian English teachers have claimed that translation is significant subject for any language learner (see e.g.: Nurbayan, 2019; Salam, *et al*., 2017; Tiwiyanti and Retnowati, 2017; Napitupulu, 2017; Yolanda and Yuliasri, 2016; and Ninsiana, 2014).

In respond to the significance of translation studies toward English learners, the recognition on the importance of translation study has been significantly increased since the last decade. This recognition is widely acknowledged through a number of journal articles, books, online articles, and conference papers. In Indonesian EFL context, a number of studies dealing with translation have been continuously conducted (see e.g.: Hartono, 2010; Zulprianto, 2013; Djatmika, *et al*., 2014; Kamil, 2014; Yuwono, 2015; Al Farisi, 2015; and Sandra, 2018). Besides, the importance of the translation has been documented in many referred books (see e.g.: Nida, 1964; Newmark, 1988, 1991; Baker, 1992; Nord, 1997; Nida and Taber, 2003; and House, 2015). The growing body of research on translation has also been performing through a number of international publications throughout the world (see e.g.: Na, 2005; Chen, 2009; Zhang and Wang, 2010; Extremera, 2015; Jibreel, *et al.,* 2017; and Yuan, 2018). Other recognition on translation studies has also been presenting through a number of online articles, academic forums, translation conferences, and so forth.

The increasing body of research in translation as mentioned earlier, in fact, is not in line with the increasing translation studies on aphorisms. So far, the translation studies on aphorisms remain few. Even, none of the previous studies mentioned above dealt with aphorisms, especially Indonesian traditional aphorisms. Aphorisms are cultural-based content that very rare used as source language text, whereas they are easily to find. Most of the aforementioned studies were focusing on translation quality text of selected literary works, by taking the specific objects, for instance: Yolanda and Yuliasri (2017) analyze the translation quality of pun in novel *Tolkien's The Hobbit.* Tiwiyanti and Retnowati (2017) investigate culture-specific items in Indonesian novel (*Lintang Kemukus*). In the area of academic text, Yuwono (2015) and Napitupulu (2017) focus on analyzing translation quality of article

abstracts. Other studies, Nurbayan (2019) and Al Farisi (2014) investigates the quality of translation from Arabic into Indonesian by specifying on metaphor and speech act. While Djatmika *et al* (2014) analyzed the translation quality on translated book, English into Indonesian. Other similar studies, conducted by Salam, *et al* (2017) and Kamil (2014) focus on investigating Indonesian-English translation errors in which the data are taken from online application, *Crowdsourcing* Translation Application and Twitter Web pages. While Ninsiana (2014) studies the translation quality of English bidding document, translated from Indonesian into English.

Besides in the national context, the increasing body of investigation on translation studies is also performed internationally. Chen (2009) and Zhang and Wang (2010) utilize Chinese idioms to be translated into English. Chen (2009) investigates on the translation quality of Chinese-English idioms translation, while Zhang and Wang (2010) specify their study on investigating the use of functional equivalence theory Chinese-English idioms translation. More structurally, Na (2005) investigates the translation errors made by the learners in realizing topic-comment structures, from Vietnamese into English texts. Other researchers, such as Jibreel (2017) interested in exploring the relationship of learners' translation strategies awareness and their translation quality which involved 144 Yamani students taking the translation subject. Similar with many other studies on translation who involved literary works translation, Yuan (2018) conducts a study on exploring the different roles of translated literature played in the Chinese literary system from the 1920s to the present. Another study on translation was also conducted by Ghourchian (2012). He focuses on analyzing speech act translation, taken from Persian drama into English.

Observing the previous studies, as presented earlier, the study on investigating translation texts on Indonesian traditional aphorisms into English remains unexplored. To fill the gap, the study on exploring the translation study of Indonesian traditional aphorisms into English is necessary to conduct. Therefore, this present study is intensively aimed at exploring the learners' translation quality on Indonesian traditional aphorisms into English. Through this study, the students are also expected to internalize such humanitarian values contained in Indonesian traditional aphorisms, such as patience, cooperativeness, hard work, responsibility, and tolerance. These values were officially inserted in the latest document of curriculum for national education in Indonesia. The curriculum requires every teaching and learning activity needs to instill and integrate the national character values, among of them are patience, cooperativeness, hard work, responsibility, and tolerance, as previously mentioned. The big impetus of this present study also comes from the researchers' interest in analyzing Indonesian

EFL learners' translation studies, which still remaining various issues to address. Moreover, studies on analyzing Indonesian EFL learners' competence on translating local cultural based-content texts into English are found few.

Methodology

Research Design

The present study employed case study which aimed at investigating Indonesian EFL learners' translation quality on Indonesian traditional aphorisms into English. The type of design is chosen due to its applicability and appropriateness in enabling the researchers to investigate the object (translation quality). Case study belongs to qualitative in nature; therefore, this design is also commonly known as qualitative case study. As descriptive study in nature, this present research neither intervenes the subjects nor treats them due to its main objective that is to explore the quality of the Indonesian - English aphorisms translation, translated by the Indonesian EFL learners in the undergraduate level (tertiary education).

Participants

The study involved fourteen participants of Indonesian EFL learners, consisting of eight females and six males. They were in the sixth semester, majoring English at one of private universities in Indonesia (the name of university was pseudonymized). Previously, they got "A" (excellent) on translation course. This pre-condition is applied in order to get qualified participants under the research. Their ages were varied from 20 to 25 years old. The whole participants were experienced learning English since they were in the primary school. Furthermore, the participants were homogeneous in their mother tongue, Javanese, an Indonesian local language. The fourteen participant's names were intentionally pseudonymized to ethically avoid any threat appears.

Data

The data in this study were mainly gained from the fourteen students' translated texts which contained ten Indonesian traditional aphorisms. In this case, the ten Indonesian traditional aphorisms took the role as the source language (SL), while ten relevant English aphorisms functioned as the target language (TL). The researchers intentionally chose the ten Indonesian traditional aphorisms which considered containing the humanitarian values. The data were primarily in the form of descriptive (qualitative). Another data were taken from the students' interview, regarding to their understanding on cultural equivalent (humanitarian

values) inserted in the translation processes, including: patience, cooperativeness, hard work, responsibility, and tolerance.

Data Analysis

Data analysis technique employed in this study was content analysis. Technically, Newmark's taxonomy (1988) on investigating translation quality was employed, focusing on four aspects; they were loan word, cultural equivalent, functional equivalent, and addition. Loan word refers to common technique of translation that is applicable when equivalent word of the target language from source language is unavailable, for example: Javanese language *batik*, translated in English into exactly the same *batik*. Cultural equivalent refers to certain translation technique that enables the translator to match the source language and target language equivalence of words related to culture, for example: Indonesian language *kakus*, translated into English word *toilet*. Even though they have difference in physical form (building), but *kakus* and *toilet* are equal in their function as the place for urinating or defecating. Functional equivalent refers to the translation technique in which the translator comprehends the idea of the terms in source language and finds the words that express the same idea in the target language. Moreover, functional equivalent conveys the same idea, meaning, concept, and intent as conveyed by the original word, such as Indonesian word *sholat,* possibly translated into *Islamic prayer*. Lastly, addition refers to technique of translation that adds more specific information towards the words in target language.

Findings and Discussion

This section presents the findings and subsequently followed by the discussion on each displayed finding. Before presenting the result of analysis on students' translated text, the ten Indonesian traditional aphorisms and their suggested English translation is firstly displayed to give better understanding on the topic discussed, as shown in the following table:

Table 1: Recommended English translation for Indonesian traditional aphorisms

Indonesian traditional aphorisms	Suggested English aphorisms
Sehat iku larang regane	Health is better than wealth
Desa mawa cara negara mawa tata	When you in Rome, do as romans
Alon-alon waton kelakon	Slow but sure
Cakra manggilingan	Life is like a wheel
Dhuwur wekasane, endhek wiwitane	Big things have small beginnings
Kakehan gludhug, kurang udan	A barking dog never bites
Gusti ora sare	God never sleeps
Iro yudho wicaksono	With our courage, wisdom bears no fruit
Nglurug tanpo bala, menang tanpo ngasorake	A brave man acknowledges the strength of others.
Rukun agawe santoso, crah agawe bubrah	We are only as strong as we are united, as weak as we are divided

In table 1, the researchers proposed the possible translation of ten Indonesian traditional aphorisms into English. The translation made by prioritizing the cultural equivalence, rather than other aspect of translation. This is made in order to meet the linearity (equivalence) in case of meaning, message, and cultural value in the targeted text. As Newmark (1988) highlighted, cultural and meaning equivalence is more important item to translate, compared to words structure and lexical items.

To have concrete view on students' translated texts of Indonesian aphorisms into English in a whole, see the following table:

Table 2: Analysis on students' translated text

Student	Loan word	Cultural equivalence	Functional equivalence	Addition
A	-	6	3	-
B	-	5	3	-
C	-	5	2	-
D	-	7	4	-
E	-	3	2	-
F	1	3	2	-
G	-	5	4	-
H	-	6	5	-
I	-	4	2	-
J	-	6	3	-
K	-	5	3	-
L	1	2	2	-
M	-	8	5	-
N	-	4	3	-

Table 2 shows that from the ten aphorisms they have to translate; only some of the texts fulfill the cultural equivalence. For instance, student A was able to translate six out of ten Indonesian aphorisms into English, which fulfilled the cultural equivalence. Furthermore, student A was able also to translate three Indonesian aphorisms that meet the functional equivalence criteria. In a whole, none of student who is able to translate all Indonesian aphorisms into English by emphasizing the cultural equivalence, while the best achiever (Student F) was able to complete only eight translations of the source text, ten Indonesian traditional aphorisms.

The findings presented in table 2 also inform that the participants (students) were able to apply functional equivalence. It means that, even though there is no totally similar lexical item in the target language representing the source language, but the students were able to choose the functional equivalence as the alternative option in translation. The result of analysis, hence, suggests that identification of the meaning in source language has been successfully carried out by the students. Interestingly, the students used no addition category in their

translated texts. This finding shows the good news since the students are able to translate texts in equal structure and probably meaning

Loan word

Loan word or also known as transference, which refers to common technique of translation that is applicable when equivalent word of the target language from source language is unavailable, for example: Javanese language *keris*, is translated in English into exactly the same *keris,* which means the Javanese traditional handmade weapon. Based on the findings, the loan word used by the students found few. There were only two loan word used by student F and L. The loan word they used was *cakra.* The detail translation can be observed in the following sample:

Source text : *Cakra manggilingan*

Target text : *Life is like a chakra.*

The source text *Cakra manggilingan* refers to the situation where any individual is sometimes up, and sometimes down. This aphorism suggests everyone to learn enjoying the life in whatever situations they face. This aphorism also teaches the students for keep hoping and working to do the best in any situation. The use of *cakra* in target text simply represents the borrowing technique in translation, even though the term loan word they used slightly differed in spelling, *cakra* into *chakra*. Even though the term *chakra* in English does not refer to *wheel,* but it refers to one of the seven centers of energy within the human body (Cambridge Online Dictionary). This term is usually used linked to yoga and traditional South Asian medicine activities. So the source text *cakra* basically has nothing to do with *chakra* in target language, because they are totally different in meaning. Overall, the findings suggested that the students were able to insert cultural equivalence in translating the term *cakra*, becomes *wheel,* as in the suggested translation in the table 1.

Based on the interview, conducted to know the use of loan word, both participants (student F and L) acknowledged that the term *chakra* was assumed having the totally same meaning, as *cakra* in source language. They thought there was no meaning difference between *cakra* and *chakra*. They also acknowledged that the term *chakra* in their target texts was borrowed from the source language. Therefore, it could be clearly argued that student F and L had lack of meaning comprehension.

Cultural equivalence

Cultural equivalence refers to certain translation technique that enables the translator to match the source language and target language equivalence of words related to culture, for example: Indonesian language *dukun*, translated into English word *medicine man.* The Indonesian term *dukun* refers to the traditional healer who is capable in curing someone's disease, while *medicine man* in English refers to person who is able to do healing by empowering the special magic power. What has been done by the translator as the example, translating *dukun* into *medicine man,* is categorized as the cultural equivalence.

Based on the analysis, the findings which containing the cultural equivalence can be observed in various translated text, for instance:

Source text : *Sehat iku larang regane.*

Target text : *Wealth is better than wealth.*

The source text of aphorism if literally translates will possibly be like this: *Health is priceless*, or might be *health has very expensive price.* If it is translated so, the meaning will not be equal. Moreover, the literal translation will not meet the cultural equivalence. This aphorism teaches Indonesians for being responsible for their own health. In other words, keeping healthy is everyone's responsibility. Another corpus of cultural equivalence can be seen in the following sample:

Source text : *Kakehan gludhug, kurang udan.*

Target text : *A barking dog never bites.*

If the source text of aphorism is literally translated will possibly be like this: *More thunder less rain*, or might be *Too many thunder but no rain.* If it is translated so, the meaning will not be naturally equal. In addition, this kind of translation will not fulfill the cultural equivalence. For Indonesians, this aphorism highly suggests for not only talking, but more importantly act or do something. Another possible translation which culturally equivalent is "*No action talk only.*" Even though the structurally the source and the target language are unequal, but they are equal in cultural context.

Functional equivalence

Functional equivalent simply refers to the equivalence of idea, meaning, concept, and intent as conveyed by the original word, such as Indonesian word *kakus,* possibly translated into *toilet*. Even though they have difference in physical form (building), but *kakus* and *toilet* are equal in their function as the place for urinating or defecating. Functional equivalent refers to the translation technique in which the translator comprehends the idea of the terms in source

language and finds the words that express the same idea in the target language which represents the same/equal function.

Based on the findings, functional equivalence can be observed in the following samples:

Source text : *Dhuwur wekasane, endhek wiwitane.*

Target text : *Big things have small beginnings.*

The above source text of Indonesian traditional aphorism if literally translates will possibly be like this: *High at the end, short at the beginning,* or might be *High position starts with little beginnings.* If it is translated so, the meaning will be obviously unequal. Moreover, the literal translation will not meet the functional equivalence. *Dhuwur wekasane* then translated into *Big things,* which both structurally and culturally are unequal, but functionally equal. In this case, *Dhuwur wekasane* and *Big things* refer to the same meaning as someone's success, achievement, and possibly high level position.

This aphorism teaches Indonesians for being the courage person to start doing. In other words, working hard is compulsory for everyone. Therefore, this aphorism tells people to immediately take the first step and throw out the doubt. Furthermore, the aphorism reminds us that everything is always began with the first action (step). In English, another possible translation for source text *Dhuwur wekasane, endhek wiwitane* is *A thousand miles begins with a single step.*

Addition

Addition refers to technique of translation that adds more specific information towards the words in target language. When the translated texts add more information, which sometimes unnecessary, to provide more specific of the detail, the addition category is applied by the translator. In fact, additional information is often displayed through various forms, such as: within the target text, giving the footnotes at the bottom of pages, giving notes at end of section/chapter, and providing the notes or glossary at the end of the book.

Based on the findings, as presented in the table 2, unfortunately, the whole translated texts contained no addition category. This becomes the good news since the students are able to translate texts in equal structure and probably meaning. Addition, as suggested by Hilman (2015) is often found in translating cultural-based content. For instance, source text *budeng* translated into *the budeng*, *tropical blackish long-tailed monkey.* Looking at to that translation, more information accompanies *the budeng,* is provided. Therefore, the example belongs to addition category.

Pedagogical Implication

Considering the significance of the translation studies for Indonesian EFL learners, and the urgency of equally realizing cultural values into the target language, the pedagogical implication could be formulated in the following ways; firstly, since teaching translation is also understood as translating meaning and culture, both EFL teachers and learners are necessary to cooperatively engage in realizing translation studies by employing various techniques and materials as well. The teaching translation should expose the students' competences, involving their knowledge and cultural understanding in equal portion. Giving more experiences and practices of translation activities can be taken into account by Indonesian EFL teachers. Besides, the teacher should assist students with sufficient understanding on target language culture.

Secondly, materialization of teaching translation needs to adjust both source and target language culture. Therefore, selecting and scrutinizing suitable source language becomes the starting point of teaching translation in Indonesian EFL context. This possibly enables the learners to achieve wider understanding and experiences on the target language culture, although they have never been living in the countries where English becomes the first language or national language. Providing such various activities of translating cultural-based content is also important for them, such as aphorisms, proverbs, idioms, and other local wisdom texts.

Lastly, since the time allotment of the translation studies in Indonesian EFL context is very limited, equal to two credits during the seeking of undergraduate degree, teachers ideally need to work harder. This has become another problem for teaching translation which is never been solved before. Indonesian EFL institutions, especially for tertiary education, need to evaluate the time allotment given. They are expected to find alternative breakthrough, so that, the problem can be minimized, and even solved. Furthermore, the present study may provide the new insight of translating aphorisms and may be considered as the starting base to further study on "unexplored" area.

Conclusion

Considering the goal of the study, the findings, and the result of analysis, the findings suggested that the students' translated texts were containing a number of inappropriateness on three categories (loan word, cultural equivalent, and functional equivalent, but not in addition category). The cultural equivalent became the most category ignored by the students. Another finding also suggested that cultural values (especially humanitarian values) were taken into account by the participants, even though the lacks of understanding on cultural value are found.

Acknowledgment

References

Al Farisi, Z. (2015). Speech Act of Iltifat and its Indonesian Translation Problems. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics,* 4(2). Retrieved from http://ejournal.upi.edu/index.php/IJAL/article/view/685

Baker, M. (1992). *In other Words: A Course Book on Translation*. London: Sage Publication.

Chen, L. (2009). On Translatability of English Idioms. *Asian Social Sciesnce,* 5(2). Retrieved from http://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/ass/article/view/431

Gao, Y. (2009). On Cultural Differences in the Two English Versions of A Dream of Red Mansions. *Asian Social Science,* 5(3). Retrieved from http://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/ass/article/view/242

Ghourchian, M. (2012). Speech Acts in Drama Translation. *The Asian EFL Journal,* 60(2). Retrieved from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com

Haroon, H. and Daud, N. S. (2017). The Translation of Foreign Words in an English Novel into Malay. *GEMA Online® Journal of Language Studies,* 17(1). Retrieved from http://ejournal.ukm.my/gema/article/view/14240/5247

Hartono, R. (2010). Translating Metaphores from English into Indonesian: Problems and Solutions. *Language Circle*, 4(2). Retrieved from https://journal.unnes.ac.id/nju/index.php/LC/article/view/902/841

Hilman, E. H. (2015). The Translation of Indonesian Cultural Lexicons in the Novel Saman. *Lingua Cultura,* 9(1). Retrieved from https://journal.binus.ac.id/index.php/Lingua/article/view/763/740

House, J. (2015). *Translation Quality Assessments*. Routledge

Kamil, M. A. (2014). An Analysis of English-Indonesian Translation Quality on Twitter Web Pages. (A Case Study). Retrieved from http://ejournal.upi.edu/index.php/L-E/article/view/744/540

Larson, M. L. (1984). *Meaning-based Translation: A Guide to Cross Language Acquisition*. New York: University Press of America Inc.

Na, P. P. Q. (2005). Errors in the Translation of Topic-Comment Structures of Vietnamese into English. *The Asian EFL Journal,* 7(3). Retrieved from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com

Napitupulu, S. (2017). Analyzing Indonesian-English Abstracts Translation in View of Translation Errors by Google Translate. *International Journal of English Language and Linguistics Research,* 5(2). Retrieved from http://www.eajournals.org/wp-content/uploads/Analyzing-Indonesian-English-Abstracts-Translation-in-view-of-Translation-Errors-by-Google-Translate.pdf

Newmark, P. (1988). *A Textbook of Translation*. Hertfordshire: Prentice Hall.

Nida, E. A. and Taber, C. R. (1974). *The Theory and Practice of Translation*. Leiden: E. J. Brill.

Ninsiana. W. (2014). Grammatical Cohesion Devices on the Indonesian Translation of English Bidding Document. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 2(6). Retrieved from http://www.sciencepublishinggroup.com/j/ijll

Nurbayan, Y. (2019). Metaphors in the Quran and its Translation Accuracy in Indonesian. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics,* 8(3). Retrieved from http://ejournal.upi.edu/index.php/IJAL/article/view/15550

Salam, Z. M., Akil, M., and Rahman, A. Q. (2017). Translation Errors Made by Indonesian-English Translators in Crowdsourcing Translation Application. **ELT Worldwide, 4(2).** Retrieved from http://ojs.unm.ac.id/ELT/article/view/4503

Sandra, R. A. (2018). From English to Indonesia: Translation Problems and Strategies of EFL Student Teachers: A Literature Review. International Journal of Language Teaching and Education, 2(1). Retrieved from https://online-journal.unja.ac.id/IJoLTE/article/view/-4520/3282

Simon, S. (1997). Translation, Postcolonialism and Cultural Studies. *Meta: Journal des Traducteurs*, 42(2), 462-477. doi: 10.7202/004153.

Tiwiyanti, L. and Retnomurti, A. B. (2017). Loss and Gain in Translation of Culture-Specific Items in Ahmad Tohari's Lintang Kemukus: A Semantic Study. *Lingua Cultura,* 11(1). Retrieved from https://journal.binus.ac.id/index.php/Lingua/article/view/1820/2759

Yolanda, R. and Yuliasri, I. (2016). Technique and Quality of English – Indonesian Translation of Pun in Tolkien's The Hobbit. *English Education Journal*, 6(1). Retrieved from https://journal.unnes.ac.id/sju/index.php/eej/article/view/12801

Yuan, M. (2018). Translation, Modernity, Acceptability—From Language Reform to Cultural Resistance in Translation Practice in China. *3L: Language, Linguistics, Literature*, 24(3). Retrieved from http://ejournals.ukm.my/3l/-article/view/25804/8368

Yuwono, D. (2015). Translation Quality of Translated Abstracts from Indonesian to English in the Journal of STAIN Ponorogo 2015. *Jurnal Bahasa dan Sastra,* 2(2). Retrieved from http://lppmstkipponorogo.ac.id/jurnal-bahasa-dan-sastra/publikasi-ilmiah/

Zhang, Q. and Wang, J. (2010). Application of Functional Equivalence Theory in English Translation of Chinese Idioms. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 1(6). Retrieved from http://www.academypublication.com/-issues/past/jltr/vol01/06/20.pdf

Zulprianto. (2013). Literalness in Translating Texts from English into Indonesian. *Proceedings of National Seminar on English Language Teaching*. Retrieved from http://ejournal.unp.ac.id/index.php/selt/article/download/6798/5337

Pedagogical Practices on Preschool Learners' Language Skills Development

Gay Maribel Lynda M. Mina, PhD

Cagayan State University, Philippines

gae_mina@yahoo.com

Abstract

While there is no doubt that education in the early years is crucial, providing access to education to young children is only the first step. The next step and a more crucial factor to the children's success is the quality of early childhood education they receive. Hence, this study endeavored to explore the pedagogical practices of public preschool teachers along the children's development of language skills. Specifically, it described the extent of use of pedagogical practices by the public preschool teachers along domains of development such as receptive, expressive, and cognitive language skills using assessments along these domains of development based on basic education standards. The respondents of the study were public preschool teachers and pupils. Data were elicited through the use of questionnaire, Philippine Early Childhood Development Checklist from the Department of Education and interview. Analysis of data included the weighted mean, category mean, and Likert scale. Results show that teachers always observe the use of almost all practices to develop the receptive, expressive, and cognitive language skills of the preschoolers. It is concluded that although the preschool teachers always use the pedagogical practices along the different domains of language development, there needs to be a more carefully planned implementation and monitoring of their own practices for preschoolers' optimal development.

Keywords: cognitive language skills, expressive language skills, pedagogical practices, receptive language skills

Introduction

Children come into the world eager to learn which makes their first five years of life as a time of enormous growth of linguistic, conceptual, social, emotional and motor competence.

Right from birth, a healthy child is an active participant in that growth, exploring that environment, learning to communicate and in relatively short order, beginning to construct ideas and theories about how things work in the surrounding world. The pace of learning, however, will depend on whether and to what extent the child's inclinations to learn, encounter and engage supporting environments. There can be no question that the environment in which a child grows up has a powerful impact on how the child develops and what the child learns.

While there is no doubt that education in the early years is crucial, providing access to education to young children is only the first step. The next step and a more crucial factor to the children's success is the quality of early childhood education they receive. Premised on this idea, an equally important question that early childhood educators consider is what factors determine quality in preschool years.

It can be gainsaid that early childhood education not only introduces children to schooling but also to life-long learning where foundation to quality life begins. Seminal in children's learning are the preschool educators. It is in children's early years when a teacher learns first-hand what it means to teach a child. It is at this point that a teacher begins to share the shaping of a child with the society. The relationship between teachers and children begins at this time and so do relationships between and among children in the class. Preschool education, then, does not only serve as a gateway into formal schooling for the children, but also care and learning for the teachers. Quality in early childhood education therefore includes how well children are introduced to basic education.

It is obvious that early childhood education goes beyond some of the factors usually considered in evaluating an education system. The structural requirements such as safe and healthy environments, low pupil to teacher ratio, adequate learning materials, and level of teacher education, are still relevant, but as important, are the relationships forged at this stage between teacher, children and parents (Lipsky and Gartner, 2010).

Early childhood teachers support learning by providing activities and materials that children find engaging. By facilitating learning, supplying a developmentally appropriate environment, interesting materials, and adequate time to explore, play, and interact, children find learning easy and fun as they are nurtured and nourished as well. Nurturing a child encompasses all aspects of development: physical, social, emotional, cognitive, and moral. In every interaction, a teacher nurtures appropriate growth and development.

There is no doubt that one of the most important factors which contribute to the educational development of the young child is the opportunity to play, explore and socially interact in a structured learning environment under the guidance of a teacher.

The role of training in preparing teachers for the challenges of the preschool classroom cannot be ignored either. If teachers are to embrace new ideas and new thinking and to keep up to date with current research which has implications for practice, it is essential that in-career opportunities are available to them. This requirement for trainings, however, is observed to be one of the weaknesses of childhood educators.

As an early childhood teacher, one needs to be challenged to find new experiences to share with children as s/he guides and moves them in a direction that interests the children. As a guide, the teacher allows the children to choose their learning and playing style while making safety still of primordial concern. A childhood teacher is expected to be willing to wear many hats. Whether one is experienced or is new in the teaching profession, s/he considers flexibility as job description may change on a daily basis. In most cases, the teacher's role becomes very similar to that of a guide who leads children down new paths, joins them in their journey, and keeps them from harm.

Paperwork, lesson planning, preparing materials and the environment, and negotiating tasks with learners require teachers to have strong management skills. Essentially, managing a classroom requires organizational skills, attention to detail, and commitment, to name a few.

Consistent with the classroom management skills are the pedagogical practices that preschool educators bring into their classroom which makes early childhood education, the most beneficial. It is in these classrooms where children apply what their parents have taught them to a practical setting and have their first interactions with people outside of their family. Beginning with children as young as two, teachers guide them through an important transition which focuses on "learning through play" by providing a hands-on, interactive atmosphere where children learn about themselves through playing with other children. Tasks like teaching children how to share, how to take turns, and how to have manners are some few activities where the pedagogical practices can be anchored in.

Children this young also have more physical demands than older students. Many preschools incorporate a nap time into their schedule or are on half-day schedules to accommodate a child's exhaustion after a long morning of playing and learning. Teaching young children requires nothing short of complete devotion and perseverance. It can be a daunting task, but to a truly committed teacher, it is worth the effort. Unfortunately, all these ideal practices seem to be absent in the preschool education especially in the public education system.

Over the years, there is much debate over what is covered by an ideal preschool curriculum, but in actuality, early childhood is a period of such tremendous growth and

curiosity that it is hard to decide exactly what and when a child needs to learn, and how a child learns. Underscoring all these requisites to an ideal preschool curriculum are the pedagogical practices that effect optimal learning of children in the process.

In view of the aforementioned issues, the researcher was moved to look for more measures in employing best pedagogical practices in the preschool education by identifying what makes children more interested to learn and how effective are these pedagogical practices in the child's language learning specifically.

Conceptual Framework

The emergence of the preschool education as an essential requisite to the K – 12 curriculum calls for a review of the content, strategies of instruction in the classroom, and pedagogical practices of preschool educators for a more deliberate and effective articulation between children's learning and children's development. These two goals cannot be undertaken without a thorough and systematic evaluation of the teacher's performance and children's reception for learning.

The teaching approaches and teaching strategies utilized by the teacher in preschool classroom are determined by their pedagogical practices. These pedagogical practices consider the language development of children along these areas: receptive, expressive, and cognitive language skills development. The pedagogical practices are believed to have a big impact on the holistic development of children. Teachers make many decisions that can be informed by an understanding of the context in which children live. These decisions include curricular and instructional decisions about materials and methods used in the classroom. Understanding the role of school in the child development is vitally important. Children in a way are handed over to trained teachers, and are ideally nourished and bestowed with great support, good teaching practices based from prepared and well-developmentally appropriate curriculum.

Interlanguage Theories

The term "interlanguage" was first used by Selinker (1969) to describe the linguistic stage second language learners go through during the process of mastering the target language. Since then, 'interlanguage' has become a major strand of second language acquisition research and theory. This section outlines the three main approaches to the description of interlanguage systems.

According to Selinker (1972), interlanguage is a temporary grammar which is systematic and composed of rules. These rules are the product of five main cognitive processes:

i) Overgeneralisation. Some of the rules of the interlanguage system may be the result of the overgeneralisation of specific rules and features of the target language.

ii) Transfer of Training. Some of the components of the interlanguage system may result from transfer of specific elements via which the learner is taught the second language.

iii) Strategies of Second Language Learning. Some of the rules in the learner's interlanguage may result from the application of language learning strategies "as a tendency on the part of the learners to reduce the TL [target language] to a simpler system" (Selinker, 1972:219).

iv) Strategies of Second Language Communication. Interlanguage system rules may also be the result of strategies employed by the learners in their attempt to communicate with native speakers of the target language.

v) Language Transfer. Some of the rules in the interlanguage system may be the result of transfer from the learner's first language.

Selinker's description of the interlanguage system has a cognitive emphasis and a focus on the strategies that learners employ when learning a second language. A different approach to the theory of interlanguage was adopted by Adjemian (1976) in his attempt to describe the nature of the interlanguage systems. Adjemian argues that interlanguages are natural languages but they are unique in that their grammar is permeable (Adjemian, 1976). He also differentiates between the learning strategies that learners employ and the linguistic rules that are "crucially concerned in the actual form of the language system" (Adjemian, 1976:302). Adjemian (1976) concludes that the description of these linguistic rules that will reveal the properties of the learner's grammar should be the primary goal of linguistic research.

The third approach to the description of interlanguage was initiated by Tarone (1979, 1982). She describes interlanguage as a continuum of speech styles. Learners shift between styles according to the amount of attention they pay to language form- from the superordinate style in which attention is mainly focused on language form to the vernacular style in which the least attention is paid to language form. The new target language forms first appear in the more careful style and progressively move towards the vernacular style. The systematic variability of interlanguage systems is reflected to the variable effect which the different tasks and different linguistic contexts have on the learners'

use of syntactic, phonological and morphological structures (Tarone, 1982). Even though Tarone does not deny that other theories can provide explanations of second language acquisition, she argues that "any adequate model of SLA [second language acquisition] must take IL [interlanguage] variation into account" (Tarone, 1990:398).

Different approaches were employed for explaining the acquisition of interlanguage and how learners discover and organize form-function relationships in a second language. Ellis (1985) argues that learners begin with forms which are used in free variation during the early stages of second language acquisition (non-systematic variability) until more organizing and restructuring has taken place (systematic variability).

In contrast to Ellis's claims, the functional approach to the analysis of interlanguage argues that discourse functions develop before grammatical functions and evidence is provided of the acquisition of function occurring without the acquisition of form (Pfaff, 1987).

The role of the mother tongue (L1) in the acquisition of the target language (L2) was re-examined under the scope of the interlanguage theory and predictions were made about when the influence of L1 is greatest. Zobl (1980a, 1980b) investigated the L1 influence on L2 acquisition and argued that it is "the formal features of L2 that control the formal aspects of its acquisition, including the activation of L1 transfer" (Zobl, 1980a:54, 1980b)

Anchored on the foregoing, this study premises on the interlanguage theory first used by Selinker (1969) to describe the linguistic stage second language learners go through during the process of mastering the target language. According to Selinker (1972) interlanguage is a temporary grammar which is systematic and composed of rules. These rules are the product of five main cognitive processes: (1) overgeneralisation, (2) transfer of training, (3) strategies of second language learning, (4) strategies of second language communication, and (5) language transfer. Interlanguage system has a cognitive emphasis and a focus on the strategies that learners employ when learning a second language.

However, only three of these five rules are assumed to influence children's language development depending on the teacher's transfer of training as some components of the interlanguage system may result from transfer of specific elements via which the learner is taught the second language. Also, teachers' strategies of second language learning as some of the rules in the learner's interlanguage may result from the application of language learning strategies "as a tendency on the part of the learners to reduce the TL [target language] to a simpler system". Lastly, teachers' strategies of second language communication as

interlanguage system rules may also be the result of strategies employed in their attempt to communicate with native speakers of the target language.

Research Objectives

Generally, this study aimed to determine the pedagogical practices of the public preschool teachers along domain of language development. Specifically, it described the extent by which the preschool teachers observe the pedagogical practices along the domain of language development: receptive, expressive, and cognitive language skills.

Research Methodology

Research Design

The study made use of the descriptive research design. It was used to determine the extent of the pedagogical practices of the preschool teachers along receptive, expressive, and cognitive language skills development of preschool learners.

Locale of the Study

This study covered the twenty-three preschools in the two districts of Peñablanca, Cagayan which are all government institutions in Region 02. These public schools offer basic education, called to protect and promote the right of every Filipino to quality, culture-based, and complete basic education. As a learner-centered public institution, its mission is to provide learners a child-friendly, gender-sensitive, safe and motivating environment, where teacher facilitates learning and constantly nurtures and develops every child for a life-long learning. All public preschools in both districts were chosen as respondent schools.

Respondents of the Study

The respondents of the study were the twenty-three (23) public preschool teachers in public preschools of the East and West Districts of Peñabalanca Cagayan. Complete enumeration was used considering the small population size.

Research Instrument

To generate data pertinent to the study, the assessment of pedagogical practices took the quantitative form with the use of a survey questionnaire.

The study made use of the "Philippine Early Childhood Development Checklist," a study of classrooms, a questionnaire and an interaction analysis system. It was lifted from the

"Philippine Early Childhood Development Checklist" which was issued by the Department of Education to all preschools in the Division of Tuguegarao City, Region 02. The Survey Questionnaire was floated to the teacher-respondents. Survey questions were answered from tick-off choices, with provisions for responses other than those listed. An interview was held to gather additional insights on pedagogical practices.

Data Gathering Procedure

A formal request for survey and classroom observation was secured from the Office of the Department of Education, the school division superintendent, district supervisors, and the principals of the different public preschools in Peñablanca, Cagayan. Before permission from the respective heads was sought, the researcher made an initial survey on the number of public preschools and the number of pupils enrolled in each preschool and on the number of public preschool teachers from each of the target school respondents. For this to be facilitated, she referred it to the records section officer of each preschool.

Public preschool teachers were then asked to answer the survey questionnaire. Interview was then conducted to validate their responses to the survey questionnaire.

Data Analysis

The study involved an assessment-type analysis which required the use of weighted means. Moreover, to analyze the data on the frequency of using practices to develop the receptive, expressive, and cognitive language skills, the scale below was used:

Numerical Value	Descriptive Value
3.26 – 4.00	Always
2.51 – 3.25	Almost always
1.76 – 2.50	Seldom
1.00 – 1.75	Never

Results and Discussions

Extent of Observing Pedagogical Practices
along Domains of Language Development

The preschool teachers were asked to assess the extent of their observation of different pedagogical practices along domains of language development such as receptive, expressive

language, and cognitive language skills. Of the three (3) domains of language development, receptive language skills received the highest frequency followed closely by cognitive language skills, then by expressive language skills.

Pedagogical Practices on Receptive Language Skills

Table 1 exposes the preschool teachers' frequency of using practices to develop the receptive language skills of the preschoolers. Receptive language skills refer to the child's understanding of spoken language which involves the ability to relate words to objects, events and ideas they stand for.

The preschool teachers were asked to identify the frequency of their use of the five practices that were listed and all of these five practices were reported by them as observed **"Always"**. Their responses were not spread out on all of the items as shown by their weighted means which were close to one another. For *letting the children point their eyes, nose, mouth, hands and feet* and *asking the children to get a block/toy from under the table and then place it on the table,* the teachers gave both a weighted mean of 3.65. These practices were closely followed by *asking the children to put a block/toy under the table; on the table; in the bag* with a weighted mean of 3.61. The last two items *asking the children to point his mother/caregiver* and *showing to children a picture book (one*
picture per page) and asking him to point the picture were given a weighted mean of 3.57.

As gleaned from the table, preschool teachers give practical demonstrations to their learners to understand language rather than merely teaching them the language. The findings indicate that the practical activities offered to preschoolers are found to be helpful by their teachers; thus, the constant use of the practices by them. It could be understood that language is best comprehended when it is used in contexts that learners can easily absorb such as demonstrating the concept and asking learners to perform and to point it out through the parts of their bodies. Teachers then, are more conscious of what language to use for students to learn and to better understand and eventually, be able to apply concepts in real life, which in this case, are imperative for little minds to foster.

The findings show that when preschoolers are actively engaged in learning the language, that is, through teachers' constant use of appropriate practice, they would be encouraged to use the language as well, as this helps them effectively process their ideas.

Relative to the above findings is the concept of communicative language teaching as posited by Richards (2006) as teachers play the role of facilitator and monitor their students'

development while giving the latter greater degree of responsibility for their own learning. Similarly, Kirk, et.al.(2016) support that <u>humans</u> are extremely good at quickly <u>teaching and learning</u> new tasks through situated instructions; tasks such as learning a novel game or household chore and excellent at communicating information through multiple modalities, including visual, <u>linguistic</u>, and physical ones.

Table 1. Frequency of using practices to develop the receptive language skills of the preschoolers.

Practices	Weighted Mean	Description
1. I ask the children to point their mother/caregiver.	3.57	Always
2. I let the children point his eyes, nose, mouth, hands and feet.	3.65	Always
3. I show to children a picture book (one picture per page) and ask him to point the picture.	3.57	Always
4. I ask the children to put a block/toy under the table; on the table; in the bag.	3.61	Always
5. I ask the children to get a block/toy from under the table and then place it on the table.	3.65	Always
Category Mean	**3.61**	**Always**

Legend:

3.26 – 4.00 Always

2.51 – 3.25 Almost always

1.76 – 2.50 Seldom

1.00 – 1.75 Never

<u>Pedagogical Practices on Expressive Language Skills</u>

Table 2 reveals the preschool teachers' frequency of using practices to develop the expressive language skills of the preschoolers. Expressive language skills refer to the child's ability to use spoken language – to talk which involves use of verbal means to express ideas and feelings.

When asked which specific practice do they observe most frequently, the preschool teachers responded that they **"Always"** use 6 practices out of the 8 practices that were listed. Two practices were observed **"Almost Always"** by the preschool teachers.

From among those practices that were always observed, *showing to children a picture book, pointing to an object in the book, then asking him to name this* got the highest weighted mean of 3.69 which was followed by *providing materials and activities to stimulate expressive language development of children like "show and tell" activities"* with a weighted mean of 3.65. The four items that were also always observed received weighted mean of 3.48 for *using hands-on activities and giving supplementary activities as homeworks*, 3.45 for *planning structured activity to give opportunities for children to express themselves, tell and relate their stories and experiences*, 3.43 for *taking chance for informal conversation with pupils especially during unstructured activities* and 3.39 for *encouraging children to re-tell a short line of any story being told, using verb-noun combinations*. Practices that were almost always observed by preschool teachers are *using collaborative approach in the teaching and learning process to sustain shared thinking* and *facilitating quality play situations focusing on the process by asking exploratory questions* with weighted men of 3.17 and 3.09, respectively.

As gleaned from the table, preschool teachers love the use of picture books to serve as springboards in eliciting responses from the learners. This finding could be attributed to the fact that picture books are the same materials that learners are actually fond of. There seems to be a correspondence between what learners enjoy the most with what the teachers actually provide. Language use remains to be the greatest challenge among preschool teachers especially in the foundation years of the child. When teachers are able to let their learners say a word, or even to express what they think or simply need at a young age, their learners would most likely succeed in other communication activities.

It should be stressed that teachers effectively use the expressive language practices for "language is the heart of the curriculum. Theoretically, language learning and proficiency would be most crucial at this point since language is basically speech, and as speech, it is basically oral.

Essentially, communication skills become children's fundamental tool to convey their wants and needs, to be understood, to socialize, and to enjoy life's best as they become part of a larger circle of learners not just in the school but in the society, at large. Teachers, therefore, need to discover their learners' needs of using the language. This way, they can teach in a way that is appealing to most students, if not all, and do what works best for them in developing their communication skills.

It goes without saying as Long (2005) postulated that better-conducted needs analyses, after all, will enhance the quality of language teaching programs based upon them, and, thereby, success rates for language learners.

Along this vein, Widyasari (2018) advanced awakening students' spatial-visual intelligence on learning vocabulary can be assumed very useful on provoking students to have their autonomy in learning and giving a chance for them to explore their ability without feeling shame and reluctant. The students may be stimulated to make words list whenever they see pictures or experience some events in their daily life and that will increase their vocabularies much better than in the class setting.

Table 2. Frequency of using practices to develop the expressive language skills of the preschoolers.

Practices	Weighted Mean	Description
1.I take chance for informal conversation with pupils especially during unstructured activities.	3.43	Always
2. I facilitate quality play situations focusing on the process, by asking exploratory questions.	3.09	Almost Always
3. I use collaborative approach in the teaching and learning process, to sustain Shared thinking.	3.17	Almost Always
4. I plan structured activity to give opportunities for children to express themselves, tell and relate their stories and experiences (do this during circle time)	3.45	Always
5. I provide materials and activities to stimulate expressive language development of children like "show and tell" activities.	3.65	Always
6. I use hands-on activities and gives supplementary activities as home works.	3.48	Always
7. I encourage children to re-tell a short line of any story being told, using verb noun combinations	3.39	Always
8. I show to children a picture book, point to an object in the book, then ask him to name this.	3.69	Always
Category Mean	**3.41**	**Always**

Legend:

3.26 – 4.00 Always

2.51 – 3.25 Almost always

1.76 – 2.50 Seldom

1.00 – 1.75 Never

Pedagogical Practices on Cognitive Language Skills

Table 3 bares the preschool teachers' frequency of using practices to develop the cognitive language skills of the preschoolers. Cognitive refers to thinking skills, such as learning, understanding, problem solving, reasoning, memorizing, and attending and how they apply learned concepts to everyday situations.

Of the skills and practices listed that received the category mean of 4.47 which is described as **"Always"**, three items topped the list with weighted mean of 3.78 and 3.74. These three practices *providing children manipulative materials and arranging them in random order using flashcards*, *planning for conservation and classification activities(e.g. instructing the children to sort things)*, and *providing children activities on classifying and sorting objects like putting together objects with the same color and the same size.* The preschool teachers gave *planning for role playing activities and asking parents' help to do it"* with a weighted mean of 3.22 and *planning for pretend play activities* with a weighted mean of 3.17 less frequency of use as both practices were only **"Almost Always"** observed by them.

Consistent with their thrust in shaping learners in their foundation years, teachers play the role of promoting the repertoire of cognitive and affective characteristics and skills that the young child needs to develop through their expectations, their teaching strategies, and their curricular emphases. They occupy a crucial position in the process of enabling children to move towards understanding and learning. It is they who mediate the world to their pupils, judiciously selecting its constructive forces, facilitating children's encounters, always conscious of the children's existing knowledge and their capacity to learn through communication.

Oxford (2003) posited that mastery of the fundamentals of learning is not only important in aiding language learners in consolidating vocabulary, acquiring basic structures, and accumulating the necessary linguistic and communication skills, but such mastery of learning skills puts the learners in an active control of their own learning experiences. It must

be added however, that culture and practice have been found to exert a significant influence on the development of such orientation to learning.

As gleaned from the table, teachers maximize all possible avenues to hone the cognitive skills of the learners. The most frequent use of tangible materials such as flashcards to teach learners how to think, anchors on their being visual and tactile learners, who learn best when they see and touch things. It is also believed that learners who have developed skills in learning-how-to-learn will be better able to exploit classroom learning opportunities effectively, and will be more adequately equipped to continue with language learning outside of the classroom (Wong and Nunan, 2011). Furthermore, putting into context teacher development (TD), Adamson (2018) studied learner behaviour and attitudes towards English language study which he professed are essential for the expatriate teaching community to be effective teachers in the Thai context and which is strongly believed to work as well in the present context of the study.

Table 3. Frequency of using practices to develop the cognitive language skills of the preschoolers.

Practices	Weighted Mean	Description
1. I provide open- ended materials such as blocks and pretend props.	3.43	Always
2. I sustain child- directed approach through interacting with objects and objects where children construct an understanding of concept identification of objects, relationship between and among objects.	3.30	Always
3. I use teacher directed approach and provide opportunities for my pupils to develop necessary skills needed to achieve cognitive and social competency.	3.39	Always
4. I encourage children to explore and make comparisons with the objects, materials and play objects.	3.52	Always
5. I provide nomadic devices and use tangible materials in teaching, materials that are suitable to their age.	3.65	Always
6. I provide eye-coordination exercises such as getting the attention of children by dropping any object in front of them. I do this individually.	3.57	Always

7. I plan "object permanence" activities for children.	3.39	Always
8. I plan for role playing activities. I ask parents' help to do it.	3.22	Almost Always
9. I plan teacher-directed activities.	3.48	Always
10. I provide object permanence activities such as pick a boo.	3.26	Always
11. I plan for pretend play activities.	3.17	Almost Always
12. I demonstrate to children how to match things and let them do it individually.	3.52	Always
13. I provide children manipulative materials and arrange them in random order, I let them also match colors through those materials.	3.61	Always
14. I provide children manipulative materials and arrange them in random order using flashcards.	3.78	Always
15. I plan for conservation and classification activities (e.g. instructing the children to sort things)	3.74	Always
16. I provide children activities on classifying and sorting objects like putting together objects with the same color and the same size.	3.74	Always
17. I plan "disinterring/centering, classification" activities for children.	3.43	Always
18. I provide hands on materials on this activity.	3.43	Always
19. I provide paper and pencil activities.	3.43	Always
20. I let children do film viewing and later ask them some questions.	3.35	Always
21. I let them re-call households items.	3.35	Always
Category Mean	**3.47**	**Always**

Legend:

3.26 – 4.00 Always

2.51 – 3.25 Almost always

1.76 – 2.50 Seldom

1.00 – 1.75 Never

Pedagogical Implications

This study was conceived as a simple way of showing the researcher's concern toward the realization of the primordial concern of a preschool education, that is, to establish the quality foundation of young learners through careful planning and quality delivery instruction of preschool educators, and ultimately increase the level of learners' performance to meet the physical, social, intellectual, emotional, and moral demands of higher levels of education. Furthermore, it was also envisioned that with this study, the development program of public preschools may be upgraded. With the findings of this study, this may call for a challenge to curriculum planners as the results may reveal the strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum so that necessary revisions, redirection, and adjustments will be made within the context of preschool educational goals.

This study in particular provides a takeoff point for preschool administrators with reference in planning and in deciding for a development program and a plethora of pedagogical practices that are beneficial, relevant and useful to both preschool teachers and learners. Furthermore, the findings may be of use as basis for recommendations of feasible and doable strategies and activities to encourage teachers seize all the opportunities to develop their learners holistically not only considering language domain but also physical, social, intellectual, emotional, and moral aspects as these are equally crucial in young learners' development.

Conclusion

Based on the findings of the study, it is concluded that although the preschool teachers always use the pedagogical practices along the different domains of language development, their frequency of use of receptive language skills more often than their use of practices to develop expressive language skills calls for a review in the current pedagogy to ensure optimal language learning development of preschool learners especially contextualizing the foundation in which language learning develops.

Recommendations

In the light of the findings and the conclusions made, the following are recommended: (1) preschool teachers are encouraged to do more evaluation of their pedagogical practices to tailor fit to the needs of the preschoolers so as to help the young minds have better developmental changes; (2) observation studies to validate whether the practices are actually implemented as they are claimed; and (3) similar studies may be conducted to include private

preschools as locale of the study, looking into teachers' pedagogical practices and how these compare with the public preschool teachers' practices.

References

Adamson, J. (2005). *Teacher development in EFL: What is to be learned beyond methodology in Asian contexts.* Asian EFL Journal, 7(4), 74-84.

Fun, M. 2000. *Kindergarten children's use of oral language and social interaction in developing emerging composing skills.*

Gulay, H. et.al. 2010. *The effects gross motor skills in pre-school children have on their peer relations and social status.* Research Journal of Biological Sciences.

Hofer, G. 2006. *Pedagogical beliefs and practices of teachers of high and low performing pupils in Elementary Mathematics.*

Inal, et.al. 2012. *Using technology in pre-school education.* US- China Education Review.

Lipsky, D. and Gartner, A. (1996). Inclusion, School Restructuring, and the Remaking of American Society. *Harvard Educational Review* 66:4, 762-797. Online publication date: 10-Feb-2010.

Kirk, J. et.al. (2016). *Learning task goals interactively with visual demonstrations.* Biologically Inspired Cognitive ArchitecturesVolume 18, October 2016, Pages 1-8 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bica.2016.08.001

Long, M. (2005). *Second language needs analysis.* Cambridge University Press.

Mahmood, S. (2013). *First-year preschool and kindergarten teachers: challenges of working with parents.* School Community Journal.

Montroy, J. et.al. 2014. *Social Skills and Problem Behaviors as Mediators of the Relationship between Behavioral Self-Regulation and Academic Achievement.* Early Childhood Research Quarterly.

Nobuyuki, O. 2013. *Teacher- student relationship and self-concept development on students in the early grades.* UP Diliman.

Oxford, R. L. (2003). Language learning styles and strategies: Concepts and relationships. *Iral*, *41*(4), 271-278.

Richards, J. (2006*). Communicative language today.* Cambridge University Press. https://www.researchgate.net

Santos, E. (2008). *Environment and school readiness of preschool age children.*

Seldin, T. (2006). *How to raise an amazing child the Montessori way.*

Widyasari, F. (2018). *Teaching Vocabulary by Enhancing Students' Spatial-Visual Intelligence.* The Asian EFL Journal. Volume 20 Issue 1, pp. 19-26.

Wong, L. L., & Nunan, D. (2011). The learning styles and strategies of effective language learners. *System*, *39*(2), 144-163.

Language Learning Strategies of EFL Students of Open and Distance Higher Education in Indonesian Context

Fauzy Rahman Kosasih

Universitas Terbuka – Indonesia

Jalan Cabe Raya, Pondok Cabe, Kota Tangerang Selatan, 15418 - Indonesia

Bio-Profile:

Fauzy Rahman Kosasih is a lecturer of Universitas Terbuka (Open University of Indonesia). His main research interests are in the areas of ESP, needs analysis, EFL curriculum and materials development, and online and distance learning. He can be reached at fauzyrahman@ecampus.ut.ac.id

Abstract

Each student may require different ways of learning, processing and analyzing the information available. Language learning strategies (LLSs) is one of the ways to enhance learner autonomy and create a student-centered learning environment. Since limited study of language learning strategies used by language learners in open and distance learning (ODL) especially in Indonesian context can be identified, this study aimed to: a) investigate language learning strategies used by EFL student of open and distance higher education, b) explore whether there are differences or not between gender and their language learning strategies. This study employed a descriptive and survey-based quantitative study. This study revealed that metacognitive strategy is the most frequent strategy used by EFL students of open and distance higher education in Indonesia. This study found that there is no a significant difference between gender and their language learning strategies.

Keywords: language learning strategies, EFL student, open and distance higher education

Introduction

With the application of a student-centered learning (SCL) approach in higher education (HE), there is necessarily a shift in focus from academic teaching staff to the learner (Attard, Ioio, Geven, & Santa, 2010, p. 6). Thus, Attard et al. (2010) explained that the student is the focal point of the process, the role of the teacher remains paramount, particularly when one considers that learners are not all the same. Each student may require different ways of learning, researching and analyzing the information available. One of the ways to enhance learner autonomy and create student-centered learning environment is through the use of language learning strategies (LLSs) (Gursoy, 2010, p. 164).

In relation to language learning, Cohen (1990, p. 4) defined the term it as "processes that are consciously selected by learners and that may result in actions taken to enhance the learning or use of second or foreign language through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language." Studying learners' language learning strategies can be beneficial for teachers (Brown, 2007) because "often poorer learners don't have a clue as to how good learners arrive at their answers and feel that they can never perform as good learners do and by revealing the process, this myth can be exposed" (Grenfell, Harris, & V., 1999, p. 73).

Many studies on LLSs have been conducted to investigate learning strategies used by the second language (L2) learners started in the mid of 1970s. Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) reported the characteristics of good language learners and how they acquire the target language. Those studies also reported that "less able learners used strategies in a random, unconnected, and uncontrolled manner" (Oxford, 2003, p. 10).

Within ten years back, there have been several studies conducted to investigate language learning strategies in different specific areas. Gursoy (2010) conducted a study investigating language learning strategies used by children in learning English as a foreign language context in an attempt to develop a taxonomy. It indicates that children used a different strategy from adults and adolescent in learning English as a foreign language. It was claimed as the first study investigating language learning strategies used by EFL children of primary school. Radwan (2011) explored the use of language learning strategies by EFL students in a university in Oman. The results of the study revealed that the students used metacognitive strategies significantly more than the other strategies. It also revealed that there is no a difference between male and female language learning strategies. Tam (2013) conducted a study investigating language learning strategies of university learners in Hong Kong. The study

revealed that gender, second language proficiency, and socioeconomic status would influence the use of language learning strategies by the learners. Erarslan & Hol (2014) carried out a study investigating Turkish EFL learners' language learning strategies at a state university in Turkey. It was reported that Turkish EFL adult learners used meta-cognitive strategies as the highest strategy and the affective strategy as the lowest strategy.

Some previous studies have also been carried out by researchers in Indonesia. Mulyani, Haryanto, and Dollah (2014) investigated the characteristics of good Indonesian language learners (GLLs), GLLs' language learning strategies, and the way GLLs plan, monitor, and evaluate their learning. Findings of the study revealed that there are seven characteristics of Indonesian good EFL learners. Another finding of the study revealed that Indonesian GLLs used various language learning strategies. Setiyadi, Sukirlan, and Mahpul (2016) investigated the way Indonesian EFL successful learners employed language learning strategies. It was found from the study that different language skills were significantly correlated with the use of different learning strategies.

There is still a gap within which minimal study of language learning strategies used by language learners in a distance learning context can be identified. Twelve years ago, a previous study by Xiao & Hurd (2007) investigated language learning strategies used by learners of a distance university in China. Findings of the study revealed that Chinese distance English learners gradually shifted from dependence on teachers to a more autonomous learning approach. Five years ago, a study conducted by Altunay (2014) explored LLSs used by EFL Turkish Distance Learners. Findings from the study found that affective strategies were the least one to be used among other strategies.

This study contributes to fill the current empirical gap and enrich the literature of EFL learners' language learning strategies, especially in open and distance learning context. It has two main objectives: firstly, to investigate language learning strategies used by EFL students of open and distance higher education in the Indonesian context. Secondly, it is to explore whether there are differences or not between gender and their language learning strategies. The expected results could help the distance learning institution to design, develop, and implement language learning instruction effectively (Cohen, 2014; Tanjung, 2018). It also would help to establish teaching quality assurance as to the recommended implication (Herrera & Murry, 2011).

Literature Review

Language Learning Strategies

Historically, several studies have reported that the progression of research interest in language learning strategies (LLSs) has begun since the 1970s (Xiao & Hurd, 2007; Gursoy, 2010; Zare, 2012; Tam, 2013). The most recent definition of language learning strategy that can be identified from the available literature is from Richards & Platt (1992). They defined it as "intentional behavior and thoughts used by learners during learning to better help them understand, learn, or remember new information" (ibid, p. 209). Another definition comes from Stern (1992). Stern stated that language learning strategies is widely conceived intentional directions and learning techniques" (1992, p. 261).

Four experts have developed taxonomies of LLSs. The first taxonomy is from O'Maley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo (1985). In 1985, O'Malley et al. made a classification of language learning strategies consisting of a) metacognitive strategies, b) cognitive strategies, and c) socio-affective strategies. The second taxonomy of LLSs is from Rubin (1987). It has three main categories, i.e., a) learning strategies (cognitive learning strategies and metacognitive learning strategies), b) communication strategies, c) social strategies.

The third, Oxford (1990) proposed a taxonomy of LLSs. It classifies the taxonomy into two main categories, i.e., a) direct strategies (memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and compensation strategies), b) indirect strategies (metacognitive strategies, affective strategies, and social strategies). Moreover, the last taxonomy that can be identified so far is from Stern (1992). It has five categories, i.e., a) management and planning strategies, b) cognitive strategies, c) communicative – experiential strategies, d) interpersonal strategies, and e) affective strategies. This study uses Oxford's (1990) LLSs taxonomy as the basis since it is extensively used worldwide to get learners' language learning strategies information (Tam, 2013; Chamot, 2004)

Open and Distance Learning

In open and distance learning (ODL), the internet is a medium which shortens the distance between student and instructor and time-efficient (Suciati, 2011). United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2002) published a book entitled "Open and Distance Learning: Trends, Policy, and Strategy Considerations." One of the statements from the book is about the difference of ODL with 'conventional' learning. ODL is

considered as an educational process in which most of the teaching is managed by someone or institution removed in space and time from the learner, with the effect that all or most of the communication between teachers and learners mediated by digital, electronic or printed media. In distance learning, the primary means of communication is through technology.

In higher education institutions, ODL is under increasing pressure to meet learners' demand for flexibility, as learners have an increasingly diverse background and needs (Belawati & Zuhairi, 2007). This challenge needs to find a way out. One of the solutions is by investigating learners' learning strategies. Therefore, this study focuses on exploring language learning strategies used by EFL students of open and distance higher education, especially in the Indonesian context.

Method

Research Design

This study employed descriptive and survey-based quantitative study.

Population

The population of this study was the third-semester student teachers of an English Education Department of an open and distance higher education in Indonesia. Because the population is large, this study decided to take sample from the population.

Sample

Sample of this study was selected by using purposive random sampling technique. This study took 82 student teachers (41 male and 41 female) as the sample. It was above 10% of the total population as suggested by Hill (1998), Alreck & Settle (1995), and Gay & Diehl (1992).

Instruments of Data Collections

To collect the data, this study used a questionnaire of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) from Oxford. It is because SILL is "the most extensive questionnaire for obtaining information on language learning strategies of subjects and is frequently used in studies worldwide" (Tam, 2013, p. 11; Chamot, 2004), "accepted as the most influential instrument in the area of language learning strategies" (Erarslan & Hol, 2014, p. 5).

SILL consists of fifty questions divided into six categories, i.e., memory strategies (9 questions), cognitive strategies (14 questions), compensation strategies (6 questions), metacognitive strategies (9 questions), affective strategies (6 questions), and social strategies (6 questions). Some additional changes were made to the questionnaire to get the data about

gender, age, and academic achievement. The reliability of SILL through (Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Test) was reported in previous studies, i.e., .92 (Erarslan & Hol, 2014), .883 (Xiao & Hurd, 2007). Those reports indicated that the reliability of SILL is high.

Data Analysis

Concerning the data collection technique employed in this study, the collected data were analyzed as follows. Data from the questionnaire were analyzed by using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 21. In interpreting the strategy use frequency, the study followed the scale from Xiao & Hurd (2007).

Table 1. The scales of strategy use level

Scales	Meaning
1.0 – 2.0	Low Level of Strategy Use
2.1 – 3.9	Medium Level of Strategy Use
4.0 – 5.0	High Level of Strategy Use

Results and Discussion

Language Learning Strategies of EFL Student teachers of Open and Distance Higher Education

Following the scale from Xiao & Hurd (2007), Table 2 shows that 21 items were highly used including metacognitive strategy (9 items), cognitive strategy (5 items), social strategy (3 items), compensation strategy (1 item), affective strategy (1 item), memory strategy (2 items). Table 2 also shows that 29 items were used at a medium level including cognitive strategy (9 items), social strategy (3 items), compensation strategy (5 items), affective strategy (5 items), memory strategy (7 items). The results show that there was no item from SILL test that was used at a low level.

Table 2. The ranking of frequency level of language learning strategies of EFL student teachers of open and distance higher education

Ranking	Item No	Mean	SD	Ranking	Item No	Mean	SD
1	33	4,46	0,71	26	39	3,91	1,00
2	32	4,45	0,83	27	10	3,90	0,94
3	31	4,34	0,76	28	13	3,89	0,94
4	30	4,33	0,82	29	20	3,85	0,77
5	35	4,28	0,82	30	22	3,84	1,00
6	15	4,26	0,90	31	25	3,83	0,95

7	38	4,22	0,83	32	4	3,79	0,77
8	12	4,17	0,93	33	46	3,73	1,19
9	14	4,17	0,86	34	17	3,72	1,03
10	36	4,15	0,88	35	21	3,70	0,76
11	45	4,13	0,87	36	18	3,67	0,90
12	47	4,11	0,98	37	19	3,61	0,81
13	29	4,10	0,88	38	7	3,55	0,97
14	37	4,10	0,88	39	24	3,55	0,98
15	40	4,06	0,87	40	9	3,54	1,01
16	16	4,05	0,95	41	28	3,52	0,91
17	50	4,05	0,91	42	26	3,51	0,97
18	1	4,04	0,76	43	41	3,49	1,23
19	34	4,02	0,83	44	5	3,30	1,06
20	8	4,01	0,92	45	48	3,17	1,18
21	11	4,00	0,75	46	6	3,13	1,30
22	23	3,98	0,87	47	42	3,13	0,99
23	49	3,95	0,87	48	27	3,11	0,94
24	2	3,94	0,92	49	44	3,05	1,20
25	3	3,91	0,93	50	43	2,80	1,26

Table 3 shows the overall mean and standard deviation of each strategy calculated in Table 2. From Table 3, the metacognitive strategy was the most frequently used strategy followed by cognitive, social, compensation, memory, and affective strategies.

Table 3. Descriptive analysis of the results of all six categories of the students' LLSs

Strategy	Mean	SD
Metacognitive	4.26	0.82
Cognitive	3.91	0.89
Social	3.86	1.00
Memory	3.69	0.96
Compensation	3.60	0.94
Affective	3.41	1.09

Most frequent

⇕

Least frequent

*N = 50

223

From Table 2 and Table 3, it can be concluded that the most common strategy used by them was the metacognitive strategy. Meanwhile, the least common strategy used by them was the affective strategy.

This finding indicates that both EFL students of face-to-face universities as revealed by previous researchers (Erarslan & Hol, 2014; Radwan, 2011) and EFL students of open and distance higher education as shown in this study and a study from Altunay (2014) used metacognitive language learning strategies higher than the rest of other strategies (cognitive, compensation, memory, social, and affective strategies).

EFL Student teachers' Gender and Their LLSs

Table 4 shows the differences and similarities of language learning strategies of EFL students of open and distance higher education based on gender. On the one hand, there are differences in terms of the mean of each strategy used by male and female, but on the other hand, Table 4 shows the similarities of the ranking of LLSs used by both male and female.

Table 4. EFL student teachers' gender and their LLSs

Strategy	Mean of Male (41)	Ranking of LLSs Used by Male	Mean of Female (41)	Ranking of LLSs Used by Female
Memory	3,73	4	3,66	4
Cognitive	3,88	2	3,95	2
Compensation	3,58	5	3,63	5
Metacognitive	4,26	1	4,26	1
Affective	3,28	6	3,54	6
Social	3,76	3	3,96	3

This finding also shows that, both in face-to-face as shown in Radwan (2011) and open and distance higher education as shown in this study, there is no a difference between gender and the use of language learning strategies by the EFL students.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Conclusions

From findings and discussions, this study concludes that metacognitive strategy is the most frequently used strategy followed by cognitive, social, compensation, memory, and affective strategies. The mean for each strategy used by male and female was different but in terms of ranking of the use of each strategy was the same for both male and female.

Recommendations

For further researchers who are interested in carrying out a similar topic, this study recommends selecting more participants from different semester to enrich the data that have been collected and analyzed in this study. For the Indonesian open and distance higher education, this study recommends to consider the EFL students' metacognitive language learning strategies as one of the elements to design, develop, and implement language learning instruction effectively and it is in line with Cohen (2014) and Tanjung (2018).

Acknowledgment

References

Alreck, P. L., & Settle, B. R. (1995). *The survey research handbook* (2nd ed). Chicago: Irwin.

Altunay, D. (2014). Language learning strategies used by distance learners of English: A study with a group of Turkish distance learners of EFL. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education*, *15*(3), 291–305. https://doi.org/10.17718/tojde.30083

Attard, A., Ioio, E. D., Geven, K., & Santa, R. (2010). *Student centered learning: an insight into theory and practice*. Bucharest: n.d.

Belawati, T., & Zuhairi, A. (2007). The practice of a quality assurance system in open and distance learning: A case study at Universitas Terbuka Indonesia (the Indonesia Open University). *The International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, *8*(1).

Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching 5th ed.* (ed). New York: Pearson Education, Inc.

Chamot, A. U. (2004). Language learning: Insights for learners, teachers, and researchers. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, *1*(1), 12–25.

Cohen, A. D. (1990). *Language learning: Insights for learners, teachers, and researchers*. New York: Newbury House.

Cohen, A. D. (2014). *Strategies in learning and using a second language*. London and New York: Routledge Taylor & Francis Group. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315833200

Erarslan, A., & Hol, D. (2014). A study on language learning strategies of Turkish EFL learners at a state university. *Journal of Second and Multiple Language Acquisition – JSMULA*, *2*(2), 1–10.

Gay, L. R., & Diehl, L. P. (1992). *Research methods for business and management*. New York: Macmillan.

Grenfell, M., & Harris, V. (1999). *Modern languages and learning strategies*. London: Routledge.

Gursoy, E. (2010). Investigating language learning strategies of EFLchildren for the development of a taxonomy. *English Language Teaching*, *3*(3), 164–175. https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v3n3p164

Herrera, S., & Murry, K. (2011). *Mastering ESL and bilingual methods: Differentiated instruction for culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) students* (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Hill, R. (1998). What sample size is "enough" in internet survey research? In *Interpersonal Computing and Technology: An Electronic Journal for the 21st Century* (Vol. 6, pp. 1–10).

Mulyani, S., Haryanto, & Dollah, S. (2014). GLLs revisited: Language learning strategies employed by good Indonesian EFL learners. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *5*(37), 146–161.

O'Maley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Kupper, L. J., & Russo, R. P. (1985). Learning strategies used by beginning and intermediate ESL students. *Language Learning*, *35*(1), 21–46.

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

Oxford, R. L. (2003). *Language learning styles and strategies: An overview*. n.d: Gala.

Radwan, A. A. (2011). Effects of L2 proficiency and gender on choice of language learning strategies by university students majoring in English. *Asian EFL Journal*, *13*(1), 115–163.

Richards, J., & Platt, J. (1992). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*. Essex: Longman.

Rubin, J. (1975). What the "good language learner" can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly*, *9*(1), 41–

51.

Rubin, J. (1987). Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In A. Wenden, Rubin, & J. (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning* (pp. 15–30). Englewood, NJ: Prentice/Hall International.

Setiyadi, B., Sukirlan, M., & Mahpul. (2016). How successful learners employ learning strategies in an EFL setting in the Indonesian context. *English Language Teaching*, *9*(8), 28–38.

Stern, D. H. (1975). What can we learn from the good language learner? *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *31*(4), 304–308.

Stern, H. H. (1992). *Issues and options in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Suciati. (2011). Students' preferences and experiences in online thesis advising: A case study of Universitas Terbuka. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education – TOJDE*, *12*(3), 215–228.

Tam, K. C. (2013). A study on language learning strategies (LLSs) of university students in Hong Kong. *Taiwan Journal of Linguistics*, *11*(2), 1–42.

Tanjung, F. Z. (2018). Language learning strategies in English as a foreign language classroom in Indonesian higher education context. *Language and Language Teaching Journal*, *21*(Supplement), 50–68. https://doi.org/10.24071/llt.2018.Suppl2106

UNESCO. (2002). *Open and distance learning: trends, policy, and strategy considerations*. Paris: Division of Higher Education UNESCO.

Xiao, J., & Hurd, S. (2007). Language learning strategies in distance English learning: A study of learners at Shantou Radio and Television University. *Television University, China. The Journal of Asia TEFL*, *4*(2), 141–164.

Zare, P. (2012). Language learning strategies among EFL/ESL learners: A review of literature. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, *2*(5), 162–169.

ASIAN EFL JOURNAL   The EFL Professional's Written Forum

The Impact of Socio-Demographic Profile and English Performance of Grade 7 Students to Mathematics Performance

Catherine P. Alipio

Teacher III

Baggao National Agricultural School-Sta. Margarita Annex

Sta. Margarita, Baggao, Cagayan Philippines

Bionote

Catherine Pascual Alipio, Teacher III, is currently teaching at Baggao National Agricultural School as classroom mathematics teacher and bookkeeper designate, math department coordinator, Alternative Learning System, President of the school Teachers' Association, school planning team member, vice chair of the school child protection committee, and vice chair of NDEP.

She finished bachelor of Secondary Education major in mathematics at Cagayan State University at Lal-lo as Cum Laude. She holds a Master of Arts in Education major in Educational Management degree. She has been in the teaching service for 14 years.

Abstract

The study generally assessed the impact of socio-demographic profile and English performance of grade 7 students to mathematics performance. Specifically, it determined the socio-demographic profile of the students, their academic performances in English and Mathematics, and the relationships between profile variables and academic performance in English and Mathematics.

The descriptive correlational design was utilized in the study. A questionnaire was the primary data-gathering tool among the 40 purposively chosen respondents. Data were analyzed using both inferential and descriptive statistics.

Findings show that the grade 7 students obtained 75-79 average grade in mathematics while 80-84 in English. Sex significantly affected the students' grade both in English and in mathematics. Finally, the students' academic performance in English greatly affected their academic performance in mathematics.

It concluded that the grade 7 students perform satisfactorily in English, but fairly satisfactory in Mathematics. Moreover, the female students perform better than the males both in English and in mathematics. Finally, when the performance of the grade 7 students in English is high, their performance in mathematics is also high.

Since the academic performance of the grade 7 students in mathematics is fairly satisfactory, the mathematics teachers should device ways by which mathematics teaching becomes easy, interesting and meaningful to the students by introducing innovative teaching strategies like instructional gaming and the like and by using interesting and innovative instructional materials like video clips and other ICT materials. Since the students are weak in mathematics and in English, the administrators and curriculum planners should strengthen the mathematics and English curriculum to provide students with the necessary background and strong foundation in both subjects.And since English significantly affect mathematics performances of students, both the English and mathematics teachers should plan for activities that would enhance both the English and math proficiencies of the students.

A follow – up study/ies should be conducted to look into the other factors like pedagogy, teacher, school, learning styles, study habits and other factors that may affect the academic performances of students in English and mathematics.

Introduction
Study Background

Quality education is usually assessed based on the students' academic performances. Student performance greatly affects the school because it is one of the major indicators of the school performance. Based on observations, Mathematics has the lowest performance among other fields despite of so many trainings, seminars and workshops conducted for teachers and made some interventions to improve the teaching-learning processes. Mathematics teachers have been trained with variety of strategies and pedagogies in teaching. The use of instructional materials, IMs and ICTs, in teaching have been also taught to them and other interventions that may enhance teachers' teaching ability.

Based on the results of the 2018 National Achievement Test (NAT 10) , our school is not performing well . Result of NAT are as follows: Filipino 60.83, Araling Panlipunan 56.02, Science 38.34, English 50.13 and Math 40.37. It was noted that Mathematics has still the lowest performance among other subject areas. The Baggao National Agricultural School-Sta. Margarita Annex now considered the very low NAT result as a critical problem and this issue had become a critical aspect for us the Mathematics teachers . Performances in the field of Mathematics have been a considerable attention. In this regard, the school , together with the Mathematics teachers should address this issue and focus on improving the quality of education to obtain a positive impact to students and to the community.

Because of the commitment to improve the academic performance of students, educationists and many researches continue to pursue additional efforts to determine which factors more likely affect the students in general; to look into the specific factors that have major impact on the performance of students in Mathematics. Identifying the effects of various factors on students' academic performance is of great importance to educators and psychologists (Sansgiry et al. 2006). Studies have shown that the factors influencing students' GPA may include students' proficiency in English, student's self-motivation, application of time managing skills, students' learning styles, type of study references, study skills and socioeconomic status of students (Ahmed et al. 1988; AlFayez et al. 1990; Sansgiry et al. 2006; Sleight & Mavis 2006.

Moreover, many researchers also studied the students' demographic and academic characteristics that are associated with students' performance in mathematics. It has been determined by Nout M. Alhajrah and Aishah Alasfour (2014) that student's age, gender, high school major and high school GPA are significantly related to students's academic performance. In a similar form, Christopher and Redempta (2016) have indicated that there is no significant relationship between students Kenya certificate of secondary education entry grade and their performances (r= 0.232, P> 0.05) . The academic performance in various age brackets was however not significant (F=0.11, P=0.897, P> 0.05).Groups of male students scored lower than the groups of female students. They also added that gender had no significant relationship in the students' performances (r=0.168, P >0.05). Their findings reveal that the academic predictors did not have a significant influence on the students' performance.Moreover, the study of Salem, Al-mously, Nabil, Al-Zalabani, Al-Dhawi and Al-Hamdan revealed that academic performance was significantly affected with factors such as gender, marital status, interest and motivation and the transpotation used to reach the faculty. Factors including age, learning resources, study time and type of transportation used have

shown to create a significant differences in GPA between male and females. Some studies concluded that females have been found to outperform males consistent with the findings from the study of Dayioglu and Turut-Asik (2007). Along with that, Slaughter (2007) revealed that gender does not relate to the TAAS score in North Forest, but the income level is related to third grade reading TAAS performance. He also added that gender was significantly related to third grade TAAS. Dr. Maliha Nasi (2012) indicated that there is a significant correlation between academic achievement and demographic characteristics. Achraya and Joshi (2009) also determined that parent's education can affect the students' performance in school. Jabor, Kungu, Machtmes, Buntat and Nordin (2011) in their study concluded that there were statistically significant differences in mathematics GPA scores between age groups and gender; however the effect sizes were small.

In the result of the examination made with the path analysis; while its being determined that the education level of the father and gender variables among the demographic characteristics did not have an affect over the physics achievement however the education level of the mother and the income level of the family had a positive effect on the school achievement grades of students (Kocakaya and Gonen, 2012).

Sex is similarly considered an independent variable that may likely affect academic performance of students in both Mathematics and English. Gender relates to the difference in sex-either male or female and how this quality affects their dispositions and perception towards life and academic activities (Okoh, 2007). There is a need to examine if there is really a significant difference between male and female students as reflected in their academic performances in Mathematics and in English. Socio-demographic profile of students such as age, sex, order in the family, educational background of parents and family income still have been considered as potential determinants of academic performance in Mathematics.

Some studies also show that performance or success in a subject might be affected with some other subjects. Some educators believed that a student who is good in Mathematics is also good in English. The content of mathematics is not taught without language and education objectives advocate the development of fluency in the mathematics register, said Riordain and Donoghue (2008). Since English is the medium of instruction in teaching mathematics, it plays a role in teaching, learning and understanding mathematics. Students therefore, must need to perform in the field of english. Mathematics can be understood easier if the students know how to read and understand english. Based on the result of the study of Bagceci, Kutlar and Cinkara, there is a significant relation between language learning ,Leng 101 and mathematics (Math 151

course) final grades (p<0.01). Because of these studies, an interest of the researcher about the possible relationship between the success in learning English and Mathematics have come up.

Study Objectives

The study examined the impact of socio-demographic profile of students' on their academic performance in Mathematics. It likewise determined the grade point average of the students both in mathematics and in English and the relationship between the performance of Grade 7 students in Mathematics and in English and their select profile variables.

Methodology

Study Design

The study used the descriptive correlational design. The descriptive method was used as it determined the profile of the respondents and their grade point average in English and mathematics. It also used the correlational design as it ascertained the relationship between the academic performance of the students in English and mathematics and their select profile variables.

Samples and Sampling Techniques

The respondents of this study were drawn from one of the sections of the Grade 7 class of Baggao National Agricultural School - Sta. Margarita Annex, Sta. Margarita, Baggao, Cagayan, school year 2018-2019.

Research Instrument

A questionnaire was used to collect data needed for the study. The questionnaire was used to get information on the students' profile in terms of age, sex, number of siblings, order of birth and the parents' educational background, occupation and family income.

Collection of Data

Prior to the conduct of the study, permission to conduct the study was secured from the Principal of Baggao National Agricultural School - Sta. Margarita Annex, Sta. Margarita, Baggao, Cagayan. Upon approval, the prepared questionnaires were distributed to the

respondents after explaining to them the purpose of the activity. Retrieval of the questionnaire was done immediately after they finished answering them to avoid loses and delay. The students' average grades in English and in Mathematics were taken from their class adviser, Mr. Romy Luzano Jr, Teacher III of Baggao National Agricultural School-Sta. Margarita Annex.

Analysis of Data

The data gathered from the questionnaire were tallied, tabulated and interpreted. To analyze the profile variables, the descriptive statistics like frequency count and percentage distribution were used. The Pearson r correlation was used to determine the relationship between the students' performance in Mathematics and in English and their select profile variables.

Results and Discussions

Profile of the Students

Table 1 presents the profile of the students in terms of sex, age, number of siblings, order of birth in the family, parents' highest educational attainment, occupation and income.

Results reveal that out of the 40 students, 24 or 60 percent were male while 16 or 40 percent were female. Findings imply that the male students outnumbered the female.

In terms of age, 14 were aged 13, followed by 13 students whose age was 12, 10 whose age was 14, two at 15 and one at 16. Since the student respondents are Grade 7, most of the students are on the right age for their grade level.

For the number of siblings in the family, 22 students had four (4) siblings, followed by the 10 with three (3), the six students with to (2) and the least was the two with only one sibling. Findings imply that the student respondents have a small size of family members.

As regards their order of birth in the family, 15 students ranked 2nd in the family, followed by the 13 who ranked 4th, the seven who ranked 1st and the last were the five who ranked 3rd.

For the parents' educational attainment, results indicate that more than half (21 or 52.5) percent of the students' mothers graduated in the elementary; followed by those 16 or 40 percent who graduated in high school, but only one graduated in college. Similarly, the majority (23 or 57.5) of the students' fathers graduated in the elementary; followed by those

13 or 32.5 percent who graduated in high school and the four or 10 percent who graduated in college. Findings imply that the students' parents do not give priority to education.

In terms of their occupation, results show that 28 or 70 percent of their mothers and 32 or 80 percent of their fathers engaged in farming while the other parents engaged in business and other forms of work to earn a living. Results imply that the students' parents engage in blue collar and seasonal jobs.

Finally, for their income monthly, 19 or 47.5 generated income under the bracket 5,000 to 9,999, followed by the six parents with an income under 15,000 to 19,999 bracket and the least (1) had income below 5,000. Results imply that the students live below poverty line.

Table 1

Distribution of the respondents in terms of profile variables.

Variable	Frequency (n=40)	Percentage
Sex		
Male	24	60.0
Female	16	40.0
Age		
16	1	2.5
15	2	5.0
14	10	25.0
13	14	35.0
12	13	32.5
Mean = 13.10	**SD = 1.01**	
Number of Siblings		
4	22	55.0
3	10	25.0
2	6	15.0
1	2	5.0
Mean = 3.30	**SD = 0.91**	
Order of Birth in the Family		
4th	13	32.5
3rd	5	12.5

2nd	15	37.5
1st	7	17.5
Mothers' Highest Educational		
Attainment		
College Graduate	1	2.5
College Level	2	5.0
High School Graduate	16	40.0
Elementary Graduate	21	52.5
Fathers' Highest Educational		
Attainment		
College Graduate	4	10.0
High School Graduate	13	32.5
Elementary Graduate	23	57.5
Mothers' Occupation		
Farming	28	70.0
OFW	6	15.0
Businessman	5	12.5
House Help	1	2.5
Fathers' Occupation		
Farming	32	80.0
Businessman	2	5.0
Others	6	15.0
Parents' Monthly Income		
25,000 and Above	5	12.5
20,000 to 24,999	4	10.0
15,000 to 19,999	6	15.0
10,000 to 14,999	5	12.5
5,000 to 9,999	19	47.5
Below 5,000	1	2.5
Mean = 14,347.25	**SD = 13,101.40**	

Academic Performance in Math

The distribution of the students' performance in mathematics is shown in Table 2. Results show that the students performed fairly satisfactory in mathematics as reflected in the grand mean of 78.88 percent with a standard deviation of 3.74.

Specifically, 19 students performed fairly satisfactory in math as they garnered an average grade under the bracket 75-79; this result was followed by those students with an average grade under the bracket 80-84 (satisfactory) and 80-89 (very satisfactory) and the frequencies of 15 and three, respectively. Findings imply that the students have not obtained mastery in mathematics.

Table 2

Distribution of respondents in terms of their grade in Math.

Grade	Frequency (n=40)	Percentage
90-100 (Outstanding)	0	0.0
85-89 (Very Satisfactory)	3	7.5
80-84 (Satisfactory)	15	37.5
75-79 (Fairly Satisfactory)	19	47.5
below 75 (Failed)	3	7.5
Mean = 78.88 (Fairly Satisfactory)		**SD = 3.74**

Academic Performance in English

Presented in Table 3 is the academic performance of the students in English. Generally, the students performed satisfactorily in English as reflected in the grand mean of 80.85 with a standard deviation of 4.45.

Specifically, out of the 40 students enrolled in English, 17 or 42.5 percent garnered an average grade under the bracket 75-79 with a descriptive rating of fairly satisfactory. This result was followed 15 or 37.5 percent of the students who garnered an average grade under the bracket 80-84 with a satisfactory descriptive rating; seven students got an average grade of the bracket 85-89 (very satisfactory) and only one got 90-100 (outstanding) average grade. Results imply that the students have not yet obtained mastery on the different skills in English.

Table 3

Distribution of respondents in terms of grade in English.

Grade	Frequency (n=40)	Percentage
90-100 (Outstanding)	1	2.5
85-89 (Very Satisfactory)	7	17.5
80-84 (Satisfactory)	15	37.5
75-79 (Fairly Satisfactory)	17	42.5
below 75 (Failed)	0	0.0
Mean = 80.85 (Satisfactory)		**SD = 4.45**

Relationship between the Profile of the Respondents and their Academic Performance in Math

Presented in Table 4 is the relationship between the profile of the students and their academic performance in mathematics. The study hypothesized that there is no relationship between the profile of the students and their academic performance in Mathematics. Results show that age, number of siblings, order of birth in the family, parents' highest educational attainment, occupation, and income did not affect the students' academic performance in Mathematics; however, sex significantly affected their performance in Mathematics. Consequently, the null hypothesis is partially accepted.

Findings imply that the female students performed better in mathematics than the male students. Moreover, regardless of the age, number of siblings, order of birth in the family, parents' highest educational attainment, occupation, and income, the students' performance in mathematics does not vary.

Table 4

Correlation results between the profile of the respondents and their academic performance in Math.

Variables	r-computed	Probability	Statistical Inference
Sex	**-.622**[**]	**.000**	***Significant at 0.01***
Age	-.249	.122	*Not Significant*

Number of Siblings	-.011	.945	*Not Significant*
Order of Birth in the Family	.067	.681	*Not Significant*
Mothers' Highest Educational Attainment	-.011	.947	*Not Significant*
Mothers' Highest Educational Attainment	-.024	.883	*Not Significant*
Mothers' Occupation	-.037	.821	*Not Significant*
Fathers' Occupation	-.085	.603	*Not Significant*
Parents' Monthly Income	.172	.289	*Not Significant*

Relationship between the Profile of the Respondents and their Academic Performance in English

Table 5 presents the correlation results between the profile of the students and their academic performance in English. The study hypothesized that there is no relationship between the profile of the students and their academic performance in English. Results show that age, number of siblings, order of birth in the family, parents' highest educational attainment, occupation, and income did not affect the students' academic performance in English; however, sex significantly affected their performance in English. Consequently, the null hypothesis is partially accepted.

Findings imply that the female students performed better in English than the male students. Moreover, regardless of the age, number of siblings, order of birth in the family, parents' highest educational attainment, occupation, and income, the students' performance in English remains the same.

The present finding attested the stand of Okoh (2007) that sex affect the academic performance of students in both Mathematics and English. He mentioned that gender relates to the difference in sex - either male or female and how this quality affects their dispositions and perception towards life and academic activities.

Table 5

Correlation results between the profile of the respondents and their academic performance in English

Variables	r-computed	Probability	Statistical Inference

Sex	-.643**	**.000**	*Significant at 0.01*
Age	-.225	.162	*Not Significant*
Number of Siblings	.005	.975	*Not Significant*
Order of Birth in the Family	.054	.740	*Not Significant*
Mothers' Highest Educational Attainment	-.045	.783	*Not Significant*
Mothers' Highest Educational Attainment	.035	.829	*Not Significant*
Mothers' Occupation	-.047	.773	*Not Significant*
Fathers' Occupation	-.173	.284	*Not Significant*
Parents' Monthly Income	.096	.556	*Not Significant*

Relationship between the Academic Performances of the Respondents in Math and English

The study hypothesized that there is no relationship between the academic performances of the students in mathematics and in English. Result of the study shows that there is a significant relationship between the students' performances in English and in Mathematics as reflected in Table 6. The computed r value is .885 at .05 level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Related to the findings are studies of Ahmed et al. 1988; AlFayez et al. 1990; Sansgiry et al. 2006; Sleight & Mavis 2006 telling that the factors influencing students' GPA may include students' proficiency in English, student's self-motivation, application of time managing skills, students' learning styles, type of study references, study skills and socio-economic status of students. Findings imply that as the grade of students in English increases, their grade in mathematics also increases. Further, the students who perform high in English also perform high in mathematics. Further, the study of Maleki, A., & Zangani, E. (2007) revealed a significant relation between English language proficiency and academic achievement (GPA). The correlation coefficient of the two sets of scores was 0.48. This suggests that as English proficiency increases, so does academic success. In other words, there is a positive correlation between the two variables. Significant correlations were also observed between English proficiency and achievement in speaking and writing subjects. The results of the Pearson correlation revealed that the English language proficiency of Iranian EFL students correlates positively with achievement in speaking subjects (0.36) and achievement in writing subjects (0.40)

Table 6

Correlation results between the academic performances of the respondents in math and English.

Variables	r-computed	Probability	Statistical Inference
Academic Performance in Math	.885**	.000	*Significant at 0.01*
Academic Performance in English			

Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the results of the study, the grade 7 students perform satisfactorily in English, but fairly satisfactory in mathematics. Moreover, the female students perform better than the males both in English and in mathematics. Finally, when the performance of the grade 7 students in English is high, their performance in mathematics is also high.

Based on the results and conclusions of the study, it is recommended that since the academic performance of the grade 7 students in mathematics is fairly satisfactory, the mathematics teachers should device ways by which mathematics teaching becomes easy, interesting and meaningful to the students by introducing innovative teaching strategies like instructional gaming and the like and by using interesting and innovative instructional materials like video clips and other ICT materials. Additionally, since the students are weak in mathematics and in English, the administrators and curriculum planners should strengthen the mathematics and English curriculum to provide students with the necessary background and strong foundation in both subjects. Moreover, since English significantly affect mathematics performances of students, both the English and mathematics teachers should plan for activities that would enhance both the English and math proficiencies of the students. Finally, a follow – up study/ies should be conducted to look into the other factors like pedagogy, teacher, school, learning styles, study habits and other factors that may affect the academic performances of students in English and mathematics.

References

Aikens, L., & Barbarin, O. (2008) . *Socioeconomic Differences in Reading Trajectories: The Contribution of Family, Neighbourhood, and School Contexts.* Journal of Educational Psychology 100 (2): 235–51.

Alasfour, A., & Alhajraf, N. (2014). *The Impact of Demographic and Academic Characteristics on Academic Performance.* International Business Research: Vol.7, No. 4: 2014.

Al-dhawi, A., Al-hamdan, N., Al-mously, N., Al-zalabani, A. Nabil, N., & Salem, R. (2013). *Academic and Socio-demographic factors influencing students' performance in a new Saudi medical school. Medical Teacher. 2013; 35: S83-S89.*

Allardice, M., & Blicharski, J. .(2000). *Tracking Students' Progression: Learning their Lessons.* Journal of Widening Participation and Lifelong Learning 2 (3): 32–37.

Bagceci, B., Cinkara , E., & Kutlar, E. *The Relationship between English and Math Success & Some Variables at Freshman Level.* Vol. 5, No.29, 2014.

Baltes, B.,Henry, D., & Nistor, N.(2014). Examining the Relationship Between Math Scores and English Language Proficiency. Journal of Educational Research and Practice. Volume 4,Issue 1, Pages 11-29.

Buntat, Y., Jabor, K., Kungu, K., & Machtmes, K. (2011). *The Influence of Age and Gender on the Student's Achievement in Mathematics. International Conference on Social Science and Humanity. IPEDR vol. 5 (2011) IACSIT Press, Singapore.*

Christopher, M., & Redempta, K. (2016). *Influence of Demographic Factors on Academic Performance among Primary Teacher Trainees- A Case Study of Machakos Teachers College.* Int. J. Educ. Stud. 03(01)2016.07-11.

Donoghue J., & Riordain, M.,(2008). *The Relationship between performance on mathematical word problems and language proficiency for students learning through the medium of Irish.* Educ. Stud Math (2009) 71:43-64. Doi 10 1007/s10649-008-9158-9.

Gonen, S., & Kocakaya, S. (2012). *Effect of the Demographic Characteristics on Students' Achievement- A Path Analytic Study. International Journal on New Trends in Education and Their Implications.* Vol.3 Issue 4 Article20 ISSN 1309-6249.

Harmon, A., & Redmond, C. (2011) . *Parental Education, Grade Attainment an Earnings Expectations Among University Students*. Economics of Education Review 30 (6): 1136–52.

Maleki, A., & Zangani, E. (2007). A survey on the relationship between English language proficiency and the academic achievement of Iranian EFL students. *Asian EFL Journal*, *9*(1), 86-96.

Mellanby, M. & O'Doherty, J. (2000). *The 'Gender Gap' in Final Examination Results at Oxford University.* British Journal of Psychology 91 (3): 377–90.

Moore, M. (2015). *Academic Performance AMong Homeless Students: Exploring Relationships of Socio-Economic and Demographic Variables.*

Nasir, M. (2012). *Demographic Characteristics as Correlates of Academic Achievement of University Students. Academic Research International. www.journals.savap.org.pk 400.*

Slaughter, S. (2007). *Demographic Profiles Associated with Academic Performance for Third Grade Students in North Forest and Aldine Independent School Districts in Texas.*

Spooren, W., & Stoffelsma, L. (2018). *The Relationship Bewteen English Reading Proficiency and Academic AChievement of first-Year Science and Mathematics Students in a Multilingual Context. IntJ of Sci and Math Educ.* http://doi.org/10.1007/s10763-018-9905-z.

Woodley, A. (2003). *Another Look at the Role of Age, Gender and Subject as Predictors of Academic Attainment in Higher Education.* Studies in Higher Education 28 (4): 475–93.

Academic Debate Used on Students' Speaking Achievement for Efl Learners

Yunda Lestari

University of Baturaja

Bio-Profile:

Yunda Lestari is an English lecturer at University of Baturaja, South Sumatera, Indonesia. Her research interest includes English Language Teaching (ELT) and Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in the fields of speaking and writing. She's got her master degree from Sriwijaya University in Language Education. She can be reached at yunda_lestari@unbara.ac.id

Abstract

This study aimed to find out the significant difference in students' speaking achievement between those who were taught by using academic debate and those who were not. The quasi-experimental method was used in this study. The pre-intermediate level of English Academy Baturaja English Course in the academic year 2017 was the population of this study with the total number was 101 students. Purposive sampling was used based on the students' capability in critical thinking related to critical events discussed. The total number of the sample was 26 students consist of experimental and control group. Based on the result of data analysis, the highest score was 85 and the lowest was 55 with the average score was 71.54 in the post-test, while in the pre-test the highest score was 75, the lowest score was 35, with the average score in the pre-test was 53.46. The mean difference in the independent sample t-test between experiment and control group was 20.38462. It indicated that there was a significant difference in students' speaking achievement between those who were taught by using academic debate and those who were not.

Keywords: *Academic debate, Speaking achievement, EFL Learners*

Introduction

Speaking is one of the four language skills generally thought to be most important. Likewise Thornbury (2005) reveals that the ability to speak a second language is often equated with proficiency in the language itself. The act of speaking takes places in social setting between two or more person who have particular messages to convey. In line with Bahar (2014) who mentioned that speaking is mostly the main goal of many English learners. It is also supported by Kosar & Bedir (2014) who stated that speaking skill has been claimed to be at the core of language learning. The statement of the researchers about the importance of speaking skill indicated that one of the learning success seem on the learners' ability to express their ideas or feeling to someone else to performance in communication.

Teachers must have an interesting strategy in teaching speaking to stimulate students' self confidence on intellectual activity in various contrasting ideas and opinions which they can resolve through speaking in a simplified format and tools. Timothy Stewart and Gene Pleisch (2000) suggested that debate could promote proficiency in language including EFL in ways that are challenging and exciting. Although there are various kinds of active learning strategies, academic debate could be one of a particularly interesting strategy in teaching speaking. Debates foster students' active learning by giving them the responsibility to understand course content, an approach that completely transforms their perspective from passive to active (Snider & Schnurer, 2002). It is also supported by Nasir (2018) that students are encourage to collaborate with peers in exchanging and critically choosing important information.

Cattani (2003: 67) defines debate as "a competition (a challenge) between two antagonists in which the two contenders seek the approval of a third party (judge, auditorium), unlike what occurs in a simple discussion. Even issues that are considered impossible to resolve can be debated with the objective of persuading others." Thus, the basic element of debate is its search for the approval of third-party participants. Therefore, debate is considered a form of oral controversy based on the systematic presentation of opposing arguments about a specific issue (Roy & Macchiette, 2005). As a result, we consider academic debate to be competitive and intellectual activities with the principal objective of communicating ideas.

Academic debate should not be considered as an end in itself, but rather as a method for rational and consensual problem solving (Blanco, 2013). Despite debate's history as a teaching strategy, at universities debates are restricted to

students who participate on debate teams (Bellon, 2000). However, research has shown that debates can be successfully used in a wide range of disciplines (Budesheim & Lundquist, 2000; Dundes, 2001; Garrett, Schoener, & Hood 1996; Keller, Whittaker, & Burke 2001; Musselman, 2004; Roy & Macchiette, 2005; Scannapeico, 1997; Vo & Morris, 2006).

Methodology

Quasi experimental method was used in this study with the pre-test and post- test non equivalent design. The pre-intermediate level of English Academy Baturaja English Course in the academic year 2017 was the population of this study with the total number was 101 students. Purposive sampling was used based on the students' capability in critical thinking related to critical events discussed. The total number of the sample was 26 students consist of experimental and control group. In this case, experiment by doing the actual teaching and recording the data by using video record was applied.

The experiment conducted for 12 meetings. Every meeting was held for about 2 x 40 minute. The test was in the form of oral test by means of speech. The allocation time for each student minimal 7 minutes. The score was taken based on students' capability in speaking English individually even there was probability that the test was under one's belt on a group. Inter rater reliability was used in scoring the invidual performance based on scoring rubric. The scoring rubric for speaking achievement provided a measure of quality of performance on the basis of five criteria: comprehension, fluency, vocabulary, pronunciation and grammar. The oral test procedures are divided into some steps: (1) Determining the topic to present related to the motions of debate to students; (2) Three raters in assessing the students' speaking achievement. The assessment were based on the scale of oral testing criteria which proposed by Brown (2004).

Paired sample t-test was used in order to know the improvement of students' speaking achievement before and after treatment between experiment and control group, while independent sample t-test was used to get .the difference between the significant result that was achieved by the students in the post- test.
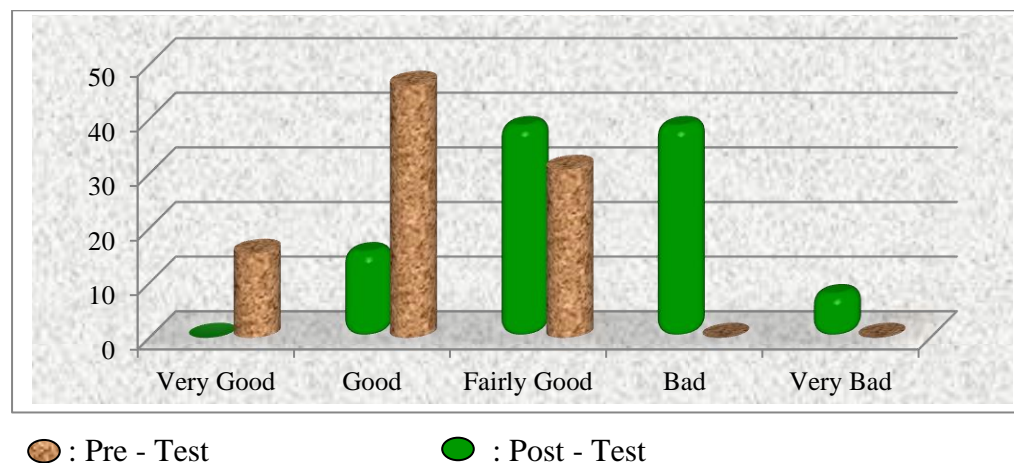
Result

The Result in Experimental Group

The highest score of pretest in experimental group was 75 and the lowest was 35, in which the average score was 53. It could be considered that students' speaking ability was under the

average level. After having academic debate, the students definitely got progress in the post test. The highest score of post test in experimental group was 85 and the lowest score was 55. In which the average score was 71.53. The average percentage score in the post- test was higher than the average in the pre-test. It indicated that students' speaking ability was improved. Based on the result of pre and post–test, the students' achievement in speaking was increased. The average score in the post- test was better than pre–test. In the post–test, the average score was 71.53, it was higher than the average percentage score in the pre- test that was only 53.46. The result between pre and post- test were compared to find out whether there was increasing scores obtained by the students. Based on the data obtained between pre –test and post – test in experimental group, the test result showed that there was a significant difference in English speaking achievement. The distribution score of frequency could be seen in chart 1.

Chart 1

The Frequency Pre–test and Post–test in Experimental Group

◯ : Pre - Test   ● : Post - Test

2. The Result in Control Group

In control group, the students there was no any treatment to the sample, the test that had been given to the students is only for getting the comparison of the progress of students' ability in speaking English between the students who were trained and were not trained through academic debate. In the pre – test, the highest score was 65, and the lowest score was 35. While in the post test, the highest score was 65 and the lowest score was 40. No student got score between 85 - 100 in very good level, no student got score between 70 - 84 in good level, 7 students got score between 55 - 69 in fairly good level, 6 students got score between 40 - 54 in bad level, no student got score between 0 - 39 in very bad level. Based on the result of pre

and post-test, the students' achievement in speaking was no significant different. The average score in the post- test was 54.6154 and the average score in the pre- test that was only 51.1538. Based on the data obtained between pre –test and post – test in control group, the test result showed that there was no significant difference in English speaking achievement. The distribution score of frequency could be seen in chart 2.

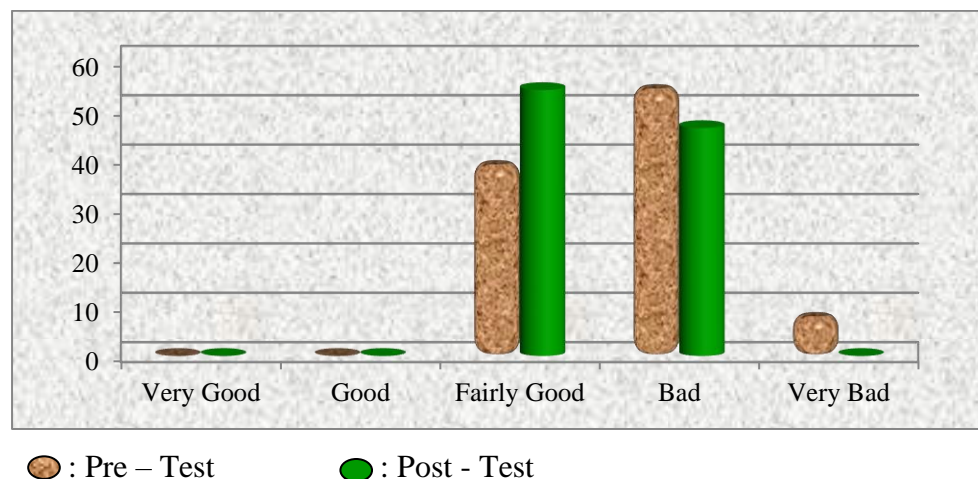**Chart 2**

The Frequency Pre –Test and Post – Test in Control Group

⬤ : Pre – Test   ⬤ : Post - Test

3. The Comparison Result in Experimental and Control Group

The post-test result between experimental and control group was different, in the experimental group the highest score was 85 with the lowest score was 55, and average score was 71.53 whereas in the control group the highest score was 65, the lowest score was 40 with average score was 54.61. The data were analyzed by using independent t-test because it was intended to know whether there was a significant difference in students' speaking achievement between in experimental and control group. Based on the data obtained between experimental and control group, the test result showed that there was a significant difference between the two – groups in English speaking achievement. The data obtained of distribution score could be seen in the chart 3.

Chart 3

The Comparison Frequency in experimental and Control group
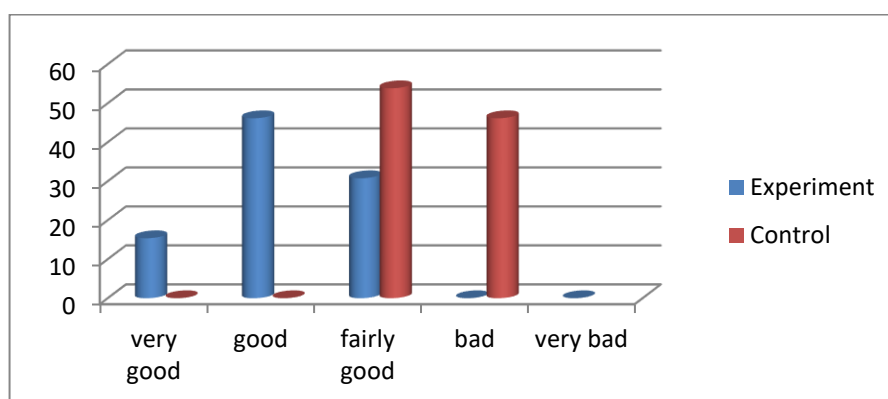
Based on the result of matched t-test calculation, the significance difference in English achievement in the experimental group was higher than control group. It meant that, there was a significant difference in students' speaking achievement between those who were taught by using academic debate and those who were not.

Discussion

In relation to speaking, Ur (2006) mentioned that if a person is mastering a langusge, he intuitively be able to speak that language. This statement indicates that the speech showed an indication that one knows a language. Based on the problems faced by Indonesia's students, most of them are too afraid in speaking English because they afraid of making mistakes and lack of vocabularies.

Academic debate was an effective strategy in teaching speaking. The students were in experimental group could perform better than the students in control group. In academic debate, the students felt relax in delivering their opinion, not only exchange their point of view of the moot but they also argued the opponent's opinion. The students also could improve their self confident to speak up even they were pressure facing their opponent.

Conclusion

Based on the result, academic debate is a suitable technique in improving students' ability in speaking. The progress in improving students' ability in speaking through academic debate was quiet convincing because this strategy could encourage the students' enthusiasm, interest and motivated students to be more active in speaking English. In academic debate, the students had to deliver their arguments and they had to face the opponent briefly. Thinking faster in a limited time was an unforgettable positive thing that was learnt by students.

References

Bahar, K. (2014). Interactional speaking a guide to enhance natural communication skills in English. Yogyakarta: Trust Media. Retrieved from http://ilmupengetahuanumum.com/10-bahasa-yang-paling-banyak- digunakan-di-dunia/

Bellon, J. (2000). A research based justification for debate across the curriculum. Argumentation and Advocacy, 36, 161–173.

Blanco, R. (2013). Debate como técnica de evaluación del desempeño en educación superior. Retrieved from ⟨http://roxanablancovillarte.blogspot.com.es/2013/ 11/v-behaviorurldefaultvmlo.html⟩.

Budesheim, T., & Lundquist, A. (2000). Consider the opposite: opening minds through in-class debates on course-related controversies. Teaching of Psychology, 6, 106–110.

Brown, H. D. (2004). Language assessment: Principles and classroom practices.

New York, NY: Pearson Education, Inc.

Cattani, A. (2003). Los usos de la retórica. Madrid: Alianza Ensayo.

Dundes, L. (2001). Small group debates: Fostering critical thinking in oral presentations with maximal class involvement. Teaching Sociology, 29, 237–243.

Garrett, M., Schoener, L., & Hood, L. (1996). Debate as a teaching strategy to improve verbal communication and critical thinking skills. Nurse Educator, 21, 37–40.

Keller, T., Whittaker, J., &Burke, T. (2001). Students debates in policy courses:

Promoting policy practice skills and knowledge through active learning.

Journal of Social Work, 37, 343-355.

Kosar & Bedir. (2014). Strategies-based instruction: A means of Improving Adult

EFL learners' speaking skills. International Journal of Language

Academy, 2, 2342-0251.

Musselman, E. (2004). Using structured debate to achieve autonomous student discussion. The History Teacher, 37, 335–348.

Nasir, A. (2018). Implementing SBI (strategies-based instruction) in teaching

speaking skills. The Asian EFL Journal, 4(20), 39-47..

Roy, A., & Macchiette, B. (2005). Debating the issues: A tool for augmenting

critical thinking skills of marketing students. Journal of Marketing

Education, 27, 264-276.

Scannapieco, F. A. (1997). Formal debate: An active learning strategy. Journal of Dental Education, 61, 955–961.

Snider, A., & Schnurer, M. (2002). Many sides: Debate across the curriculum.   New   York: International Debate Education   Association.

Steward, T., & Gene, P. (2000). Developing academic language skills and fluency through debate. Retrieved from http://www.englishunited technology,ac,nz/ resource /units / debate.html.

Thornbury, S. (2005). How to teach speaking. New York: Pearson Education

Limited.

Ur, P. A. (2006). Course in Language Teaching. Cambridge: Cambridge

University Press.

Vo, H. X., & Morris, R. L. (2006). Debate as a tool in teaching economics: Rationale, technique and some evidence. Journal of Education for Business, 81, 315–320.

Research-Related Issues and Problems Among Male and Female Postgraduate Students

Rosanna D. Gonzales

Rodelio S. Garin

Adonis S. Bautista

Pangasinan State University-School of Advanced Studies

rosanna_gonzales0906@yahoo.com

Bioprofile

Rosanna D. Gonzales is the research coordinator of the School of Advanced Studies. She is an active member of various research organizations and is an interdisciplinary researcher who had published numerous research articles.

Rodelio S. Garin is at present the Assistant Extension Coordinator of the School of Advanced Studies. He is one of the statisticians in the said institution and had published research articles in reputable journals.

Adonis S. Bautista serves as the Executive Director of the School of Advanced Studies. He is a transformational leader who brings out the potentials of his colleagues in his administration and maximizes their academic strengths leading to the achievement of the institution's goal. Further, he is described as a research enthusiast.

Abstract

Pursuing postgraduate education is not as easy as everybody else want it to be. It is an avenue in order to improve further the individual's personal and educational qualifications. Satisfactorily passing all the subjects in one's curriculum is a must particularly on "research writing". In this study, the postgraduate male and female students enrolled at the School of Advanced Studies in Urdaneta City, Philippines were the main respondents wherein they were subjected into self-assessment as to the level of their competency on research-related issues and along the degree of difficulty on the problems they encountered in research writing. Using

the appropriate research method and statistical tools, results revealed that most of the respondents are females, in their adulthood stage with permanent status in public institutions and are young at the service as Teacher 3 with less exposure to paper presentations, small number of them had experience in research publication and had little opportunity in attending in-service research-related conferences, trainings, seminars and workshops. Both male and female respondents assessed themselves as very competent in research-related issues. On the other hand, males have a higher degree of difficulty encountered in research writing over females. Males had a better level of competency on related-research issues along with dissemination of research findings compared to females. Likewise, older male respondents who are with higher research number on paper presentations had a lower degree of difficulty encountered in research writing than younger males. It is then recommended that males and females be more exposed to paper presentations so as to decrease the degree of difficulty encountered in research writing.

Introduction

In achieving Philippine national development, the State highly recognized the crucial role of quality as well as accessible education and training to its citizens at all levels. In the global economy of the 21st century, the required competencies should be possessed by the workforce, academic institutions and business firms to continually compete and be successful in providing services to its customers (Finegold & Notabartolo, 2016).

With the advent of the Philippine Qualifications Framework (PQF), an established set of standards for qualification outcomes was put in place. PQF provides descriptive levels of educational qualifications from basic to higher education. It promotes quality assurance on the country's development through qualifications-based on the framed criteria that an individual should have acquired from multi-ways of teaching-learning methodologies. Thus, expected to produce lifelong learning individuals who will meet the industry standards (House of Congress, 2018). In the case of level 7 PQF descriptors, post-baccalaureate graduates at this level are expected to have advanced knowledge and skills in the specialized or multidisciplinary field of study for professional practice or self-directed research and/or a lifelong learner (Vea, 2018).

To complete a graduate education means someone is able to surpass all the academic-related issues and challenges. To a graduate and post-graduate student, thesis and dissertation

writing is a degree requirement. Graduation entails the submission of research output defended before the set of a panel of evaluators duly approved and accepted. Research outputs in this education level is a measure of academic achievement and excellence that paves the way on the discovery, creation, and generation of new knowledge which is directly related to the productivity of an institution (Gomez & Panaligan, 2013). Upon completion of the highest degree program, one is highly expected to have developed the necessary research competency-skills. Research competency in this study is defined after the words of Mallari & Santiago as cited by Gomez and Panaligan (2013) which refers to the basic and related skills in a scientific way of conducting research. According to Golde as cited by Lubbe, et. al (2005), writing a research output as the main requirement of the degree program is one of the reasons why half of the postgraduate students do not finish their studies. Thus, necessary competence in research related issues should be determined along the degree of difficulty on problems that usually bother them. Hence, such a study is conducted.

Objectives of the Study

Generally, the study put emphasis on determining whether the individual who finished a master's degree and is presently enrolled in postgraduate education had really acquired the knowledge and skills along with research-related issues. Likewise, the degree of difficulty on problems encountered in such is included.

Specifically, said study:

1. determined the profile among the male and female postgraduate students.

2. described the level of competency in research related skills among male and female postgraduate students along:

    a. practical skills,

    b. problem-solving, thinking and communication skills,

    c. personal attitudes and professional ethics,

    d. dissemination of research findings, and;

    e. roles and functions of a researcher.

3. determined the degree of difficulty on problems encountered among male and female postgraduate students in research writing.

4. compared the level of competency among male and female postgraduate students in research-related issues along with their selected profile variables.

5. determined the strength and significance of the association between the selected profile variables among male and female postgraduate students in relation to their level of competency in research-related issues.

Methods

The quantitative research method was used wherein questionnaires were adapted from the book of Posecion, et. al (2011) and research competencies framework (Gray, 2007).

Total enumeration was utilized wherein the respondents included were the post-graduate students who enrolled the subject Quantitative Research in Pangasinan State University-School of Advanced Studies at Urdaneta City Campus, Philippines for the 2nd Semester of School Year 2018-2019 leading to the doctor of education degree.

The statistical tools used were frequency and percentage for problem number 1, mean, average weighted mean and rank for problems number 2 and 3, multivariate analysis of variance for problem number 4, and; chi-square, Spearman rho, eta square for problem number 5.

Results and Discussion

The following tables show the findings of the study based on the aforementioned objectives.

On Profile of Male and Female Postgraduate Students

Figure 1.1 reflects that more than 60% of the postgraduate students are females compared to males with 33%. The result of this study about sex is already expected because in the education sector female were dominant due to the nature of this profession.
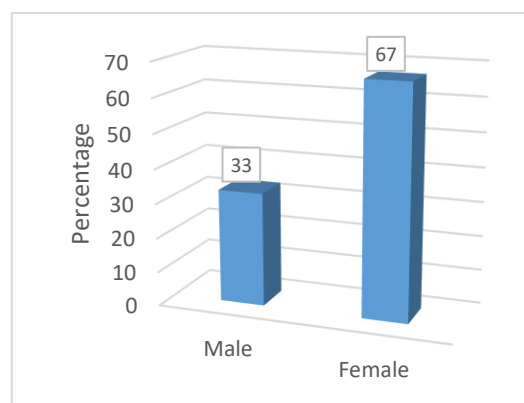
Figure 1.2 shows that 42% of the male postgraduate students is 21-30 and 32% of the females are in age ranging from 31-50. The age bracket with least percentage is 51 and above. It is expected that teacher whose age is 56 and above comprising the less percentage because at this age most of them handling administrative functions in the school. The result of this study corroborates with the findings of Guiab & Ganal (2014), regarding the profile of the public school heads. Most of the public school head age bracket is 46 – 60 comprising approximately 76 %. This may one of the factors why there is a less number of teachers engage in instruction at this age.

Figure 1.2. Profile of the Respondents as to Age

Figure 1.3. Profile of the Respondents as to Status of Employment

Figure 1.4 Profile of the Respondents as to Agency
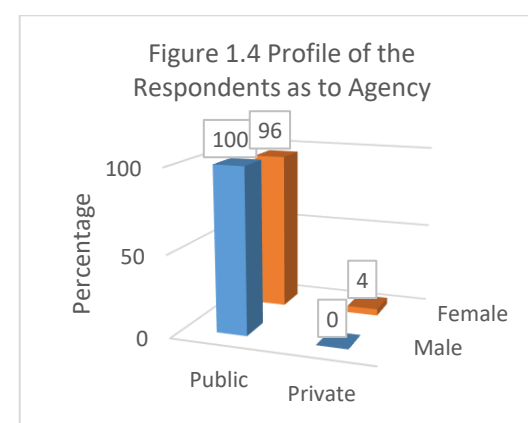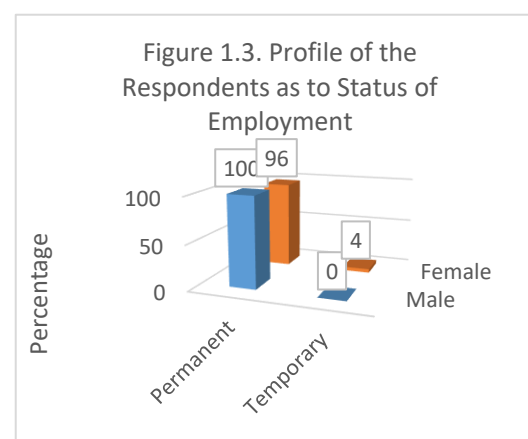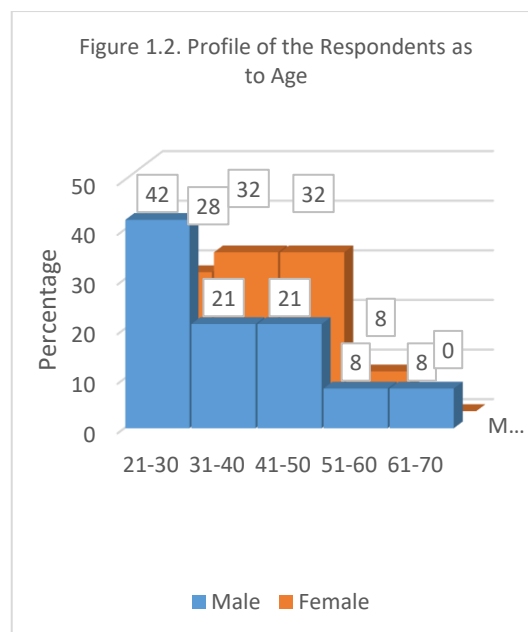
As to the employment status respondents (see figure 1.3) all male postgraduate students are holding a permanent status and 96% among the females are having the same employment status while 4% are temporary. Teachers in public schools are duly licensed professionals with high technical and professional competence. Thus, they deserve to be granted permanent status. The teachers who passed the hiring process and submitted all requirements in the public schools are usually granted with a permanent status immediately. This finding is attributed to the

agency employment of the respondents. All of the male respondents are employed in the public schools, while 96% of the female respondents employed in the public school also as shown in figure 1.4.

Figure 1.5 Profile of the respondents as to years in service
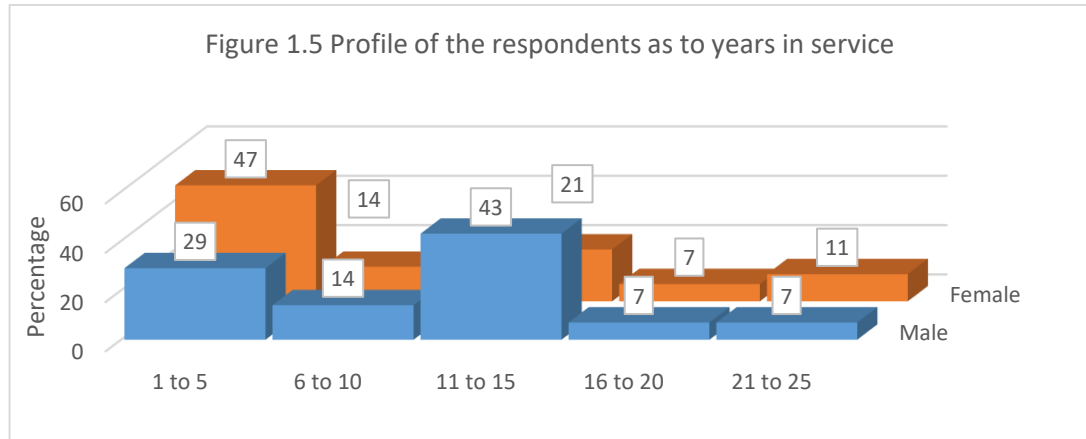
As to years of service, figure 1.5 reflects that 43% among the male respondents are in active service from 11-15 years while almost 50% among the females have 1 to 5 years in service. This means that males render longer service years over females who relatively have lesser service years. This result is attributed to the age of the respondents which is most of them ages 31 and above. The expected employment age of the respondents is 21 – 25, which means that after 10 years of service they will be 31 years old and above. However, there is a less number of them whom the length of service experience is 21 and above. These are the teachers who are at almost reach the retirement age. There are few of them still engage in teaching because at this stage most of them recognized as leaders, mentors or may be a member of the supervisory functions.

Figure 1.6 Profile of the respondents as to designation/position.
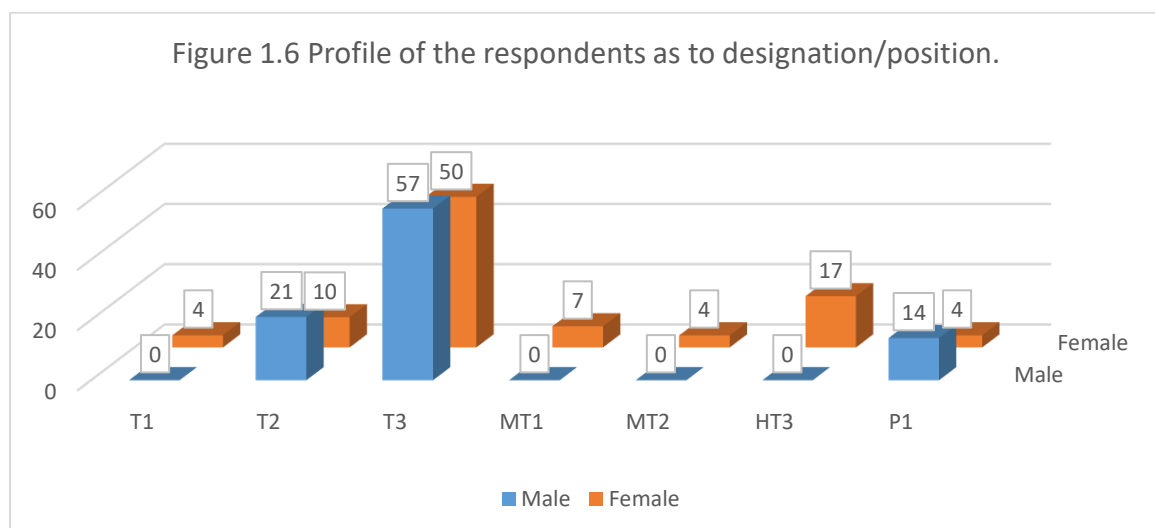
The postgraduate students are serving as Teacher 3 with 57% (males) and 50% (females). This is attributed to the number of years in service of the respondents wherein most of them have a length of service ranging from11 to 15 years. It is expected that after 10 years of service they are proficient or highly proficient teachers. In this regard, they deserve to be promoted to a higher rank because they possibly meet the qualification requirements.

Figure 1.7 Profile of the respondents as to research presentation.

Figure 1.8 Profile of the respondents as to research publication
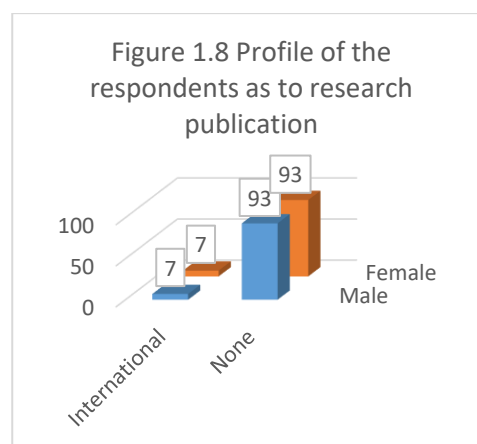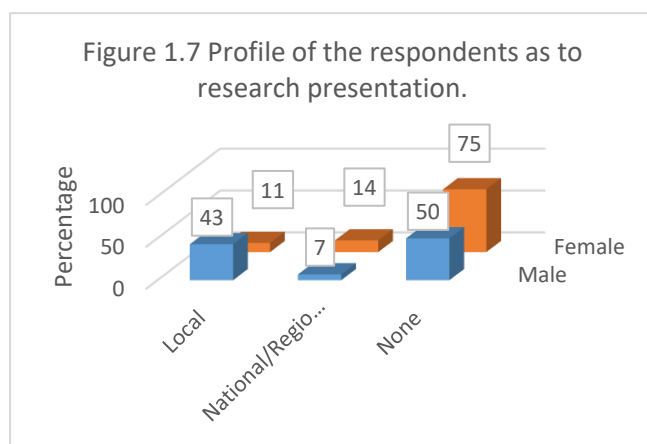
Figure 1.7 depicts that 60% among the male and 75% among the female postgraduate students are not able to participate in paper presentations. It is fascinating to note also that 50% of the male respondents are research enthusiasts. In terms of research publication (see figure 1.8), 93% among males and females have not published a research paper. This can be associated with the primary role of the teacher which is to serve as a facilitator of learning, therefore; they shall render the best service. Best teachers uphold the highest possible standard of quality education by guaranteeing the efficiency and effectiveness of the teaching methods and strategies used in the teaching and learning process. Thus, teachers should be research-driven to determine the interest and welfare of the learners that contribute to the maximum development of the learners.

Figure 1.9 Profile of the respondents as to attendance to research related conference, trainings, seminars and workshops.
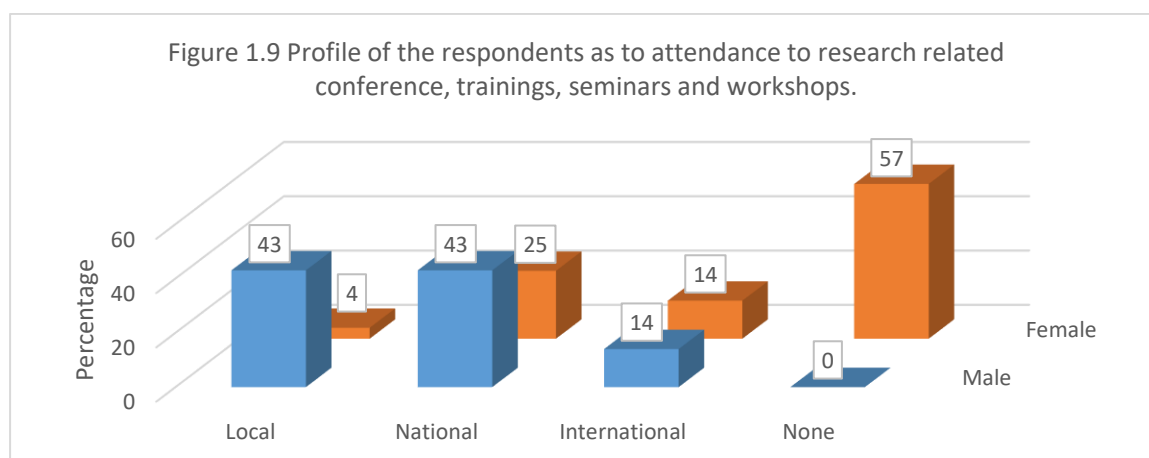
It can be gleaned in table 1.9 that 43% among the males have attended research related in-service training at the local and national level compared to females wherein 57% are not

able to attend in such. The knowledge of subject matters and pedagogical skills are necessary for successful teaching, however, personality and attitudes of teachers is also an important aspect for a teacher (Olson & Wyett, 2019).

On Competency Level Among Male and Female Postgraduate Students in Research-Related Skills

Tables 2.1 to 2.5 presents the competency level of male and female postgraduate students in research-related skills which include practical skills, problem-solving/thinking and communication skills, personal attitudes and professional ethics, dissemination of research findings, and; roles and functions of a researcher.

Table 2.1 Competency Level in Practical Skills Among Male and Female Postgraduate Students

Indicators	Male			Female			Average Weighted Mean	VD	Rank
	Mean	VD	Rank	Mean	VD	Rank			
Practical Skills									
1. Finding and using resources	4	VC	4	4	VC	2	4.00	VC	4
2. Using library and information technology effectively	**4.28**	**VC**	**2**	3.96	VC	3	4.07	VC	2
3. Recognizing and knowing when to use primary and secondary resources	**4.28**	**VC**	**2**	3.88	VC	4	4.01	VC	3
4. Observing and recording of data	4.07	VC	5	3.67	VC	5	3.80	VC	5
5. Utilizing technology (computer)	**4.28**	**VC**	**2**	**4.21**	**VC**	**1**	4.23	VC	1

	Average Weighted Mean					
	4.18	**VC**	**3.94**	**VC**	4.02	VC

Legend:

1.00-1.50 (LC)	1.51-2.50(MC)	2.51-3.50	3.51-4.50 (VC)	4.51-5.00 (VHC)
Less Competent	Moderately Competent	(C) Competent	Very Competent	Very Highly Competent

It can be gleaned in the table that males' self-assessment result showed that they are very competent in terms of practical skills wherein 3 of the indicators received the same rank. These include the use of library and information technology, recognition and knowing when to use primary and secondary data, and; technology (computer) utilization. On the other hand, top in the list of indicators among the females is technology (computer) utilization, however; both groups had identified data observation and recording as the least in the rank. The respondents possess the necessary practical skill which is considered by Chavaz as cited by Ogbuiyi, et.al. (2014) that technology (computer) utilization has a positive impact in thinking critically, solving problems, providing feedbacks and collaboration which are essential elements in the research world.

Included in Table 2.2 as one of the research-related issues is the so-called communication skills. According to Arsyad (2014), the use of English is not purposely for international communication in an academic context only but also for academic-related purposes like in research work since it involves expression of ideas in oral and written form which are important components in thinking strategies in order to solve day to day problems in all walks of life.

Table 2.2 Competency Level in Problem Solving, Thinking and Communication Skills Among Male and Female Postgraduate Students

Indicators	Male			Female			Average Weighted Mean	VD	Rank
	Mean	VD	Rank	Mean	VD	Rank			
Problem Solving, Thinking and Communication Skills									
1. Understanding the difference between	4.28	VC	2.5	4.14	VC	2	4.19	VC	2

subjective and
objective
information

	Mean	Desc	Rank	Mean	Desc	Rank	Mean	Desc	Rank
2. Recognizing when the information provided is sufficient	**4.42**	**VC**	**1**	**4.17**	**VC**	**1**	4.25	VC	1
3. Evaluating when the basis for a conclusion is laid out completely and clearly	4.28	VC	2.5	3.82	VC	4	3.97	VC	4
4. Generating research questions by recognizing gaps in knowledge	4.00	VC	5	3.75	VC	5	3.83	VC	5
5. Using oral and written communication to express ideas effectively	4.21	VC	4	4.10	VC	3	4.14	VC	3
Overall	**4.24**	**VC**		**4.00**	**VC**		4.08	VC	

Legend:

1.00-1.50 (LC) Less Competent	1.51-2.50 (MC) Moderately Competent	2.51-3.50 (C) Competent	3.51-4.50 (VC) Very Competent	4.51-5.00 (VHC) Very Highly Competent

The male and female postgraduate students are common in pointing out that they are very competent in terms of problem-solving, thinking and communication skills. First in the rank is on recognition when the information provided is sufficient while 5th in the data is on generating research questions by recognizing gaps in knowledge. Their skill in identifying the insufficiency or sufficiency of data can be due to their enough knowledge in the use of guide questions which involve the "who, where, when, what, why and how. As to the use of written

and oral communication effectively the result in the conducted by Gomez & Panaligan, 2013) shows that that the respondents are competent in both aspects since they are trained in teaching profession, however; since they are not directly in the language filed so they can still be trained to enrich their writing ability that will boost their confidence in research writing through research-related in-service workshops. Seemingly, identifying research gaps can sometimes be confusing with the identification of research problems since a lot of related literature and studies must be read in order to recognize a research gap prior to research problem/question formulation (Dissanayake, 2013).

Codes of conduct and ethical guidelines are of great significance in all business contexts and more so on the research settings which differ in detail and content (Giorgini,at.al.2015). This is the rationale behind why one of the research related issues included is the personal attitude and professional ethics as reflected in table 2.3.

Table 2.3 Competency Level in Personal Attitudes and Professional Ethics among Male and Female Postgraduate Students

Indicators	Male			Female			Average Weighted Mean	VD	Rank
	Mean	VD	Rank	Mean	VD	Rank			
Personal Attitudes and Professional Ethics									
1. Demonstrating an appreciation of the necessity and value of research	**4.14**	**VC**	**1.5**	**4.28**	**VC**	**1**	4.23	VC	1
2. Manifesting an awareness and adhering in ethical principles underpinning research	**4.14**	**VC**	**1.5**	4.17	VC	2	4.16	VC	2
3. Designing and implementing research studies that	4.21	VC	3	3.85	VC	3	3.97	VC	3

evaluate practice and service delivery								
Overall	**4.16**	**VC**		**4.10**	**VC**		4.12	VC

Legend:

1.00-1.50 (LC) Less Competent	1.51-2.50 (MC) Moderately Competent	2.51-3.50 (C) Competent	3.51-4.50 (VC) Very Competent	4.51-5.00 (VHC) Very Highly Competent

In terms of personal attitude and professional ethics, it is shown that both groups assessed themselves to be very competent in this aspect. It is also presented that they do demonstrate appreciation on the necessity and value of research, however; it was reflected that despite having the perception that they are very competent in designing and implementing research studies that evaluate practices and service delivery. This means that they are very much aware of the significance and application of research in their workplaces (DepEd, 2016). Conducting research studies or projects on this line is one of the areas for the professional development of a teacher which is essential for the sustainability or improvement of the teacher's personality and attitudes.

Conducting and completing research is not enough, writing the full paper is necessary for better understanding and contribute to the body of knowledge. Dissemination in either presentation locally, nationally and even international will be of great help so that what has been discovered or found out as a solution to a problem will be utilized. Publication on the same manner is also a must for others to learn from what has searched in the form of a theory, principle or anything that is to be utilized by the interested parties (Owoade, n.d. & Wilson, et.al., 2010). Table2.4 depicts the data along this aspect.

Table 2.4 Competency Level in Dissemination of Research Findings Among Male and Female Postgraduate Students

Indicators	Male			Female			Average Weighted Mean	VD	Rank
	Mean	VD	Rank	Mean	VD	Rank			
Dissemination of Research Findings									

	Mean	VD	Rank	Mean	VD	Rank			Rank
1. Demonstrating the skills required for the publication of research results	4.07	VC	2	3.64	VC	2	3.78		2
2. Changing educational practice-based on the outcome of research studies	**4.14**	**VC**	**1**	**3.71**	**VC**	**1**	3.85		1
Overall	4.11	VC		3.68	VC		3.82	VC	

Legend:

1.00-1.50 (LC) Less Competent	1.51-2.50 (MC) Moderately Competent	2.51-3.50 (C) Competent	3.51-4.50 (VC) Very Competent	4.51-5.00 (VHC) Very Highly Competent

In terms of the competency level in the dissemination of research findings among male and female post-graduate students, they rated themselves very competent wherein they are the same in putting into top rank "changing educational practice-based on outcome of research studies and least in rank is on the demonstration of skills required for the publication of research results.

In state universities and colleges, as the academic rank of the faculty increases the higher the percentage is demanded or allotted in research activity. Thus, the more research outputs an individual had conducted the better because they are assumed to contribute to the improvement of academic institutions' practices, strategies, and processes (Gomez & Panaligan, 2013). Likewise, a postgraduate student is expected to be research-oriented, driven and productive as he improves his academic qualifications as what can be seen in table 2.5.

Table 2.5 Competency Level in Roles and Functions of Male and Female Postgraduate Students as a Researcher

Indicators	Male			Female			Average Weighted Mean	VD	Rank
	Mean	VD	Rank	Mean	VD	Rank			

Roles and Functions of a Researcher

Indicator	Mean	DR	Rank	Mean	DR	Rank	Mean	DR	Rank
1. Engaging in activities that contribute to the body of knowledge	**4.00**	**VC**	**3.5**	**4.07**	**VC**	**1**	4.05	VC	1
2. Designing and implementing a series of studies that address a significant issue	4.07	VC	1.5	3.75	VC	3	3.86	VC	2
3. Writing research findings applicable to major funding bodies	4.07	VC	1.5	3.53	VC	4	3.71	VC	4
4. Offering help and support to other researchers	4.00	VC	3.5	3.78	VC	2	3.85	VC	3
5. Publishing papers in research journals	3.71	VC	6	3.17	C	6	3.35	VC	6
6. Contributing to theory within a particular area of study	3.85	VC	5	3.42	C	5	3.56	VC	5
Overall	3.95	VC		3.62	VC		3.73	VC	

Legend:

1.00-1.50 (LC) Less Competent	1.51-2.50 (MC) Moderately Competent	2.51-3.50 (C) Competent	3.51-4.50 (VC) Very Competent	4.51-5.00 (VHC) Very Highly Competent

The males and females assessed themselves as very competent along with their roles and functions as researchers. Top in the list and considered as common to both groups is on engagement in activities that contribute to the body of knowledge and least in the publication of papers in research journals. Publication, as cited by Cocal & De Vera (2018), is one of the challenges that most Filipino authors face due to lack of funds, difficulty in searching for an

appropriate journal where the paper will be published and high criteria of publishing companies. In addition, incompetence in research writing can also be a bottleneck on publishing research as stated by Vasconcelos, et.al.(2008).

Degree of Difficulty on Problems Encountered among Male and Female Postgraduate Students in Research Writing

It can be gleaned in table 3 the degree of difficulty on problems encountered by male and female postgraduate students in research writing.

Table 3. Degree of Difficulty on Problems Encountered among Male and Female Postgraduate Students in Research Writing

Indicators	Male Mean	VD	Rank	Female Mean	VD	Rank	Average Weighted Mean	VD	Rank
1. Introduction	3.50	D	9.5	3.03	D	12.5	3.19	D	11.5
2. The setting of the Study	3.42	D	13	3.07	D	10.5	3.19	D	11.5
3. Theoretical and Conceptual Framework	3.57	VD	6	3.17	D	8	3.30	D	8
4. Hypothesis	3.42	D	13	3.03	D	12.5	3.16	D	13
5. Scope, Limitation, Delimitation of the Study	3.57	VD	6	3.10	D	9	3.26	D	9
6. Definition of Terms	3.50	D	9.5	2.92	D	13	3.11	D	14
7. Review of Literature and Studies	3.57	VD	6	3.46	D	5	3.50	D	5
8. Methods	3.42	D	13	3.35	D	6.5	3.37	D	7
9. Subjects	3.50	D	9.5	3.07	D	10.5	3.21	D	10
10. Sampling Technique	3.50	D	9.5	3.35	D	6.5	3.40	D	6
11. Data Gathering	3.64	VD	3	3.50	D	3.5	3.55	VD	3.5
12. Statistical Treatment	3.64	VD	3	3.67	VD	1.5	3.66	VD	2
13. Presentation, Analysis, and Interpretation of Data	3.92	VD	1	3.67	VD	1.5	3.75	VD	1

14. Summary, Findings, Conclusion, Recommendation	3.64	VD	3	3.50	D	3.5	3.55	VD	3.5
Overall	3.56	VD		3.28	D		3.37	D	

Legend:

1.00-1.50 (LD) Less Difficult	1.51-2.50 (MD) Moderately Difficult	2.51-3.50 (D) Difficult	3.51-4.50 (VD) Very Difficult	4.51-5.00 (VHD) Very Highly Difficult

Males encountered very difficult problems on most indicators in research writing particularly along presentation/analysis/data interpretation, statistical treatment summary/ findings/ conclusion/ recommendation, theoretical/ conceptual framework, scope/ limitation/ delimitation of the study, and; review of related literature/studies. Females encountered difficult problems on most of the indicators specified in the study. Likewise, they experienced very difficult problems only on 4 indicators particularly on presentation/ analysis/data interpretation, statistical treatment, summary/ findings/ conclusion/ recommendation, and; data gathering. As Lander, et.al. (2018) pointed out in their paper one's skill in research writing is improved and well-developed if they will undergo and directly experience the process rather than merely attending research related for a or consortium. On the same respect, Gomez and Panaligan (2013) concluded that though their respondents are competent in research writing, they still need to enhance their competence in the formulation of theoretical/conceptual paradigm and identification of statistical tool or treatment appropriate to their stated problems or questions.

Self-Assessed Competency on Research Related Issues and Problems Encountered Among Male and Female Postgraduate Students

Shown in table 4 is the computed difference on self-assessed competency along with research-related issues and problems encountered among male and female postgraduate students.

Table 4. Self-Assessed Competency on Research Related Issues and Degree of Difficulty on Problems Encountered Among Male and Female Postgraduate Students

Effect	Dependent Variables	Sex	Mean	F	Sig
Wilks' Lambda = .742	Practical Skills	Male	4.2308	2.652	.111
		Female	3.9286		
	Problem Solving, Thinking and Communication Skills	Male	4.2615	1.606	.213
Sig. = .048		Female	4.0000		
	Personal Attitudes and Professional Ethics	Male	4.1795	.112	.739
		Female	4.1071		
	Dissemination of Research	Male	4.1154	4.499	**.040***
		Female	3.6786		
	Roles and Functions of a Researcher	Male	3.9487	2.003	.165
		Female	3.6250		
	Problems	Male	3.6703	1.337	.255
		Female	3.2832		

Table 4 shows the computed Wilk's lambda .742 with corresponding significant value of 0.048. The computed significant value is less than 0.05 implies that the group mean differences between the male and female respondents' self-assessment regarding research matters is significant along with the given areas.

The table also revealed the computed ANOVA value 4.499 along with dissemination of research findings with corresponding significant value of 0.040 which is less than 0.05, implies that the null hypothesis must be rejected. Furthermore, the computed mean on self–assessment level among the male is greater than the female respondents. This means that the self – assessment level of male respondents on the dissemination of research findings is significantly higher than the female respondents.

Reviewing table 4 again, most of the computed significant values (see column 6 of table 4) are greater than the alpha value 0.05 except along dissemination of research findings. This implies that the self-assessment level of male and female respondents along Practical Skills, Problem Solving, Thinking and Communication Skills, Personal Attitudes and Professional Ethics and so with the Roles and Functions of a Researcher is not significantly different with each other. This can be associated to the higher percentage exposure among males over females along research presentations as reflected in table 1.7 which is one of the many ways in disseminating research findings because through the said academic exchange of research

results individual's confidence is developed in collaboration with other researchers from different disciplines (Lander, et.al., 2018).

Strength and Significance of the Association between the Selected Profile Variables Among Male and Female Postgraduate Students along with their Level of Competency and Degree of Difficulty on Problems Encountered in Research Writing

Tables 5.1 to 5.3 reveals the computed strength and significance of the association between the selected profile variable of male and female post-graduate students along with their level of competency and degree of difficulty on problems encountered in research writing.

Table 5.1 Strength and significance of the association between the selected profile variable among male post-graduate students along with their level of competency and degree of difficulty on problems encountered in research writing

Selected Profile Variable	Statistical Results	Practical	PS	PA	Dis	Role	Problem
Age	Correlation Coefficient	-.295	-.406	-.096	-.342	-.294	**-.547***
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.306	.150	.743	.232	.308	.043
	DR	MW	MH	W	MW	MW	MH
Years in service	Correlation Coefficient	.132	.022	.367	.265	.112	-.071
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.654	.940	.196	.361	.704	.809
	DR	W	W	MW	MW	W	W
Designation/Position	Correlation Coefficient	.242	-.260	-.019	-.104	.019	-.154
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.404	.370	.948	.723	.948	.600
	DR	MW	MW	W	W	W	W
Research Presentation	Correlation Coefficient	-.444	-.645	.000	-.612	-.148	**-.889***
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.454	.239	1.000	.272	.812	.044
	DR	MS	S	W	S	W	VS
Research Conference/Training/ Seminar-Workshop Attended	Correlation Coefficient	.703	.750	.559	.471	.825	.649
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.185	.144	.327	.423	.086	.236
	DR	S	S	S	S	VS	S

Legend:

0.00 – 0.20 (W)   0.21 – 0.40 (MW)   0.41 – 0.60 (MS)   0.61 – 0.80 (S)   0.81 – 1.00 (VS)

Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong
A = Practical Skills	B=Problem Solving, Thinking and Communication Skills		C=Personal Attitudes and Professional Ethics	

Age and Degree of Problems Encountered in Writing Research

It could be gleaned in table 5.1 that there is a significant relationship between the age and degree of problems encountered of the male respondents as supported by the computed Spearman Rho value of -.547 with corresponding significant value of .043 which is less than 0.05. The computed Spearman Rho value indicates that the association between the two variables is moderately strong but inversely proportional with each other. This means that younger male respondents have a higher degree of problems encountered in writing Research than the older male respondents.

Number of Research Presented and Degree of Problems Encountered in Writing Research

Table 5.1 elicits that the variables Number of Research Presented and Degree of Problems Encountered in Writing Research are significantly related to each other. The computed Spearman Rho value of -.889 with significant value of 0.044 indicates that the variables are inversely proportional with each other. This means that the male respondents with a higher number of paper presented in the conferences or fora have a lower degree of problems encountered than with the male respondents with lesser number of researches presented.

Other Profile Variables and Research Related Issues and Problems Encountered

The results presented in Table 5.1 depicts also that there is no significant relationship between Degree of Problems Encountered in Writing Research across years of service, designation/position, and a number of Research Conference/Training/Seminar-Workshop Attended. Moreover, there are no significant relationships between the profile variables and the self - assessment research related issues. This was supported by the computed significant values along with these variables. This means that there is no linear pattern that can be generated regarding the associations between those variables.

Table 5.2 Strength and significance of the association between the selected profile variable among female post-graduate students along with their level of competency and degree of difficulty on problems encountered in research writing

Selected Profile Variables		Practical	PS	PA	Dis	Role	Problems
Age	Correlation Coefficient	.055	.260	.123	.297	.255	-.012
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.781	.182	.535	.125	.191	.952
	DR	W	MW	W	MW	MW	W
Employ Status	Likelihood ratio	.415	.346	.283	.415	.899	1.383
	Eta Square	.122	.111	.101	.122	.179	.222
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.429
	DR	W	W	W	W	W	MW
Agency	Likelihood ratio	.688	.346	.492	.415	.899	1.383
	Eta Square	.122	.111	.101	.122	.179	.222
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.429
	DR	W	W	W	W	W	MW
Years in service	Spearman rho	-.145	.192	.015	.086	.082	-.165
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.462	.328	.938	.662	.679	.400
	DR	W	W	W	W	W	W
Designation/position	Spearman rho	-.161	.061	-.026	.070	-.171	-.334
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.414	.760	.895	.723	.383	.082
	DR	W	W	W	W	W	MW
Research Presentation	Spearman rho	.000	-.063	.397	.520	.516	.253
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.000	.881	.330	.187	.190	.545
	DR	W	W	MW	MS	MS	MW
Research Conference/Training Seminar/Workshop Attended	Spearman rho	-.272	-.187	-.338	-.022	-.063	-.394
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.369	.542	.258	.944	.839	.182
	DR	MW	W	MW	W	W	MW

Legend:

0.00 – 0.20 (W)	0.21 – 0.40 (MW)	0.41 – 0.60 (MS)	0.61 – 0.80 (S)	0.81 – 1.00 (VS)
Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong

The results presented in Table 5.2 reflects that all of the computed significant values between research related issues across profile variables are greater than 0.05. This implies we cannot generate a linear pattern regarding the association between those variables. Moreover, we could not also generate a linear pattern between the association of Degree of Problems Encountered in Writing Research across the profile variable of female respondents because the computed significant values are also greater than 0.05.

Table 5.3 Combined strength and significance of the association between the selected profile variables among male and female postgraduate students along with their level of competency and degree of difficulty on problems encountered in research writing

Selected Profile Variables	Statistical Results	Practical	PS	PA	Dis	Role	Prob
Age	Spearman rho	.000	.169	.112	.197	.147	-.146
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.999	.283	.482	.211	.352	.357
	DR	W	W	W	W	W	W
Employment	Chi-square	.241	.205	.171	.241	.630	1.127
Status	Eta square	.076	.070	.064	.076	.123	.164
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	.476
	DR	W	W	W	W	W	W
Agency	Likelihood ratio	.241	.205	.171	.241	.630	1.127
	Eta Square	.076	1.00	.064	.076	.123	.164
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1.00	.070	1.00	1.00	1.00	.476
	DR	W	W	W	W	W	W
Years	Spearman rho	-.235	-.008	.054	-.143	-.117	-.223
in service	Sig. (2-tailed)	.134	.959	.733	.367	.460	.156
	DR	MW	W	W	W	W	MW
Designation/	Spearman rho	-.239	-.105	-.016	-.210	-.260	**-.316***
Position	Sig. (2-tailed)	.128	.509	.922	.181	.096	.042
	DR	MW	W	W	MW	MW	MW
Research	Spearman rho	.023	-.113	.283	.283	.318	-.157
Presentation	Sig. (2-tailed)	.941	.713	.349	.348	.290	.610
	DR	W	W	MW	MW	MW	W

Research Conference/Training	Spearman rho	.053	.098	-.087	.136	.144	-.147
Seminar/Workshop Attended	Sig. (2-tailed)	.836	.699	.731	.591	.570	.560
	DR	W	W	W	W	W	W

Legend:

0.00 – 0.20 (W)	0.21 – 0.40 (MW)	0.41 – 0.60 (MS)	0.61 – 0.80 (S)	0.81 – 1.00 (VS)
Weak	Moderately Weak	Moderately Strong	Strong	Very Strong

Designation/Position and Degree of Difficulty on Problems Encountered in Writing Research

Table 5.3 shows that there is a significant relationship between the designation/position and the degree of difficulty on problems encountered in research writing among the respondents. The computed Spearman Rho value of -.316 with corresponding significant value of .042 which is less than 0.05 implies that the association between the two variables is moderately weak and inversely proportional with each other. This means that the respondents with higher designation/position have a lower degree of problems encountered in writing Research than the respondents with lower designation/position.

Other Profile Variables, Research- Related Issues and Problems Encountered

The results presented in Table 5.3 shows that all of the computed significant values between research-related issues and Degree of Difficulty on Problems Encountered in Research Writing across profile variables are greater than 0.05. This implies that the null hypothesis stated as "there is no significant relationship between research-related issues and Degree of Difficulty on Problems Encountered in Research Writing across the selected profile variables" must be rejected. This means that a linear pattern regarding the association between those variables can't be generated.

Conclusion

Female postgraduate students outnumbered males in terms of sex who are in categorized to be in their mid to adulthood stage of life with permanent employment status in public agencies and have longer service years compared to males as teacher 3. Both groups of male and female postgraduate students showed that most of them had no paper presentations,

lacks publication and not attended in-service research-related conferences, training, seminar-workshops and the like.

The male and female postgraduate students are very competent on the level of their self-assessment along with research related issues as to practical skills, problem-solving, thinking and communication skills, personal attitude and professional ethics, dissemination of research findings and on roles and functions of a researcher. Further, their competency strength on the indicators in each research-related issues is along with the use of technology (computer), ability to recognize knowledge sufficiency provided, appreciation of research necessity and value, shifting educational practice-based into the outcome of research studies, and, engagement on activities that are contributory to the body of knowledge. Competency ranked least such as data observation and recording, research question generation out of recognition of knowledge gaps, designing and implementing research studies that evaluation of practice and service delivery, demonstration of skills required for the publication of research results and publication of research papers in journals.

The study found out that on the degree of difficulty on problems encountered in research writing, male post-graduate students described their problems as very difficult on most aspects compared to females whose level of difficulty is difficult on most of the indicators identified. However, both groups experienced very difficult problems along with data presentation/analysis/interpretation, statistical treatment as well as on summary/findings/conclusion and recommendation.

Male respondents had higher self-assessment on dissemination of research findings than female respondents.

The older male respondents with a greater number of researches presented had lower degree of difficulty on problems encountered in research writing than younger male.

Recommendation

Postgraduate institutions must provide more avenue for male and female students to gain experience in paper presentations, publications and attendance to in-service research-related activities like organizing classroom-based symposium, trainings, seminar-workshop, in-house presentations and/or encourage them to attend institution-based, national as well as international presentations especially those who are enrolled in research subjects so as to enrich and enhance one's capability in doing such work.

Improve the male and female postgraduate students level of competency on the least ranked indicators identified in each research-related issues by intensifying the knowledge of

male and female postgraduate students while taking research courses and expose them to functional research work by engaging them in more research work and readings.

Broaden one's experience along with the very difficult problems that the male and female postgraduate students had encountered in research writing by providing more assistance to them while they are conducting research work through coaching, mentoring and even establishing research clinic to facilitate and lessen the degree of difficulty experienced on these aspects. Apply one of the best practices of other institutions like maintaining a minimal number of students (at least 25 per class) enrolled in research subject so as to provide more time in assisting the students in their research work and be more focused on individual needs in accomplished quality research outputs.

Further study is recommended in a wider scope and with the inclusion of other variables to serve as a basis for capability enhancement among researchers and research facilities/equipment.

References

Arsyad, S. (2014). The discourse structure and linguistic features of research article
abstract in english by Indonesian academics. The Asian ESP Journal. Asian ESP
Journal.   10.   191-224.Accessed   at:
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/321361572_The_Asian_ESP_Journal

Cocal, C. & De Vera, I. 2018. Challenges and strategies on publication to international indexed
journals by filipino academic researchers. Asian-ESP-Journal. Volume 14, Issue 7.2.
December 2018. Accessed at: https://www.asian-esp-journal.com/2018/volume-14-
issue-7-2-   december-2018/

Department of Education. 2016. Adoption of the basic education research agenda. (DepEd
Order No. 39, s. 2016).
Accessed at: https://peac.org.ph/wp-content/uploads/2018/08/DO_s2016_039.pdf

Dissanayake, D. 2013. Research, Research gap and the research problem.
Accessed at: https://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/47519/   MPRA   Paper   No.   47519,
posted 11 June 2013 14:30 UTC

Finegold, D and Notabartolo, A. 2016. 21st-Century competencies and their impact: an
interdisciplinary   literature   review.   Accessed   at:
https://hewlett.org/wpcontent/uploads/2016/11/21st_Century   Competencies_
Impact.pdf

Gray, C. 2007. Research competencies framework. The Royal College of Surgeons of England.Accessed at: https://www.fgdp.org.uk/sites/fgdp.org.uk/files/docs/in-practice/ Research/research%20competencies.pdf

Giorgini, V., Mecca, J. T., Gibson, C., Medeiros, K., Mumford, M. D., Connelly, S., & Devenport, L. D. (2015). Researcher perceptions of ethical guidelines and codes of conduct. *Accountability in research*, *22*(3), 123–138. doi:10.1080/08989621.2014.955607 Accessed at: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC4313573/

Gomez, M.& Panaligan, C. 2013. Level of research competencies and satisfaction of the faculty members of the college of criminology. Asian Academic Research Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities Volume 1, Issue 14 (August 2013)

Accessed at: https://www.academia.edu/5023979/LEVEL_OF_RESEARCH_COMPETENCIES_AND_SATISFACTION_OF_THE_FACULTY_MEMBERS_FROM_THE_COLLEGE_OF_CRIMINOLOGY

Guiab M. & Ganal N. (2014). Demographic profile of the public school heads and school related problems. Express, an International of Multidisciplinary Research.

Accessed at; https://www.google.com/search?q=Demographic+Profile+of+the+Public+ School+Heads+and+School+Related+Problems.&oq=Demographic+Profile+of+the+Public+School+Heads+and+School+Related+Problems.&aqs=chrome..69i57.750j0j7&sourceid =chrome&ie=UTF-8

Lander, J., Seeho,S. & Foster, K. 2018. Learning practical research skills using an academic paper framework – An Innovative, Integrated Approach. © 2018 King Saud bin Abdulaziz University for Health Sciences. Production and hosting by Elsevier B.V. Accessed at: https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2452301118300051

Lubbe, S. & Worrall, L. & Klopper, R. (2005). Challenges in postgraduate research: how doctorates come off the rails. 1. 241-262. Accessed at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/228757128 Challenges in Postgraduate research how doctorates come off the rails

Ogbuiyi, Darlina & Ogbuiyi, Sussan & Oriogu, Chuks. (2014). Influence of Computer Literacy Skill and Online Searching On Undergraduates' Use of academic materials in babcock university library. 19. 49-53. Accessed at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/284388233_Influence

_of_Computer_Literacy_Skill_and_Online_Searching_On_Undergraduates'_ Use _of_Academic_Materials_in_Babcock_University_Library

Olson, Carlo O. & Wyett, Jerry L. (2019). Teachers need affective competencies. Education vol. 120, no. 4, 2000, p.741. Congress of the Philippines. 2018. An act institutionalizing the Philippine qualifications framework (PQF), establishing the PQF-National Coordinating Council (NCC) and appropriating funds therefor (Republic Act No. 10968). H. No.   6572 S. No. 1456 Sections 2-4

Accessed at: https://thecorpusjuris.com/legislative/republic-acts/ra-no-10968.php

Owoade, O. n.d. Dissemination of research findings in clinical nursing research.

Accessed at: https://globalhealthtrials.tghn.org/site_media/media/articles/ DISSEMINATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS IN CLINICAL NURSING RESEARCH.pdf

Posecion, O, Go, M., Albano, H. 2011. Language research: principles and application. Quezon City, Lorimar Publishing, Inc. pp. 121-126

Vasconcelos, S. M., Sorenson, M. M., Leta, J., Sant'ana, M. C., & Batista, P. D. (2008). Researchers' writing competence: a bottleneck in the publication of Latin-American science?. *EMBO reports*, *9*(8), 700–702. doi:10.1038/embor.2008.143

Accessed at: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2515218/

Vea, R. 2018. Philippine qualifications framework (PQF). (as per PQF-NCC Resolution No. 2014-01 adopted on 22 July 2014) Accessed at: http://www.aaccupqa.org.ph/images/2018AccreditorsConference/ Presentations/ AACCUPPresentationDrReynaldoBVea.pdf

Wilson, P. M., Petticrew, M., Calnan, M. W., & Nazareth, I. (2010). Disseminating research findings: what should researchers do? A systematic scoping review of conceptual frameworks. *Implementation science: IS*, *5*, 91. doi:10.1186/1748-5908-5-91 Accessed at: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2994786/

READ AND SPELL: The Communicative Competence
of English Language Teachers
and the Teaching of English as a Second Language

Apolo S. Francisco, Ph.D.

Ilocos Sur Polytechnic State College

Sta. Maria, Ilocos Sur, Philippines

francisco.apolo@yahoo.com.ph

Bioprofile:

Dr. Apolo Francisco is currently the Vice President for Academic Affairs of the Ilocos Sur Polytechnic State College in Sta. Maria, Ilocos Sur, Philippines. He holds a Doctorate degree in Educational Management and a Master's degree in Language and Literature from the University of the Philippines Baguio where he finished as a CHED-FDP Scholar. Dr. Francisco authored several English books and has been invited in various private and public HEIs nationwide to serve as resource speaker in ESL teaching. He is also one of the completers of the first batch of the Philippine Higher Education Career Service (Phil-HECS) Fellowship Program sponsored by DAP, CHED, and PASUC. His interests include qualitative and quantitative researches on linguistics, sociolinguistics, and language and literature teaching and learning.

Author's Notes:

Abstract

Using pre-experimental pre-test and post-test and one-shot case study research design, this study necessitated the participation of 40 best English language teachers from the three Divisions of the Department of Education in the province of Ilocos Sur, Philippines. The study assessed the teachers' proficiency on reading, writing and listening using t-test of their pre and post test results during a free five-day intensive training dubbed as Research and Extension on the Acquisition Development and Strengthening the Proficiency of the English Language Learners (READ and SPELL) . The speaking proficiency was assessed using the Program for Accelerated Communication Excellence (PACE)-made rubric where the teachers were classified as P1s, P2s or P3s. The Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation scheme by Fröhlich, Spada & Allen (1985) and in depth interviews were also administered. Findings reveal that the teachers are found communicatively competent. The increase of their proficiency based on the result of the pre and post tests further proves their communicative competence. Thus, READ and SPELL's significant impact on the competence level of the teacher participants in their proficiency. Moreover, their effectiveness in providing contexts using the target language where negotiation of meaning takes place articulates their pragmatic competence. The respondents' pedagogical styles enriched through the inputs from the training are within the framework of communicative language teaching based from the COLT scheme.

Keywords: macro skills, communicative competence, communicative language teaching, TESOL

Introduction

For almost two decades, the communicative approach to language teaching has become the prevailing prototype and established practice in classrooms in the West. However, despite its wide acceptance in educational institutions in that part of the globe its appropriateness to the eastern context has led to prevalent frustration and resistance in many English as a foreign language contexts (Ahmad & Rao 2012; Barkhuizen 1998; Celce-Murcia Dörnyei & Thurrell 1997; Hu 2002; Kumar & Kainth 2015; Li, 1998; Lo 2001; Shamim 1996; Yu 2001 in Huang & Yang 2018).

Despite these criticisms however, institutions in the East still see the positive effect of this approach especially in tertiary (Karim 2004; Chang, 2011; Khan and Wette, 2013; Noori, 2018) and in secondary level teaching (Liao, 2003; Chang, 2000).

In the Philippine context where English is taught as a second language, since the introduction of CLT in the 1980's Martin (2014) discloses the CLT concept "was largely misunderstood and found to be pedagogically unclear". Martin's argument was seconded by Maestre & Gandidis (2016) as they discovered through their study that the Filipino English teachers' beliefs were at times incompatible with CLT theory. In a more recent work, Barrot (2018) confirms the Maestre & Gindidis (2016) findings and Martin's (2014) contention. His findings revealed that teachers did not extensively integrate the principles of CLT into their beliefs. Findings further showed that teachers did not extensively employ tasks, syllabus, and materials that would realize CLT in language classrooms.

Most of these teachers believe however, that exposure to more CLT trainings will capacitate them better making them more competent and able in using the approach in their own classroom instruction. In unison, both the EFL and ESL teachers in the Region demand for trainings in CLT (Khan & Wette, 2013; Vongxay, 2013; Huang & Yang, 2018).

It is through these premises that prompted the researcher to spearhead an intensive and localized training dubbed as Research and Extension on the Acquisition Development and Strengthening the Proficiency of the English Language Learners (READ and SPELL). Patterned from the Project SPELL where the researcher was one of the national trainers of the said Project, he made use of the same program to determine and enhance the level of proficiency of basic education teachers and improve their language pedagogical skills using English as a second language anchored on CLT approach in the context of the province of Ilocos Sur, Philippines.

READ and SPELL is a free five-day intensive training funded by the Ilocos Sur Polytechnic State College on proficiency and pedagogy which used CLT as its framework. The training aimed to assist and expose the English language teachers of the Department of Education in the province of Ilocos Sur in the Philippines hoping for them to further understand, appreciate, and apply the CLT framework in their context.

This research therefore, aimed to determine the effect of the READ and SPELL training on the proficiency and pedagogy of the teacher-trainees. With the results of this study, the researcher could hopefully have an empirical basis for more sophisticated research endeavours on proficiency and pedagogy of the teachers as the READ and SPELL would also be proposed to be implemented in the other three provinces of Region 1 in the Philippines.

Literature Review

CLT and the English Teachers

In Bangladesh, Karim's (2004) study examined university-level EFL teacher's attitudes toward CLT. The findings showed that most teachers displayed positive attitudes toward the basic principles of CLT. Also, the teachers were aware of the features of CLT and their perceptions of CLT corresponded with their reported CLT practice (Karim, 2004).

Chang (2011) also found that the Taiwanese teachers held favorable attitudes toward the principles of CLT and displayed characteristics of CLT in their beliefs. Also, the results demonstrated that Taiwanese college English teachers believe CLT can make English teaching effective and meaningful.

Similarly in Pakistan, Khan and Wette (2013) explored the views of a number of experienced teachers of English in tertiary colleges about the feasibility and appropriateness of using communicative approaches in their classrooms. Questionnaires and interviews were used to gather information from teachers and although resistance to CLT was expected, study data revealed considered and generally optimistic statements about what teachers believed was possible within the constraints of the local context. Benefits of CLT they identified included using communicative tasks to complement accuracy- and receptive skill-oriented activities, to provide practice in synthesising elements of the language system, to foster more democratic teacher-student relationships, and to promote active involvement and independent learning by students.

In the context of Afghan EFL , Noori (2018) explored EFL lecturers' perceived challenges in practicing CLT. Using a quantitative research approach in which a survey questionnaire was given to EFL lecturers teaching in a public university, the results of his study again revealed that the EFL lecturers had positive perceptions of using CLT activities, as there were evidence of a number of major CLT activities conducted in their classrooms.

Moreover, high school teachers also approve the significance of using the CLT approach in their level. Liao (2003) investigated high school English teachers' attitudes toward CLT in China. The first-phase survey study reported most Chinese teachers are supportive of the implementation of CLT. Chang's (2000) study in Taiwan investigated 110 high school English teachers' attitudes toward CLT and their practice of CLT. The results showed that Taiwanese high school English teachers hold positive attitudes toward CLT. Moreover, the teachers who hold positive attitudes toward CLT tend to use more communicative activities in their classroom practice.

Meanwhile in Bangladesh, Islam (2016) investigated the implementation of CLT in the primary level and found that CLT is not implemented in their context. She claims classrooms are still teacher centered, learners are not engaged enough, and fluency is still out of concern and classroom activities are not communicative. She argues that the implementation has been challenged by several factors included: power of exam, students' English phobia, lack of facilities to support CLT, and classroom environment.

In the Philippine context where English is taught as a second language, since the introduction of CLT in the 1980's Martin (2014) discloses the CLT concept "was largely misunderstood and found to be pedagogically unclear".

Maestre & Gandidis (2016) also found the Filipino English teachers' ambiguity in their understanding of the use of CLT in their classroom instruction. Using the qualitative research methodology, they utilized a descriptive online survey which was distributed to 17 primary language teachers from a private school to gather data pertaining to teachers' beliefs, practices and challenges in implementing CLT. The findings reveal that teachers claimed they do not always use CLT in teaching the English language. Whilst they claimed they use CLT in their classroom instruction, when examined, their beliefs were at times incompatible with CLT theory.

Barrot (2018) confirms the Maestre & Gindidis (2016) findings and Martin's (2014) contention. Barrot sought to determine the beliefs, practices, and problem encountered by tertiary Filipino teachers in implementing CLT. Ten experienced tertiary teachers from a private university in the Philippines were purposively selected to participate in the study. His findings revealed that teachers did not extensively integrate the principles of CLT into their beliefs. Findings further showed that teachers did not extensively employ tasks, syllabus, and materials that would realize CLT in language classrooms. Meanwhile, while CLT is not explicitly employed in the teachers' syllabus, unconsciously this approach is actually being utilized in the classrooms. Francisco (2019) for instance recognized through his theoretical musings that his students in a writing class "were able to put up essay openings, went on the rigors of basic research, built their confidence in using the target language through oral presentation, pair work, group sharing, and one-on-one meeting with the researcher"(p377). Evidently, these are features of a communicative language class.

The Need for CLT Teachers' Training

To further understand, appreciate, and apply CLT approach in their classroom instruction, Pakistani teachers called for improvements in the standard and availability of in-

service CLT courses in which appropriate innovations could be explored and supported (Khan & Wette, 2013). In Lao, Vongxay (2013) also articulated the need for CLT training among Lao higher education teachers. In the same manner, Taiwanese teachers also demanded in-service training in CLT. In a study of Huang & Yang (2018) they used a multi-methodological approach of quantitative surveys and qualitative interviews which aimed to examine teachers' needs for better communication-oriented practices in the classrooms of Taiwan. The findings of the study also revealed that to make CLT more applicable teachers demanded in-service training and assistance from native English-speaking teachers (NESTs).

With regard conduct of training on CLT, in India, Sreehari (2012) investigated the teaching of English at undergraduate colleges in the state of Andhra Pradesh in the backdrop of Andhra Pradesh English Lecturers' Retraining Program. The program was jointly sponsored and conducted by the Directorate of Collegiate Education, Government of AP and the US State Department English Language Fellow Program. The main aim of the program was to update the teaching skills of English teachers of undergraduate colleges in the State. The program trained teachers to adopt Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) principles so as to enhance English language skills of their students. The results indicate that teachers should follow more learner- centered ways in their teaching of English.

In the Philippines, as early as 2006 the Commission on Higher Education has recognized the significance of CLT approach in university –level classroom instruction. The Project Strengthening the Proficiency of the English Language Learners (SPELL) was the brainchild of Dr. Evelyn Pascua former CHED Region II Director. It was a short term enhancement training program for English Teachers from Regions 1, 2 and CAR for eight (8) days per training session and was implemented by NLGC-PMO, CHED Regions 1, 2 and CAR within the Academic Year 2005-2006. Based on the study of Francisco (2009) where he evaluated the impact of the Project SPELL to its teacher-trainees, the program received an overwhelming positive effect on the teacher-trainees' proficiency and classroom pedagogical practices.

The literatures reviewed reveal that majority of EFL teachers in the East specifically those who are teaching in the tertiary and secondary levels have positive attitude towards the use of the CLT approach while in the primary level, the CLT's concept is not fully operationalized. In a country where English is taught as a second language like the Philippines, teachers confess very minimal integration of this framework in their pedagogy. Thus, most of

these teachers believe that exposure to more CLT trainings will capacitate them better making them more competent and able in using the approach in their own classroom instruction.

This research therefore, aimed to determine the effect of the READ and SPELL training on the proficiency and pedagogy of the teacher-trainees in Ilocos Sur, Philippines.

Methodology

The study followed the pre-experimental pre-test and post-test and one-shot case study research design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). The one group pre-test and post-test design was used to find whether READ and SPELL would cause improvement to the proficiency on the four macro skills of the participants. The one-shot case study design determined how the teachers use the inputs of READ and SPELL in their own context.

Main sources of data were the forty (40) basic education English language teachers from the province of Ilocos Sur, Philippines with its three divisions namely: Vigan City, Candon City and Ilocos Sur. Said participants attended a free five-day training dubbed as READ and SPELL which stands for Research and Extension on the Acquisition Development and Strengthening the Proficiency of the English Language Learners. The project was funded by Ilocos Sur Polytechnic State College. The research proponent also served as organizer at the same time speaker in some topics during the five-day training. Moreover, it was the discretion of the Superintendents whom to send as participants since the organizers asked for best English teachers in their respective division.

The English Language Proficiency Test (ELPT) used in the Project SPELL Training in the four macroskills validated by the members of the Technical Working Group(TWG) tapped by the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) to train prospective Trainers was the main tool to measure the teachers' communicative competence. In-depth interviews and class observation using the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) observation checklist designed by Fröhlich, Spada, and Allen (1985) were administered to determine how the teacher participants use the inputs they gained from the training in their context. The administration of the observation using the COLT was guided by the procedure done Fröhlich et al in her study in 1985.All pre tests were conducted on the first day and all the post tests were carried out on the last day of the training. The ELPT on speaking was administered by the Resource Speaker/Trainer who was in charge of the first module (Language Skills Enhancement) while the reading, listening and writing tests were administered by the researcher. The objective type reading and listening tests was checked by the Speakers on Reading and Facilitating Learning. However, the checking of the essay type writing test were

carried out by the speakers on Grammar in Context and Reading into Writing across the Discipline. In terms of second language teaching, the COLT measured how communicative the teachers are in their language teaching as they integrate in their own context the inputs they acquired from READ and SPELL. From July to October of the school year 2015-2016, the researcher conducted an unannounced one hour class observation to ten randomly selected READ and SPELL trainers. The researcher was hindered by the many calamities which hit the province that year that he was only able to observe ten participants. All coding in Part A was done in real time—that is, during the observation period— two coders (the researcher and a language faculty) present in the classroom. In addition to identifying the Activity (e.g., drill, dialogue, repetition drill, conversation), the observers placed a check mark in the appropriate boxes under each of the other four major headings: Participant Organization, Content, Student Modality, and Materials. In the course of a single activity, several categories might be marked under each of these four main headings. Part B coding, done after the lesson, was based on the audiotape recording of the class. A time-sampling procedure within each activity identified in Part A was followed. Coding started at the beginning of each activity, which lasted for one minute, and resumed after a two-minute interval. During the one-minute coding periods, the frequency of occurrence of each category of the communicative features of teacher and student interaction was recorded by two coders. Although the coding of Part A and Part B were carried out independently, the coders checked their entries for Part A immediately after each observation period and their entries for Part B after each minute of coding. Wherever necessary in coding Part B, the tape was replayed, and any problems were discussed.

Significant difference between the pre and post tests results of reading, writing and listening macro skills were evaluated using t-test. The speaking proficiency was measured using the rubrics designed from E- Innovators PACE Training, 2005.

Results and Discussion

Table 1. <u>Pre and Post Tests Results on Reading, Writing, and Listening</u>

Macroskills	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Reading	-4.30000	3.10665	-8.754	39	.000
Writing	-2.85000	2.08228	-8.656	39	.000
Listening	-2.00000	1.41421	-8.944	39	.000

Since all the significant values are less than .01 a highly significant difference is noted in the pre and post test scores of teachers along reading, writing and listening. These findings appear to be remarkable. The READ and SPELL inputs have manifested great effect on their performance in the tests, hence an evident increase in their proficiency. The teachers have confessed that they were victims of the traditional way of teaching English. They have learned the grammatical rules without so much exposure to concrete communication situations where they could actually use the target language and monitor their lapses. The findings out of the experience of these teachers have just again proven that language learning is more effective when there is the actual use of language rather than purely set of rules (Habermas 1970; Hymes 1971; Savignon 1983). Generally, the trainees have internalized the importance of the macroskills in language learning and teaching because through this process, the teachers internalize linguistic information without which they could not produce language.

Table 2. <u>Speaking Test Results</u>

Pre test	Frequency	Percentage	Post test	Frequency	Percentage
P1	20	50.00	P1	3	7.50

P2	13	32.50	P2	21	52.50
P3	7	17.50	P3	16	40.00
Total	**40**	**100.00**		**40**	**100.00**

On the speaking test results, most of the teacher-trainees are initially P1s with a frequency of 20 (50.00 percent), but after the training, most of them became P2s with a frequency of 21 (52.50percent) meaning they are trainable. From only 3 (7.50 percent) P3s in the pre test, 16 (40.00percent) out of the 40 participants became P3s as registered from the post test results. Thus, results reveal that the speaking skills of the teacher trainees improved.

Table 3. COLT Observation Results

A. Classroom Events

COLT Classroom Events	Frequency	Percentage
I. Activity	9	90.00
II. Participant Organization		
A. whole class		
a.1 teacher to student	9	90.00
a.2 student to student	10	100.00
a.3 choral work by the students	10	100.00
B. Group work	10	100.00
C. Individual seatwork	7	70.00
D. Group/individual work	10	100.00
III. Content		
A. Management		
1. Procedural objectives	6	60.00
2. Disciplinary statements	4	40.00
B. Explicit Focus on Language		
1. Form	7	70.00
2. Function	10	100.00
3. Discourse	8	80.00

4. Sociolinguistics	8	80.00
C. Other topics		
1. Narrow range reference	2	20.00
2. Limited range of reference	3	30.00
3. Broad range of reference	5	50.00
D. Topic Control		
1. Teacher	6	60.00
2. Student	4	40.00
IV. Student Modality	8	80.00
V. Materials		
A. Type of Materials		
1. Text	7	70.00
2. Audio	9	90.00
3. Visual	9	90.00
B. Source/purpose of materials		
1. Pedagogic	9	90.00
2. Non Pedagogic	8	80.00
3. Semi Pedagogic	10	100.00
C. Use of Materials		
1. Highly controlled	2	20.00
2. Semi controlled	3	30.00
3. Minimally controlled	5	50.00

Results reveal that the ten teachers randomly selected for class observation are more of facilitators rather than lecturers, with most of the tasks inside their classes are activity based and collaborative in nature. The teachers are also confident in administering varied activities ranging from class activities, paired works, individual or group activities, organizing the learners, and presenting the language focus in logical sequence. Moreover, they are very procedural even in the utilization of materials. Observations further reveal that the teachers expose their learners into meaningful activities which can provide them genuine contexts in learning language without committing them to memory. They also use small group discussions

to enable learners to be actively involved in the learning process through the use of learning strategies. In management, the teachers employ procedural directives.

Observations also reveal that teachers teach language functions rather than forms. With regard to the range of topics on discourse, the teachers manifest more confidence in initiating broad topics in discourses such as topics going beyond the classroom and immediate environment and include reference to controversial public issues, world events and other matters. Moreover, teachers are integrating the four macro skills in their language classes. They also utilize textual instructional materials in their classes, especially in terms of audio and visual materials. The same case is happening to the utilization of instructional materials-pedagogic and realias as well. This supports the assertion of Pascasio (2005) and Islam (2016) that policy makers must adopt English language materials that include ample information, teaching strategies and support materials for English language learners to participate in sufficient targeted instruction and learning activities to fully develop their English skills as they learn to read and write English. She also added that these materials must be based on authentic language rather than contrived or artificial language, such as the language in decodable text, that is less meaningful and more difficult for ELLs.

However, some teachers are airing their problems that their respective schools do not purchase materials needed in their teaching, especially those who are teaching in remote schools. Most of the audiovisual technologies and internet connections they use are their personal properties. Aside from this, the teachers are beset with problems on-related problem such as: inadequate library facilities and equipment and lack of incentives like promotions to scholarships or grants. The results are parallel to Pascasio's (2005) suggestion that a sound education policy must be in place to support school administrators and teachers in three areas: teacher professional development, effective instructional materials, and effective English language development program implementation. The study also suggests that with the fast development of information and communication technologies (ICTs), teaching language in a setting other than the traditional classrooms is a promising trend. There is nothing certain about the future of technology, except that it will no doubt become more ubiquitous and powerful. It is no longer possible in language education to ignore this force, which is changing global cultures.

The result shows that the teacher respondents adhere to the communicative language teaching where grammar is taught in context. The teacher is focused not only in building the linguistic competence of the learners but also the communicative performance of the students. During the in depth interview, most of them articulate that the READ and SPELL has given

them ideas in providing genuine varieties of context that they could utilize in their teaching of Grammar and in testing their learners' communicative performance. This would only suggest that READ and SPELL has awakened the consciousness of the teachers in Ilocos Sur that teaching and learning is enjoyable and spontaneous and where language is used, as a whole, in context that provides a meaningful and interesting language practice.

Table 4. <u>COLT Observation Results</u>

B. Communicative Features

COLT Communicative Features	Frequency	Percentage
I. Use of the target language		
1. Use of the first language (L1)	3	30.00
2. Use of the second language (L2)	7	70.00
II. Sustained Features		
1. Ultra minimal	1	10.00
2. Minimal	2	20.00
3. Sustained	7	70.00
III. Discourse Initiation	9	90.00
IV. Relative Restriction of linguistic form		
1. Restricted	3	30.00
2. Non Restricted	6	60.00
3. Unrestricted	1	10.00

Observations reveal that the classes are communicative. The conversation between the teacher and the students is free flowing using the target language, genuinely used and the messages are not easily anticipated. A number of responses are possible and each participant in communication can provide different information. The skill in the art of questioning is effectively applied by the teachers especially in the processing of the texts. The teachers find the significance of developing the discourse competence of their learners. It is further revealed that discourse initiations are not restricted to linguistic forms. Meaning forms are taught side by side with the context where students could see immediately the significance of the grammar lessons in real communicative contexts.

However, the teachers disclosed during the interview that language difficulty due to very poor foundation is a very serious problem of the students. Many other student related

reasons such as lack of interest, apathy towards the subject, lack of study habits and insufficient books and references contribute to the problem. This scenario poses a great challenge to the teacher participants: to reconcile the highly communicative language teaching methodologies introduced by the READ and SPELL to the beginner proficiency level of their learner. As Canale and Swain (1980) emphasized that the teachers teach and learners learn only when there is match in instructional setting.

Further, while the teachers find READ and SPELL very effective in their context because of the interactive and collaborative learning features and integration of four macro skills, they confessed that they have to master further their proficiency and pedagogical skills. Unfortunately, this sort of quick-fix approach will not give them that –all- important, ability to comprehend and internalize these concepts. Five days is not enough to realize when to use a technique, with whom will it work, and when to adopt it fit for their learners.

These findings should encourage the Department of Education in the Philippines to continuously conduct trainings and seminars for the English teachers since the responses of the teacher-participants show a high degree of satisfaction to the project for evidently it has improved the teacher's English proficiency and teaching-related skills in TESL.

Moreover, there is a need to repackage the presentation of the training especially on the innovative methodologies like the integration of current and emerging information and communication technologies (ICTs), techniques and strategies so that it will cater not only to the high proficient learners but to the different proficiency level of learners as well.

Conclusion

The teachers are communicatively competent as they passed the English Language Proficiency Test in the four macro skills. The increase of their proficiency based on the result of the pre and post tests further proves their communicative competence. Thus, READ and SPELL's significant impact on the competence level of the teacher participants in their proficiency. Moreover, their effectiveness in providing contexts using the target language where negotiation of meaning takes place articulates their pragmatic competence. The respondents' pedagogical styles enriched through the inputs from the training are within the framework of communicative language teaching based from the COLT scheme.

References

Barrot, J. (2018). Exploring the Implementation of Communicative Language Teaching in the Philippines: A Tertiary Teachers' Perspective. *Advanced Science Letters*. 24 (4), 2284-2287

Campbell D. & Stanley, J. (1963). *Experimental and Quasi-experimental Designs for Research*. Handbook of Research and Teaching. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company

Canale, M. & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing. *Applied Linguistics, 1*, 1-47.

Chang, L. U. (2000). Communicative language teaching: Senior high school English teachers' belief and practice. Master Thesis, Tamkang University.

Chang, M. (2011). EFL Teachers' Attitudes toward Communicative Language Teaching in Taiwanese College. *The Asian EFL Journal* 53, 17-34

Francisco, A. (2009). The Effect of the CHED's Project SPELL on the Teaching of English in the Province of Isabela. Master's Thesis. University of the Philippines-Baguio

Francisco, IR. M. (2019). Probing Students' Abilities in Writing the 'Hook' Using the 'Funneling' Style. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 21 (2.4), 355-377

Fröhlich, M, Spada, N , & Allen, P. (1985). Differences in the Communicative Orientation of L2 Classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19 (1), 1-31.

Habermas, J. (1970) . Toward a Theory of Communicative Competence. In H.P. Dreitzel (Ed). Recent Sociology. New York: MacMillan

Huang, S. & Yang, L. (2018). Teachers' Needs in the Advancement of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in Taiwan. *TESOL International Journal* 13, 100-117

Hymes, DH. (1972). Communicative Competence . In J.B Pride and J. Holmes (Sds) Sociolinguistics. Selected Readings. Marmonsworth: Penguin.

Islam, F. (2016). Effectiveness of Communicative Language Teaching at Primary Level in Bangladesh. Master's Thesis. BRAC University

Karim, K. M. R. (2004). Teachers' perceptions, attitudes, and expectations about communicative language teaching (CLT) in post-secondary education in Bangladesh. Master's Thesis. University of Victoria.

Khan, A & Wette, R (2013). Teachers' views on the appropriateness and feasibility of CLT in Pakistan. *The Asian EFL Journal* 59, 4-27

Liao, X. (2003). Chinese secondary school teacher's attitude toward communicative language teaching and their classroom practice. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, the University of Auckland

Maestre, J.T. & Gindidis, M. (2016). Teachers' Beliefs, Practices and Challenges in Using Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in an ESL Context in the Philippines. The Asian Conference on Language Learning 2016 Official Conference Proceedings.

Martin, I.P. (2014). English language teaching in the Philippines. *World Englishes*. 33 (4), 472-485.

Noori, A. (2018). Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in EFL Context: Exploring Afghan EFL Lecturers' Perceived Challenges in Implementing CLT. *International Journal of Research* 5(16), 1049-1063

Pascasio, E.M. (2005). The sociolinguistic variables in cross-cultural communication. IN D.T. Dayag and J.S. Quakenbush (Ed), *Linguistics and language education in the Philippines and beyond: a Festschrift in honor of Ma. Lourdes S. Bautista*, 545-554. Linguistic Society of the Philippines

Savignon, S.J. (1983). Communicative Competence Theory and Classroom Practice. Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

Sreehari, P. (2012). Communicative Language Teaching: Possibilities and Problems. *English Language Teaching.* 5 (12), 87-93

Vongxay, H. (2013). The Implementation of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in an English Department in a Lao Higher Education Institution: A Case Study. Master's Thesis. Unitec Institution of Technology

"Otherwise, good luck…": Patterns of use associated with *good* in teacher feedback

Christine Burns
email: ceburns@polyu.edu.hk

Dr. Svetlana Chigaeva-Heddad
email: chigaevasv@gmail.com

Maggie Leung
email: maggieleung@ln.edu.hk

Bio-Profiles:

Christine Burns is an Instructor at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University English Language Centre where she serves as Editor-in-Chief of *Inscribe: A Journal of Undergraduate Writing in Asia*. She developed and teaches a storytelling course. Her interests include materials development and genre pedagogy.

The Hong Kong Polytechnic University
English Language Centre, AG-653
11 Yuk Choi Road
Hung Hom, Kowloon
Hong Kong SAR

Dr. Svetlana Chigaeva-Heddad is an independent consultant specialising in teacher development projects and literacy programmes. Until recently, she was a Teaching Fellow at the English Language Centre, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, where she co-coordinated an advanced literacy course and a university-wide writing programme. Her interests include teacher professional development and advanced academic literacy development.

Maggie Leung received her PhD in Linguistics from The Hong Kong Polytechnic University. She is presently working at Lingnan University as a Lecturer. Her research interests focus primarily on corpus linguistics, English for Specific Purposes, genre analysis, lexical and phraseological studies, and applied linguistics.

Department of English

Lingnan University

Tuen Mun, Hong Kong, SAR

Abstract

This paper presents a corpus-based study of the use of the evaluative adjective *good* in teacher written feedback. It examines the use of *good* in recurrent patterns related to lexical choice, syntax and discourse functions. Our findings suggest that the use of *good* is highly formulaic, and is often part of praise, encouragement and suggestions. When used as part of formulaic praise, *good* seems to perform the following functions: establishing solidarity with student writers, acknowledging face threats potentially posed by feedback, mitigating criticism and advice, and organizing discourse. When used in this way, comments containing *good* appear to carry minimal instructional value. Instead, the underlying meaning of *good* in such expressions appears to be intention to assess. When used in non-formulaic structures, *good* helps teachers to perform an academic gatekeeping role by introducing preferred academic practices and text features. Based on the analysis, we conclude that caution must be taken to balance formulaic use of language with specific comments in teacher feedback.

Keywords: feedback, feedback as genre, corpus-based, formulaic language

Introduction

The genre of teacher written feedback has been studied extensively over the last couple of decades in numerous related fields, including second language writing and rhetoric and communication studies. Studies of feedback as a genre have highlighted, among other things, the recurrent purposes of feedback and teacher roles (Chiu, 2008; Keh, 1990; Mirador, 2014), similar patterns of response (Connors & Lunsford, 1993; Hyland, 2001; Hyland & Hyland, 2001; Smith, 1997); language used to mediate teacher comments (Brinko, 1993; Hu & Choo, 2016); and power relations between the teacher and student writer (Connors & Lundsford, 1993; Lee, 2008; Smith, 1997). Recurrent patterns of response include relatively stable and

recognizable content (Hyland, 2001; Hyland & Hyland, 2001), language choice (Adel, 2017; Hu & Choo, 2016) and structure (Smith, 1997; Mirador, 2000). Investigations of teacher feedback and interactions with students have revealed "key patterns" (Smith, 1997, p. 266) that appear to be "privileged" (Connors & Lundsford, 1993, p. 219) by teachers, for example, prevalence of moves such as praise, criticism and suggestions (Hyland, 2001; Hyland & Hyland, 2001), frequent grammatical patterns (Lee, 2013) and the use of evaluative language (Mackiewicz, 2006; Smith, 1997).

Much of this research highlights that teacher's response to writing is not "an objective, impersonal, and purely didactic discourse--simply an interaction between a teacher and a text… [It] is effective only if it engages with the writer and gives him or her a sense that it is a response to a *person* rather than to a script." (Hyland & Hyland 2006c, p. 206). Referring to Allwright, Hyland and Hyland (2006c, p. 207) suggest that at the heart of most teacher-student interactions, including feedback, is the desire on both parts to maintain a harmonious relationship and minimize or avoid conflicts. To mitigate their power status, teachers seldom offer direct criticisms and advice, and instead use various mitigation strategies (Hyland & Hyland, 2001; Lee, 2013) such as praise, contrastive sentence structures, and positive phraseology.

Given that feedback is a highly evaluative genre through which an interaction between the teacher and the student is realized, surprisingly few studies have looked in detail at the use of evaluative language by teachers and the impact of that language on teacher-student interactions. One notable exception is a corpus-based study of secondary school teacher feedback (Hu & Choo, 2016), which found that the use of evaluative language depends largely on teachers' background. Teachers of soft disciplines, such as English, tend to communicate their personal reactions to or interpretations of students texts by revealing their satisfaction or dissatisfaction, while teachers of hard sciences tend to be more impersonal in their feedback. Experienced teachers are less likely to openly show affective response and praise less frequently than less-experienced teachers.

A detailed corpus-based study of evaluative language conducted by Hewings (2004), although not focusing on teacher feedback, investigated a closely related genre of peer reviews of journal manuscripts. By classifying and quantifying the things or entities that get evaluated by reviewers and the adjectives that are used to evaluate these entities, this study found that the most common entity class was "PAPER", with entities referring to the overall quality, contribution, content, and length of the paper, as well as the writer's attempt. These entities often occurred early in reviews, forming part of a broad positive assessment, which was often

followed by criticism or even rejection. In line with previous research (Hunston & Thompson, 2000; Swales & Burke, 2003), Hewings (2004) concluded that evaluative adjectives perform three major functions: (1) to present the academic community with its norms and expectations and thus mediate access to publication by those writers who do not display achievement of such norm, (2) to establish and maintain relationships, and (3) to organize discourse.

Similar functions have been discussed in genre based investigations of teacher feedback which also highlighted recurrent patterns of response and teachers' tendency to rely on "a stock of tried and tested phrases" (Hyland & Hyland, 2001, p. 208) or "formulaic language" (Mackiewicz, 2006, p. 13). Hewings' (2004) identification of entities also suggests a tendency on the part of feedback providers to draw on certain words and syntactic patterns more frequently than others. Similarly, Smith (1997, p. 255) mentions the frequent use of evaluative fragments "good paper" and "nicely done", while Hyland (2001) gives the examples of "This essay is well-written. Keep it up!" and "Congratulations on your good performance!". Several other studies provide examples of what would appear to be formulaic language but none of them have explicitly looked at the use of formulaic language in teacher written response to student writing.

To our knowledge, only one study has systematically investigated the use of formulaic language in feedback interactions. Conducted by Mackiewicz (2006) in the context of tutor's interactions with technical writing students, she focused exclusively on compliments and found that more than 60% of the compliments were formulaic and general. She further argued that formulaic complements such as "it's good" allowed teachers to provide positive feedback quickly and efficiently without having to create new compliments. According to her and other discourse analysts who have investigated the use of formulaic sequences (e.g., Wray & Perkins, 2000), these formulaic compliments are interpreted holistically, with the phrase being interpreted as a whole rather than its individual words. They therefore lose their referential or informational meaning and are used primarily for social rather than instructional functions. She concludes that although teachers use these primarily to establish and maintain positive social relationships with students, they convey "a minimal amount of solidarity" (Mackiewicz, 2006 p. 13).

Mackiewicz (2006) also found that nearly 60% of the compliments that carry their positive semantic load in an adjective used the adjective *good*. This was similar to Manes and Wolfson's (1981) finding that 80% of compliments in everyday interactions were realized through a rather limited range of adjectives, with *nice* and *good* being used in 43% of all the

compliments. Syntactically, the compliments were also restricted to nine recurring patterns, with 85% of the compliments made up of only three patterns. Holmes and Brown (1987) found similar patterns, with *good* being among the top five most frequently occurring adjectives in compliments.

Studies of academic discourse have also found *good* to be among the most common evaluative adjectives. For example, Swales and Burke (2003) compare two major academic corpora in their study: the spoken registers presented in MICASE and Hyland's corpus of research articles. They present *good* under the category of "assessment" and discuss it as part of "'blanket-like' evaluations" (Swales & Burke, 2003, p. 10) which are found to be more common in academic speech than in writing. They also point out that what they call "evaluative episodes" tend to occur at the beginning or end of a speech act, or at an important transition, where positive evaluations are followed by negative statements. Hewings' (2004) study of journal reviewer comments found that *good* was the most frequent adjective in the category of "suitability" and was an example of "general evaluator of quality" (p. 264).

Some corpus studies of teacher feedback, although they did not investigate the use of *good* systematically, have given some attention to the role of *good* in their corpora. Nkemleke (2011, as cited in Lee, 2013), for example, in a study of pre-defense examiner reports found that the most frequent stance feature in reports was the use of evaluative adjectives such as *good* (at about 35%, as mentioned in Lee, 2013). Teacher feedback in this study often contained *good* as part of short evaluative statements such as "good work" and "good paper".

In an analysis of teachers' feedback reports written by humanities teachers in a UK higher education institution, Lee (2013) found that *good* was the 17th most frequent word in his corpus. There were 8.5 instances of the adjective per thousand words, and it was the only adjective among top 50 most frequent words. Common grammatical patterns included "a / adverb + good + analysis / argument / essay / introduction / points / understanding of". The adjective was often preceded or followed by negativity or suggestion softening the tone. Lee (2013) concludes that though the adjective has a positive connotation, it often comes with an anticipation of negativity, except when it comes in closing comments providing overall summary of the feedback. Though highly informative, these corpus studies did not focus on the use of *good* and did not provide a systematic account of common patterns associated with the word.

More recent research has highlighted the gap that still exists in our understanding of the language teachers choose when constructing their feedback (see, for example, Adel, 2017; Brinko, 1993; Hu & Choo, 2016; Mirador, 2000). Giving an explicit, focused attention to the

language used in feedback will help us understand the role of language in providing "effective feedback that can support and maximize learning" (Adel, 2017, p. 18) and increase teachers' assessment literacy. This study answers the call for a better understanding of the language of teacher written feedback. It was designed to identify how the evaluative adjective *good* is used in a corpus of feedback written by university teachers in response to assignments across the curriculum and what recurrent patterns are associated with its use. More specifically, it addresses the following questions:

(1) Which entities are being evaluated when *good* is used in teacher response to student writing?

(2) Which discourse functions are being performed and which associated syntactic patterns are used to realize these functions?

Methodology

Context

This study was conducted in a large government-funded university in Hong Kong which has implemented a university-wide English writing requirement since 2012. To fulfill this requirement, all undergraduate students have to complete at least one General Education (GE) course with a major written assignment of at least 2,500 words. In practice, this means that students with rather limited writing experience for whom English is a second language have to write an extended academic text on a topic unrelated to their discipline of study. This presents a tremendous challenge to students who, in addition to a new area of study, are faced with a number of language-related difficulties in their first years of university (Morrison, 2014). Both subject teachers and language teachers are involved to assist students with this major assessment. While subject teachers assess the final drafts, language teachers offer feedback on the first two drafts (800 and 1,500 words, respectively). This feedback is computer-mediated as it is input through the university's online platform and subsequently downloaded by students. As of December 2018, 26,012 students have completed the writing requirement by taking more than 120 GE subjects across the curriculum.

In line with genre-based, process-oriented, learner-centered approaches, feedback is conceptualized within this university-wide program as an important tool helping students develop as competent academic writers and build resources to participate in target academic communities (Hyland & Hyland, 2006a). Language teachers giving feedback on students' work are, therefore, instructed to focus on genre-related aspects of student texts such as fulfilment of

assignment expectations, structure and format. They are asked to avoid over-focusing on surface level features of student texts such as word choice and grammar, a practice informed by much research on L2 corrective feedback which shows that error-focused feedback fails to produce substantial improvement in subsequent drafts and may discourage students from engaging with further revisions (see Hyland & Hyland (2006b) for a review of studies in this area).

The research project was funded in part by a university grant, and adhered to standards of data collection and ethical clearance. In line with university regulations, approval was obtained from the language teachers for use of their feedback.

Data

The corpus used in the study was drawn from a collection of more than 70 language teachers' feedback reports on students' first and second drafts submitted to the 29 GE subjects offered in the first semester of 2016-2017. The feedback reports of one teacher who opted out from participation were excluded from the study. Ten feedback reports on the first draft were randomly selected from each of the subjects, leading to 290 Draft 1 feedback reports. The feedback reports for the second draft were collected based on the same students, and totaled 286 reports as four students failed to submit the second draft at the time of the collection. The collected data was anonymized by removing direct identifiers of both the students and teachers. Then, all the resulting reports were compiled into an electronic corpus of 135,124 words. Table 1 shows more details of the corpus.

Table 1: Feedback reports in corpus: Numbers and length

	First draft	Second draft	All
Number of reports	290	286	576
Number of words	75,675	59,449	135,124
Average length (words)	261	208	235
Longest (words)	866	867	867
Shortest (words)	43	35	35

A number of steps were taken to generate frequencies and extract instances of *good* from the data. First, *Wmatrix* (Rayson, 2009) was used to automatically tag parts of speech. A word frequency list and a list of all the adjectives used in the corpus were produced. Among the 265 instances of *good* in the corpus (1.96 times per 1000 words), the adjective was among the top 100 most frequent words and top 50 most frequent content words. It ranked the 4th among the most frequent adjectives and was the most common evaluative adjective.

Concordance lines of all the instances of *good* were then generated using the *Wmatrix* concordancing function. Following Hewings' (2004) methodology, instances in which *good* evaluated an entity, in other words an aspect of writing typically presented through a noun or a noun phrase, were identified. In these adjectival constructions, the adjective *good* modified a noun either as a pre-modifier (e.g. "a *good* range of vocabulary") or was used in a predicative adjectival construction (e.g. "organization is *good*"). For example, the evaluated entities are underlined in the following:

(1) <u>Organisation</u> is *good* overall and … (D2-48)

(2) You have used a *good* <u>range of vocabulary and grammar structures</u>. (D1-59)

Similar to Hewings (2004), instances in which the entity could not be easily classified were omitted. Three main grammatical patterns were observed in these instances: *it + is + good + clause* (see example 3), *it / this + (modal) + be + good + to infinitive* (see example 4) and *statement + good* (see example 5). Examples drawn from the 35 omitted instances are presented below:

(3) It is *good* that you have included a reflection on your experience(s)… (D2-7)

(4) It would be *good* to offer a brief explanation in your own terms. (D1-12)

(5) You have attempted elaboration – *good*! (D1-143)

Another eight instances were excluded from further analysis because they did not evaluate the student text or the student writer. Six were quotations from the draft, and two were used to refer to outside sources, as seen in these examples:

(6) …examples of simple language use from your draft: "it is a *good* opportunity" / "*good* effects"… (D1-87)

(7) Do not quote Wikipedia in your work. It is a *good* place to get ideas but otherwise you are just quoting hearsay. (D1-73)

After all the exclusions, there remained 222 instances which were analyzed in this study.

Data analysis

The first step of analysis involved manual tagging of the resulting dataset in terms of three aspects: evaluated entities, syntactic structures and discourse functions. All the three authors were involved in this step and tagged each line together to ensure inter-rater reliability. Whenever an ambiguous case arose, it was discussed until consensus was reached. Discussions often involved more in-depth examination of the context in which the adjective was used to determine what exactly was being evaluated.

In the analysis of discourse functions, Hyland and Hyland's (2001, p. 190) method of identifying "feedback points" was used and all the uses of *good* were grouped into four overarching categories, according to the pedagogic purpose of praise, criticism or suggestion (Hyland & Hyland, 2001), and encouragement (Hyland, 2001). Each concordance line of *good* was examined manually once again in its context within a sentence, or longer unit, if needed. This helped to clarify specific patterns when functions were paired together or contributed to the overall feedback report structure.

The analysis of both the entities and discourse functions relied extensively on the description of syntactic structures which were analyzed both at intra- and inter-clause levels. Typical patterns associated with each entity class and each discourse function were then identified and are presented below.

Findings

Question 1: Evaluated entities

All of the identified entities and entity classes are shown in Table 2. Column 2 of the table presents the entities with the number of instances of each entity given in brackets. These entities were grouped into broader categories named "entity classes" which are presented in the first column. The last column shows the relative percentage of each class as well as the total number of all the instances in that class.

Table 2. Evaluated entities and entity classes

Entity class	Evaluated entities	Total
EFFORT	job (22), attempt (15), start (14), work (9), performance (2), beginning (1), potential (1)	28.8%, N=64
SUGGESTION	idea (51)	23.0%, N=51
CONTENT	conclusion (9), general idea (5), analysis (4), introduction (3), understanding (3), ideas (2), research questions (2), critique (1), definition (1), description (1), development of ideas (1), discussion and evaluation (1), evidence (1), ending (1), point (1), references (1), referencing (1), reflection (1), research (1), topic sentence (1), use of a map and text (1)	18.9%, N=42
LUCK	luck (25)	11.3%, N=25
WRITING	writer of English (11), English writing (2), piece of work (2), writing (2), writing strategy (2), essay (1), example of report writing (1), first draft (1), piece of essay (1), piece of writing (1), writer (1)	11.3%, N=25
LANGUAGE	range of vocabulary (3), language (3), range of grammar structures and vocabulary (3), language accuracy (1), range of vocabulary and grammar structures (1), sentence structure (1)	5.4%, N=12
ORGANISATION	links (2), link (1), organization (1)	1.4%, N=3
Total		100%, N=222

As the table shows, the entities in the largest entity class, EFFORT, refer to students' effort or overall performance rather than a specific aspect of writing. These typically appear to be fixed expressions and often occur in the opening or closing comments:

(8) Dear (student name), you have done a *good* job on the first draft. (D1-67)

(9) You have made a *good* attempt at organizing your ideas into paragraphs... (D2-1)

The typical pattern associated with these instances is *you + have + verb-ed + a good job + V-ing / preposition + V-ing.* The prevalence of the present perfect tense shows that the adjective is used in these instances to evaluate recently completed actions.

The second largest entity class SUGGESTION includes the uses of "*good* + idea" as part of a fixed expression to signal a suggestion:

(10) ...it is a *good* <u>idea</u> to identify all the subject / verb pairs in your drafts and make sure they agree. (D1-10)

(11) It might be a *good* <u>idea</u> to start the story with an exciting moment before revealing the history of the setting (D1-28)

The typical pattern of use is *it + (modal) + be + a good idea + to infinitive.* The most frequently used modal verbs are *might* (N=16) and *would* (N=6). *Idea* used in these expressions was the most frequent entity modified by *good* in our corpus.

The entities in the CONTENT category evaluate the content or an aspect of students' writing, such as *conclusion*, *idea*, and *analysis*. The *idea* included in this category refers to thoughts and opinions presented in students' texts:

(12) There is some *good* <u>analysis</u> in this draft. (D2-58)

(13) The topic sentence should give the reader a *good* <u>general idea</u> of what will be discussed in each paragraph. (D2-111)

Within this category, about one-third of the instances of *good* evaluate students' past action, with patterns including *you + have + verb-ed + some / a + good + noun, there + is + some + good + noun, your + noun + is + (very) + good,* and simply *good + noun* whereas the other instances evaluate a future possible action with typical patterns of *you + modal + verb + a + good + noun* and *noun + modal + verb + (noun) + a + good + noun.* For example, "some *good* analysis" in example (12) refers to the teacher's positive evaluation of the analysis provided by the student, whilst "a *good* general idea" in (13) is the teacher's suggestion for further revision.

The LUCK class is similar to the SUGGESTION entity class in that *good* is used in conjunction with *luck* as part of the fixed expression "*good* luck". This expression typically

appears in the closing comments of feedback reports.

(14) Otherwise, *good* <u>luck</u> with your next draft. (D1-34)

(15) *Good* <u>luck</u>! (D2-82)

As demonstrated in the above examples, there are two main patterns, i.e. *good luck + with + noun* and simply *good luck* as the final remark plus the use of an exclamation mark.

The last three entity classes, WRITING, LANGUAGE, and ORGANISATION were the least frequent in this corpus. The WRITING category includes entities such as "writer", "writing" and "piece of work".

(16) *Good* <u>writing</u> so far - a pleasure to read. (D1-122)

(17) It is not wrong to use these or to start paragraphs with "first, second, third" but a *good* <u>writer of English</u> would rarely do this. (D1-48)

The entities in this category are related either to students as writers or students' text. In example (16) "*good* writing" is a positive evaluation of a student's overall text. Typical patterns of positive evaluation include *this is + (really) + a + good + noun*. As shown in example (17), in some instances *good* modified a hypothetical aspect of writing or an ideal writer. These instances were typically used with a modal verb "would" or "should" and a negative "rarely" or "not".

The LANGUAGE class includes entities which are related to language issues, whether general use such as "language" and "language accuracy" as in example (18) below, or specific issues including "range of vocabulary", "range of grammar structures" and "sentence structure" as in example (19).

(18) Overall, your <u>language</u> is quite *good* and I can follow your ideas clearly. (D1-80)

(19) ... you have a really *good* <u>range of vocabulary</u> … (D2-47)

Two main grammatical patterns in this entity class are *(your) + noun + is + (quite) + good + (overall)* and *you + have + verb-ed + a + good + noun*.

The entity class ORGANISATION includes "link(s)" and "organization".

(20) <u>Links within the paragraphs</u> are *good* and it is easy to see your ideas emerging. (D1-45)

(21) <u>Organisation</u> is *good* overall and… (D2-48)

This is the smallest entity class with only three instances. Two of them have the pattern of *noun* + *is/are* + *good.*

Question 2: Functions and Syntactic Patterns

Our corpus findings show that *good* is used to perform four functions: praise, suggestion, encouragement and criticism. Table 3 presents the number of instances of the adjective used for each function, analyzed according to entity class. As the table shows, *good* was most frequently used for praise (42.8%), with more than half of these instances being used for praising effort. The second most frequent use of *good* was to present a suggestion. *Good* was also used to encourage as part of closing comments. Few instances of *good* occurred in criticism.

Table 3: Discourse functions of *good* analyzed by entity class

Entity Class	Praise	Suggestion	Encouragement	Criticism
EFFORT	59		5	
SUGGESTION		51		
CONTENT	15	26		1
LUCK			25	
WRITING	6	3	1	15
LANGUAGE	12			
ORGANISATION	3			
Total number (%)	95 (42.8%)	80 (36.0%)	31 (14.0%)	16 (7.2%)

Four out of the seven entity classes (i.e., SUGGESTION, LUCK, LANGUAGE, and ORGANISATION) were associated with one discourse function. *Good* as part of EFFORT was used primarily for praise, with only five instances of encouragement. Teachers generally made suggestions with regard to CONTENT though there was a considerable amount of praise as well. WRITING tended to be criticized.

A closer investigation of praise, the most frequent function in our data set, revealed that few instances of *good* were used for pure praise. More commonly, *good* was used as part of praise-suggestion and praise-criticism pairs (see Table 4 below).

Table 4: Praise using *good*

	Frequency	Opening comments	Instances with *but* or *however*
Praise followed by suggestion	59	25	20
Praise followed by criticism	25	0	24
Pure praise	11	4	0

Only 15.8% of praise instances using *good* can be classified as pure praise. A third of these instances were found in the opening comments.

(22) Dear (student name), you have done a *good* <u>job</u> on the first draft. (D1-67)

(23) Good referencing! (D2-74)

Nearly 60% of uses of *good* for praise mitigated suggestions, with 42% of these appearing in the opening comments.

(24) There is some *good* <u>analysis</u> in this draft. Here are some suggestions for your final draft… (D2-58)

(25) Hello (student name), This is a *good* <u>attempt</u> at developing your ideas for the first draft. Here are a few things you can improve on… (D1-51)

More than one-third of these instances of *good* to mitigate a suggestion used *but* to signal the suggestion:

(26) There is some *good* research here, but a lot of issues you need to address. (D1-114)

(27) Dear student, You have done a *good* job trying to develop your ideas for the first draft but there are things to correct. (D1-20)

More than a quarter of the usage of *good* for praise was followed by criticism. *But* or *however* was used to signal the transition from praise to criticism in nearly all the instances:

(28) You have made a *good* attempt at organizing your ideas into paragraphs and at signaling your moves to the reader by using cohesive devices. However, the cohesive devices you use seem mechanical and repetitive. (D1-16)

(29) Sentence structure is *good* overall, but be careful with this structure… (D1-46)

Each discourse function was realized through a limited set of syntactic patterns. Table 5 below presents the top three patterns associated with each function, with two patterns for encouragement which was realized through those only.

Table 5: Most frequent syntactic patterns associated with each discourse function

Function	Syntactic Patterns	Frequency
Praise	You + V + a + good + NP	44 (46.3%)
	Good + NP + (!)	15 (15.8%)
	(Your) + NP + is/are + (adverb) + good + (adverb)	12 (12.6%)
Suggestions	It is a good idea to …	28 (35%)
	It + modal verb + be + a good idea to …	22 (27.5%)
	You now need to + V + a + good + NP	9 (11.3%)
Encouragement	(Otherwise) + good luck + (with + NP)	25 (80.6%)
	Keep up the good + NP	6 (19.4%)
Criticism	but a good writer of English would rarely do this	11 (68.8%)
	N + is/are + not + (a) + good + NP	3 (18.8%)
	Good English writing should not + V	2 (12.5%)

Two major observations arise from this part of the analysis. Firstly, the most frequently used patterns include *good* as part of a noun phrase rather than in a predicative adjectival construction. This analysis also revealed that many of these noun phrases (88 instances accounting for nearly 40% of all the data) are fixed expressions (i.e., "*good* idea", "*good* luck", "*good* writer", and "*good* English writing"). Secondly, modal verbs are found in patterns associated with suggestions and criticism.

Discussion

This study investigated teacher written response as a genre by using a corpus-based approach. It identified several recurrent patterns of response associated with the use of the adjective *good*. In line with previous research (Hyland & Hyland, 2001, 2006a, 2006c; Lee, 2013), our analysis shows that certain "privileged" (Connors & Lundsford, 1993, p. 219) patterns of response help teachers not only to convey information and instruct but also, and perhaps even more importantly, to establish and maintain relationships with their students by avoiding direct threats to face and by mitigating their power status.

Non-formulaic uses of good

Though classified as an evaluative adjective, *good* had limited use in evaluating aspects of students work in our study. This was typically in non-formulaic use as part of praise, suggestions and criticism referring to specific aspects of the student text.

When used for praise, most of this non-formulaic usage of *good* referred to specific aspects of the drafts' content and language. The literature on best feedback practices advocates that teachers focus on issues of content and organization as students are developing their drafts, and focus on grammar and mechanics later (see Ferris, 2014). Our corpus reveals that teachers are using *good* to positively assess aspects of both content and language, reflecting their dual focus of helping the student to fulfill their task requirements in regards to content, and use the correct language to communicate their meaning clearly.

Nearly all of the criticism using *good* focused on the writer or writing and seemed to perform an academic gatekeeping function, using evaluative language to express the opinions of the academic community itself (Hewings, 2004). Sperling and Freedman (1987) show that teachers' feedback indirectly reflects their ideas about "the ideal text". In our study, feedback was sometimes rather explicit about what "good writing" should look like. By explicitly pointing out "good" aspects of academic writing, teachers adopted the role of an English 'expert', responding to the student texts from an "authoritative identity" (Edgington, 2016, p.

85). This teacher practice may lead to teacher's appropriation of the text, shifting ownership (Smith, 1997) and conveys that the student has not achieved the ideal level of competency. In doing this, it may appear that the teacher lowers the student's status as a writer, making the gap between the student's status and her own even wider, thus denying the student his or her membership in the community of proficient academic writers. This usage of *good* seems to relate to the specific context of our study, namely, feedback given by language teachers who may perceive their roles as upholding standards of acceptable academic English.

Good as part of formulaic language

Our analysis of the corpus in terms of evaluated entities (Hewings, 2004) revealed a high prevalence of "formulaic language" (Mackiewicz, 2006) in the data. Examples of this language are "a good idea", "good luck", "good job", "good attempt", "good start", and "a good writer of English". The main entity classes associated with the use of good as part of formulae are SUGGESTION, EFFORT, and LUCK. SUGGESTION expressions all functioned as suggestions, while EFFORT expressions were associated with praise and encouragement. LUCK expressions were associated with concluding encouragements. Each entity was realized through a limited set of grammatical structures. Functions were similarly associated with a few frequent structures. This suggests formulaic use may apply to syntax as well.

Using formulaic expressions or a set of "of tried and tested phrases" (Hyland & Hyland, 2001, p. 208), may be part of writing teachers' toolkit used to minimize time spent on commenting on individual papers. Our teachers work with up to 30 students each semester reading and commenting on two of each student's drafts. This is part of their larger workload which includes teaching up to five regular English subjects. Though efforts have been made to alleviate workload issues, this remains to be one of the biggest concerns for writing teachers. Time constraints imposed on writing teachers are not unique to our context and have been discussed extensively in feedback literature. In the context of Hong Kong, for example, Lee (2008) shows that time constraints may hinder teachers' uptake of innovative practices when providing feedback. In her 2011 article, she quotes a teacher who likened herself to a vending machine into which "my students inserted a composition so I marked it" (Lee, 2011, p. 6). As more recent research looking at computerized feedback practices shows, some writing teachers compile a set of feedback points, including formulaic expressions, and copy from it in order to make the feedback writing process more time-efficient (Price, Handley, & Millar, 2011). The high incidence of formulaic expressions containing *good* may also be attributed to the

nature of formulaic language, which is primarily about initiating and maintaining social relationships and, more specifically, about solidarity building. When providing feedback, teachers attempt to accomplish both informational and interpersonal goals (Hyland & Hyland, 2006c). It appears from this study that formulaic language including the adjective *good* may contribute significantly to establishing and maintaining student-teacher relationships. This is particularly clear with formulaic praise, which has been shown by previous studies (see Mackiewicz, 2006) to perform primarily a phatic function, presenting minimal if any informational value.

Good in formulaic praise

Another clear characteristic of the genre of feedback, as indicated by our study, appears to be teachers' tendency to praise general aspects of writing or the writing process. This is similar to Hewings' (2004) finding that evaluative adjectives in general, and not just the use of *good,* tend to be associated with general comments praising the overall paper. However, in our data, praise with *good* more commonly focused on student effort rather than any specific aspect of the text. Several factors may help explain this finding. First, all the feedback in our study was on drafts rather than the final product. Teachers, therefore, were likely conscious of the need to encourage students to revise their work further and praised effort as part of this strategy. This may be due to the training teachers often receive to provide feedback on early drafts that would help students engage with the text they are writing and the revision process (Sommers, 1982). It is also possible in our context that teachers offered general praise in an effort to help students overcome negative self-esteem issues associated with L2 writing challenges (Ferris, Liu, Sinha & Senna, 2013; Morrison, 2014).

It is also possible that general praise is the easiest way to start a feedback report and to provide quick and easy feedback which is then used to maintain social relationships (Mackiewicz, 2006). This practice would appear to abide by "the by-now traditional wisdom about always trying to find something to praise in each student's work" (Connors & Lunsford, 1993, p. 211).

Good as part of mitigation

Nearly 90% of praise using *good* in our corpus was followed by suggestions or criticisms. In other words, it was used to "soften the criticism of the author" (Hyland, 2004, p. 61) or to "counterbalance confidence-shaking critique" (Mackiewicz, 2006, p. 20). As Mackiewicz (2006) explains, suggestions pose a negative face threat, "a speech act that

310

imposes upon a hearer's autonomy by directing him in what he should do" (p. 20). Our data shows that teachers use *good* as part of the politeness strategy to mitigate the face threat even though student-teacher written interactions presuppose that the teacher's role is to give advice and to identify weaknesses. This echoes advice given to writing teachers (see, for example, Bates, Lane & Lange, 1993; Ferris, 1997) as well as findings of numerous other studies. For example, in Hewings (2004), positive evaluations formed part of review openings and were followed by criticism. Although *good* is a positive evaluative adjective, it often anticipates negativity (Lee, 2013).

While 90% of praise mitigated a suggestion or criticism, half of these instances used the conjunction *but* or the connective *however*. Nearly a quarter of praise with good was located in "praise-criticism pairs" (Hyland, 2014, p. 55) using *but* or *however* to buffer the negative comments.

Good in the sandwich approach

Another pattern that deserves attention has to do with using the "feedback sandwich approach" to structure the overall feedback report. In this approach, teachers' suggestions and criticisms are sandwiched between two layers of positive comments (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2013). Nearly a quarter of formulaic praise involving *good* in our study appeared in the opening comment, indicating the teachers' intention to begin their feedback report on a positive note and to counterbalance not only one but multiple face threatening acts, i.e. multiple critical comments on several issues. In addition to mitigating threats to face, however, these positive openings also assert the teacher's right or intention to assess. According to Mackiewicz (2006), "Such compliments indicate that the tutor sees value in the writing, but must carry out his responsibility to advise and evaluate" (p. 20). Positive formulaic encouragement, which was typically placed at the end of the report, signals the end to the current interaction and is aimed at motivating students and helping them build confidence as academic writers. Similar to Hyland's (2001) findings, positive encouragements in our corpus were rather generalized in nature, with the most frequent phrase in this category being "Good luck!".

Good in vague suggestions

Similar to the pattern of *good* being used for general praise, *good* was a feature of general suggestions. Comments such as "you now need to develop a good conclusion for this report" (D2-89) gave vague suggestions for "future writing behavior" (Hyland & Hyland, 2001, p. 191). This use was distinct from the more prevalent pattern using "good idea" which gave

specific suggestions regarding improvements for the draft. This kind of general suggestion using *good* with the entity CONTENT was more prevalent than praise evaluating specific aspects of the student's CONTENT. In other words, rather than praising specific aspects of the student's content as good, teachers were more likely to make general suggestions for future good content. This could be seen as another time-saving technique which teachers may employ to cope with a heavy workload. When *good* is used as general suggestions for future drafts, this could be seen as performing a phatic function, attempting to motivate the student to achieve high standards in their future revisions.

Conclusion

Our analysis allows us to conclude that *good*, like other evaluative adjectives, is used to perform three functions (Hewings, 2004; Hunston & Thompson, 2000; Swales & Burke, 2003). Teachers, when using *good* in their feedback, reflect the values and expectations of their academic community, establish and maintain relationships with student writers, and organize and structure their feedback. The findings strongly suggest that *good* does more than simple positive evaluation within teachers' written response to student writing. They show that giving feedback is a highly social process that relies on teachers' attempting to engage students (Hyland, 2001; Hyland & Hyland, 2001; Price et al., 2011) and maintaining relationships through their comments, offering guidance on future actions as well as enculturating students into the practices of "good writers of English". These sociocultural, affective aspects of teacher feedback cannot be ignored.

Our study revealed that *good* is often used in formulaic expressions to open and close feedback reports with general praise and encouragement, in recurrent syntactic patterns, and to buffer subsequent criticism and suggestions. Feedback literature has cautioned teachers about the use of formulaic phrases because they provide little useful information and show "a minimal amount of solidarity" (Mackiewicz, 2006, p. 13). Although reactions to teacher's feedback was not within the scope of this study, current literature suggests that students may be able to develop a meta-awareness of formulaic sequences and ignore them (Hyland & Hyland, 2001; Mackiewicz, 2006). Further research is needed to understand whether feedback comments containing the adjective *good* and other vague adjectives influence the extent to which students find them useful.

Another danger in using formulaic language in feedback is that this may contribute to the genre of feedback becoming too stagnant and reducing the educational effectiveness of teacher feedback (Smith, 1997). The uniform patterns that were identified in this study clearly

have a role but caution is needed to avoid Sommers' (1982) observation that "most teachers' comments… could be interchanged, rubber-stamped from text to text" and reduced to a "uniform code of commands, requests, and pleadings [which] demonstrates that the teacher holds a license for vagueness while the student is commanded to be specific" (p. 152).

References

Adel, A. (2017). Remember that your reader cannot read your mind: Problem/solution-oriented metadiscourse in teacher feedback on student writing. *English for Specific Purposes,45*,54- 68.

Allwright, R. (1989). Interaction in the language classroom: Social problems and pedagogic possibilities. Paper presented at les Etats Generaux des Langues, Paris, Frances, April, 1989.

Bates, L., Lane, J., & Lange, E. (1993). *Writing clearly: Responding to ESL compositions*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

Brinko, K. T. (1993). The practice of giving feedback to improve teaching: What is effective? *The Journal of Higher Education, 64*, 574-593.

Chiu, C. Y. (2008). The discourse of an English teacher in a cyber writing course: Roles and autonomy. *The Asian EFL Journal, 10*(1), 79-110.

Connors, R. J., & Lunsford, A. A. (1993). Teachers' rhetorical comments on student papers. *College Composition and Communication, 44*(2), 200-223.

Edgington, A. E. (2016). Split personalities: Understanding the responder identity in college composition. *Journal of Response to Writing, 2*(1), 75-91.

Ferris, D. R. (1997). The influence of teacher commentary on student revision. *TESOL Quarterly, 31*(2), 315-339.

Ferris, D. R. (2014). Responding to student writing: Teachers' philosophies and practices. *Assessing Writing, 19*, 6-23.

Ferris, D. R. & Hedgcock, J. (2013). *Teaching L2 composition: Purpose, process, and practice*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Ferris, D. R., Liu, H., Sinha, A., & Senna, M. (2013). Written corrective feedback for individual L2 writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 22*, 307-329.

Hewings, M. (2004). An 'important contribution' or 'tiresome reading'? A study of evaluation in peer reviews of journal article submissions. *Journal of Applied Linguistics, 1*(3), 247-274.

Holmes, J., & Brown, D. F. (1987). Teachers and students learning about compliments. *TESOL*

Quarterly, 21(3), 523-546.

Hu, G., & Choo, L. (2016). The impact of disciplinary background and teaching experience on the use of evaluative language in teacher feedback. *Teachers and Teaching, 22*(3), 349.

Hunston, S., & Thompson, G. (Eds.). (2000). *Evaluation in text*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hyland, F. (2001). Providing effective support: Investigating feedback to distance language learners. *Open Learning*, *16*(3), 233-247.

Hyland, K. (2014). Praise and criticism: Interactions in book reviews. *Disciplinary Discourses: Social Interactions in Academic Writing*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Hyland, F., & Hyland, K. (2001). Sugaring the pill: Praise and criticism in written feedback. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *10*(3), 185-212.

Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (2006a). Feedback on second language students' writing. *Language Teaching, 39*(2), 83-101.

Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (2006b). Contexts and issues in feedback on L2 writing: An introduction. In K, Hyland & F. Hyland (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues* (pp. 1-20). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (2006c). Interpersonal aspects of response: Constructing and interpreting teacher written feedback. In K, Hyland & F. Hyland (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues* (pp. 206-224). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Keh, C. L. (1990). Feedback in the writing process: A model and methods for implementation. *ELT Journal, 44*(4), 294-304.

Lee, I. (2008). Understanding teachers' written feedback practices in Hong Kong secondary classrooms. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 17*(2), 69-85.

Lee, I. (2011). Feedback revolution: What gets in the way? *ELT Journal, 65*(1), 1-12.

Lee, K. Y. (2013). *A genre analysis of written academic feedback.* Unpublished PhD Thesis. The University of Birmingham, UK.

Mackiewicz, J. (2006). The functions of formulaic and nonformulaic compliments in interactions about technical writing. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, *49*(1), 12-27.

Manes, J., & Wolfson, N. (1981). The compliment formula. In F. Coulmas (Ed.), *Conversational Routine* (pp. 115-132). The Hague, Netherlands: Moulton.

Mirador, J. F. (2000). A move analysis of written feedback in higher education. *RELC Journal,*

31(1), 45-60.

Mirador, J. F. (2014). Moves, intentions and the language of feedback commentaries in education. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *4*(1), 39-53.

Morrison, B. (2014). Challenges faced by non-native undergraduate student writers in an English-medium university. *The Asian ESP Journal, 10*(1), 137-175.

Price, M., Handley, K., & Millar, J. (2011). Feedback: Focusing attention on engagement. *Studies in Higher Education, 36*(8), 879-896.

Rayson, P. (2009). Wmatrix: A web-based corpus processing environment, Computing Department, Lancaster University, UK. http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/wmatrix/

Smith, S. (1997). The genre of the end comment: Conventions in teacher responses to student writing. *College Composition and Communication*, *48*(4), 249-268.

Sommers, N. (1982). Responding to student writing. *College Composition and Communication, 33*(2), 148-156.

Sperling, M., & Freedman, S. W. (1987). A good girl writes like a good girl: Written response to student writing. *Written Communication, 4*(4), 343-369.

Swales, J., & Burke, A. (2003). "It's really fascinating work": Differences in evaluative adjectives across academic registers. In P. Leistyna, & C. F. Meyer (Eds.), *Corpus analysis: Language structure and language use* (pp. 1-18). Amsterdam, Netherlands: Rodopi.

Wray, A., & Perkins, M. R. (2000). The functions of formulaic language: An integrated model. *Language & Communication*, *20*(1), 1-28.

The Analysis of Native and Non-native EFL Teachers in Indonesia:
A review of literature

Al Furqan, M. TESOL

Ahmad Ardillah Rahman, M.Ed

Declaration form

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

Bio-Profiles:

Al-furqan is one of English educators in Islamic State University of Makassar who has been teaching English since 2012. Besides, he also devotes his career in teaching English in some private institutions in last five years. He received his bachelor in English language education from Islamic State University of Makassar. Al furqan, then, accomplished his master's degree majoring in Teaching of English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) in Monash University in 2019. By finishing his study both in Indonesia and Australia, it gave him an in-depth comprehension of how to take part in the development of teaching English both in local and global context. He can be contacted via alfurqan8475@gmail.com or alfu0001@student.monash.edu .

Ahmad Ardillah Rahman is a lecturer at the Faculty of Education of Institute Parahikma Indonesia (IPI). He received his bachelor's degree in both English Education Department of Alauddin State Islamic University Makassar (UIN) in 2013 and German Education Department of Makassar State University (UNM) in 2016. He obtained his master's degree from Monash University, Australia, majoring Master of Education program. His research interests are in the areas of teaching and learning practices, educational technology and educational policy. He can be contacted via ahmadardillahrahman@parahikma.ac.id or ahmadardillahrahman@gmail.com

Abstract

This study investigated the issue regarding the native and non-native EFL teachers in the context of Indonesia. In pursue of evidence regarding the addressed issue, this study employed synthesis research methodology whereby a number of conceptual and empirical studies are combined together to draw a conclusion. Findings from this review depict that the superiority of native speaker identity or what is commonly known as 'native speakerism ideology' has become a rooted ideology among Indonesian people across Indonesian educational institutions. Its impacts are around the EFL teachers' recruitment process, societies preferences, and peoples' judgements, indicating that the non-native teachers are claimed as less-credible than those of the native teachers. However, findings from the review also indicates that there are some notions emerging as the means to challenge the native speakerism ideology such as world Englishes, teachers' professional identity, and the strength of non-native teachers. However, those emerging tenets are not sufficient enough to challenge or even to be equal to the superiority of native speakerism ideology. This is because, in recent days, there is no other way to take part in global competition except through learning and using the native speakers' forms of English which absolutely benefits the native teachers.

Introduction

The issue of native and non-native English as a Foreign language (EFL) teachers has become one of the leading topics in the Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) professionality in the last few decades. The current world, in which English serves as the most prominent means of communication among people in the world, results in the high demand of English speakers. This condition, as a consequence, derives the educational institutions to recruit both native and non-native teachers to fulfil the market demand. However, there has been an emerging issue of the recruitment process of those teachers in which the native teachers are much desirable compared to non-native teachers in most of the educational institutions in various contexts (Mahboob & Golden, 2013). This issue is rooted from the widely accepted ideology proposing that the native teachers are the best resources of the target language, English (Ling & Braine, 2007). Hence, this ideology, in the last few decades, leads to the discriminative actions between native and non-native teachers.

The discrimination between native (NS) and non-native (NNS) EFL teachers can be seen from the relatively different treatment in terms of their job availabilities, payment rates, and societies' judgments. This is advocated by Kubota (2002) and Chen and Cheng (2012) who states that native teachers possess a better opportunity to find a job because of the given status

or label of being a native speaker. This phenomenon is observable from the condition whereby the native teachers—in most cases—work in more elite educational institutions where the treatments are much better in terms of facilities and payment rates. This unfair circumstance is a result of the map of the market which requests native teachers than non-native teachers (Kubota, 2002). The high demand of native teachers is caused by the stereotyping belief saying that the native teachers' pedagogical practices are much better than non-native teachers in the teaching of English (Mahboob & Golden, 2013). The native teachers with their attached identity as native speakers have become the symbol of the best English educators in which people can improve their proficiency of English within a relatively short period of time.

Another reason why native teachers gain so much privilege is derived from the historical record of the native speakers' form of English which was made as the target language learning. Kramsch and Whiteside (2007) postulate that at the beginning of 1990s Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory tends to make the native speaker to be the norms. This means that the teaching of English around the world, especially in the non-English speaking countries, makes the native speakers' forms of English as the target language without recognising the students and teachers' cultural identities. Errors such as incorrect use of grammatical features, pronunciation, and vocabularies which are affected by their fixed identities are assumed as weaknesses; this phenomenon indeed benefits the native teachers who rarely commit the errors because they naturally acquire the language since they were born (Kramsch & whiteside, 2007). As a result, this issue has profoundly become an advantage of the native teachers who were born with the language, English.

Recent study of SLA research concerning the native speakers' issue, however, reveal that SLA theory has shown significant changes in terms of its belief of other English forms (Kramsh & Whiteside, 2007). The findings depict that the 'native speaker' is no longer being the norms; rather, every race or nations possess their own ways of using English (Harmer, 2015). Peoples' identities in English have now slowly been recognised by SLA studies and accordingly this change offers more opportunities for non-native teachers. These changes are primarily caused by 'geopolitical changes' and 'disciplinary shift' (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007). Geopolitical changes become one of the contributing impacts of SLA changes as the distribution of speakers of English is changing because of the effect of displacement, colonialisation, and huge migrations to English speaking countries (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007). Disciplinary shift, in addition, concerns to the reference of the teaching of English which shifts to focus on the social use of English rather than focusing on its structure which is assumed to be failed in offering effective ways in learning English (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007).

Hence, if this notion is widely recognised by the people in the world, the gap between native and non-native teachers can be decreased.

In the context of Indonesia, a study shows that non-native teachers outnumber native-teachers not only in Indonesia but also in other parts of the world, especially in non-English speaking countries (Canagarajah, 1999). This data is supported by a result of a survey revealing that the number of native teachers working in educational institutions in Indonesia is roughly 44% in primary school, 17 % in secondary schools, and 11 % in higher education (Witono, 2017). However, the main issue is not the distinction between native and non-native teachers in terms of their numbers, but more about the society's judgment and treatment to both these two different identities of EFL teachers, native and non-native teachers. It is widely accepted that the native teachers are much preferred in international schools and private institutions (Setiawan, 2006). It can be seen from private institutions' advertisements that are flourished in public area selling their brand of having native speakers as their educators. For instance, some famous private institutions in Indonesia are EF (English first) and IALF (Indonesian Australian Language Foundation) whose educators are mostly native speakers. These native teachers become the brand of these private institutions to attract more students and generate more profit.

As a candidate of non-native EFL teachers, I am therefore interested in discussing the issue of native versus non-native teachers in the context of Indonesia. The discussion of this review will provide valuable information, discussions, and considerations for me and the people who own the similar occupation as non-native EFL teachers in viewing the realities of TESOL professionality and how to take part on this issue. Based on the stated issue, the significance, and the chosen context, this review offers three research questions as the directions to discuss the whole process of the study which are displayed below:

1. How does the concepts of language, culture, identity, and differences shape the issue of native speakers in TESOL professionality?
2. How does the concept of 'native speaker' impact the condition of TESOL professionality in Indonesia?
3. Which EFL teachers should Indonesian government employ in Indonesian educational institutions? native or non-native EFL teachers?

Purposes of the study

The purpose of this study is to explore and investigate how the concept of native speaker has impacted the TESOL professionality in the context of Indonesia. The investigation is

undertaken through employing the available related literature regarding the addressed issue. By undertaking this investigation, firstly, findings and discussion from this review will provide valuable information and considerations regarding the plans for further educational policies in terms of EFL teachers' recruitments in Indonesia. Secondly, this review will also provide the discussion of how the concept of culture, language, differences, and identity have shaped the issue of native speakers of English; this information can be valuable information to the readers who are interested in the issues related to the teaching of English. Lastly, this review will also illuminate information regarding the politics, economics, and social issues related to the issue of native speakers which may benefit or contribute to the advancement of TESOL research in global context.

Methodology

To answer the three main questions, this study employs the 'synthesis research' methodology. Employing synthesis research is based on the research questions, the availability of related literature, the relatively small a number of scholarly works discussing this issue in the form of a review of literature, and its applicability within limited time frame. This methodology analyses, integrates, and syntheses the available conceptual and empirical studies concerning the addressed issue, native and non-native EFL teachers. This methodology was primarily pioneered by Onwuegbuzie, Leach, and Collins (2011) who advance that 'synthesis research' is a kind of methodology whose process is by combining a number of findings from related empirical studies to draw conclusions. In addition, as this study solely involves the available related literature, this study does not counter any issues related to validity, reliability, and ethical issues; this is because this study involves unreactive data, harmless data to the human participants (Gray, 2004; Pole, Christopher, Morrison, & Marlene, 2003).

Practically, the Monash education library had been chosen as the main online database to commence the search for the related conceptual and empirical studies. The selection upon Monash library is based on its trustworthiness, the variety of its journal providers, and access of the researcher to its database. Within the Education Monash library, three main journal providers were selected to specify and to focus the search for the related journals, ERIC (Education Resources Information Centre), A+, and Google scholar. The three journal providers are the most trusted and highly qualified journals for educational issues among other journal providers. To start the search for the related journals, some selected keywords were entered to the main column of each journal providers such as, native teachers, non-native teachers, and the concept of culture, language, and identity. This step was accompanied by the

use of Boolean operators (e.g., OR, AND, and NOT); this is meant to limit the search for the related literature. Additionally, all the gathered journals were then selectively checked for its quality. Finishing the search for related literature, the journals then were reviewed, analysed, and synthesised to draw a conclusion, present new findings, and finally to relate the findings to the context of Indonesia.

Findings and Discussion

The concept of language, culture, identity, and differences

Language can be defined as the system of signs from which meaning is represented and produced (Hall, 2013). The signs can be in the form of voices such as spoken language, music, or alarm; figures such as written language, pictures, or symbols; and, body language such as dance, movements, and sign language. For example, when a person talks to others, it means that they are representing and producing meaning through a compilation of sings which are in the form of meaningful voices that can be understood by others who share the similar system of signs, meaning, and concepts. Therefore, a condition where two or more people can communicate each other is that they have the same access to the language or the system of signs. However, language cannot stand by itself to make communication possible, the role of culture is extremely important to sustain this communication system. People can communicate through recognising the represented signs because they have shared the same concepts of viewing realities. The condition in which people share the same conceptual map and system of signs can be defined as 'culture' (Hall, 2013, p.4). As a result, in a communication system, language is seen as a tool consisting of sings bringing meaning, and culture is seen as a stock of knowledge consisting of a map of meaning to recognise the signs. For this reason, language and culture are inseparable elements to constitute a community through social practice.

The connections between language and culture are not only in terms of building communication but also giving a sense of identity. The role of 'language embodies culture' indicates that language enables people to sense his or her belongingness to a certain group. Language embodies culture means that language creates possibilities to communicate and at the same time identify its members through conversational style, voice, gesture, and accent (Kramsch, 1998). The accent that is part of the language is naturally acquired by an unconscious process through daily interactions and fixed over puberty (Hall, 2013; Snow & Hofnaghel-hohle, 1978). Because accent is fixed, people will remain to speak the learned language with their first language accents. Therefore, when hearing someone's accent, we can sense to which group he or she belongs to. As an illustration, it is easy to distinguish between

Russian, European, and American by hearing their English accents even though they are looked closely similar. Hence, the accent that is part of a language shaped by culture depicts ones' identity.

The accent that is naturally acquired and fixed over puberty, however, has turned into the source of generating differences. This is supported by Miller (2003) who advances that language has become a mark of differences. Furthermore, Kramsch (1998) postulates that differences is created by people for negative purposes, indicating superiority among others. For example, the historical record of the power of white people which they possessed in the past (colonialism) bestows them an authority to legitimate that their accent is the most superior accent (Pennycook, 2017). This condition, consequently, allows the countries of white people labels their identity as the 'native speakers of English'. Referring to this advantage, white people or English-speaking countries make their form of English as the reference of language teaching and international language testing in the world (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007). Hence, it could be assumed that the term 'native speaker of English', of course, is probably made for political, economic, and social purposes, benefitting the white people.

Who is native speaker?

The term 'native speaker' has become a hotly debated issue especially in terms of its qualifications. Some researchers try to define, to put forward its scope, and to illuminate its qualifications, but debates in this area are continuously progressing. Some of the gathered literature indicates that the most popular definition was issued by Chomsky (1965) in Doerr (2009) who elucidates that "native speaker is the person who lives in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying their knowledge of the language in actual performance" (p. 908). Similarly, Kramsch and Whiteside (2007) affirm that native speaker is the ideal model of speakers and listeners who do not commit any significant misunderstanding. Another qualification is added by Davies (2003) who contends that native speaker is associated with monolingual people. Therefore, native speaker, in a nearly complete definition, can be defined as the monolingual people who live in homogenous community and communicate effectively by fulfilling almost all substantial features of the language perfectly and is done subconsciously.

From the above-mentioned qualifications and limitations of native speakers, defining native speakers will likely to be problematic because of some issues. Based on the given

definition above, native speaker should be: (1) monolingual people, (2) people in homogenous community, (3) ideal speaker-listener, and (4) free from any significant errors. On the one hand, ideal speaker-listener and free from any significant errors seem reasonable because native speakers acquire cultural code from their environment since birth (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007). On the other hand, monolingual and homogenous community would be likely troublesome because majority people in the world are heterogenous and bilingual (Cook, 1999). This is supported by Baker and Wright (2017) who elucidates that two-third of people in the world are heterogenous and bilingual, including English speaking countries. Bilingual people acquire more than one language since their birth which makes it difficult to identify which language becomes their native language (Cook, 1999). Moreover, the current conditions in which various kinds of people from various backgrounds, tribes, and races living in big cities, including English speaking countries, as a result of colonialisation, displacement, and migration make the term 'native speaker' is becoming more unclear to define (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007). By understanding the complicated qualifications of being a native speaker, it is obvious that scarcely is it found community which can satisfy the qualifications of native speaker. This means that the term 'native speaker' cannot be used to generate differences to those of non-native speakers because hardly is it found people who can fulfil its qualifications. Now, the emerging question is that if the term native speaker itself is unclear, to whose interest does this dichotomy serve?

Native speaker in English Language Teaching (ELT)

The dichotomy of native and non-native speakers has been a hotly debated issue in the field of TESOL professionality. If we refer back to our understanding of native speaker, the white people in English speaking countries such as United states (US), United Kingdom (UK), and Australia (AUS) also do not satisfy the classification of being native speakers of English. However, the power that they own from the colonialism era gives them authority to legitimate that their English accent is superior to others and accordingly labels their identity as 'native speakers of English' (Kubota, 2002). This phenomenon negatively impacts to both students and teachers who were not born in English speaking countries in which they are insisted to be the people that are not (Cook, 1999). Students of L2 are judged as learners because of their L1 interference is seen as a weakness, and teachers are claimed as less-credible because of their non-standard accent (Moussu & Liurda, 2008). As a result, the dichotomy between native and non-native EFL teachers leads to discrimination in TESOL professionality. In the context of Indonesia, this issue indeed prevails since Indonesia is one of the non-English speaking

countries in which English serve as a foreign language. This means that the label of 'learners' and 'less-credible' are also experienced by Indonesian students and EFL teachers. Although this issue pervasively occurs only in private institutions, the privilege of the native teachers is obvious from looking at their relatively bigger payment rates than those of the local EFL teachers.

The dichotomy between native and non-native teachers has lasted for decades and is currently known as 'native-speakerism ideology'. This ideology believes that white native teachers represent high qualified English educators in terms of knowledge of the language and its pedagogical practices. This is advocated by Holliday (2005) who assert that the native speakerism ideology, benefitting the white teachers, has been alive for decades and thus extremely hard to be eradicated (Holliday, 2005). It is because the citizens of the world have shared the meaning that native speakers of English always refer to the western people from whom the powerful language and pedagogical competence come from. A big scale study taking several high-prestige secondary schools in Asia reveals that the preferred English teachers in the schools are white and young or what are known as 'native speakers' (Ruecker & Ives, 2015). In Indonesia, a study discussing the perceptions of Indonesian people toward the native teachers reveals that the native teachers are claimed to be the high-qualified English teachers than those of the non-native teachers (Setiawan, 2006). The condition, in which the market prefers native teachers, is not only generated by the identity of being 'native speaker', but also is caused by standardising certain form of English that belongs to English speaking countries. Therefore, to understand this issue comprehensively, it is pivotal to discuss the history and the purpose of standardisation of English.

Standard English

Standard English, native speaker, and white people are interrelated terms that emerge as the dominant symbols of ELT in the current world. Standard English means native speaker; native speaker means white; and white means high pedagogical capabilities of teaching the standard English (Mota, 2006). This circle attached identities represent essentialist view believing that someone's identity is a fixed product and is never changed. The given colour and legitimated accent represent high capabilities in language pedagogy. People that do not belong to these attributes are categorised as non-native speakers and never be as equal as native speakers. This notion denies other race identities to be part of the internationalisation of English and the non-essentialist view believing that people have the ability to change. Absolutely, the accent is fixed over puberty and colour is fixed since birth, but if the idea of English as an

International Language (EIL) is that English belongs to the citizens of the world, there should not be a segregation between native and non-native speaker. In response to this issue, parties that feel oppressed by this discrimination proposes the concepts of 'world Englishes'.

The latter research by Kachru (1990) reveals that the users of English in the last few decades expand to cover all the countries in the world. Kachru (1990) conceptualises the expansion of the users of English into three circles. Inner circle consists of English-speaking countries, outer circle is composed of former British colonialised countries, and expanding circle comprises of all countries other than inner and outer countries. This concept indicates that every country has their own legitimation to use their form of English as the ownership of English expands to any countries which wish to use it. For instance, some of the famous English forms are Chinglish (Chinese-English), Spanglish (Spanish-English), and Singlish (Singaporean-English). The English forms are then standardised, if they are applied in the public institutions (Golombek & Jordan, 2005). In Indonesia, Indonesian people do not have a consensus name for their form of English like Chinglish, Spanglish, and Singlish. It is also probably affected by the condition of educational system of Indonesia in which *Bahasa Indonesia* has been the prominent language and national identity. Also, the history of Indonesia which is not part of former British colonialised countries can probably shape the position of English in Indonesia, being the foreign language. One undeniable fact that as the accent is fixed as it is explained in previous discussion, Indonesian students and teachers' first language accents will surely affect the way they pronounce the foreign language, English. Despite the fact that English accent for *Bahasa Indonesia* has not been named, standardised, and gained international recognition, English has been used with variety of Indonesian accents across Indonesian territory. For this reason, referring to the fact that various forms of English have slowly been gained recognition in ELT world, the notion 'world Englishes' can be a bridge to deplete the gap between native and non-native teachers' issue. Now, another critical emerging question is 'how does the standard English treat other forms of English?' or 'What kind of relationships have they built in the last few decades?'.

The relationship between standard English and its variety can be understood from delving the purposes behind the standardisation of English. According to Phan (2008), the standardisation of English has become one of the political agendas of English-speaking countries aiming to preserve their domination over other countries. In doing so, the English-speaking countries standardise their form of English as the reference of the global English language learning such as in EFL textbooks and EFL curricula, and international assessments such as in Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), Test of English for International

Communication (TOEIC), and International English Language System (IELTS). Therefore, language teaching and international assessment have been the tools from which the domination of their form of English can be preserved. Phillipson (1996), conceptualises the phenomenon of standard English as 'language imperialism'. He demonstrates that language imperialism was established by the British empire and US government aiming to perpetuate the domination of their form of English and accordingly inherits privilege to the white people (Liu, 1999). Language imperialism is also is meant to invest and secure English-speaking countries form of English from a massive expansion of English varieties across the countries in the world (Phan, 2008). English speaking countries political dominance through language imperialism is then successful until recent days. As a consequence, another variety of English like Singlish, Chinglish, and Spanglish are only acknowledged as the means of daily conversation without being considered as global language materials and international language assessment (Phan, 2008). Therefore, the relationship between standard English and its variety like majority and minority language.

In the context of Indonesia, TOEFL or IELTS have been an entry and graduation requirement in most of universities, and it also becomes the job requirement in the majority of companies. For instance, for job requirement, the Indonesian ministry of trade requires minimum 600 TOEFL score for the job seeker which is very hard to achieve (Lastania, 2012). Similarly, in education, nearly 100 students in Institute Technology Semarang (ITS), one of the famous universities in Indonesia, fail to graduate because they could not achieve the minimum required TOEFL score (Giovanny, 2015). Consequently, the international assessment constructed based on standard English have become a heavy burden to students and job seeker in Indonesia. From these disadvantaging conditions, the native teachers again become the beneficial parties. This is because the people think that the attached 'native speaker' identity to the native teachers makes them the best educators whom capable of teaching the standard English well (Mahboob & Golden, 2013). It is shown from the growing number of native teachers in most of Indonesian IELTS and TOEFL preparation course in big cities like in IALF and EF. This condition occurs due to the fact that the western civilisation remains the most powerful countries in all sides of life and consequently affect to which English form becomes the standard English. Therefore, if the political power of the English-speaking countries is extremely powerful, the emerging question is that are there any notions that can challenge this condition?

Challenging the native speakers' identity

There are some emerging notions to challenge the hegemony of 'native teachers' identity'. One of them is the notion of 'teachers' professional identity'. This tenet proposes that teachers should not be judged from their accent and colour, but from their professionality. It is advocated by Rucker and Ives (2015), contends that teachers should be measured from their competence not from their linguistic history. It is also underpinned by Phan (2008) who believes that "teachers are made not born" (p.95). Lastly, Lortie (1975) asserts that teachers are cultural product, a product of thousands of hours observing as learners. Phan (2008), Lorties' (1975), and Rucker and Ives (2015) views on teachers deny the notions of qualified teachers are solely associated with attributes like certain accents and colour, but teachers are a result of formal education, teaching experiences, and informal educational activities. This phenomenon is aligned with the conception of culture by Hall (2013) who states that culture does not belong to a group, but culture constitutes a group. This means that formal education, teacher training, and teachers' teaching experiences can be seen as the place of the cultural practices in which teachers' professionality is shaped. This is due to the fact that the term 'professionality' is non-essential which means that it is unfixed and a subject to change depending on its surrounding exposure. Therefore, when people are becoming more aware of judging teachers based on their professionality not from their accents and color, challenging the native speaker identity is not impossible.

Teachers' professionality, in more detailed understanding, is associated with teachers' expertise. The term teachers' expertise shifts the teachers' qualifications from "who you are" to "what you know" (Rampton, 1990). Beijaard, Verloop, and Vermunt (1990) postulate that teachers' expertise is in the area of subject matter, pedagogical competence, and didactical capabilities. Firstly, teachers' identity as the experts of subject matter concerns to the degree of teachers' level of knowledge of the subject-matter. This is considered crucial for teachers so that they "can change programmes, develop effective tasks, explain things at a high-quality level, and diagnose students' understandings and misconceptions adequately" (p.751). Secondly, teachers' identity as pedagogical experts are in relation to the teachers' professionality in building an effective communication with students. It deals with "norms and values involved in their interaction and relationship with students" (p. 752). Lastly, teachers' identity regarding the didactical expertise concerns to the abilities of teacher in the "the planning, execution, and evaluation of lessons" (p.752). Therefore, teachers, in terms of professional identity, lies beyond the boundaries of being native or non-native speakers, but more than that it deals with larger spectrums—subject-matter, pedagogy, and didactical expertise.

The current research with respect to the strength of non-native teachers becomes another way to challenge the identity of 'native speaker'. Some studies reveal that non-native teachers are the beneficial parties in terms of contextualisation, L1 resource, and language loyalty (Bax, 2003; Cook, 2012; Leung, Harris, & Rampton, 1997; Phan, 2008). Non-native teachers are already familiar with the conditions of the environment including cultural values, parents' expectations, and learners' need. This is supported by the recent research revealing that contextualisation is one of the most powerful weapons that most EFL teachers fail to recognise (Bax, 2003). Besides, the non-native teachers are the best resources in terms of L1 (Hall & Cook, 2012). L1, in the concept of SLA theory, was assumed as weaknesses in which it can distract and interfere students' when learning L2 (Kramsch & Whiteside, 2007). However, this notion shifts due to the current result of research in which L1 can be a source of learning L2. According to Hall and Cook (2012), L1 can foster learning from the use translation and code-switching. Translation is positively proven in improving students' vocabulary retrieval (Snellings, van Gelderen, & de Glopper's, 2002); while, code-switching help students develop their cognitive ability in languages (Hall & Cook, 2012). Last and most importantly, using L1 in teaching L2 indicates language loyalty to the national identity. Leung, Harris, and Rampton (1997) state that using L1 in teaching L2 indicates the teachers' intention to show connectedness to the students who share the similar language, history, and culture. This is in line with the goals of Indonesian current curriculum whose emphasising cultural identity, *Bahasa Indonesia* (Widyanto, 2016). Therefore, to some extent, being non-native teachers own some other benefits which may become ways to challenge the native speakers' identity.

To unfold the rooted issue of native and non-native EFL teachers, however, is not simply by disseminating the strength of non-native teachers over native teachers. The dichotomy between native and non-native speakers is established and preserved by the hands of power for political and economic purposes. This dichotomy is issued by British Empire and United States government to perpetuate language imperialism and white privilege (Phan, 2008). There are always be the sound of the oppressed against oppressor such as world Englishes and teacher professional identity, but it remains as an ideology without an impactful realisation. As a long as the white people become the centre of knowledge and power, differences between native and non-native speaker will always exist. To seek equality from the discriminative actions, the oppressed countries or race require to take over the lead of power and knowledge from the white people and remove this racial action. Nonetheless, there is no any guarantee that the oppressed race or countries who take over the power will not transform

to be another oppressor and becoming another new native speaker. Hence, this issue looks like an endless circle exercise of power for gaining political dominance, economical benefits, and social privilege; in my point of view, there is no any simple solution to overcome this problem except becoming the beneficiaries or being the lost parties.

Conclusion

To sum up, the issue of native and non-native EFL teachers is one of the hotly debated topics in the professionality of TESOL. This issue comes into light since its coverage touches racial practices in which non-native teachers are the beneficiaries and on the contrary non-native teachers are the lost parties. The stereotyping belief, acknowledging that the standard accent and given colour are more superior than others, leads to the discrimination between native and non-native EFL teachers. For the most part, the native teachers who are white with their standardised accent are claimed as the best teachers in which people can enhance their proficiency in English, while non-native teachers become the second choice.

Based on the delivered issue above, three main research questions are formulated as the directions to illuminate the native speakers' issue in the context of Indonesia which are displayed below:

1. How does the concepts of language, culture, identity, and differences shape the issue of native speakers in TESOL professional?
2. How does the concept of 'native speaker' impact the condition of TESOL professionality in Indonesia?'
3. Which EFL teachers should Indonesian government employ in Indonesian educational institutions? native or non-native EFL teachers?

In terms of the first question, regarding the way language, culture, identity and differences shape the native speaker identity, the findings of this study illuminate the native speakers' identity formation, its purposes, and its impacts to the social issues. It can be concluded that the identity of native speaker is a fabricated term by the power of British Empire and United States government aiming to depict differences for political, economic, and social benefit. The British Empire and the United States government intend to inherit privilege to their people by valuing their identity through the pronoun 'native speaker'. In creating the superiority of the native speakers' identity, the British empire and the United states employ English Language Teaching and International Language Testing as the means from which the

native speakers' identity can be preserved. English Language Teaching and International Language Testing then become the tools of the British Empire and the United States to create differences between the native speakers' identity than those of the non-native speakers. By valuing and standardising their language through ELT and International language testing, the native speakers' identity survives from the emerging notions such as the non-essentialist view, the world Englishes, and teachers' professional identity.

Regarding the second question, the impacts of the native speakers' issue to the condition of TESOL professionality in Indonesia, it is shown from the pervasive number of native teachers in private institutions like English private courses and international schools. This phenomenon is probably a result of the condition whereby the Indonesian people are also the consumers of native speakerism ideology (Setiawan, 2006). In addition, the condition in which TEOFL, IELTS, and TOEIC have been the prominent international language testing in Indonesia also strengthens the hegemony of native speakerism ideology. The condition where IELTS and TOEFL have become the entry and graduation standard in most of the Indonesian universities and job requirements in companies reveals how powerless of non-English speaking countries against the political power of British empire and US government. Blaming Indonesian government not to be independent of the standard language is not a wise way to take. It is because there are no other ways to compete in this globalisation era except through the standard English which benefits the native teachers.

Finally, the suggested hired EFL teachers whether native or non-native teachers, to my understanding, what Indonesian government has done so far is aligned with the findings and discussions of this review, hiring more local EFL teachers than those of the native teachers. It is clear from the huge number of non-native teachers working in public institutions in all levels. However, the institutions in which the power of government is relatively insignificant, and are capable of hiring the native teachers like in international schools and private institutions, the native teachers will always be the first choice. Both people of Indonesia and the world have already consumed the stereotyping belief of native teachers who are the best teachers of English regardless of their educational backgrounds.

Even though there are some emerging suggested implications derived from the synthesis of the gathered literature such as world English, teacher professional identity, and strength of non-native teachers, they are far from enough to challenge or even be equal to the superiority of the of native-speakerism ideology. Currently, there is no yet a simple solution to completely counter or remove the discrimination brought by the native speakerism ideology. Therefore, Pennycook (2017) accentuates that in this era there is no other choices except

referring to the trend of the native speakers; however, we should not just recklessly refer to any native speakers, rather what kind of native speaker we should refer to.

Acknowledgement

References

Baker, C., & Wright, E. W. (2017). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism* (6th.Ed). UK: Short Run Press Ltd

Bax, S. (2003). The end of CLT: A context approach to language teaching. *ELT journal*, *57*(3), 278-287.

Beijaard, D., Verloop, N., & Vermunt, J. D. (2000). Teachers' perceptions of professional identity: An exploratory study from a personal knowledge perspective. *Teaching and teacher education*, *16*(7), 749-764.

Canagarajah, A. S. (1999). *Resisting linguistic imperialism in English teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Chen, J. C. C., & Cheng, J. (2012). Voices within nonnative English teachers: Their self-perceptions, cultural identity and teaching strategies. *TESOL Journal, 6*(1), 63-81.

Cook, V. (1999). Going beyond the native speaker in language teaching. *TESOL quarterly*, *33*(2), 185-209.

Davies, A. (2003). *The native speaker: Myth and reality* (Vol. 38). Multilingual Matters.

Doerr, N. M. (2009). Introduction. In N. M. Doerr (Ed.), *The native speaker concept: Ethnographic investigations of native speaker effects* (pp. 1-10). Berlin, Germany: Walter de Gruyter, Inc.

Giovanny, (2015). 94 ITS students fail to graduate because of low TOEFL score. Retrieved from https://news.okezone.com/read/2015/02/26/65/1111228/nilai-toefl-rendah-94-mahasiswa-its-gagal-diwisuda

Golombek, P., & Jordan, S. R. (2005). Becoming "black lambs" not "parrots": A poststructuralist orientation to intelligibility and identity. *Tesol Quarterly*, *39*(3), 513-533.

Gray, D. E. (2004). Theoretical perspectives and research methodologies. *Doing research in the real world*, 15-34. London: Sage.

Hall, G., & Cook, G. (2012). Own-language use in language teaching and learning. *Language teaching*, *45*(3), 271-308.

Hall, S. (2013). The work of representation. In S. Hall (Ed.), Representation: Cultural representations and signifying practices (pp. 13-64). London, UK: Sage Publications

Harmer, J. (2015). *The practice of English language teaching*. Slovakia: Pearson education limited.

Holliday, A. (2005). *The struggle to teach English as an international language*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Kachru, B. B. (1990). World Englishes and applied linguistics. *World Englishes*, *9*(1), 3-20.

Kramsch, C. (1998). Language and culture. Oxford University Press.

Kramsch, C., & Whiteside, A. (2007). Three fundamental concepts in second language acquisition and their relevance in multilingual contexts. *The Modern Language Journal*, *91*(s1), 907-922.

Kubota, R. (2002). The author responds:(Un) Raveling racism in a nice field like TESOL. *TESOL quarterly*, *36*(1), 84-92.

Lastania, (2012). The 600 TOEFL standard score policy can generate many issues. Retrieved from https://nasional.tempo.co/read/375036/kebijakan-skor-toefl-600-dinilai-bisa-bikin-resah

Leung, C., Harris, R., & Rampton, B. (1997). The idealised native speaker, reified ethnicities, and classroom realities. *Tesol Quarterly*, *31*(3), 543-560.

Ling, C. Y., & Braine, G. (2007). The attitudes of university students towards non-native speakers English teachers in Hong Kong. *RELC journal*, *38*(3), 257-277.

Liu, J. (1999). Nonnative-English-speaking professionals in TESOL. *Tesol Quarterly*, *33*(1), 85-102.

Lortie, D. (1975). Schoolteacher: A sociological analysis. *Chicago: University of Chicago*.

Mahboob, A., & Golden, R. (2013). Looking for native speakers of English: Discrimination in English language teaching job advertisements. *Age*, *3*(18), 21.

Miller, J. (2003). *Audible difference: ESL and social identity in schools* (Vol. 5). Multilingual Matters.

Motha, S. (2006). Racializing ESOL Teacher Identities in US K-2 Public Schools. *Tesol Quarterly*, *40*(3), 495-518.

Moussu, L., & Llurda, E. (2008). Non-native English-speaking English language teachers: History and research. *Language teaching*, *41*(3), 315-348.

Pennycook, A. (1994). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. London, England: Longman.

Pennycook, A. (2017). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. Taylor & Francis.

Phan, L. H. (2008) The politics of English as an international language and English language teaching in *Teaching English as an international language: identity, resistance and negotiation*. Clevedon, UK: Multlingual Matters, pp.71-103.

Phillipson, R. (1996). Linguistic imperialism: African perspectives. *ELT journal*, *50*(2), 160-167.

Pole, C., & Morrison, M. (2003). *Ethnography for education*. McGraw-Hill Education (UK).

Rampton, M. B. H. (1990). Displacing the 'native speaker': Expertise, affiliation, and inheritance.

Ruecker, T., & Ives, L. (2015). White native English speakers needed: The rhetorical construction of privilege in online teacher recruitment spaces. *TESOL quarterly*, *49*(4), 733-756.

Setiawan, A. W. (2015). *Attitudes towards Indonesian teachers of English and implications for their professional identity* (Doctoral dissertation).

Snellings, P., Van Gelderen, A., & De Glopper, K. (2002). Lexical retrieval: An aspect of fluent second–language production that can be enhanced. *Language Learning*, *52*(4), 723-754.

Snow, C. E., & Hoefnagel-Höhle, M. (1978). The critical period for language acquisition: Evidence from second language learning. *Child development*, 1114-1128.

The Ministry of Education and culture. (2016). The overall educational data 2016/2017. Retrieved from http://publikasi.data.kemdikbud.go.id/uploadDir/isi_FC1DCA36-A9D8-4688-8E5F-0FB5ED1DE869_.pdf

Widyanto (2016). The socialisation of curriculum 2013 implementation, ministry of education and culture conducts an educational dialogue. Retrieved from https://www.kemdikbud.go.id/main/blog/2016/06/sosialisasikan-implementasi-kurikulum-2013-kemendikbud-gelar-dialog-pendidikan

Witono (2017). Native teachers have taught in Indonesian schools. Retrieved from http://fmipa.uny.ac.id/berita/guru-guru-asing-sudah-mengajar-di-sekolah-indonesia

Sentence Errors Committed in the Paragraph Writing
among Senior High School Students

Jomel B. Manuel, Ph.D.

Chair, Department of Arts and Humanities

College of Arts and Sciences

Cagayan State University, Carig Campus

Tuguegarao City, Philippines

jomelmanuel@yahoo.com

Bioprofile

Dr. Jomel B. Manuel is an Associate Professor II at Cagayan State University and the current Department Chair of Arts and Social Sciences, College of Arts and Sciences-Carig Campus. Dr. Manuel finished his Bachelor of Secondary Education- English in 2001 and Master of Science in Teaching- English in 2003 from Saint Paul University Philippines, Tuguegarao City. He also obtained his Doctor of Philosophy in Language Education at Cagayan State University in 2012. He is one of the accreditors of the Accrediting Agency of Chartered Colleges and Universities in the Philippines (AACCUP).

Abstract

This paper examined the sentence errors committed by the students in their paragraph writing activity. Specifically, it determined the frequency of use of the different types of sentence errors such as: fragments, run-ons, misplaced and dangling modifiers, faulty parallelism, redundancy, and wordiness. Further, it determined the other grammatical errors manifested in their actual paragraph writing activity. The descriptive research method was used employing the five (5) procedures to analyzing errors adopted from Corder (1974). Research participant were the fifty three (53) Grade 11 students of the Senior High School Department of Gammad National High School, Iguig, Cagayan. Frequency count and percentage were used in analyzing the data. Results of the study revealed that the most committed sentence errors

were run-ons, followed by fragments. Further, the other grammatical errors manifested in the paragraph writing activity of the research participants were the incorrect form of nouns, followed by the inconsistent verb, incorrect preposition, and mismatched subject-verb. This indicates that the senior high students got confused in identifying one idea from the other, thus, the tendency of combining two ideas as one. When these errors were analyzed, it was observed that these committed errors were due to intra-lingual interference rather than the inter-lingual interference.

Introduction

The Philippines' membership in the ASEAN and being part of the global village has truly put Filipinos in a very challenging situation most especially in academic reform. This is to produce graduates of higher education institutions in the country to be more responsive and globally competent. As Nicolas (2014) said, ASEAN Integration will bring about (1) greater mobility of human resources, (2) demand on competitiveness and/or quality of graduates and programs and (3) greater regional cooperation on education and research.

In essence, being globally competitive does not only mean graduates possess technical knowledge and skills but have excellent communication skills as well. They must achieve communicative competence. With this demand, learning the English language is a challenge to all, regardless of the profession or status you belong. Learners aim to have proficiency of the language in order to convey their thoughts effectively. This would help them express and achieve things they wanted to be in the global arena.

However along the way, it is evident that learners are sometimes if not most of time misunderstood by others because of the mistakes or errors they unconsciously or consciously committed in constructing their sentences, the small comprehensible units of language forms that they can produce for effective communication particularly in writing.

According to Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics (1992), learners make mistakes or errors when writing. In order to analyze learners' errors in a proper perspective, it is crucial to make a distinction between the two. Mistakes are due to lack of attention, fatigue or carelessness. They can be self-corrected when attention is called. On the other hand, Richard (1985) described that errors are the use of linguistic items in a ways that a learner of the language regards them as showing faulty or incomplete learning. They occur because the learner does not know what is correct; thus, errors cannot be self-corrected.

According to Runkati (2013), errors were categorized into two main types: the sentence level and word level. Sentence level included fragments, run-ons, subject-verb agreements, word order, tenses, capital letters, and punctuations. On the other hand, word level covered articles, prepositions, word choices, nouns and numbers.

Being aware on the Natural Order Hypothesis by Krashen and Terrell that errors are signs of naturalistic developmental processes and errors made by learners are very significant as they are the indicators of how learners acquire language, having a complete knowledge about the learners' problem in committing such is necessary. Thus, Error Analysis (EA) becomes a preferred tool of second language analysis.

James (1998) proposes that Error Analysis (EA) is the analysis of learners' errors by comparing what the learners have learned with what they lack. It also deals with giving the explanation of the errors in order to accurately reduce them. Further, Corder (1974) stressed that Error Analysis (EA) has two objectives. One is theoretical objective which concerns what and how learners learn a language. The other practical one which concerns how to help learners learn a language by making use of the knowledge they have already had.

Corder (1967, as cited in Ellis, 1986) acknowledged that errors might be useful in several ways: (1) they provide the teacher with information about how much the learners have learnt, (2) they provide the teacher/researcher with the evidence of how the language was learnt, and (3) they serve as devices by which the learners can discover and/or learn the rules of the target language.

Corder created five procedures to analyzing errors: (1) collect samples of learner language,(2) identification of errors, (3) description of errors, (4) explanation of errors, and (5) evaluation of errors.

Richard (1974) states that the two major sources of errors are inter-lingual errors and intra-lingual errors. The first one refers to errors caused when learners wrongly use the rules of their first language when they produce sentences of the target language. The other one involves errors caused by learner's incomplete knowledge of the target language.

Further, Diaz-Rico and Weed (2002) discussed that in the second language acquisition, the term overgeneralization is more frequently used and refers to situations in which the learner incorrectly generalizes a rule to cases where it does not apply. English learners may say, *"I don't can do that."* In this case, the student has overgeneralized the rule "insert *do* in negative clauses." In another example, the student may say, *"He asked me that should he go."* Here, the student has overgeneralized the question-word-order rule.

Hence, the researcher wanted to find the errors frequently found and sources of errors committed in the sentences written by the senior high school students. The findings of the study may result in a more appropriate and effective teaching methods and materials which enhance the writing skills of the students.

Study Objectives

This study aimed to analyze the sentence errors committed by the senior high school students of Gammad National High School for the school year 2017-2018.

1. To find out the most frequent sentence errors committed by the students in their paragraph writing.
2. To determine other grammatical errors manifested in the students' paragraph writing.

Research Methodology

Resign Design

The study made use of descriptive research method in investigating the sentence errors committed by the senior high school students in their actual paragraph writing activity.

Locale of the Study

This study was conducted at Gammad National High-Senior High School Department, Iguig, Cagayan. The Department offers two tracks: Technology and Vocational Livelihood (TVL) and General Academic Strand (GAS).

Gammad National High School is an adopted school of the Department of Arts and Social Sciences, College of Arts and Sciences, Cagayan State University, Carig Campus. Thus, the extension project *'Communication Enhancement Training (CET)'* of the department has been implemented since February 2017.

Sample of the Study

Total enumeration was employed in choosing the research participants which comprised fifty three (53) Grade 11 class students of Gammad National High School-Senior High School Department, Iguig, Cagayan for the school year 2017-2018.

Research Instrument

The main source of data used was the written paragraphs of the fifty (53) Senior High School students who are enrolled in both TVL and GAS strands at Gammad National High.

The students were asked to write a paragraph about "The Good Features of the Gammad National High".

Data Analysis

The error analysis method of Corder (1974) was adopted to analyze the errors committed. The data analysis procedure consisted of two stages according to the purpose of the study. All of the identified sentence errors were analyzed and labeled according to the types of sentence errors to get the frequency and the percentage. The sentence error types were classified into seven (7): fragment, run-on, misplaced modifier, dangling modifier, faulty parallelism, redundancy, and wordiness.

Further, other grammatical errors were identified and labeled to get the frequency and the percentage. These include: misspelled words, mismatched subject-verb, inconsistent verb tense, incorrect contraction, incorrect pronouns, incorrect prepositions, incorrect form of nouns, incorrect capitalization, incorrect form of infinitive, and mismatched antecedent. Finally, to seek for the sources of errors, the corpora were interpreted and analyzed.

Results and Discussion

The findings of the study demonstrated that the senior high school students of Gammad National High School committed two major types of errors when writing. These are fragments and run-ons.

**Sentence Errors Committed by Senior High School Students
in Paragraph Writing**

Table 1 presents the frequency and percentage distribution of the sentence errors committed in the actual paragraph writing activity of the senior high school students. As gleaned from Table 1, most of the senior high school students committed sentence errors on run-ons with a frequency of 34 or 60.71 percent, followed by using fragments with a frequency of 12 or 21. 43 percent, while the least committed sentence errors were misplaced modifiers with a frequency of 2 or 3.57 percent. On the other hand, both dangling modifiers and wordiness are not seen in their paragraph writing activity.

Table 1 reveals that the senior high students got confused in identifying one idea from the other. With this, there is a tendency of combining two ideas as one. This displays that the students have limited knowledge of the English language.

The findings validate Quibol's (2016) study where she found that the most committed error on mechanical category was on the use of punctuation. Based on her study, students wrote two complete sentences together without using any punctuation marks. This made their sentences erroneous committing the error on run-on. Further, in her findings on errors committed on structural category in which the use of fragments ranked first, this is almost parallel with the result of the present study which the use of fragments ranked second.

The result of study was supported by Sermsook, Liamnimitr, and Pochakorn (2017) where they found that the most frequently made error type was on the use of punctuation. This corroborates the present study that committing run-ons is associated with the incorrect use of punctuation marks.

Moreover, the finding of the study is almost congruent with a previous study undertaken by Amanda, Gani, and Saharddin (2014) in Indonesia in which fragments were a serious problem in students' writing followed by run-ons, while in the present study run-ons were found to be the most committed errors, followed by fragments.

Table 1. Sentence errors committed by senior high school students in paragraph writing

Errors	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
1. Fragments	12	21.43	2
2. Run-Ons	34	60.71	1
3. Misplaced Modifiers	2	3.57	4
4. Dangling Modifiers	0	0	-
5. Faulty Parallelism	4	7.14	3
6. Redundancies	4	7.14	3
7. Wordiness	0	0	-
Total	56	100	

Among the errors committed by the senior high school students were as follows:

On Fragment

Code	Error identification	No. of Paper	Suggested correction for each sentence
S1	The GAS strand or the General Academic Strand.	P30	Gammad National High School offers the GAS strand or the General Academic Strand.
S2	GAS student from Gammad National High School.	P6	GAS student from Gammad National High School displays good study habits.
S3	If you are worried about the facilities and equipment, as we have only GAS and TVL bread and pastry and TVL electricity.	P8	If you are worried about the facilities and equipment, we have GAS and TVL(bread and pastry as well as electricity).
S4	I here to campaign the SHS department.	P20	I am here to campaign for the SHS department.
S5	Kind and respectful teachers that you can learn a lot.	P24	We have kind and respectful teachers whom you can learn a lot.
S7	Something that will help you prepare for the future	P39	Gammad National High School-Senior High Department is something that will help you prepare for your future.
S8	Experiencing fresh air coming from the tall trees.	P51	You will be experiencing the fresh air coming from the tall trees.

As gleaned above, students could hardly identify the difference between a fragment and a sentence. In S1, S2, and S8, students considered these phrases as sentences. Moreover, the dependent clauses S3, S20, and S24 were identified as sentences having subject and predicate. This shows that students could not express their ideas clearly. This means that the errors committed are attributed to students' poor knowledge on structure of English. It leads to incomprehensible statements in their writings.

On Run-On

Code	Error identification	No. of Paper	Suggested correction for each sentence

S9	*Next school year, we are about to open two new strands, these are the ABM and STEM.*	P6	*Next school year, we are about to open two new strands. These are ABM and STEM.*
S10	*For senior high school we offer GAS and TVL strand soon we will have another buildings.*	P8	*For senior high school, we offer GAS and TVL strands. Soon, we will have another buildings.*
S11	*Studying in this school is enjoyable you can meet new friends the teachers are good in teaching and we have enough facilities.*	P8	*Studying in this school is enjoyable. You can meet new friends, and teachers are good in teaching. We have enough facilities.*
S12	*You can also enjoy studying at their comfortable classrooms for they have a well-organized and complete facilities.*	P10	*You can also enjoy studying at their comfortable classrooms, for they have a well-organized complete facilities.*
S13	*I discovered many thing just like the teachers they are more strict.*	P17	*I discovered many things just like teachers. They are more strict.*
S14	*I am from Gammad National High School I like to invite all of you to come and enrolled in our school.*	P21	*I am from Gammad National High School. I like to invite all of you to come and enroll in our school.*

In the sentences above, it is clear that students tend to combine two ideas as one. In S9, the student combined the two ideas using the incorrect punctuation mark which is called comma splice. On the other hand, S10, S11, S12, S13, and S14, combine two ideas which seem as one. This is so because there is no appropriate punctuation mark and conjunction used separating the two ideas mentioned. This is called fused sentence.

The errors committed on run-ons showed that students' have poor knowledge on the use of punctuations, making it difficult for them to use punctuation marks correctly and appropriately.

On Faulty Parallelism

	Error identification		*Suggested correction for each sentence*

S15	I think, GSHS teachers are kind and help you to understand every single words they say.	P19	I think, GSHS teachers are **kind** and **helpful** for you to understand every single word they say.
S16	Gammad National High School have also trees, kiosk wherein this kiosk you may take a rest or doing your assignment.	P33	Gammad National High School has trees and kiosk. In this kiosk, you may **take a rest** or **do your assignment**.

In the sentences above, students demonstrate faulty parallelism. In S15, it is obvious that the adjective '*kind' describes the GSHS teachers; however,* the next idea is not an adjective *'helpful'* but a clause. This means that it does not have equal ideas. Moreover, S16 exemplifies faulty parallelism in the words *'take and doing'.* This happens because the word *'take'* is in the base form of the verb, while the word *doing* is in the present participle form. This shows that both words were not in the same form which makes it an error. On S16, it is also evident that the writer has a problem of subject-verb agreement by using the verb *'have'* instead of the verb *'has'* to agree with the subject which is singular in form.

On Redundancy

Code	Error identification	No. of Paper	Suggested correction for each sentence
S17	We are here to encourage you to enroll at Gammad National Senior High because first of all teacher(s) in this school are lovable, kind **and etc.**	P29	We are here to encourage you to enroll at Gammad National Senior High because first of all teachers in this school are lovable, kind, **etc.**
S18	I hope that you will consider the strands of Gammad **and also** choose Gammad as well.	P37	I hope that you will consider the strands of Gammad **and** choose Gammad as well.

In the sentences above, it is evident that the students committed redundancies by using the words **'and etc.'** in S17, while **'and also'** in S18. It has observed that the two words used have the same meaning in the sentence; thus, repeating something or adding information that is completely unnecessary.

Other Grammatical Errors Committed in Paragraph Writing

Table 2 presents the frequency of use of the other grammatical errors committed in the paragraph writing activity of the research participants. As gleaned from the table, other than the sentence errors mentioned, the most grammatical error committed by the research participants was the use of incorrect form of nouns with a frequency of 28, followed by the use of inconsistent verb tense with a frequency of 22, incorrect prepositions with a frequency of 17, and mismatched subject-verb with a frequency of 16. On the other hand, the least grammatical error used was on mismatched antecedent with a frequency of 1.

The problem of the research participants on nouns connotes that they limited knowledge, and skill in identifying any of a class of people, places, or things. They hardly distinguish the different kinds of nouns and their function within a clause or sentence.

The finding above is almost similar with the result of the study by Catabay (2016) which indicates that the most committed errors on grammatical category by the research participants in the College of Business, Entrepreneurship and Accountancy were on tense of verb, followed by the use of prepositions and agreement of subject and verb.

The result of the study conducted by Lasaten (2014) in Loag made a notable similarities with the present study. He found that Teacher Education students got most of the errors on the use of verb tenses and prepositions.

The findings of Sattayathan & Honsa (2007) in Thailand corroborated the findings of the present study. Their study shows that the use of tense-sequence troubles the students most. This includes the overgeneralization of tense-sequence conditional sentence showing unreal and the wrong tense-sequence in coordinate structure.

Table 2. Other grammatical errors committed in paragraph writing

Errors	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Misspelled words	7	6.03	6
Mismatched subject –verb	16	13.79	4
Inconsistent verb tense	22	18.97	2

Incorrect contraction	5	4.31	8
Incorrect pronouns	9	7.76	5
Incorrect prepositions	17	14.66	3
Incorrect form of nouns	28	24.14	1
Incorrect capitalization	6	5.17	7
Incorrect form of infinitive	5	4.31	8
Mismatched antecedent	1	0.86	9
Total	116	100	

The following are the other grammatical errors manifested in the actual paragraph writing of the senior high school students.

On Incorrect Form of Noun

Code	Error identification	No. of Paper	Suggested correction for each sentence
S19	*The environment fits your expectation for which it is ranked previously as one of the most beautiful **school** in Cagayan.*	**P2**	*The environment fits your expectation for which it was ranked previously as one of the most beautiful **schools** in Cagayan.*
S20	*Second is, we have the Technical Vocational Livelihood Strand, wherein the rooms are completely ventilated as well and we do have the complete **equipments.***	**P6**	*Second is, we have the Technical Vocational Livelihood Strand, wherein the rooms are completely ventilated as well and we do have the complete **equipment.***
S21	*This school is said to be one of the best **school** here in Division of Cagayan.*	**P12**	*This school is said to be one of the best **schools** here in Division of Cagayan.*
S22	*I am one of the **student** of the said school.*	**P23**	*I am one of the **students** of the said school.*
S23	*Being a Senior High student at Gammad National High School, I*	**P25**	*Being a Senior High student at Gammad National High School, I assure you that you will learn a lot of **things**.*

	*assure you that you will learn a lot of **thing**.*		
S24	*You don't have to worry about the **environments** and the rooms, they were clean and refreshing. About the teachers, they were quit friendly and good in teaching.*	P39	*You don't have to worry about the **environment** and the rooms. They are clean and refreshing. About the teachers, they are quite friendly and good in teaching.*
S25	*Gammad has a friendly teachers and **staffs**.*	P37	*Gammad has friendly teachers and **staff**.*
S26	*…because you can learn many things, enjoy every **activities** and feel the fresh of air.*	P40	*…because you can learn many things, enjoy every **activity** and feel the fresh of air.*
S27	*We assure you that you will learn many **thing** because our teachers have mastered their subject matter.*	P44	*We assure you that you will learn many **things** because our teachers have mastered their subject matter.*
S28	*If you are going to enroll Gammad National High, you will experience different activities and enjoy different **spot** around the GNHS campus like different subject **kiosk**.*	P51	*If you are going to enroll at Gammad National High, you will experience different activities and enjoy different **spots** around the GNHS campus like different subject **kiosks**.*

It is observed in the above sentences that students are problematic as regards use of noun form. In all the sentences above except S20 and S25, students showed limited knowledge of the target language. On S19, S21 and S22, students simply demonstrated serious process in identifying the number of the noun in the *'of phrase'* which should be plural in form.

On the other hand, error on S20 and S25 was called overgeneralization of the L2 rules as mentioned by Selinker. Extending the *'s'* morpheme for forming noun plurals to nouns where it does not apply.

On Inconsistent Verb-Tense

Cod e	*Error Identification*	*No. of paper*	*Suggested correction for each sentence*

S29	*What are you waiting for **enrolled** now.*	P3	*What are you waiting for, **enroll** now.*
S30	*I hope that you enrolled in our school.*	P5	*I hope that you **enroll** in our school.*
S31	*There **were** teachers that good to teach.*	P5	*There **are** teachers who **are** good to teach.*
S32	*You **can enrolled** in Gammad National High School.*	P13	*You can **enroll** at Gammad National High School.*
S33	*All the teachers in Gammad **was** so very kind and understanding.*	P13	*All the teachers at Gammad **are** so very kind and understanding.*
S34	*I am here to convince you to enroll in our school because we **offered** Senior High.*	P24	*I am here to convince you to enroll in our school because we **offer** Senior High.*
S35	*So, **picked** this school and enroll now.*	P27	*So, **pick** this school and enroll now.*
S36	*Expect, you **are gaining** more experience.*	P34	*Expect, you **will gain** more experiences.*
S37	*You can **learned** more and you can afford the miscellaneous fee.*	P36	*You can **learn** more, and you can afford the miscellaneous fee.*
S38	*I am not **force** you to enroll here (,) but think wisely because Gammad National High School **have**…*	P38	*I am not **forcing** you to enroll here, but think wisely because Gammad National High School **has**…*
S39	*It offered a senior high School K-12, we have a grade 11 and grade 12.*	P49	*It **offers** a senior high School K-12. We have Grades 11 and 12.*
S40	*If you enroll here at Gammad, expect that the teachers here **will** kind.*	P34	*If you enroll here at Gammad, expect that the teachers here **are** kind.*

As gleaned above, students are not particular or conscious of the right verb tenses (present, past, future) or aspects (simple, perfect, progressive, perfect progressive) for the time occurrence. At times, students got confused as to select the correct tense for consistency. Students' carelessness and ignorance on the application of rules on verbs, particularly tenses, are the primary causes of these errors.

Moreover, error on S35 could not only be attributed to insufficient knowledge about English language but also the direct influence of the first language which is called inter-lingual interference. In this sentence, the writer encourages the students to choose GNHS among all schools. Obviously, he uses imperative sentence which should be in the present tense *'pick'* instead of past tense *'picked'*. However, what is more notable here is the meaning of the word *'pick'* which means *you remove it from there* (e.g. When you pick flowers, you break them off the plant or tree then collect them.).Thus, the appropriate word should be '*pick out'* which means *'you choose'* or *'you select'*.

On Mismatched Subject-Verb

Code	Error identification	No. of paper	Suggested correction for each sentence
S42	*Gammad National High School now **offer** General Academic Strand (GAS) and Technology vocational Livelihood (TVL).*	**P2**	*Gammad National High School now **offers** General Academic Strand (GAS) and Technology vocational Livelihood (TVL).*
S43	*In TVL room, you can see that our utensil **are** complete.*	**P3**	*In TVL room, you can see that our utensil **is** complete.* *In TVL room, you can see that our utensils **are** complete.*
S44	*The teacher **are** friendly and kind.*	**P5**	*The teacher **is** friendly and kind.* *Teachers **are** friendly and kind.*
S45	*The room **are** so very beautiful, and the teacher is kind and friendly.*	**P48**	*The room **is** so very beautiful, and the teacher is kind and friendly.* *Rooms **are** very beautiful, and teachers are kind and friendly.*
S46	*Our school also **have a** good teachers **that** can give you information and can help you to your problem.*	**P53**	*Our school also **has** good teachers who can give you information and can help you to your problem.*

As gleaned on the above sentences, the students were confronted with problems of the use of subject-verb agreement. Students got confused as to identifying plural nouns and plural

verbs. They tend to generalize that if a word ends with the morpheme *'s',* they consider it as plural even in the case of verb.

Moreover, S46 does not only show problem on verb but also on the use of article and pronoun. The student has a limited knowledge of rule in the L2 particularly on the use of the article *'a'* plus *'noun form'*, for he used plural noun *'teachers'* instead of *'teacher'*. In like manner, the incorrect use of pronoun was seen. Instead of using '*who*' referring to the antecedent teachers, the student used *'that'*.

On Incorrect Preposition

Code	Error identification	No. of paper	Suggested correction for each sentence
S43	*You don't need to transfer **in** another school because we can offer a strand like TVL, GAS, STEM, ABM, and HUMSS.*	**P15**	*You don't need to transfer **to** another school because we can offer a strand like TVL, GAS, STEM, ABM, and HUMSS.*
S44	*We are here to convince you to study **in** Gammad National High School.*	**P16**	*We are here to convince you to study **at** Gammad National High School.*
S45	*We are here to convince you to enroll **on** our school, which is Gammad National High School, Senior High School department.*	**P18**	*We are here to convince you to enroll **in** our school, which is Gammad National High School, Senior High School department.*
S46	*The ambiance **on** our school is quite good. It has complete facilities. You can learn many things on our school.*	**P23**	*The ambiance **in** our school is quite good. It has complete facilities. You can learn may things **in** our school.*
S47	*If you are going to enroll Gammad National High School, you will experience many activities (,) and you will learn a lot of things.*	**P26**	*If you are going to enroll **at** Gammad National High School, you will experience many activities, and you will learn a lot of things.*
S48	*You will learned a lot **to** them.*	**P51**	*You will learn a lot **from** them.*

From the students' sentences, the prepositions were used interchangeably. Students could not determine the function of each of prepositions in the sentence. This means that they tend to use prepositions which never be on its context. Admittedly, prepositions are generally troublesome to the learners for whom English is a foreign/second language(Celce-Murcia, and Larsen-Freeman, 1999). Boers and Demecheleer(1998) argue that prepositions are difficult for ESL/EFL learners because they have literal as well as figurative meanings. Thus, carelessness appears to be the primary cause of such errors in the present study.

On the other hand, Jabbour-Lagocki(1990) believes that English prepositions are notoriously difficult for ESL/EFL learners to master because of L1 interference. This claim was also supported by Koosha & Jafarpour (2006) in Iran. They found that the influence of L1 on the use of collocation is considerable. About 68.5 percent of errors are due to interference from L1. This result showed that the impact of L1 on the use of prepositions seemed to be highly significant.

On Mismatched Pronoun

	Error identification	*No. of paper*	*Suggested correction for each sentence*
S49	*And friends **that** will help you to solve your problems.*		*And friends **who** will help you to solve your problems.*

Evidently, the writer constructed a *fragment* which is just a part of a sentence. This dependent clause does not express a complete idea. Moreover, the pronoun *'that'* which refers to the antecedent 'friends' in not appropriate; instead, it should be the pronoun *'who'* referring to a person.

Conclusions and Recommendations

This study concludes that students faced problems in acquiring the rules of English language. Students' sentence construction was basically committed two major types of errors such as fragments and run-ons. Further, they committed other grammatical errors which include incorrect form of nouns, incorrect verb tense, incorrect prepositions, and mismatched subject-verb.

Errors committed were due to intra-lingual interference (overgeneralization/carelessness/ limited knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary) than the inter-lingual interference.

With these, it is suggested that teachers may encourage students to provide answer in a complete sentence during class discussion. Further, teacher may engage students to various authentic writing activities highlighting the use of nouns, prepositions, and verbs to help them write better in English. It is also very important that students' carelessness should be discussed in English writing classes for a more effective piece of writing made by students. Finally, peer correction or self-correction strategy should be considered to let students aware on their errors and reduce reliance on the teacher, thereby encouraging student autonomy.

Acknowledgement

References

Ananda, Rizki, Gani, Sofyan A., Shardin, Rosnani (2014). A Study of Error Analysis from Students' Sentences in Writing. Studies in English Language and Education,1(2), 81-95.

Boers, F. and M. Demecheleer. (1998). A cognitive semantic approach to teaching prepositions, ELT Journal, 52, 197-204.

Cataby, Marites Q. (2016. Error Analysis on Students' Writing. International Journal of Advanced Research in Management and Social Sciences. Vol.5, No.1. www.garph.co.uk.

Celce-Mucia, M. and Larsen-Freeman, D. (1999). The grammar book(2nd edition). Boston: Heinle and Heinle.

Corder, S. (1967). The significance of learner's errors. International Review of Applied

Linguistics, 5(4), 161-169.

Corder, S.P. (1974). Error Analysis. In J. P.B. Allen and S.P. Corder (eds.) Techniques in
Applied Linguistics (The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics: 3) London:
Oxford University Press (Language and Language Learning), pp 122-154.

Ellis, R. (1986). Understanding second language acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University
Press.

George, H. V. (1971). English for Asian Learners. Are we on the right road? English
Language Teaching. XXV, 270-277.

Jabbour-Lgocki,J.(1990). Prepositions of position: An analysis for practical application in the
classroom, Fremdsprachendidaktik und Innovations in der Lehrerbildung, 162-167.

James, C. (1998). Errors in language learning and use. Exploring error analysis. New
York: Routledge.

Koosha, M., & Jafarpour, A.(2006). Data-driven Learning and Teaching Collocation of
Prepositions: The Case of Iranian EFL Adult Learners. Asian EFL Journal, 8(8), 200-
2016.

Lasaten, Ronald Candy S. (2014). Analysis of Errors in the English Writings of Teacher
Education Students. Journal of Arts, Sciences & Commerce. www.researcher
sworld.com. Vol.5, Issue 4.

Richards, J.C. (1974). A Non-Contrastive Approach to Error Analysis. In J. Richards
(Ed.), Error Analysis: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition (pp.
172-188). London: Longman.

Runkati, K. (2013). Organizational patterns and common mistakes in English research
abstracts. Unpublished master's thesis. Prince of Songkla University,
Songkla, Thailand.

Sattayathan, Anchalee & Somchoen Honsa, Jr. (2007). Medical Students' Most Frequent
Errors at Mahidol University, Thailand. Asian EFL Journal, Vol. 9, Issue 2, 170-194.
Retrieved from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com. on June 14, 2019

Sofia H.(2015). Teaching Technical Writing Skills Using Web 2.0 Techonology.
Published Dissertation.B.S> Abdur Rahman University. www.bsauni.ac.in

Terrell, Tracy A. (with S. Krashen and W. Voge).(1987). A Natural Approach to
Language Teaching: The Monitor Model in the Classroom. Cambridge,
Massachusetts: Newburry House Publishers. Retrieved from
http://www.tesolclass.com/applying-sla-theories/error-analysis/on September 8, 2017

Teaching ESP and General English: Similarities and Differences between Native- and Non-native- English-Speaking Teachers in a Saudi Tertiary Context

Abdulaziz Alfehaid

English Language Department, Deanship of Preparatory Year and Supporting Studies

Imam Abdulrahman Bin Faisal University, Dammam, Saudi Arabia

Biodata:

Abdulaziz Alfehaid is an associate professor in the English language department at Imam Abdulrahman Bin Faisal University (Saudi Arabia). He obtained his MA and Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics and TESOL from the School of Education at the University of Leicester, UK. He has taught applied linguistics and EFL, and consulted on assessment, program evaluation projects and pedagogy in ESL and adult education settings. His research focuses mainly on preparatory (first) year student retention, English language education, English for academic purposes, developing and evaluating preparatory year curriculum and programs and student transition. He can be reached at aalfehaid@iau.edu.sa

Abstract

English language in higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia is mostly taught by expatriate native English language teachers (NELTs) and non-native English language teachers (NNELTs). This study explores the similarities and differences between native and non-native speaker teachers focusing on four main aspects: teaching general English and English for specific purposes (ESP), teaching methodology, managing classrooms, and providing feedback. Classroom observations were conducted to identify any similarities and differences between 26 native and 71 non-native teachers serving close to 4,500 students at the Deanship of Preparatory Year and Supporting Studies (PYP) at Imam Abdulrahman Bin Faisal University (IAU). In addition, survey questionnaires were administered to students and teachers to elicit their perceptions of English language teaching practices. After conducting content data analysis methodology, main themes emerged from observations and open-ended survey questionnaires, and these were categorized following the four main aspects. The study

found that there are more similarities than differences between NNELTs and NELTs. Generally, the study indicated that both NNELTs and NELTs were similar in their use of teaching methodologies, managing the classrooms and providing feedback. The findings also suggested that both NNELTs and NELTs were effective with their teaching practices but they tended to prioritize certain aspects over the others. While the NNELTs preferred to use more controlled activities, the NELTs administered more fluency focused meaning activities. The study concluded with presenting some implications for classroom pedagogical practices and teacher training and recruitment.

Keywords: Native and Non-Native English Language Teachers, Methodology, General English, ESP, Classroom management, Feedback

Introduction

Modern theories in applied linguistics (Kumaravadivelu, 2006; Cook, 2005; Holliday, 2005; Jenkins, 2014; Jenkins, 2015, Jenkins, 2017), tend to characterize the accommodative role of English as an international language (EIL) or English as a lingua franca language (ELF). Rather than a standard model to be followed, English adapts itself to the context of use. This re-conceptualized international role of English explicitly questions the "exonerative monolingual native speaker model of English teaching (Hodgson, 2014)" and legitimizes the non-native and multilingual speaker models in English language teaching (Holliday, 2005). It should be noted that the meaning of the term "native speaker" is quite debatable and has been defined by a number of scholars and researchers (e.g. Creese et al., 2014; Holliday, 2005; Pennycook, 1994; Phillipson, 1992; Seidlhofer, 1999; Widdowson, 1992). This implies that there are many different opinions surrounding the concept, and that there is some terminological confusion[1]. For the purpose of the current study, native English language teachers (NELTs) are defined as qualified teachers who are originally from English-speaking countries[2] and non-native English language teachers (NNELTs) are qualified teachers who are originally from non-English-speaking countries.

---

[1]Acknowledging the fact that there many scholars and organizations refuse to use these terms, the current study uses the two terms as "native speakers" and "non-native speakers" because they are still considered the dominant terms in ELT.

[2]English-speaking countries here include United Kingdom, United States, Australia, Ireland, Canada, New Zealand and South Africa.

I have argued elsewhere (Alfehaid, 2014) that the increasing demand for learning English needs more English language teachers regardless of the native\non-native distinction. It is suggested that economic conditions, international pedagogical contexts, the need to promote multiculturalism helped both the NELTs NNELTs to be recruited widely in many different English language teaching (ELT) contexts across the world. Although the NNELTs are proven to be more qualified and possess appropriate teaching skills (Braine, 1999; Medgyes, 1994), their ability to outperform native speakers in other aspects of language teaching is still a question (Jeon & Lee, 2006). The current study attempts to contribute to this issue by exploring similarities and differences between NELTs and NNELTs in regard to their teaching performance through classroom observations and survey questionnaires. In particular, this study focuses on four major areas: teaching methodology, teaching general English and ESP, classroom management and providing feedback. It should be noted that the purpose of this study is not to identify the weaknesses and strengths of NELTs and NNELTs, or establish any form of superiority. Rather, the aim is to present a picture of what may be occurring in general English and ESP classrooms taught by NELTs and NNELTs in order to contribute to a particularly small pool of data focusing on tertiary education in the Middle East.

Most research on differences between NELTs and NNELTs has been conducted through teachers' self-perception or students' perception (e.g. Arva & Medgyes, 2000; Inbar, 2001; Lian, 2002; Mahboob, 2003; Moussu, 2002; 2010). According to Tae-ll (2017: 163), these studies report that, overall, NELTs outperform NNELTs in terms of "pronunciation, vocabulary, idiomatic expressions, and Western cultures". NELTs also showed a better understanding of communicative teaching techniques and sentence structure and NNELTs tended to depend more on textbook bound activities (Tae-ll, 2017; Ma, 2012; Ârva & Medgyes, 2000). Certainly, since those earlier studies, the field of language education has experienced enormous growth which has, in turn, greatly affected the teaching practices of both NELTs and NNELTs. Investigating the current pedagogical practices of teachers inside their classrooms and exploring recent perceptions of a new generation of students is essential to strengthening the practice of EIL and EFL teaching. These perceptions will be implicitly sought to avoid any leading or biased preferences for any group of NELTs and NNELTs**.**

Literature Review

Saudi Arabian education policies have always upheld local sociocultural practices (Argungu, 1996) and urged academic institutions to design curricula that integrate both 'localized and learner-relevant content' (Picard, 2007 as cited in Mahboob & Elyas, 2014) with

'authentic' contexts of academic relevance to promote 'creative critical thinking' (Al-Seghayer, 2005). This balanced approach in language curriculum design needs to 'reflect the true aspirations of the Muslim Nation' (Karmani, 2005) and, at the same time, selectively represent western and native-speaker contexts (Picard, 2007) that enable students become proficient in handling a variety of discourses (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014).

While EFL recruitment policies tend to prioritize professional criteria over nativeness, higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia, like other Gulf countries (Buckingham, 2014), prefer to hire English language teachers from both the native-inner circle and the non-native outer circle counties[3] (Kachru, 1986). By doing so, they attempt to retain and advocate a multilingual approach to language instruction, which integrates socio-cultural awareness with linguistic competence.

Research on students' preferences for NELTs or NNELTs has been 'inconsistent' (Ma, 2012; Kasai, et al., 2011, Moussu, 2010). Ever since English language emerged as a global lingua franca (see Jenkins, 2014 for more detials), the stratified dichotomous relation between NELTs and NNELTs has been perceived to offer opportunities for language learners. Although some countries such as China, Taiwan and Japan prefer to recruit NELTs over experienced NNELTs (Jeon & Lee, 2006, Cook, 2005; Medgyes, 1994; Nayar,1994), the need for multilingual and culture-familiar teachers is overpowering, especially in countries like Saudi Arabia, which for obvious reasons wants to retain 'local cultural norms and practices' (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014).

Affiliating oneself to a specific linguistic community is a long-standing common practice, however, the identification of a NNELT as 'non-native' is not primarily linguistic, 'but socially constructed' (Brutt-Griffler and Samimy, 2001: 102). NNELTs have often been defined as people who are allowed limited access to or have few attributes of native speakers (Davies, 2004). NNELTs have also been observed to follow controlled practices including the use of bookish language, guided approaches, use a single textbook, more tests— that do not deviate from the stated lesson objectives. NELTs, in contrast, tend to take a liberal and more flexible approach which is more innovative, casual, and uses a variety of materials (Ârva & Medgyes, 2000). NELTs have also outperformed NNELTs in regard to the use of conversational and informal English, fluency, techniques and accuracy (Samimy & Brutt-

---

[3] Inner circle counties are USA, UK, Australia, New Zealand and Canada; and non-native outer circle counties are Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Kenya, Ghana, Malaysia, Philippines, Tanzania, Singapore, Zambia and Nigeria.

Griffler, 1999). On the other hand, NNELTs tend to possess the knowledge of the local culture and learning practices, and exhibit attributes such as higher metalinguistic knowledge (Medgyes, 1994). They also anticipate and address the learning difficulties that EFL or English as a Second Language (ESL) learners usually face (Ma, 2012). Investigating students' perceptions of their NELTs and NNELTs at an American university, Moussu (2002) found out that 42 out of 84 students had a positive perception of their NNELTs. Other studies which sought students and teachers perceptions (e.g. Mahboob, 2003; Moussu, 2002; Ârva & Medgyes, 2000) concluded that both NNELT and NELTs have their own areas of strengths.

Alghofaili and Elyas (2017) argue that NELTs were presumed to have less commitment to teaching and were less empathetic to students' learning while NNELTs were more cautious and stricter in teaching and had more realistic expectations of students' learning. NELTs were further inclined to emphasize fluency, oral skills or colloquial registers; however, NNELTs focused more on accuracy, grammar rules or formal registers. Furthermore, NNELTs showed a lack of fluency and accuracy in their oral proficiency and struggled to use English appropriately (Medgyes, 1994), and NNELTs were observed to have deeper insights into English language than NELTs (Widdowson, 1992).

NELTs and NNELTs in Saudi Arabia

When admitted to university level programs, students' perceptions about NELTs and NNELTs are influenced by their prior exposure to English and English teachers. Many schools in Saudi Arabia offer English at the primary level, mostly by recruiting local teachers who can speak both Arabic and English. Schools may be affiliated to different boards (international and national), and the implementation of the English curriculum varies across boards of study in terms of modalities, materials, and resources. In other words, they offer differential treatment which produces students with different abilities in English. Put succinctly, the majority of students who are proficient users and whose exposure to English was mainly through native varieties often favor NELTs while the others normally prefer bilingual NNELTs.

In Saudi Arabia, as studies have reported, both NELTs and NNELTs have been regarded equally effective (Alghofaili & Elyas, 2017). NELTs were perceived to be enthusiastic practitioners having a firm hold on their oral fluency and could teach listening and speaking skills effectively; on the other hand, NNELTs were perceived to possess meta-linguistic knowledge of the rules and principles and could teach writing skills and grammar effectively (Alseweed & Daif-Allah, 2012).

In general, rules for selecting NELTs and NNELTs have been founded on research into Saudi Arabian English language teaching policies, prospects and priorities (Al-Seghayer, 2005), sociolinguistic history (Karmani, 2005) and cultural notions (Argungu, 1996). With regard to preferences for specific teachers, classroom environments, learner samples, quality of teaching, learning resources and many other variables may influence students' desire for NELTs and NNELTs (Moussu, 2010). The need for continued research into the reasons for such preferences provides formidable rationale. However, last 10 years of ELT research found very relatively little about the preferences, especially in Saudi Arabia, where both NELTs and expatriate NNELTs constitute a large contingent of English teachers in higher education. This study attempts to contribute to this knowledge and to one gap in particular.

Most studies exploring perceptions about NELTs and NNELTs studies identified more differences between groups rather than similarities (Ma, 2012). That is, they tended to focus on differences and neglected potential similarities which could be useful for enhancing and improving teaching general English and ESP courses. Researchers' bias towards "differences" could be due to a natural tendency for researchers seek ideal models for the language classroom at various stages of lessons. Examining research conducted on NELTs and NNELTs, Moussu and Llurda (2008: 337) concludes that there is an urgent need for research studies into teachers' classroom performance, ''as we need to know more about their use of teacher talk, grammar explanations, promotion of varied interactional patterns, use of the textbook''. It is suggested that while there are a range of other aspects that intrinsically influence the target outcome performance of students, classroom-based instruction exerts the maximum influence on it. It is nessary, then, to foucs on NELTs' and NNELTs' performance. Drawing on the literature of teachers' classroom performance, I would argue that the following four aspects are the most important aspects of classroom teaching:

- Teaching Purpose and nature of the course (general English & ESP)
- Teaching Methodology
- Classroom Management
- Feedback

Teaching purpose and nature of the course: Because the ideologies across the boards of school education follow various conceptual models of English language teaching in Saudi Arabia, it is common to find learners with mixed language abilities (Al-Seghayer, 2005). This inherent heterogeneity in learner profiles necessitates a requirement for both general and specific purpose courses. Students are often required to achieve a specific level of language

proficiency, preferably B1 to B2 CEFR[4] levels (National Center for Assessment, 2018), before they embark on specific purpose courses. Instruction in these courses explicitly moves from general academic proficiency skills to register specific academic language skills. At IAU, ESP courses run in tandem with general English. While the general purpose English courses focus on the common core academic language needs of students, ESP courses focus on the specific language needs of the students which are related to their future academic studies and careers (Dudley-Evans & John, 1999; Alfehaid 2011).

Teaching methodology: Across the Preparatory Year Program (PYP) in Saudi Arabia critical thinking is an important goal to be achieved. The role of teachers is to pack 'instructional sequences' into the socio-cultural practices of the community and create cognitively challenging environments for students to practice English (Snow, 2016). The standardized course books used for English language teaching encourage teachers to adopt "pedagogy of questions rather than the pedagogy of answers" and promote critical thinking environments that enable the students discover and evaluate their learning (Ward, 2016: 3). The activities and tasks encourage a communicative methodology that values the role of grammar as integral to EFL learning.

Classroom management: A major aim of teaching methodology in Saudi English classes in the PYP is to encourage students to actively engage in discourse production and reception. Pair activities and group activities are the main modalities of student interaction where the teacher assumes the role of a facilitator. Classroom management in this context refers to the ways the teacher motivates and engages the classroom (Lassonde, 2010). In managing a classroom, the teacher conducts collaborative activities that help students find answers to their questions. Students access and explore various resources—digital materials such as videos, grammar practice activities, graphic organizers, and extensive reading materials—and engage in meaningful interactions with both peers and teachers (Snow, 2016).

Providing Feedback: Teacher and peer feedback are central to classroom interaction and assessment processes. Course materials and the integrated online tools encourage both peers and teachers to provide feedback to the students. Online discussion boards, writing portfolios, graphic organizers and classroom-based communicative activities for all four skills offer opportunities for students to produce language (Ward & Gramer, 2016). Teachers as facilitators provide constructive feedback for both form and meaning aspects of language use.

---

[4] The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: B1 level = intermediate; B2 level= upper intermediate.

Indeed, the course book activities explicitly recommend that teachers make it a practice to provide feedback to students.

To ensure uniformity at the PYP, standardized teaching-learning conditions in the context of the current study are created for both NELTs and NNELTs. However, all teachers are encouraged to utilize their strengths in language teaching to promote critical thinking skills. That is, teacher innovation in terms of materials, techniques, and assessment that is in alignment with the curricular transaction processes are highly regarded.

While most studies on the similarities and differences between the NELTs and NNELTs in the last two decades have focused on perceptions or attitudes of stakeholders (Buckingham, 2014; Ma, 2012), few have focused on actual classroom pedagogical practices. Also, present EFL contexts have fully embraced technology-driven transformative pedagogical practices that empower teachers in many ways. The developments in modalities, access to information, teaching atmosphere could influence the ways NELTs and NNELTs practice ELT thereby influencing students' perceptions. This study attempts to contribute to the current knowledge about NELTs and NNELTs by concentrating on key aspects of language teaching including: the purpose and nature of the courses, teaching methodology, classroom management and feedback. The outcomes of the study may better inform academic institutions when recruiting both NELTs and NNELTs.

Methodology

Qualitative approach was employed due to the exploratory nature of the study. That is, it aims to explore teaching practices of NELTs and NNELTs in general English and ESP classrooms. In his recent study investigating the differences between NELTs and NNELTs, Tae-ll (2017: 174) admitted that his study was limited because it was based on a quantitative survey and concludes that "providing qualitative data…would have given more insights into the topic of the study". Medgyes (2010: 191) also strongly recommends using observations to achieve a complete triangulation in addition to teachers' self-perception and students' assessment of their teachers.

Drawing mainly on qualitative data techniques—classroom observations and surveys —the data analysis attempts to offer a detailed description and interpretation of the performance of NELTs and NNELTs inside their general English and ESP classrooms.

The researcher conducted classroom observations in the academic year of 2017-2018. The main task was to objectively observe the performances and teaching behavior of NELTs and NNELTs as well as students' interaction with them. The data obtained from the classroom

observations was meant to answer the following overall research question: *What are the similarities and differences between the NELTs and NNELTs at IAU with regard to:* the purpose and nature of English courses (general English and ESP), teaching methodology, classroom management and providing feedback.

In addition to observations, a student survey questionnaire which asked the students to rate the performance of teachers on a five-point scale was administered. This data was supported and supplemented by their voluntary written open-ended comments. Every student was requested, but not forced, to write their comments about various aspects of teacher performance inside the classroom. Also, an open-ended questionnaire was administered to teachers focusing on the four aspects mentioned above. Data triangulation was achieved when classroom observation data was compared with student surveys and teacher questionnaire.

Classroom Observations

As Moussu & Llurda (2008: 341) put it: ''one of the most urgent needs at this point is to develop a research agenda that focuses specifically on classroom observation and the analysis of the actual teaching performance of NNS teachers, complemented by a triangulation of results obtained through different methods''. Drawing from the literature, the researcher designed a specific classroom observation form which focused mainly on teacher performance and knowledge in terms of subject matter content, organization of subject matter, rapport with students, teaching methods, presentation of lessons, classroom management, sensitivity to students' needs and background, and assistance to students. A total of 54 NNELTs and 43 NELTs—59 females and 38 males—were observed over a period of 3 months. During the observations all teachers were notified about the purpose of visits and only upon receiving their consent did the researcher observe their classes. Each observation session lasted a minimum of 50 minutes. However, the researcher where it should be necessary spent 30 more minutes to write his own notes.

Classroom observation coding was done according to the four key aspects: teaching general English and English for specific purposes (ESP), teaching methodology, managing classrooms, and providing feedback. To ensure reliability, a research assistant was asked to code a sample of 15% of the observation notes independently. The coded items were compared and contrasted, and differences were discussed by the researcher and the assistant. As a result of this discussion, all disagreements were refined, and ended up with an agreement percentage of 86%.

The Student Survey Questionnaire

Because "students have opportunities to observe both categories of teachers [NELTs and NNELTs] "on the job" in classrooms, their comments on teachers' performance are valuable" (Ma, 2012: 281). Students were implicitly asked in the survey about the teaching performance of their teachers in order to allow their teachers to be considered as individuals rather than as belonging to a group of NELTs or NNELTs.

The purpose of administering this student survey questionnaire was to understand teacher professionalism in handling ELT and learning situations in the classroom. For instance, survey items focused on teacher's sense of the classroom in terms of pacing the lesson, use of examples in explanations, and creating conducive environments.

Example items: *The teacher*:

    a. *Began and ended the lesson on time*

    b. *Drew attention to important ideas*

    c. *Understood most of words*

To provide an emic perspective of the teachers, students were given space for extra comments. While students were not forced to write their observations, they were motivated to offer their comments, either in Arabic or in English. No specific structure or question was imposed here. The collected comments were classified under the four major aspects mentioned above.

The Teacher Questionnaire

Focusing on the main aspects of the study the questions in the teacher questionnaire invited teachers to share their practices in teaching English inside classrooms. Questions pertaining to the content of the courses, methodology, classroom management and feedback were asked. They were asked to cite some of the activities they would usually use in their classes. This tool was instrumental to supporting the data obtained from classroom observations and student survey.

The Participants

The ninety-seven participating teachers in the class observations were among the members of the IAU faculty whose academic and professional qualifications ranged from Bachelor of Arts (BA) to Master of Arts (MA), and to Doctor of Philosophy (PhD). Aged

between 25 and 60, a majority of the male and female teachers were bilinguals and multilinguals from different countries including Saudi Arabia, Jordan, Pakistan, Syria, South Africa, Eretria, India, Algeria, Egypt, and Tunisia. A sizable number of teachers came from the UK, the USA, and Canada. Interestingly, most of the teachers from the native speaker countries could understand and speak Arabic. The ninety-seven participating teachers were selected on the basis of being current teachers of general English and ESP, and all have (more than 4 years) experience in teaching these courses. All teach sixteen hours every week (10 hours for general English and 6 for ESP).

As far as student survey data was concerned, all students in the PYP —around 5300— were asked to fill in the survey at the end of the academic year (2017-2018). Exactly 4,500 students responded to this survey. The collection of numerical data and written comments was analyzed and interpreted guided by the four major aspects mentioned above.

Findings

The qualitative evidence from the three sources—classroom observations, and student and teacher questionnaires—was examined to provide a detailed description of the pedagogical practices of both NELTS and NNELTS and to identify the similarities and differences between the two groups.

Teaching Purpose and Nature of the Course

In formal contexts of higher education maintaining uniformity is an important aspect. Uniformity ensures fair assessment practices and no student feels left out. Design and use of materials that represent and address the learning needs of students need to be used. In the PYP program, all teachers are required to use standard textbooks—Q:Skills for Success, Special Edition—in the classroom. However, teachers are encouraged to bring in resources that supplement and complement the content of the courses. NELTs' and NNELTs' approach to teaching and materials is discussed below.

The NNELTs

NNELTs taught both general English and ESP courses. The main aim of both courses was to enable the students use English fluently and accurately across academic contexts. Data from students' survey, classroom observations, and teacher questionnaire indicated that NNELTs' use a variety of teaching materials in their general and ESP classes. Although they brought in additional resources in the form of handouts and PPTs, all NNELTs strictly used

textbooks to guide student learning. The follow up or supplementary activities they used directly reflected the content of the textbooks used in the classroom. One NNELT explained how she used materials to deliver specific lessons:

I use a variety of materials in my lessons and it depends on the skill and topic I am teaching. Every day I have the e-podium turned on to the page we are on in the book and I ask students to bring notebooks daily for notetaking. At the end of the week we wrap up the week's lessons and do vocabulary and grammar activities which require index cards, sometimes we do interactive vocabulary games like kahoot which requires internet connection and the e-podium as well. Basically, books, notebooks, and e-podium are used daily and depending on the activities materials will vary. (A Saudi female teacher)

NNELTs also mentioned that they used 'visually appealing' materials and tasks that 'attracted the attention of students'. While for some NNELTs, these materials included a variety of online authentic materials such as YouTube videos, radio broadcasts and news-paper articles, for many computer-mediated modalities such as PowerPoint presentations, whiteboards were also materials that appealed to the "senses" of students. Two extracts from the teacher questionnaire are shown below as examples of teachers use materials inside their classrooms:

I use materials that can be used at any level of teaching – for presentation, practice and review. While selecting visual aids I always ensure their suitability, visibility, clearness and ease of presentation. White boards, pictures (even old magazine pictures), record player and different online materials having a variety of content are my usual teaching materials. (An Indian female teacher)

I use materials that are current and related to the topics we are discussing. Also, materials need to appeal to as many senses as possible. I use videos to provide visuals and audio input. (A Jordanian female teacher)

The observation data indicated that in teaching general English and ESP, all NNELTs followed the sequential presentation of lessons in textbooks utilizing them for discussion.

The NELTS

The NELTs, like the NNELTs, taught both general English and ESP courses aimed at preparing students to cope with the language demands of their academic studies. In terms of the design, choice and use of materials, some of the NELTs stated that the materials provided by the university were sufficient to serve the purpose while others mentioned that they used authentic materials taken from modern technology such as YouTube, television shows, and internet-based games. Their content selection and choice were influenced by their familiarity with the native society and culture.

I use materials that are provided by the university. These are textbooks that are genuine and very adequate to teach for non-native students. (An American female teacher)

The NELTs showed better computer-management skills in demonstrating lessons. The observation notes indicated that NELTs utilized technology judiciously in their classrooms. The following is a note from the classroom observations:

Using a visual projection, the teacher took the students through a world map and asked students to share their observations about corporate social responsibilities. Students discussed in groups a few minutes and shared their views. The teacher while rewording students' views shared her observations and experiences. After that, the teacher asked students to identify two other countries and explore the topic in discussion.

The content of the speaking discussions was mainly drawn from the textbooks; however, extended activities that entailed native-speaker contexts were introduced in order to create novel contexts for teaching. During these extended tasks teachers preferred to bank on authentic materials using online resources such as YouTube and TV shows.

Teaching Methodology
The NNELTs

A typical 50-minute classroom methodology of an NNELT was product-driven. According to the observation data, most of the teachers aimed at achieving a specific goal as stated in the textbooks. Many teachers prioritized contextualizing language by either introducing new vocabulary or by asking questions—brainstorming—related to the theme of the textbook unit. Interestingly, most teachers preferred to use meaning-focused warm-up

activities across all levels of proficiency in the beginning of the class while they categorically provided guided practice to specific linguistic aspects after the students had worked with the unit texts. In other words, the majority of NNELTs structured their lessons into four to five sections with varied focus as shown below in Figure 1.
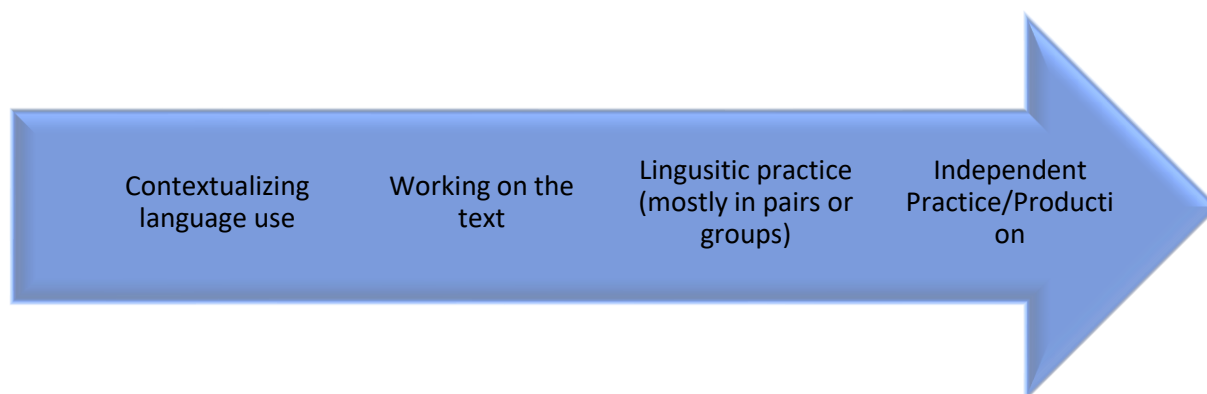

Figure 1: Typical Process of a Lesson Plan Followed by NNELTs

While the sequencing of the activities in the textbooks too followed a fixed pattern similar to the sequence mentioned above, individual teachers made several changes to the order and way they carried them out. The following extracts explain some of these changes.

My methodology focuses on language in context. I start with a warm up to bring background knowledge related to the topic. Then I provide a context for the topic used [sic] *with a reading or listening passage. Then I ask my students to do group work on how the topic is used in the context and what are* [sic] *the characteristics. Then as a whole class we complete some controlled activities. After I am convinced that the students are familiar enough with the topic, we do free production whether in speaking or writing to use the topic.* (A Jordanian male teacher)

If it is a reading lesson, I give students a list of complex words from the text and ask them to determine the meaning of the words using [sic] *context clues. Once we have discussed them and students justified their definitions, students are asked to skim the reading passage, highlight main ideas, and answer questions.* (A Pakistani female teacher)

My methodology focuses on (1) a warm-up activity which basically checks my students' prior-knowledge and gets them involved with the content of the lesson, (2) a teacher-class debate or discussion based on a given content or material for students to find out the reality of the lesson content, (3) a teacher's modeling, (4) group work practice, (5) independent practice followed up with peer or group discussion, and (6) closure including an assessment or evaluation. (A Lebanese female teacher)

Each of the three extracts mentioned above focused on reading skills at the intermediate level. These teachers organized their lessons in three different ways depending on their preferences. While some teachers offered group-based guided practice activities, other preferred independent and autonomous learning conditions. The following is a note from classroom observations:

The teacher almost spent 30 minutes on a group discussion and just let the students speak in their groups. At the end of the discussion the teacher directed the class to another activity with a different focus. No extended teacher-driven or student-driven feedback on group discussion. (Observation notes)

However, some teachers seem to believe that language learning was habit-formation. These teachers asked students to extensively practice on drills and role-plays. Teachers who were oriented toward pattern-practice had more than 60 students in the class. One teacher stated:

Language learning is basically habit formation, so I focus on extensive practice, drill, good conversation sessions based on the prescribed text. As the number of students are up to sixty, I will divide the class into small groups with a leader for each group and closely monitor students' activities. (An Indian female teacher)

The majority of students indicated that their NNELTs almost never deviated from the content of the textbooks. They mentioned that they liked the fact that the teachers took time to explain every necessary detail they felt was important for the students. However, some students mentioned that the NNELTs spent a significant amount of time lecturing on the topics given rather than engaging them with the topic. The following comment was provided by a female student studying in the intermediate level.

We need our teacher to have more discussions with us….

Another male intermediate level student commented:

I like the teacher he is very careful with us [means he is very caring]. But he talks too much. I want to practice my speaking in the class but he is always speaking and lecturing us.

Students' comments reflected the claim that the NNELTs lectured a considerable amount of time. The use of verb phrases such as 'explains points clearly, teaches effectively, delivers ideas effectively and in different ways' indicated to the teacher-centered methodologies the NNELTs have adopted.

On the whole, the NNELTs overtly depended on the course textbooks to guide their practice. Their supplementary tasks and additional resources also heavily emphasized the content of the textbooks. Although they used innovative techniques to translate their textbook ideas to practice, their instructional methodology explicitly related the outcomes to what the students would be assessed on. In other words, simulated testing conditions were created to communicative environments; and interactive situations mainly focused on rationalizing learning. Often metalinguistic knowledge was invoked to help students understand the rules of language use.

The NELTS

According to the observation notes, the NELTs organized their classes around lesson plans focusing on the objectives to be achieved. Most of them began their sessions by communicating with the students the tasks to be accomplished. Systematic modelling, a learner-centered process approach, activating essential schemata are a few ways they typically used during their teaching.

A female teacher mentioned in the questionnaire that she used process-approaches consistently in her teaching. She encouraged students to take part in pair and group discussions, and motivated them to take control of their learning. Her female student commented:

The teacher gives me a chance to interact with my friends before I say something. She doesn't mind if I am not right. And the best thing is she listens to every one of us.

Another female student in the same class noted:

> *She is the best teacher. I always want to write what I feel. And she suggests I should write like the way I think. Sometimes I don't find the words to express. She then asks me to get help from my friends or she will help.*

A male student also commented on his teacher's methodology:

> *His style of teaching is simple. He doesn't teach everything. He makes us speak and write. He helps me when I make mistakes*

NELTs teaching methodology showed no significant differences when compared with the NNELTs. Like the NNELTs, the NELTs preferred to begin their class sessions by letting students brainstorm ideas and by asking questions about the lessons they learnt in the previous sessions. A typical lesson structure of an NELT was in five parts: brainstorming, explicit teaching, comprehension check and guided practice, independent production and feedback. An NELT explained:

> *My lessons always start with a warmer. This task is designed to capture students' attention as well as prepare them mentally for the next task by activating their schemata. After the warmer, I move on to the main activity of the lesson. This will usually involve a series of controlled exercises which uses the language in context. My role as a teacher at this stage is to act as a facilitator, providing students with guidance and/or scaffolding instructions that will allow them to complete the exercises. Once the exercises are completed, I conduct a feedback session where students are encouraged to share their answers.* (A British male teacher)

Some students often complained that the NELTs brought in contexts that many students were distantly aware of. The following extract from the students' survey shows one example of these complaints:

> *Our teacher, Mr. Ali [pseudonym], used listening texts from America. I do not understand anything. It was very difficult. He played it two times and gave us 10 questions. I answered only 5. The listening from the textbooks is not very difficult.* (Male intermediate student)

The data shows that some NELTs ignored 'task complexity' in terms of cognitive demands, and administered activities or exercises that had no immediate reference to any

instruction related to textbooks. Brainstorming was mainly practiced as an activity at the beginning of the session, and did not relate to the task at hand. One student commented:

> *In the beginning of the sessions we all would speak and share our ideas. Once the teacher starts speaking, we would not have to do much. It gets boring. We would appreciate if he uses more activities.* (Male advanced student)

Classroom Management

The NNELTs

Classroom observation data indicated that NNELTs often practiced various strategies in order to offer learning conditions. Many of them preferred to implement modern communicative language teaching (CLT) models that did not penalize students for their language mistakes. They encouraged students to speak fluently without making any direct comments on mistakes or errors. The questionnaire data showed that the majority of NNELTs strongly believed in engaging tasks that did not inhibit performance, and they motivated student participation and maintained classroom behavior. The following extracts are some examples:

> *I manage my class by ensuring a relaxed atmosphere.. So students learn and participate without bothering about all types of errors.* (An India male teacher)
>
> *I personally believe in creating a fun and engaging environment for learners so that they feel at ease to learn and participate.* (A Lebanese female teacher)
>
> *I as a teacher make sure that my students are feeling comfortable in their class. I try to create an engaging teaching atmosphere to encourage my students to practice their English.* (A Saudi female teacher)

Some teachers indeed structured their teaching tasks in such a manner that no two students sit through together for the whole session. Grouping strategies maximized opportunities for students to engage with others and certainly created conditions for organized classroom behavior. An NNELT described this saying:

> *When I enter the room I find students seated in groups which allows me to start the lesson without wasting time. Also, students are encouraged to rotate their seats weekly and students are to have different groups. I have emphasized that my number one rule in my class is to show respect at all times.* (A Saudi female teacher)

In addition to using these strategies NNELTs maintained a personal relationship with the students and constantly shared and discussed concerns relevant for academic contexts. In the words of some students:

My teacher is very friendly and always makes me feel comfortable. She is like my second mother….very caring and smiles always. (A female beginner student)

Dr… is the best person I have met. He not only encourages me speak in class, he also listens to my problems and advises me. (A male advanced student)

I am very shy and don't like to speak in the class. She always encouraged me to take part in discussions and she is very nice. (A female intermediate student)

The above extracts suggest that students considered their NNELTs to be caring and to engage them in classrooms. This may be because students often feel comfortable to communicating with some NNELTs who share the same language (i.e. Native Arabic) and local culture. Maintaining or managing a classroom was considered an important aspect of teaching. In order to maintain discipline in the classroom teachers emphasized maintaining a personal bond with the students while they motivated them to take an active part in the ongoing discussions. The NNELTs assumed that if a class is fully engaged in class discussions, there would be few issues with discipline and classroom management.

The NELTS

In the questionnaire, many NELTs believed that, in learning environments, teachers were required to write out a checklist of appropriate aids that turn failures into learning opportunities. Calling it an "intelligible framework" they wished to be observant and "catch the students doing the right thing". Furthermore, they wanted their practices to have a long-term beneficial impact on students. One NELT stated:

…discard all bullying attempts by unconditional kindness and smile, a shared sense of humour enabling all concerned to breathe in and out together in challenging situations. (A Canadian male teacher)

Cultural adaptation was viewed as an important enabling factor in creating an effective learning environment. Being a native speaker of English, one of the NELTs mentioned, is "both a boon and a bane". Another NELT explained:

… you are privileged to have access with students' psyche if you belong to his culture and speak his language; however, in my case it has to be the other way, I need them to connect with my psyche. It is a challenge, but that's what my real job is! (A British male teacher)

In their attempts to manage classes, the NELTs used humor as an enabling tool. Most of them cited instances of how their "extra-curricular" activities helped students engage in both learning and fun.

When I notice my students not coping with my pace I change my plan. I keep a set of SUDOKU activities and form them into groups of four, and give them a time-frame to solve the puzzles. During the game no one can sit quiet… (A British male teacher)

A female teacher mentioned that she would use fluency activities to create a motivating environment. She went on to argue that these fluency activities would be flexible and controlled and required students to engage in meaning-making processes. Another teacher managed her class by constantly reminding them of acceptable and unacceptable classroom behavior. She would give phone-based *Kahoot* like apps to engage their attention. The observation data indicated that the majority of NELTs monitored group activities and asked questions to encourage students to participate in the classes. This is very similar to what was happening inside NNELTs classrooms as mentioned above.

On the whole, teachers approached students with an open-mind and accepted their mistakes while encouraging them to participate in meaning-making processes. They emphasized less on the behavioral aspects of punishment and reward and more on helping students construct meaning through sharing and respecting each other. They also ensured that the students were aware of "classroom ecology" in terms of lesson planning and completing tasks.

Providing Feedback
The NNELTs

The NNELTs mostly preferred incidental feedback focusing mainly on the positive aspects of language production. The following is a note from the observations:

The teacher demonstrated a lesson on imperative verbs and discussed the order of the written sentences. She modeled the technique and asked students to produce examples. She corrected students' examples by restating what the students produced.

According to the observation data, the majority of NNELTs provided indirect feedback through recasts wherein they 'restated' students' speech in their own words so that the students make changes to their speech. Some teachers repeated the restated version of a sentence twice to make sure that their students understood it better. Teachers also practiced 'delayed feedback techniques', and instructed students to speak fluently ignoring the mistakes they could make. Later, they recorded a few common mistakes of all students, mostly in terms of pronunciation and grammar, and initiated a discussion in the class toward the end of the session. On the other hand, some teachers mentioned that they would choose a specific aspect of language and focus on it throughout the session. One NNELT stated:

I always choose to offer advice on specific aspects. For instance, when I teach students reading, I make sure I focus on correcting their pronunciation. By demonstrating or by using online dictionaries I make them reproduce words until I am convinced they have got it. (A Tunisian male teacher)

The majority of NNELTs mentioned that they focused on aspects the assessment would target, with regard to *content, vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation* and *fluency*. This is in line with the findings above which show that the methodology of NNELTs was influenced by exams and assessments. Overall, the NNELTs were aware of the various ways of providing oral feedback and appreciated every effort that enabled meaningful communication. One NNELT maintained:

My focus is usually on content. Sometimes I rectify necessary pronunciation errors. Sometimes I help students by providing her with the word she needs to complete her statement. I appreciate their participation; and I usually show acceptance to whatever they say because I want them to be confident, comfortable and fluent in speaking. (A Tunisian female teacher)

Teachers' written corrective feedback was as important as their oral feedback. However, the focus of written feedback was mainly on the grammar of sentences rather than textual aspects that conform to context-dependent conventions. For example,

My feedback focused on spelling, punctuation marks and their uses, along with context for word meanings. (An Egyptian female teacher)

My feedback focuses on the writing methodology – Introduction; Body; Conclusion; be it an essay or a paragraph; to have clear demarcation in the paragraphs when writing an essay…..to use transition words. I guide the students to be on topic and to use related vocabulary; to check for the mechanics and grammar mistakes. (An Algerian male teacher)

My feedback focuses on grammar and structure, as most non-native English writers struggle with. Another area of writing feedback is highlighting the importance of using punctuation, and its capability of changing the meaning of a sentence with the correct/wrong use. (A Saudi female teacher)

The observation data shows that most of the writing classes focused on explaining the rules of writing and helping them brainstorm ideas to write the essay. Writing was often confined to producing sentences or drafting an outline based on which the students were encouraged to write first and final drafts at home. The NNELTs showed considerable attention to the grammar and vocabulary in the texts besides highlighting the mechanics of punctuation. In their attempts to provide equal opportunities for students, the NNELTs preferred a one-on-one method in providing feedback. Occasionally, some teachers provided group-based feedback; however, most used personalized feedback, and restricted their focus, often to linguistic aspects.

The NELTS

The majority of NELTs stated that peer feedback were essential for the development of language competence. Their approach to feedback primarily took into account the peers and their linguistic competence. Establishing 'routines', highlighting specific skills the students exhibited, and delayed group feedback were some of the approaches they employed during the observed classes.

The classroom observations indicated that comprehension questions from the textbooks were extensively used by the NELTs to check if the students had understood the content of the texts. All the observed NELTs also asked questions about the usage of words and specific grammar rules. The questions mainly focused on vocabulary demonstration, sentence making, spelling and correct pronunciation.

Similar to the above findings on NNELTs, NELTs also gave primacy to assessment practices. They reminded students of those mistakes the examiners would consider in awarding grades. In particular, pronunciation and aspects related to spelling were given importance. One NELT stated:

The issues of sound-spelling correspondence are pervasive. Students need to understand that a sizable amount of English vocabulary originates from other languages such as French and German. Especially with "ee", "ss", and "aa" students have problems. I make it a point to address, at least, some of these issues of spelling and pronunciation… (An American female teacher)

On the whole the NELTs also were very aware of the feedback practices that facilitated student learning. However, most of their feedback practices valued tests and textbooks in identifying the features to be discussed. This is consistent with the usual practices of NNELTs.

Discussion

The findings of the study indicate that choice of materials or tasks, teaching methodology, classroom management and feedback processes often equally influence pedagogical practices. Although textbook-driven language instruction practices tend to promote specific approaches to language education, it is the teachers who moderate the process of learning. It is the teachers' pedagogic and linguistic knowledge that influence the process of language teaching and learning. These findings suggest that what mainly matters in teaching general English and ESP is not the nativeness or non-nativeness of teachers but, as maintained by Astor (2000), their experience and knowledge of applied linguistics, pedagogy and methodology.

In this study, the majority of the NELTs and NNELTs exhibited, to a large extent, similar teaching performance. Both groups often used the same teaching methodologies with minor differences. This finding does not agree with Ma's claim (2012) that there are some differences between NELTs and NNELTs in terms of their teaching methodologies, and this can be attributed to the fact that both groups followed similar lesson plans when teaching

general English and ESP. That is, most teachers stated their objectives before teaching, explained the lessons by giving more relevant examples, and utilized the classroom facilities such as the e-podiums, and smart boards to present lessons. They also encouraged participation and used students' mobile phones to look up word meanings.

Some of specific pedagogical practices of NELTs and NNELTs found in the current study are consistent with Medgyes' (1994) findings. Textbooks became the main source of content and methodology for all teachers. Comparatively speaking, the NELTs utilized textbook-based tasks in novel ways that promoted learning while the NNELTs mostly relied on predesigned visually appealing suplementary materials in the form of PPTs, Internet sources, news-papers and handouts to offer extended practice. It should be noted that Medgyes' findings were partially confirmed because most of the NNELTs depended on extracting resources rather than *designing* materials that suited the learning and teaching requirements. It is partially confirmed because Medgyes' study was conducted before interactive web-based online materials were widely introduced in the teaching profession.

The findings of this study are also consistent with previous studies that examined inherent teacher bias toward specific aspects of language. These studies reported that the NELTs focused on fluency, accurcy and speaking while the NNELTs focused on accuracy and writing (Alghofaili & Elyas, 2017; Alseweed & Daif-Allah, 2012; Samimy & Brutt-Griffler, 1999). In this study, it was found that the NNELTs had frequently used meaning-focused speaking activities both at the brainstorming and production stages of a lesson. Contextualizing language, activating prior-knowledge by showing pictures, and convincing peers by providing evidence or arguments were task-types frequently used by the NNELTs. The NELTs also preferred to contextualize learning, and integrated pronunciation practice in most tasks.

However, one of the differences that this study found is that although the teaching practices of NELTs and NNELTs were greatly influenced by the textbooks they used, the importance attested for various task types significantly varied between the NELTs and NNELTs. The NELTs spent a considerable amount of time on pronunciation through teacher modeling, quick writing, pre-teaching of vocabulary, and brianstorming ideas for writing while the NNELTs valued error correction activities, dictionary activities, and grammar activities. Interestingly, many NNELTs used "quick write" tasks to ensure that students undertood the lesson. Another salient difference in this study is that students were often able to build personal relationships with their NNELTs more than with their NELTs. This is in agreement with previous studies conducted in EFL contexts (e.g. Cheung & Braine, 2007; Walkinshaw &

Oanh, 2014). One possible suggestion is that a number of NNELTs in this study shared the students' culture and language.

Overall, the majority of students in this study agreed that their NELTs and NNELTs equally managed their classrooms in a quite acceptable way. The questionnaire data indicated that both the NELTs and NNELTs employed timed class activities, pair work, group work and class work. They kept the students engaged or motivated and they maintained the class atmosphere conducive to learning. This is strongly supported by the findings of the classroom observations.

The findings of the present study also suggested that there were no considerable differences between NELTs and NNELTs in providing feedback inside classrooms. This finding strongly corroborates findings in previous studies (e.g. Zhang & Chatupote, 2014). However, one difference was observed between NELTs and NNELTs when providing feedback to their students. Unlike NELTs, NNELTs usually provided implicit feedback. This observation was corroborated by the survey data. As the class observation data showed, both groups of teachers often tended to provide more explanations and illustrations for both written and oral errors.

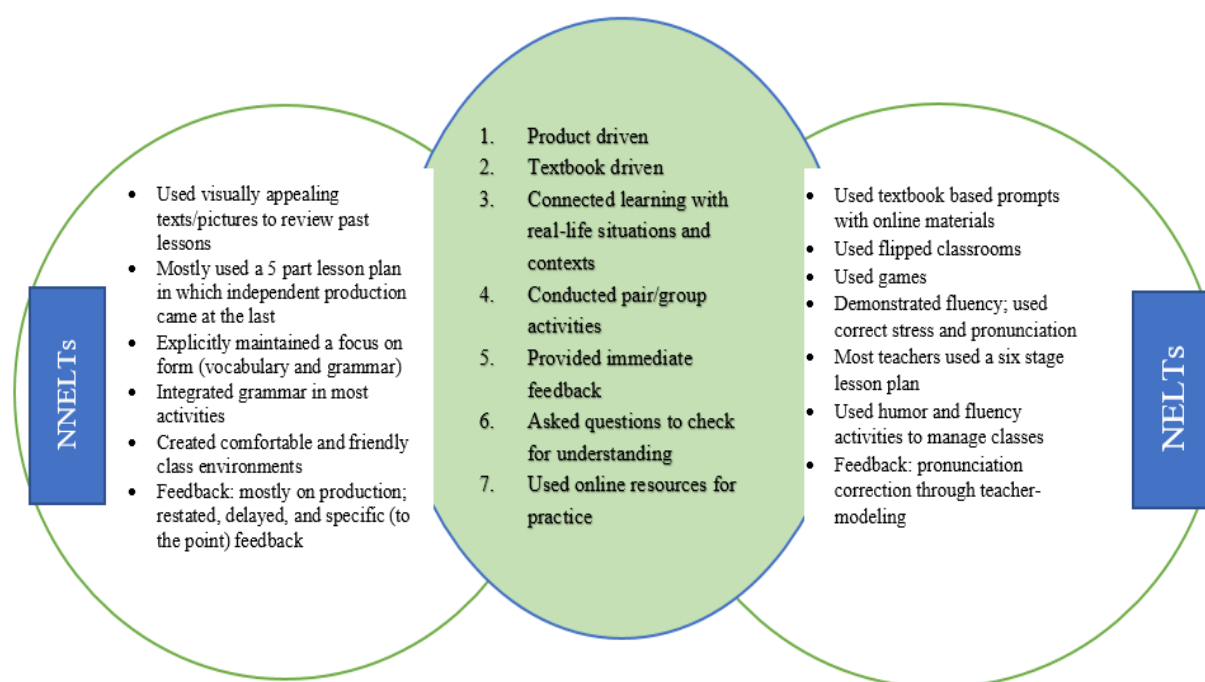Figure 2 below summarizes the similarities (in the middle) and differences between NELTs and NNELTs.

Figure 2: Similarities and Differences between NNELTs and NELTs.

Implications and Conclusion

This paper has argued that there is a shortage of comparative research regarding what takes place in English language classrooms led by NELTs and NNELTs. The main purpose of the study was to identify similarities or differences between these two groups of teachers in respect to four aspects: teaching general English and ESP, teaching methodology, managing classrooms, and providing feedback. Classroom observations indicated that, to a large extent, there are more similarities than differences between NELTs and NNELTs. In general, this was compatible with the students' and teachers perspectives in the questionnaires.

Broadly speaking, this study came to the conclusion that the NELTs and NNELTs used similar teaching methodologies and managed their classrooms in the same way. This considerable degree of similarity across a number of teaching characteristics suggests that what matters in teaching general English and ESP is not being an NELT or NNELT. That is, regardless of a teacher's first language, any English language teacher can contribute to the language learning process in an effective way inside the classroom provided that he or she is well-qualified and experienced. The implication is that recruitment and hiring policies and practices should focus primarily on teaching qualifications and experiences.

An interesting finding of this study was that sharing the same culture and language lead to build a relationship between students and teachers. This, in turn, helped NNELTs manage and discipline their classrooms. This has important implications for NELTs in that the more they become familiar with the students' culture and language, the better they may be able to manage their classrooms effectively. Sung and Poole (2016) concluded that NELTs "who plan to teach English overseas should acquire knowledge of the local culture to diminish the communication and cultural conflicts when they are in contact with their students".

Another major finding in this study is the need for all teachers to connect lessons to real-life experiences and to those that are globally and culturally relevant (Medgyes, 1994). The learning process evolves from social interactions with others through conversation (Arva & Medgyes, 2000: 357). When peers collaborate and communicate, it creates a personal resource of language. This approach to delivering a lesson is an important aspect of in-servicing teachers. The classroom designed with group interaction offers a vital opportunity in conditioning the learners' awareness of the language and scaffolding to higher levels of achievement (Shayer 2002, cited in Turuk, 2008: 249).

Another important finding of this study is that both NELTs and NNELTs had some differences. This implies that individual differences among teachers (native or non-native) are

inevitable even if teachers are asked to follow a specific lesson plan to deliver their regular lessons. What could be recommended here is that teachers should learn from each other, share knowledge and experiences and exchange ideas of teaching general English and ESP. In this regard, formal classroom observations conducted by experienced teachers, based on an agreed set of observation criteria can provide a significant and meaningful opportunity for colleagues' continuing professional development. The purpose of these observations is to encourage further dialogue between observers and observees (among NELTs and\or NNELTs) in order to develop a greater degree of teacher self-reflection and engagement with relevant professional development opportunities. Both groups of teachers can also be asked to collaborate with each other and take part in discussions and peer feedback (Matsuda 1997 and Matsuda & Matsuda, 2001, cited in Moussu & Llurda, 2008: 323, Liu,M & Zhang 2007).

In conclusion, it is worth noting that the current study has some limitations as its findings were mainly drawn from qualitative data collected through open-ended survey questionnaires and classroom observations. In this respect, providing quantitative data such as how often NELTs and NNELTs provide feedback, use group work or pair work, task-based activities, etc. would have given more insights into the four aspects of the study.

References

Alfehaid, A. (2011). *Developing An ESP Curriculum for Students of Health Sciences Through Needs Analysis and Course Evaluation in Saudi Arabia*, (Unpublished PhD dissertation), University of Leicester.

Alfehaid, A. (2014). The positive and negative effects of globalization on English language teaching and learning. *Arab World English Journal*, *5*(2), 103-109.

Alghofaili, N. M., & Elyas, T. (2017). Decoding the myths of the native and non-native English speakers teachers (NESTs & NNESTs) on Saudi EFL tertiary students. *English Language Teaching, 10*(6), 1-11.

Al-Seghayer, K. (2005). Teaching English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. In G. Braine, *Teaching English to the world: History, curriculum, and practice* (pp. 65-78). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Alseweed, M. A., & Daif-Allah, A. S. (2012). University students' perceptions of the teaching effectiveness of native and nonnative teachers of English in the Saudi context. *Language In India, 12*(7), 35-60.

Argungu, M. D. (1996). EnglishMuslims and Islamisation: Between needs and deeds. English and Islam. *Creative Encounters, 96*(1), 331-347.

Ârva, V., & Medgyes, P. (2000). Native and non-native teachers in the classroom. *System, 28*, 355-372.

Astor, A. (2000). A qualified nonnative English-speaking teacher is second to none in the field. *TESOL Matters, 10*(2), 18-19.

Braine, George (1999). *Non-native educators in English language teaching*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah, New Jersey.

Brutt-Griffler, J., & Samimy, K. (2001). Transcending the nativeness paradigm. *World Englishes, (20)*, 99–106.

Buckingham, L. (2014). Attitudes to English teachers' accents in the Gulf. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 24*(1), 50-73.

Cheung Y. L., Braine G. (2007). The attitudes of university students towards non-native speaker English teachers in Hong Kong. *RELC Journal*, (38), 257-277.

Cook, V. (2005). Basing teaching on the L2 user. In E. Llurda, *Non-native language teachers: Perceptions, challenges and contributions to the profession* (pp. 47 - 61). New York, NY: Springer.

Creese, A, Blackledge, A and Takhi, JK (2014). The ideal 'native speaker' teacher: negotiating authenticity and legitimacy in the language classroom. *The Modern Language Journal* 98(4), 937-951.

Dudley-Evans, T., & John, M. J. (1999). *Developments in English for Specific Purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hodgson, K. M. (2014). Mismatch: globalization and native speaker models of linguistic competence. *RELC Journal, 45*(2), 113-134.

Holliday, A. (2005). *The Struggle to teach English as an international language.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Jenkins, J. (2014). *English as a Lingua Franca in the international university: the politics of academic English language policy. Abingdon,* GB: Routledge.

Jenkins, J. (2015). Repositioning English and multilingualism in English as a lingua franca. *Englishes in Practice, 2*(3), 49-85.

Jenkins, J. (2017). An ELF perspective on English in the post-Brexit EU. *World Englishes*, 343-345.

Jeon, M., & Lee, J. (2006). Hiring native-speaking English teachers in East Asian countries. *English Today, 22*(4), 53-58.

Kachru, B. (1986). *The Alchemy of English: The spread, functions, and models of nonnative Englishes.* Oxford: Pergamon.

Karmani, S. (2005). English, 'terror' and Islam. *Applied Linguistics, 26*(2), 262-267.

Kasai, M., Lee, J., & Kim, S. (2011). Secondary EFL Students' Perceptions of Native and Nonnative English-Speaking Teachers in Japan and Korea, *The Asian EFL Journal*, 13(3), 272-300.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). *Understanding language teaching: From method to postmethod.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Lassonde, C. A. (2010). Classroom Management. In C. Kridel, *Encyclopedia of Curriculum Studies* (pp. 1-4). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications, Inc.

Liu,M & Zhang, L (2007). Student Perceptions of Native & Non-native English Teachers' Attitudes, Teaching Skills Assessment and Performance, *The Asian EFL Journal*, 9(4), 157-166.

Ma, L. P. (2012). Advantages and disadvantages of native- and nonnative-English-speaking teachers: Student perceptions in Hong Kong. *TESOL Quarterly, 46*(2), 280-305.

Mahboob, A., & Elyas, T. (2014). English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. *World Englishes, 33*(1), 128-142.

Medgyes, P. (1994). *The non-native teacher.* London, England: Macmillan.

Medgyes, P. (2010). Reviews: Nonnative Speaker English Teachers: Research, Pedagogy, and Professional Growth by George Braine. *ELT Journal*, 65(2), 190-192.

Moussu, L. (2010). Influence of teacher-contact time and other variables on ESL students' attitudes towards native- and nonnative-English-speaking teachers. *TESOL Quarterly, 44*(4), 746 - 768.

Moussu, L. M. (2002). *English as a second language students' reactions to nonnative English-speaking teachers.* Brigham Young University.

Moussu, L., & Llurda, E. (2008). Non-native English-speaking English language teachers: History and research. *Language Teaching, 41*(3), 315-348.

National Center for Assessment. (2018, 4 18). *EPT - English Placement Test.* Retrieved from EPT: http://www.qiyas.sa

Pennycook (1994) *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. London: Longman.

Phillipson, R (1992) *Linguistic Imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Picard, M. (2007). *Academic English right from the start: A critical realist study of the way academic English is constructed at a Gulf University.* Rhodes University.

Seidlhofer, B (1999) Double standards: teacher education in the Expanding Circle. *World Englishes*,18(2), 233-245.

Samimy, K., & Brutt-Griffler, J. (1999). To be a native or non-native speaker: Perceptions of 'non-native' students in a graduate TESOL program. In Braine, *Nonnative educators in English language teaching* (pp. 127-144). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Snow, A. (2016). Teaching with Q: Skills for Success, Second Edition: The many challenges of academic writing. In C. S. Ward, & M. F. Gramer, *Teacher's handbook: Q: Skills for Success, Second Edition.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Stern, H. H. (1983). *Fundamental concepts of language teaching.* Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Sung, K. & Poole, F. (2016). Differences between Native and Non-Native English Speaking Teachers in China from the Perspectives of Chinese EFL Students, *English as an International Language Journal*, 11(2) 1-18.

Tae-ll, Pae. (2017). Effects of the differences between native and non-native English-speaking teachers on students' attitudes and motivation toward learning English, *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*. 37(2), 163-178.

Widdowson, HG (1992) ELT and EL Teachers: matters arising. *ELT Journal*, 46(4), 333-339

Walkinshaw, I., & Oanh, D. H. (2014). Native and Non-Native English Language Teachers: Student Perceptions in Vietnam and Japan*, SAGE Open*, (4),1-9.

Ward, C. S. (2016). On a Journey to Think Critically. In O. U. press, *Teaching with Q: Skills for Success, Second Edition.* New York: Oxford University press.

Ward, C. S., & Gramer, M. F. (2016). *Q:skills for success: Special edition.* New York : Oxford University press.

Zhang, Sen & Chatupote, Monta (2014). Feedback Used in Classrooms with Native English and Non-Native English Teachers, *International Journal of English Language Education,* 2(1), 241-258.

ASIAN EFL JOURNAL

The EFL Professional's Written Forum

Phonological Awareness and Word Reading Skills of Indonesian-Acehnese Bilinguals Learning L3 English

Septhia Irnanda

Universitas Serambi Mekkah

Aceh, Indonesia

Abstract

Phonological awareness is found developed through both written and spoken language experiences. The present study investigates the phonological awareness and word reading skills of Indonesian-speaking children with a varied level of L2 Acehnese home spoken language exposure and varied level of L3 English vocabulary knowledge. 46 seven-year-old children from Grade 2 of a private primary school in Banda Aceh, Indonesia, were measured for their oral vocabulary skills, phonological awareness (syllable, phoneme, and onset-rime levels), and word reading skills in the three languages. The results show that Acehnese L2 spoken language plays a significant role only when the non-verbal intelligence and Indonesian L1 word reading skill is controlled, and the role is found limited only within the Acehnese word reading. In contrast, L3 English plays a significant role in L1 Indonesian and L3 English word reading skills even without the non-verbal intelligence or Indonesian L1 word reading skills being controlled. The findings suggest that, in phonological awareness and alphabetic decoding skill, a more significant role is played by a language whose vocabularies are learnt through formal setting which involves reading and writing activities.

Keywords: phonological awareness, word reading, bilingual, vocabulary, Indonesian

Introduction

For several reasons, bilinguals have been reported better than monolinguals in third language learning (Berube & Mriove-Todd, 2012; Cedden & Simsek, 2014; Cenoz, 2013; Escudero, Broersma, & Simon, 2013; Jessner, 2008; Jessner, 2010; Rauch, Naumann, & Jude, 2013). The first reason is because bilinguals have higher metalinguistic awareness (Basseti,

2007; Bialystok, Peets, & Moreno, 2014; Cheung et al., 2010; Francis, 2002; Galambos & Goldin-Meadow, 1990; Jessner, 2008; Kuile, Veldhuis, Veen, & Wicherts, 2011; Rauch et al., 2013; Reder, Marec-Breton, Gombert, & Demont, 2013; Renou, 2010), the ability to shift and inhibit attention to and from the language forms and meanings (Bialystok, 2001). The development of metalinguistic awareness is believed triggered by bilinguals' habit of juggling with two language systems (Jessner, 2008; Jessner, 2010) which then affects their executive function, a cognitive skill responsible for shifting and inhibiting attention from one thing to the other skilfully (Barac & Bialystok, 2011; Bialystok, 2001). In short, bilinguals have higher executive function and metalinguistic awareness which make them better language learners than monolinguals.

The second reason of why bilinguals are assumed better than monolinguals in the third language learning is because they read and write in two literacies or commonly called biliterate (Basseti, 2007; Bialystok, Luk, & Kwan, 2005; Rauch et al., 2013; Reyes & Azuara, 2008; Reyes, 2012). Biliteracy and metalinguistic awareness are positively correlated (Basseti, 2007; Rauch *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, according to Cummins (1979; 1980), bilinguals can be cognitively superior to monolinguals only when they are competent in two types of language proficiency, CALP and BISC. CALP (Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency) is related to the ability to use languages in low contexts, such as in the classroom and literacy. While the latter one, BISC (Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skill), is the opposite of the CALP, related to the ability to use language in everyday life, such as in a spoken conversation where facial expression and body language are involved.

A study by Chen, Gualberto and Tameta (2009, p. 53) confirmed that the five reading factors; phonemic awareness, phonics, reading fluency, vocabulary development and reading comprehension are part of the reading processing skills that involves metacognition. This means that literacy skill and cognition are strongly associated, thus language awareness is optimally gained through literacy. Another study that tested the effectiveness of teaching reading through metacognitive strategy (planning and self-monitoring) on 93 university students in Iran, showed that students who were taught to read through metacognitive strategies (preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation and expansion) had higher metacognitive awareness than the control groups who were not taught using the same strategies (Takallou, 2011). In short, the cognitive benefit of bilingualism can be gained only once the person has been highly proficient in literacy and spoken skills of both languages. Reversely, teaching the language explicitly or using metacognitive strategies, increase the metacognition awareness.

The third factor is because, in some cases, bilinguals have richer linguistic repertoire (Antoniou, Liang, Ettlinger, & Wong, 2015; Cenoz, 2013; Escudero et al., 2013; Hivechi, 2012; Jessner, 2008; Kahn-Horwitz, Kuash, Ibrahim, & Schwartz, 2014; Silven & Rubinov, 2010). This benefit of language inventory depends on the linguistic similarities between the third language and any languages learnt before. According to Cummins' Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis (1979), a particular skill from the first language is transferable to the corresponding skill in the second language. And in another hypothesis, The Common Underlying Hypothesis, Cummins (1979) also explains the possibility of language skill transfer across languages because languages to some extent have similar basic principles. For bilinguals, this means that they can transfer the knowledge and skills of not only one but two of their languages to their third language, and they have a higher chance to see the basic principles across language by noticing how different their first and second language are (Cedden & Simsek, 2014; Cenoz, 2013; Falk & Bardel, 2010; Jessner, 2010).

To conclude, bilinguals are assumed to be potentially better than monolinguals in a same additional target language learning when they have (1) heightened metalinguistic awareness, a skill commonly gained through mastering and continuously managing not only spoken language but also written language skills of both languages, and when (2) their higher linguistic repertoire are transferable to the target language. Studies of bilingualism positive effect in third language learning have been focused on various language skills and metalinguistic levels such as semantic (Nosarti, Mechelli, Green, & Price, 2010; Zipke, Ehri, & Cairns, 2009) syntactic (Kemp, 2007; Nation & Snowling, 2000), or morphology (Wang, Ko, & Choi, 2009; Zhang, Koda, & Sun, 2014). The present study aims to investigate the bilingualism effect in a metalinguistic awareness skill related to literacy skill, phonological awareness.

Phonological Awareness, Spoken Language Exposure, and Multi-literacy Acquisition

Phonological awareness is the ability to identify and manipulate the sounds of language (Kuo & Anderson, 2008). According to the Lexical Restructuring Model (Metsala & Walley, 1998; Walley, Metsala, & Garlock, 2003), this awareness is developed through contact with spoken vocabularies during the pre-reading ages. Children subconsciously break down words from the speech into smaller units (e.g. syllable or phoneme) to distinguish them from other phonologically similar words. For instance, words *cool, pool, rule* are semantically different words that phonologically similar. Set of words like above examples trigger the child to isolate every first sound to differentiate one word from another.

The correlation between phonological awareness development and spoken vocabulary level are reported in a number of studies (Caravolas & Bruck, 1993; Cheung et al., 2010; Cooper, Roth, & Speece, 2002; Dixon, Chuang, & Quiroz, 2012a; Durgunoglu & Oney, 1999; Girard & Girolametto, 2013; Goodrich, Lonigan, & Farver, 2014; Hipfner-Boucher et al., 2014). The characteristic of the spoken language, for instance, the degree of consonant cluster complexity, or the degree of syllabic boundary saliency, determines one's competency in phonological awareness (Anthony & Francis, 2005). A cross-linguistic study by Caravolas and Bruck (1993) shows Czech-speaking children's better performance in phoneme awareness task compared to the English-speaking children with the same age level which was argued to be caused by Czech's higher frequency of words with heavy consonant clusters. In another study, English-speaking children were also reported performed poorer in the syllable awareness task compared to the Turkish-speaking children of the same level (Durgunoglu and Oney, 1999). The writers argued that the result was caused by the Turkish-English different levels of syllable saliency in which Turkish is more transparent syllabically (p. 281).

Children who performed high in the phonological awareness acquired literacy skills (word reading and spelling) better and faster than those who started the literacy acquisition with lower phonological awareness (Anthony & Francis, 2005; Dixon, 2011; Kjeldsen, Karna, Niemi, Olofsson, & Witting, 2014; Rothou, Padeliadu, & Sideridis, 2013; Stahl & Murray, 1994). Reciprocally, being introduced to letters and rules of literacy boost up the phonological awareness significantly (Koda & Zehler, 2008), and this increase is occurred quicker in transparent alphabetic than in opaque alphabetic orthography acquisition (Perfetti & Dunlap, 2008). Different orthographies shape phonological awareness and decoding strategy differently (Ellis et al., 2004; Goswami, Ziegler, Dalton, & Schneider, 2003; Kartz & Frost, 1992). Transparent alphabetic orthography, for instance, is not only able to build phonological awareness more effectively (Anthony & Francis, 2005; Kuo & Anderson, 2008), it also forces the readers to decode words phonologically, or sub-lexically (Gillon, 2004). On the other hand, non-transparent alphabetic language readers need a more explicit instruction on phonological awareness to help them understand the language sound structures more easily since the orthography has a relatively high degree of inconsistency between the letters and the sounds (Hatcher, Hulme, & Ellis, 1994; Hatcher, Hulme, & Snowling, 2004; Vellutino, Fletcher, Snowling, & Scanlon, 2004).

Studies of phonological awareness in various second language acquisition contexts have shown that L1 phonological awareness is to some extent transferable across languages

(Anthony et al., 2009; Branum-Martin, Tao, Garnaat, Bunta, & Francis, 2012; Branum-Martin, Tao, & Garnaat, 2015) and in many cases predict the word reading skill of the target language (Dickinson, McCabe, Clarck-Chiarelli, & Wolf, 2004; Dixon, Chuang, & Quiroz, 2012b; Haigh, Savage, Erdos, & Genesee, 2011; Wang, Park, & Lee, 2006). Having a transparent alphabetic language as the first language is beneficial in learning to read a second language (Anthony & Francis, 2005; Ellis et al., 2004), because it is helpful in the attempt of decoding any alien words, thus the learners do not rely entirely on their target language lexical knowledge when they are faced with an unknown word (Ellis & Hooper, 2001).

Many bilingual children are literate, or able to read in only one of their languages. Studies show that bilinguals who are taught to read in the mainstream language have an equal competency in phonological awareness to the monolingual peers (Guron & Lundberg, 2003; Janssen & Bosman, 2013; Reder et al., 2013; Verhoeven, 2007). In contrast, being exposed to another orthography changes the phonological awareness of those who speak the same language, such as Chinese-speaking children who were exposed to only Chinese characters, to Chinese characters and Chinese alphabetic (pinyin), and to Chinese characters, pinyin and English alphabetic script (Cheung, Chen, Lai Yip, Wong Chi, & Hills, 2001). This strong effect of orthography on the phonological awareness development implies that the increased vocabulary in one language or being exposed to two kinds of spoken languages does not seem to significantly increase one's understanding of the general phonological awareness if the bilingual child solely reads and writes in the language read by the monolingual peers.

The present study aims to investigate the role of spoken language skills among bilinguals who read and write in the same language as the monolinguals. Studies of the similar focus have only been done mainly covering inter Indo-European languages like English, Spanish, Hebrew, Russian and Dutch (Gallardo del Puerto, 2007; Goodrich & Lonigan, 2016; Janssen & Bosman, 2013; Leikin, Schwartz, & Share, 2010; Quiroz & Snow, 2010; Saiegh-Haddad, Kogan, & Walters, 2010; Schwartz, Geva, Share, & Leikin, 2007; Verhoeven, 2007), and some involved widely-spoken Asian languages like Chinese or Japanese (Basseti, 2007; Cheung *et al.*, 2001; Dixon *et al.*, 2012a). The use of Indonesian bilingual language contexts, such as Indonesian-Acehnese, has not yet been deeply explored. The present study aims to investigate the role of home spoken language skills on phonological awareness and multiliteracy acquisition in an Indonesian-Acehnese bilingual context where English is learnt as a third and foreign language.

Indonesian and Acehnese Languages

Indonesian is the official language of Indonesia while Acehnese is one of the ethnic languages spoken in the country. Acehnese language is spoken in Aceh Province area by about 4 million Acehnese ethnicity people (Lewis, 2009). Unlike Indonesian that functions widely in educational and formal contexts, Acehnese, and other ethnic languages in other provinces, has lower status and used limitedly in the spoken context (Lamb & Coleman, 2008; Nababan, 1985). For older generations and those who live in rural areas, Acehnese is a more dominant language than Indonesian, because Acehnese ethnic people mostly acquire Indonesian once they went to school and are continuously speak Acehnese at home. However, in urban areas, like in Banda Aceh city where the present study was taken place, Acehnese is the alternative spoken language after Indonesian (Alamsyah, Taib, Azwardi, & Idham, 2011). The younger generation living in more urbanised towns speak more Indonesian than Acehnese, and many children born into families whose parents favour Indonesian over Acehnese are introduced to Indonesian earlier than Acehnese. Consequently, Acehnese children living in Banda Aceh area nowadays are more dominant in not only speaking but also reading and writing in Indonesian than in Acehnese.

Both Indonesian and Acehnese are transcribed in Roman alphabet writing system, except that the Acehnese standard alphabet writing system is rarely used due to the lower function of the language in the formal academic context. At the school where this study was taken place, Acehnese language is learnt from Year 3 through reading comprehension. Due to the close similarities of the writing systems, decoding Acehnese words is a relatively easy thing to do once one has mastered the Indonesian orthographic rules. Nevertheless, based on the researcher's experience and observation as the Native Speaker of Acehnese, many non-competent Acehnese speakers sometimes sound out Acehnese words incorrectly when they read in Acehnese, which indicates, to some extent, the important role of oral Acehnese vocabulary when reading in Acehnese.

Phonologically, Acehnese is more varied in the aspect of vowels, especially diphthongs; the language has more diphthong variants (12 in total), and the diphthongs can occur both in open and closed syllables. Indonesian only allows diphthongs in open syllables, and there are only three variants available /ai/, /au/ and /oi/. Indonesian, however, is more complex in the aspect of consonant clusters compared to Acehnese because it has more words borrowed from Indo-European languages like /fr/ in *frasa* 'phrase' /str/ in *struktur* 'structure', although most of these words are low-frequency words. Many of consonant combinations

occurred in those borrowed words are not exist in Acehnese. Nevertheless, Acehnese has aspirated sounds /p^h/, /b^h/, /t^h/, and /k^h/, mapped with <ph>, <bh>, <th>, and <kh> diagraphs, which are not available in Indonesian.

Orthographically, both languages also have some differences. The most prominent one is on the aspect of vowel sounds and the representing letters. Indonesian eight vowel sounds (/i/, /e/, /ə/, /ɛ/, /a/, /o/, /ɔ/ and /u/) are represented by only five vowel letters; <a>,< i>, <e>, <u> and <o>, while Acehnese 9 vowels (/i/, /e/, /ə/, /ɛ/, /a/, /o/, /ɔ/, /u/, /ω/ and /ʌ/) are represented by one-to-one by 9 letters; <a>,< i>, <e>, <u>, <o>, <è>, <é>, <ô>, <ö>, and one vowel represented by a diagraph, <eu>.

One of the objectives of the present study is to see if oral Acehnese vocabulary knowledge, which gives access to the Acehnese children to the Acehnese peculiar sounds, affects their Acehnese word reading skill once the Indonesian literacy has already introduced. Is the role of oral vocabulary prominent enough to be seen before the Indonesian literacy is controlled, or the Indonesian word reading skill needs to be controlled first for the Acehnese oral vocabulary role to be seen?

English as the Third and Foreign Language

English orthography is alphabetic and highly inconsistent regarding the sound-letter relationships (Ziegler & Goswami, 2005). Due to its opaque orthographic status, learning to read in English requires multiple strategies, not only sub-lexically but also lexically (Savage & Carless, 2005; Treiman & Zukowski, 1991; Treiman & Kessler, 1995; Ziegler & Goswami, 2005). For the first one, phonological awareness, especially the phoneme and rhyming awareness are needed (Muter, Hulme, Snowling, & Stevenson, 2004; Ziegler & Goswami, 2005). While for the latter one, the lexical decoding, the level of oral vocabulary is pivotal (Nation & Cocksey, 2009; Ouellette, 2006; Yeung & Chan, 2013). Indonesian children have their phoneme and syllable awareness developed through Indonesian reading instruction (Winskel & Widjaja, 2007). They might transfer this phonological awareness skills to their English literacy acquisition. One objective of the present study is to find out which is more important for the Indonesian children in their attempt of decoding the English words, their Indonesian orthographic knowledge or level of English oral vocabulary. Moreover, the main objective is to know if being bilingual in Indonesian and Acehnese makes a significant difference in English learning-to-read process compared to only being monolingual in Indonesian. Given there is a significant difference caused by this bilingual status, the present study is to discuss the possible factor, whether it is merely due to the enhanced phonological

inventories from dual spoken language exposures, the Acehnese and Indonesian, or if it is due to the bilingualism/multilingualism factor independent of the linguistic similarity factor.

The present study aims to answer the following questions:

1. Are there any significant correlations between the Acehnese spoken language skills and the phonological awareness and word reading skills in Indonesian, Acehnese and English?

2. Do Acehnese spoken language skills have significant role in the Acehnese word reading skill once the Indonesian word reading skill is controlled?

3. Does English vocabulary level have a significant role in the English word reading skill once the Indonesian word reading skill is controlled?

4. Which phonological level is dominantly used in decoding Indonesian, Acehnese and English words by the Indonesian Acehnese monoliterate bilinguals?

Methods

Participants

Participants were recruited from five classes of second graders in a primary school located in Banda Aceh city where children speak Indonesian more dominantly than Acehnese and are learning English as one of the compulsory subjects at school. The parents were sent the information sheet and consent form. Once the consent had been granted, the child was asked for their assent verbally prior the data collection. The recruitment process relied on the information regarding the ethnicity status stated in the parental questionnaire and the result of the Indonesian and Acehnese oral vocabulary tests. A balance numbers of children who were exposed to Acehnese at home and those who were not were tried to gain. In total, there were 57 children initially given a consent to participate. One child was eliminated due health problem and incomplete data, one because of the child speaks Malaysian Malay, one due to a reading problem, and eight were eliminated because their parents speak another ethnic language at home. The remaining participants involved in the data analysis was 46 children.

The participants were all born from Acehnese parents, at least one of the parents was Acehnese. The degree of Acehnese used at home was varied from one child to the other. The availability of Acehnese input from the grandparents, neighbours and caretaker were also varied. All participants are non-native speakers of English and fluent Indonesian

speakers. They first learn English when they were in the kindergarten and had not been introduced to Acehnese language lesson when the data collection took place. English was taught by Indonesian-speaking English teachers who used textbooks to teach English.

Materials

Some of the materials listed below, the Acehnese Vocabulary, Indonesian Vocabulary, Active Acehnese Use and Passive Acehnese Use, were used as the placement test in the recruitment process post both parental consent and child assent were granted. The scores of those tests were then included in the data analysis stage.

Indonesian Vocabulary Test. HALA word naming test (O'Grady, Schafer, Perla, Lee, & Wieting, 2009) was used to measure the participants' Indonesian oral vocabulary level. The test includes 20 items of body part pictures given through adobe flash software. The child was seated in front of a computer and was asked to say the name of the body part shown in the picture. The response was audio recorded. One correct item was valued 1, and one false or skipped answer was valued 0. The maximum score for this test was 20. Five trials were given before the real test was started.

Acehnese Vocabulary Test. The test was designed to be compatible with the Indonesian vocabulary test, except the test was measuring the receptive instead of the productive vocabulary. 20 body part items were also used in different orders, and some items were adjusted due to semantic differences with the Indonesian version. The participant was asked to sit in front of the researcher and then the researcher would read the list of the body parts one by one and the child was to point out the part of the body by touching their own body or the picture of a standing person on the table with their finger. Three trials were given beforehand, and the total score was 20.

English Vocabulary Test. The English oral vocabulary was measured with a standardised test British Picture Vocabulary Scale (Dunn, Dunn, Whetton, & Burley, 1997). The part used was Part A which consists of 12 items of vocabulary which were not limited only to body parts. In each item, the child was asked to point out one from four possible pictures that best represented the word given orally by the researcher. One item was valued 1, so the total score was 12. The 12 items tested were *hand, baby, cat, jumping, bus, drinking, tractor, running, gate, reading, cow* and *drum.* Three trials were given before the actual test.

Syllable Deletion. The task measured the participants' general syllable awareness level across languages. The task consisted of 15 words; 5 Indonesian, 5 Acehnese and 5

English, arranged in the list from the most familiar to the most foreign language, Indonesian, Acehnese, and finally English. The words for Indonesian items, and the part of words to be deleted were all adopted from the similar test by Winskel and Widjaja (2007). Acehnese and English items were designed to be compatible with the Indonesian; three disyllabic words and two trisyllabic words. The words for the Acehnese and English items were selected from the participants' school textbooks. The position of deletion included initial (9 items) and final (6 items). The child was given three trials before the actual test. Firstly, they would ask to repeat the whole word, after that the researcher would ask the child to say the word again but without a certain part. To illustrate, the researcher would first say "Say *bunga*", and after the child said the word perfectly, the researcher would say "Now can you say again without *bu*?". The total score for this task is 15.

Phoneme Deletion. The test measured the phoneme awareness. The child was asked to delete a phoneme from a monosyllabic or disyllabic word. The items consisted of 5 Indonesian, 5 Acehnese and 5 English words in the same order as the syllable deletion task. Indonesian items were still adapted from the similar task in Winskel and Widjaja (2007), while the Acehnese and the English words were taken from textbooks. The deletion position was varied from the initial (6 items), final (6 items) and middle (3 items) of the word. The child was told, "Can you say *sapi* without *sssss*". The total score was 15, and three items were given as trials before the real test.

Onset Oddity. This test measured the participants' onset awareness. The child was asked to choose one word with an odd beginning sound from three words given orally. The first three sets of words were Indonesian, followed by three sets of Acehnese words, and finally three sets of English words. Words for Indonesian items were taken from Winskel and Widjaja's (2007) Onset Detection test, the words for Acehnese items were selected from the Acehnese textbook and dictionary, while the English words were taken some from Bradley and Bryant (1985), and the rest was from the English textbook. Three items were given as trials. The total score was 9.

Rime Oddity. This task measured the rime awareness, the child was asked not to notice the beginning sound, but the final sound(s) of the words. 9 sets of words, three in Indonesian, 3 in Acehnese and 3 in English, respectively were given after three trials. The Indonesian words were taken from the Rhyme Detection Task (Winskel and Widjaja, 2007), while the Acehnese words were from the textbook. The English words were selected from Fergusson (1985). The total score was 9.

Indonesian Word Reading. To measure the participants' level of Indonesian word reading ability, the Indonesian real word reading test by Winskel and Widjaja (2007) was used. 30 Indonesian words were arranged from simple to complex CV combination and presented to the participant to read out loud. The shortest word was disyllabic, and the longest one was five syllabic word. The child was told to read the word clearly, and the reading was audio recorded. One correct response was scored 1, and one false response 0. If the participant read one item two times, the answer taken into account was the second one. The total score was 30

Acehnese Word Reading. Similar to the Indonesian word reading test, the Acehnese word reading test measured the ability to read in Acehnese. The task also consisted of 30 words that were arranged in increasing level of difficulty. The words were taken from the Acehnese reading textbook and Acehnese dictionary. The shortest word was monosyllabic, and the longest one was four syllabic word. The reason why it did not follow the corresponding Indonesian task was because Acehnese lexicon is richer in monosyllabic words, while Indonesian is not. In contrast, Indonesian has many multisyllabic words, including five syllabic ones, while Acehnese has a limited number of words consisting of five syllables. The highest possible score for this task was 30.

English Word Reading. The English word reading task also consisted of 30 words selected from Charles Place Education Foundation (2016). The arrangement of words is based on the Phonic approach scaffolding stages. It was started with simple phonologically decodable words like *fan, pig* and *jet,* and was closed by phonologically decodable but a more complex constructed words like *conclusion* and *blueberries*. All English accents were accepted as long as the words pronounced correctly. Some sounds which were not available in the Indonesian phonological system were produced differently, and that was acceptable, too. For instance, for sound /æ/ is not available in Indonesian, so it was acceptable if it was pronounced as /a/ or /e/. The total score was 30.

Active Acehnese Use. This score was taken from a section in the parental questionnaire. The parent was asked to rate their child daily active Acehnese use, how often they speak or reply in Acehnese at home to both parents, grandparents, the caregiver or siblings, and the neighbours. The total score was 24.

Passive Acehnese Use. The score was also gained from the parental questionnaire where the parent was asked to rate the level of Acehnese input giving to the child every day by both parents, grandparents, siblings and caregiver, and neighbours. The total score was also 24.

Non-Verbal Intelligence Score. The participants were tested for their non-verbal intelligence test as a controlling variable. The test used was the Standard Progressive Matrices, the Part A and B (Raven, Raven, & Court, 1996). In both parts, the child was asked to complete in a total of 24 items. In each item, the child was to choose one from six possible pictures that best fits the incomplete visual geometric pattern. The total score was 24.

Procedure

The tests were given in the following order; the Indonesian vocabulary, Acehnese vocabulary, non-verbal intelligence, English vocabulary, syllable awareness, phoneme awareness, onset awareness, rime awareness, Indonesian word reading, English word reading and then Acehnese word reading. The parental questionnaire was given before the first test was given and were received back the latest before the non-verbal intelligence test was held. The non-verbal intelligence test was the only test conducted collectively because the test was a pencil and paper test. The child was asked for their assent before the first test was given. The researcher read for them the information about the study where the language had been simplified for them to understand. All the tests were given in a study room located in the same building as their classroom. A teacher would accompany them to the room and would take them back to their class when the session was finished. There were eight sessions for each child, and each session lasted for about 15 minutes. The child was given a sticker after each session, and the data collection was completed within seven weeks of school during July-August 2016.

Results

Table 1 depicts the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation of variables. Indonesian is the strongest language of the participants as the vocabulary score is the highest compared to the vocabulary tests in the other two languages (M = 16.68). The participants' knowledge of Acehnese and English is not that different. Acehnese Vocabulary Mean value is 8.70 out of 20, while the English one is 7 out of 12. The Acehnese Vocabulary SD value is slightly but relatively higher (5.44 out of 20) compared to English (2.10 out of 12) and Indonesian (1.50 out of 20) which indicates that the knowledge of Acehnese is more varied among the participants compared to the knowledge of English or Indonesian.

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics of All Variables

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age (month)	46	81	89	87.89	3.34
Non-Verbal Intelligence (24)	46	4	23	14.61	4.75
Parental Assessment					
Active Acehnese Use (24)	46	0	18	5.41	4.93
Passive Acehnese Use (24)	46	0	17	6.63	4.54
Vocabulary Tests					
Indonesian HALA Body-Part Vocabulary (20)	46	14	20	16.68	1.50
Acehnese Body-Part Receptive Vocabulary (20)	46	1	19	8.70	5.44
English BPVS Receptive Vocabulary (12)	46	3	12	7	2.10
Phonological Awareness Skills					
PA Syllable Deletion (15)	46	7	15	13.87	1.77
PA Phoneme Deletion (15)	46	4	15	11.24	2.77
PA Onset Oddity (9)	46	4	9	7.50	1.33
PA Rime Oddity (9)	46	4	9	7.33	1.35
Word Reading Skills					
WR Indonesian (30)	46	13	30	26.28	4.14
WR Acehnese (30)	46	3	28	14.46	6.23
WR English (30)	46	0	23	9.43	5.16
Parents' Level of Education and Family Income					
Father's level of Education (6)	46	2	5	4.02	.91
Mother's level of Education (6)	46	0	5	3.89	.91
Family Income (6)	45	2	5	3.33	.93

Of all the phonological awareness subskills' scores, the syllable awareness is the highest with the mean value as 13.87 out of 15. The second highest of the Mean value is the onset awareness task followed by the rime awareness, and finally phoneme awareness with the mean values respectively; 7.50 out of 9, 7.33 out of 9, and 11.24 out of 15. The results indicate the phoneme deletion to be the most challenging phonological awareness task to

do. While regarding the word reading performance, Indonesian word reading scores are averagely higher than the corresponding scores in the Acehnese and English. The scores in the Acehnese word reading is higher than in the English with mean values for the Acehnese and English word reading respectively as 14.46 and 9.43. The findings show that, for the participants, English is the most difficult language to read after Indonesian and Acehnese.

Are there any significant correlations between the Acehnese spoken language skills and the phonological awareness and word reading skills in Indonesian, Acehnese and English?

The correlational analysis (Table 2) shows that Acehnese spoken language variables; the Acehnese vocabulary, Active and Passive Use scores, are all significantly correlated one another but not to any of the phonological awareness scores. The Acehnese Active and Passive Use were found correlated significantly but negatively to the English word reading skill (r = -.342 and -.412, respectively). The Passive Acehnese was also found negatively correlated to the Indonesian word reading skill (r = -.365).

Table 2. Intercorrelations of All Variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Age and Intelligence																	
1. Age	1.00																
2. Non-Verbal (24)		1.00															
Parental Assessment																	
3. Active Acehnese			1.00														
4. Passive Acehnese			.835^a	1.00													
Vocabulary Knowledge																	
5. Indonesian (20)		.495^a			1.00												
6. Acehnese (20)			.724^a	.576^a		1.00											
7. English (12)							1.00										
Phonological Awareness																	
8. Syllable Deletion (15)								1.00									
9. Phoneme Deletion (15)								.565^a	1.00								
10. Onset Oddity (9)									.404^b	1.00							
11. Rime Oddity (9)											1.00						
Word Reading																	
12. Indonesian (30)		.309^b		-.365^b			.291^b	.522^a	.682^a			1.00					
13. Acehnese (30)	.312^b	.367^b			.381^b			.479^b	.597^a			.651^a	1.00				
14. English (30)		.325^b	-.342^b	-.412^b			.365^b	.476^b	.676^a			.665^a	.578^a	1.00			
Family Demographic Information																	
15. Father's Level of Education											.366^b				1.00		
16. Mother's Level of Education										.320^b					.402^b	1.00	
17. Family Monthly Income							.399^b										1.00

a. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

b. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

396

Do Acehnese spoken language skills have a significant role in the Acehnese word reading skill once the Indonesian word reading skill is controlled?

Table 3 summarises three hierarchical regression analyses each uses different Acehnese spoken language variable as the predictive variable, and the Acehnese word reading score as the output variable. In the first step of each analysis, the non-verbal intelligence and the Indonesian word reading score were entered. The F change at this stage is 18.112 with the level of significance p < .001indicating the Indonesian word reading as the significant predictor of Acehnese word reading when the non-verbal intelligence score is controlled. On the second step, the three Acehnese spoken skill variables were entered in turn. When the first variable, the Acehnese Active Use, was entered, Indonesian word reading still predicted the Acehnese word reading with (β = .642), but the Active Acehnese Use's beta and F change values were low and insignificant. The next two variables, Acehnese Passive Use and Acehnese Vocabulary, were entered respectively in the second and third analyses. The results of both analyses show that both variables, Passive Acehnese and Acehnese Vocabulary, predict the Acehnese word reading weakly but significantly. The beta and F-change values for the Passive Acehnese are .269 and 5.44, respectively. The beta and F-change values for the Acehnese vocabulary level are .243 and 4.68, respectively.

Table 3. The Role of the Acehnese Spoken Language Skills in the Acehnese Word Reading Performance: Intelligence and Indonesian Word Reading Skill are Controlled.

Step and Independent Variables	Final Standardised Coefficient Beta	R square	R square Change	F Change
Step 1		.457	.457	18.112***
Non-Verbal Intelligence	.178			
Indonesian Word Reading	.596***			
Step 2		.503	.046	3.904
Non-Verbal Intelligence	.228			
Indonesian Word Reading	.642***			
Acehnese Active Use	.229			
Step 2		.519	.062	5.443*

Non-Verbal Intelligence	.216			
Indonesian Word Reading	.679***			
Acehnese Passive Use	.269*			
Step 2		.512	.054	4.681*
Non-Verbal Intelligence	.230			
Indonesian Word Reading	.625***			
Acehnese Receptive Vocabulary	.243*			

*p < .05   ** p < .01   *** p < .001

Does English vocabulary level have a significant role in the English word reading skill once the Indonesian word reading skill is controlled?

Table 4 depicts the regression analysis with English word reading as the output. In the first step, the non-verbal intelligence and the Indonesian word reading were entered. The Indonesian word reading score was found to be the significant predictor with beta value and F change value as .670 and 24.78 respectively. When the English vocabulary level was entered at the second step, the Indonesian word reading was still found to predict the English word reading along with English vocabulary significantly.

Although the contribution of the Indonesian word reading (.656) is higher than the English vocabulary (.324) to the English word reading as shown in Table 4, this English vocabulary role is still higher than that of the Acehnese vocabulary (.243) to the Acehnese word reading in Table 3.

Table 4. The Role of English Receptive Vocabulary in English Word Reading after the Non-Verbal Intelligence and Indonesian Word Reading is Controlled

Step and Independent Variables	Final Standardised Coefficient Beta	R square	R square Change	F Change
Step 1		.535	.535	24.781***
Non-Verbal Intelligence	.147			
Indonesian Word Reading	.670***			
Step 2		.637	.101	11.714**
Non-Verbal Intelligence	.092			

Indonesian Word Reading	.656***			
English Receptive Vocabulary	.324**			

*p < .05   ** p < .01   *** p < .001

Which phonological level is dominantly used in decoding Indonesian, Acehnese and English words by the Indonesian Acehnese monoliterate bilinguals?

Table 5, 6 and 7 show the regression analyses which investigating the most important phonological awareness level that predict the word reading performance in Indonesian, Acehnese and English. Table 5 is a set of regression analyses with the Indonesian word reading as the dependent variable and the non-verbal intelligence as the controlling variable which entered in the first step of each analysis. In the first analysis, (second row Table 5), the syllable deletion was entered. The result shows that the beta value of the syllable deletion is .490. In the next row, another regression was done by replacing the syllable deletion with the phoneme deletion score. The result shows that the phoneme deletion score predicts the Indonesian word reading significantly with beta value as .542, higher than the syllable deletion. The third and the fourth analyses in the rest of the rows show that both onset and rime oddity scores are not the significant predictors for the Indonesian word reading performance when the non-verbal intelligence is controlled.

Table 5. Regression Analysis with Indonesian Word Reading as the Output Variable

Step and Independent Variables	Final Standardised Coefficient Beta	R square	R square Change	F Change
Step 1 Non-Verbal Intelligence	 .328*	.107	.107	5.288*
Step 2 Non-Verbal Intelligence Syllable Deletion	 .172 .490**	.323	.216	13.694**
Step 2 Non-Verbal Intelligence Phoneme Deletion	 .276* .542***	.398	.291	20.811***
Step 2		.120	.013	.615

Non-Verbal Intelligence	.328*			
Onset Oddity	.112			
Step 2		.112	.005	.623
Non-Verbal Intelligence	.313*			
Rime Oddity	.073			

*p < .05   ** p < .01   *** p < .001

When the output variable was replaced with the Acehnese word reading (Table 6), with the nonverbal intelligence controlled, the phoneme deletion and the syllable deletion scores were found to be the significant predictors for the Acehnese word reading while the onset and rime were not. The beta value of the phoneme deletion score is .554, higher than the syllable deletion that is only .391.

Table 6. Regression Analysis with Acehnese Word Reading as the Output Variable

Step and Independent Variables	Final Standardised Coefficient Beta	R square	R square Change	F Change
Step 1		.140	.140	7.141*
Non-Verbal Intelligence	.374*			
Step 2		.277	.137	8.147**
Non-Verbal Intelligence	.249			
Syllable Deletion	.391**			
Step 2		.444	.304	23.528***
Non-Verbal Intelligence	.321**			
Phoneme Deletion	.554***			
Step 2		.137	.035	1.838
Non-Verbal Intelligence	.374*			
Onset Oddity	.188			
Step 2		.150	.011	.545
Non-Verbal Intelligence	.395**			
Rime Oddity	-.106			

*p < .05   ** p < .01   *** p < .001

The regression analyses in Table 7 shows the similar results as that in two previous tables. The phoneme deletion score is the strongest predictor ($\beta = .542$) followed by the syllable deletion score for the English word reading performance ($\beta = .380$). The onset and rime do not predict the English word reading score significantly.

Table 7. Regression Analysis with English Word Reading as the Output Variable

Step and Independent Variables	Final Standardised Coefficient Beta	R square	R square Change	F Change
Step 1 Non-Verbal Intelligence	 .367*	.135	.135	6.843*
Step 2 Non-Verbal Intelligence Syllable Deletion	 .246* .380**	.265	.130	7.606**
Step 2 Non-Verbal Intelligence Phoneme Deletion	 .315** .542***	.426	.291	21.782***
Step 2 Non-Verbal Intelligence Onset Oddity	 .367* .141	.154	.020	1.006
Step 2 Non-Verbal Intelligence Rime Oddity	 .360* .033	.136	.001	.051

*p < .05   ** p < .01   *** p < .001

Discussion

The present study attempts to find the possibility of heightened awareness on the phonological level and the possibility of better multi-language word reading performances among bilinguals who are exposed to dual spoken languages; Indonesian and Acehnese, but only given reading instruction in Indonesian. The results show that the Acehnese spoken language experience does not correlate positively with any of the phonological awareness subskills. Children performed equally in all phonological awareness tasks regardless of their Acehnese spoken language experience level and proficiency. This finding is in line with previous relates studies about the comparison of phonological awareness level between monolinguals and mono-literate bilinguals, for example, the Russian-Hebrew (Schwartz *et al.*, 2007), Turkish-Dutch (Janssen & Bosman, 2013), and Spanish-Basque (Gallardo del

Puerto, 2007). The role of the Acehnese spoken language skills in the Acehnese word reading is also minimal unless when the non-verbal intelligence and Indonesian word reading factor are controlled, the Acehnese Passive Use and Acehnese vocabulary level are found to predict the Acehnese word reading score weakly. The increased knowledge of Acehnese vocabulary and passive language exposure are also found to associate with the poorer performance in the Indonesian and English word reading tasks. This seems to be mediated by the imbalance of intelligence and English vocabulary levels among the participants who use more and less Acehnese at home. Those two factors are found correlated positively and significantly with both the Indonesian and English word reading. Children who have higher English vocabulary come from relatively wealthier families which means they have more access to English, for example from the cable TV programs and books. English vocabulary was also found to support the English word reading performance more strongly than the role of the Acehnese vocabulary to the Acehnese word reading. This finding indicate the higher role of vocabulary in decoding a non-transparent target language than the role of the oral vocabulary level in decoding a transparent one, which is parallel with some previous studies with English (Cooper et al., 2002; Dixon et al., 2012a; Hipfner-Boucher et al., 2014; Melby-Lervag & Lervag, 2011; Nation & Cocksey, 2009; Ouellette, 2006; Yeung & Chan, 2013), but contradicts with Durgunoglu, Nancy and Hancin-Bhatt (1993).

The results of the present study show that having higher English vocabulary knowledge is more beneficial for the participants' word reading and phonological awareness subskills than having a spoken language experience in Acehnese. When the participants were split into two groups, the low and the high of English vocabulary levels, the high groups were found to be significantly better in English phoneme and onset awareness tasks. When the same split method was applied to the Acehnese vocabulary score, there were no significant differences found in the phonological awareness or word reading performances between the low and the high groups of the Acehnese vocabulary level. The word acquisition method of the two languages seems to be the cause. Acehnese is only learnt through spoken language context thus the Indonesian-speaking children are not aware of how the words are phonologically structured. Unlike Acehnese, English vocabulary is learnt through reading and writing activities involving textbooks or flashcards. As a consequence,

children have a higher chance to see how the sound structure, as well as the orthographic rules of the language, differ from their first language and literacy. The present study thus is consistent with the theory of literacy pivotal role in altering one's phonological awareness state (Anthony & Francis, 2005; Gombert, 1992; Seymour 2006).

In third language literacy acquisition, Acehnese knowledge as the second language has a weak and non-significant role, especially when the language orthography rules and the reading activities are never drilled. Instead, the knowledge in that third language, in this case, English, is more important. The role of the Acehnese spoken language in the Acehnese word reading itself is also not significant once the Indonesian transparent orthographic skill is mastered. The close orthographical depth, in which both are highly consistent, and the similar phonological systems between Indonesian and Acehnese resulted in lower reliance on the Acehnese spoken and written knowledge to decode words in Acehnese. In contrast, the far typological distance between the Indonesian and English, as well as the high inconsistency of the English phoneme-letter relationships require the Indonesian children to rely on the English lexical knowledge. Since the participants are still in their beginning stage of English acquisition, their Indonesian knowledge still plays a significant part in their L3 word reading performance. And since the orthographically transparent L1 is reported beneficial in second language reading acquisition (Anthony & Francis, 2005; Kuo & Anderson, 2008), the participants' performance in English word reading is predicted more strongly by their Indonesian word reading score than their English lexical knowledge. In other words, the participants, as premature English learners with transparent orthographic L1, rely dominantly on the phonemic level in decoding in English which is consistent with what was suggested by Muter and Diethlem (2001) that early English readers firstly read phonologically before they read lexically.

The higher English oral vocabulary knowledge in the present study was also found to correlate positively with the Indonesian word reading. The finding could indicate that the better Indonesian better decoding strategy, especially for words containing heavy consonant clusters, is caused by exposure to English, a phonologically more complex language. Alternatively, those who have good Indonesian word reading skill acquire English words more. The first assumption seems to be more factual because it supports the biliteracy hypothesis when heightened metalinguistic awareness increase when two literacy skills are

acquired (Basseti, 2007; Thompson, 2013). However, a further investigation is needed to prove this.

Conclusion

Although the present study shows consistent findings of the minimum of positive benefit from the Acehnese spoken language experience and vocabulary knowledge in the Indonesian-speaking children's phonological awareness and English third word reading acquisition, the small sample size and single age level factor might have limited the study in revealing the actual role of the spoken language. Future studies should include more participants with a wider range of age and proficiency, including the effect of having not only Indonesian but also the Acehnese reading instruction. Nevertheless, the present study has provided a better understanding upon the nature of the phonological awareness in mono-literate bilingual context using languages and a multilingual community that has never been used before in any studies for that particular objective.

References

Alamsyah, T., Taib, R., Azwardi, A., & Idham, M. (2011). Pemilihan bahasa indonesian sebagai bahasa pertama anak dalam keluarga masyarakat aceh penutur bahasa aceh di nanggroe aceh darussalam. *Malay Language Journal Education, 1*(2), 31-44.

Anthony, J., L., & Francis, D., J. (2005). Development of phonological awareness. *American Psychological Society, 14*, 255-259.

Anthony, J., L., Solari, E., J., Williams, J., M., Schoger, K., D., Zhang, Z., Branum-Martin, L., & Francis, D., J. (2009). Development of bilingual phonological awareness in spanish - speaking english language learners: The roles of vocabulary, letter knowledge, and prior phonological awareness. *Scientific Studies of Reading, 13*(6), 535-564.

Antoniou, M., Liang, E., Ettlinger, M., & Wong, P. (2015). The bilingual advantage in phonetic learning. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition, 18*(4), 683-695.

Barac, R., & Bialystok, E. (2011). Cognitive development of bilingual children. *Language Teaching, 44*(1), 36-54.

Basseti, B. (2007). Bilingualism, biliteracy, and metalinguistic awareness: Word awareness in english and japanese users of chinese as a second language. *Birkbeck Studies in Applied Linguistics, 2*, 1-21.

Berube, D., & Mriove-Todd, H. (2012). The development of language and reading skills in the second and third languages of multilingual children in french immersion. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 9*(3), 272-293.

Bialystok, E. (2001). *Bilingualism in development, language literacy and cognition*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Bialystok, E., Luk, G., & Kwan, E. (2005). Bilingualism, biliteracy, and learning to read: Interactions among languages and writing system. *Scientific Studies of Reading, 9*(1), 43-61.

Bialystok, E., Peets, K., F., & Moreno, S. (2014). Producing bilinguals through immersion educcation: Development of metalinguistic awareness. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 35*, 177-191.

Branum-Martin, L., Tao, S., & Garnaat, S. (2015). Bilingual phonological awareness: Re-examining the evidence for relation within and across languages. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 107*, 111-125.

Branum-Martin, L., Tao, S., Garnaat, S., Bunta, F., & Francis, D. J. (2012). Meta-analysis of BIlingual phonological awareness: Language, age, and psycholinguistic grain size. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 104*, 932-944.

Bryant, P., & Bradley, L. (1985). *Children's reading problems* (1st ed.). Oxford, United Kingdom: Basil Blackwell.

Caravolas, M., & Bruck, M. (1993). The effect of oral and written language input on children's phonological awareness: A cross-linguistic study. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 55*, 1-30.

Cedden, G., & Simsek, C. S. (2014). The impact of a third language on executive control process. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 18*(6), 558-569.

Cenoz, J. (2013). The influence of bilingualism on third language acquisition: Focus on multilingualism. *Language Teaching, 46*(1), 71-86.

Chen, M. H., Gualberto, P. J., & Tameta, C. L. (2009). The development of metacognitive reading awareness inventory. *TESOL Journal, 1*, 43-57.

Cheung, H., Wong, S. W. L., Penney, T. B., Chung, K. K. H., McBride-Chang, C., & Ho, C. S. (2010). Speech perception, metalinguistic awareness, reading, and vocabularyin chinese-english bilingual children. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 102*(2), 367-380.

Cheung, H., Chen, H., Lai Yip, C., Wong Chi, O., & Hills, M. (2001). The developmennt of phonological awareness: Effect of spoken language experience and orthography. *Cognition, 81*, 227-241.

Cooper, D., H., Roth, F., P., & Speece, D., L. (2002). The contribution of oral language skill to the development of phonological awareness. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 23*, 399-416.

Cummins, J. (1979). Linguistic interdependence and educational developmentof bilingual children. *Review of Educational Research, 49*, 222-251.

Cummins, J. (1980). The cross-lingual dimensions of language proficiency: Implications for bilingual education and the optimal age issue. *TESOL Quarterly, 4*(2), 175-187.

Dickinson, D. K., McCabe, A., Clarck-Chiarelli, N., & Wolf, A. (2004). Cross-language transfer of phonological awareness in low-income spanish and english bilingual preschool children. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 5*, 323-347.

Dixon, L. Q. (2011). Singaporean kindergartnes' phonological awareness and english writing skills. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 32*, 98-108.

Dixon, L. Q., Chuang, H., & Quiroz, B. (2012a). English phonological awareness in bilinguals: A cross-linguistic study of tamil, malay and chinese english-language learners. *Journal of Research in Reading, 35*, 372-392.

Dixon, L. Q., Chuang, H., & Quiroz, B. (2012b). English phonological awareness in bilinguals: A cross-linguistic study of tamil, malay, and chinese english-language learners. *Journal of Research in Reading, 35*(4), 372-392.

Dunn, L., M., Dunn, L., M, Whetton, C., & Burley, J. (1997). *British picture vocabulary scale* (2nd ed.). Windsor, England: NFER-Nelson.

Durgunoglu, A. Y., Nagy, W. E., & Hancin-Bhatt, B. J. (1993). Cross-language transfer of phonological awareness. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 85*(3), 453-465.

Durgunoglu, A. Y., & Oney, B. (1999). A cross-linguistic comparison of phonological awareness and word recognition. *Reading and Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal, 11*, 281-299.

Ellis, N. C., & Hooper, A. M. (2001). Why learning english is easier in welsh than in english: Orthographic transparency effects evinced with frequency-matched tests. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 22*, 571-599.

Ellis, N. C., Natsume, M., Stavropoulou, K., Hoxhallari, L., Van Dall, V. H. P., Polyzoe, N., . . . Petalas, M. (2004). The effects of orthographic depth on learning to read alphabetic, syllabic, and logographic scripts. *Reading Research Quarterly, 39*, 438-468.

Escudero, P., Broersma, M., & Simon, E. (2013). Learning words in a third language: Effects of vowel inventory and language proficiency. *Language and Cognitive Processes, 28*(6), 746-761.

Falk, Y., & Bardel, C. (2010). The study of the role of background languages in third language acquisition. the state of the art. *Iral, 48*, 185-219.

Fergusson, R. (Ed.). (1985). *The penguin rhyming dictionary* (1st ed.). https://search-credoreference-com.ezproxy.uwe.ac.uk/content/title/penrd?tab=entries: Market House Books Ltd.

Francis, N. (2002). Literacy, second language learning, and the development of metalinguistic awareness: A study of bilingual children's perceptions of focus on form. *Linguistics and Education, 13*(3), 373-404.

Galambos, S. J., & Goldin-Meadow, S. (1990). The effects of learning two languages on levels of metalinguistic awareness. *Cognition, 34*(1), 1-56.

Gallardo del Puerto, F. (2007). Is L3 phonological competence affected by the learners' level of bilingualism? *International Journal of Multilingualism, 4*(1), 1-16.

Gillon, G. T. (2004). *Phonological awareness: From research to practice*. New York: The Gullford Press.

Girard, L., & Girolametto, L. (2013). Investigating the relationship between social behaviors and phonological awareness in preschool children. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology, 34*, 123-130.

Goodrich, J. M., & Lonigan, C. J. (2016). Lexical characteristics of english and spanish words and the development of phonological awareness skills in spanish-speaking language-minority children. *Reading Writing, 29*, 683-704.

Goodrich, J. M., Lonigan, C. J., & Farver, J. M. (2014). Children's expressive language skills and their impacts on the relation between first and second language phonological awareness skills. *Scientific Studies of Reading, 18*(114), 129.

Goswami, U., Ziegler, J. C., Dalton, L., & Schneider, W. (2003). Nonword reading across orthographies: How flexible is the choice of reading units? *Applied Psycholinguistics, 24*, 235-247.

Guron, L., M., & Lundberg, I. (2003). Identifying dyslexia in multilingual students: Can phonological awareness be assessed in the majority language? *Journal of Research in Reading, 26*(1), 69-82.

Haigh, C., A., Savage, R., Erdos, C., & Genesee, F. (2011). The role of phoneme and onset awareness in second language reading acquisition. *Journal of Research in Reading, 34*(1), 94-113.

Hatcher, P., J., Hulme, C., & Ellis, A., W. (1994). Ameliorating early reading failure by integrating the teaching of reading and phonological skills: The phonological linkage hypothesis. *Child Development, 65*, 41-57.

Hatcher, P., J., Hulme, C., & Snowling, M., J. (2004). Explicit phoneme training combined with phonic reading instruction helps young children at risk of reading failure. *Journal of Psychology and Psychiatry, 5*(2), 338-358.

Hipfner-Boucher, K., Milburn, T., Weitzman, E., Greenberg, J., Pelletier, J., & Girolametto, L. (2014). Relationships between preschoolers' oral language and phonological awareness. *First Language, 34*(2), 178-197.

Hivechi, H. (2012). Direct instruction of phonological awareness on bilingual and trilingual elementary level students. *English as an International Language Journal, 7*(2), 135-150.

Janssen, M., & Bosman, A. M. T. (2013). Phoneme awareness, vocabulary, and word decoding in monolingual and bilingual dutch children. *Journal of Research in Reading, 36*(1), 1-13.

Jessner, U. (2008). A DST model of multilingualism and the role of metalinguistic awareness. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*(2), 270-283.

Jessner, U. (2010). Metalinguistic awareness in multilinguals: Cognitive aspects of third language learning. *Language Awareness, 8*(3-4), 201-209.

Kahn-Horwitz, J., Kuash, S., Ibrahim, R., & Schwartz, M. (2014). How do previously acquired languages affect acquisition of english as a foreign language: The case of circassian. *Written Language & Literacy, 17*(1), 40-61.

Kartz, L., & Frost, R. (1992). *The reading process is different for different orthographies: Orthographic depth hypothesis.* (No. ED359575). New Haven, Connecticut: ERIC.

Kemp, C. (2007). Strategic processing in grammar learning: Do multilinguals use more strategies? *International Journal of Multilingualism, 4*, 241-261.

Kjeldsen, A., Karna, A., Niemi, P., Olofsson, A., & Witting, K. (2014). Gains from training in phonological awareness in kindergarten predict reading comprehension in grade 9. *Scientific Studies of Reading, 180*, 452-467.

Koda, K., & Zehler, A., M. (2008). *Learning to read across languages: Cross-linguistic relationships in first- and second-anguage literacy development*. New York ; London: Routledge.

Kuile, H. T., Veldhuis, M., Veen, S., C. V., & Wicherts, J., M. (2011). Bilingual education, metalinguistic awareness, and the understanding of an unknown language. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition, 14*(2), 233-242.

Kuo, L., & Anderson, R. C. (2008). Conceptual and methodological issues in comparing metalinguistic awareness across languages. In K. Koda, & A. M. Zehler (Eds.), *Learning to read across languages* (pp. 39-67). New York: Routledge.

Lamb, M., & Coleman, H. (2008). Literacy in English and the transformation of self and society in post-soeharto indonesia. *International Journal of Bilingual Education Adn Bilingualism, 11*(2), 189-205.

Leikin, M., Schwartz, M., & Share, D. L. (2010). General and specific benefits of bi-literate bilingualism: A Russian-Hebrew study of beginning literacy. *Reading Writing, 23*, 269-292.

Lewis, M. P. (2009). *Ethnologue languages of the world*

Melby-Lervag, M., & Lervag, A. (2011). Cross-linguistic transfer of oral language, decoding, and phonological awareness and reading comprehension: A meta-analysis of the correlational evidence. *Journal of Research in Reading, 34*, 114-135.

Metsala, J., L., & Walley, A., C. (1998). Spoken vocabulary growth and and the segmental restructuring of lexical representations; procursors to phonemic awareness and early

reading ability. In J. Metsala L., & L. C. Ehri (Eds.), *Word recognition in beginning literacy* (pp. 89-120). New Jersey: Erlbaum.

Muter, V., & Diethelm, K. (2001). The contribution of phonological skills and letter knowledge to early reading development in a multilingual population. *Language Learning, 51*(2), 187-219.

Muter, V., Hulme, C., Snowling, M., J., & Stevenson, J. (2004). Phonemes, rimes, vocabularies, and grammatical skills as foundations of early reading development: Evidence from a longitudinal study. *Developmental Psychology, 40*(5), 665-681.

Nababan, P. W. J. (1985). Bilingualism in indonesia: Ethnic language maintenance and the spread of the national language. *Southeast Asian Journal of Social Science, 13*(1), 1-18.

Nation, K., & Cocksey, J. (2009). The relationship between knowing a word and reading it aloud in children's word reading development. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology,* (103), 296-308.

Nation, K., & Snowling, M., J. (2000). Factors influencing syntactic awarenessskills in normal readers and poor comprehenders. *Applied Psycholinguistics,* , 229-241.

Nosarti, C., Mechelli, A., Green, D., W., & Price, C., J. (2010). The impact of second language learning on semantic and nonsemantic first language reading. *Cerebral Cortex, 20*, 315-327.

O'Grady, W., Schafer, A. J., Perla, J., Lee, O. -., & Wieting, J. (2009). Psycholinguistic tool for the assessment of language loss: The HALA project. *Language Documentation and Conservation, 3*, 100-112.

Ouellette, J. P. (2006). What's meaning got to do with: The role of vocabulary in word reading and reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 98*(3), 554-566.

Perfetti, C. A., & Dunlap, S. (2008). Learning to read: General principles and writing system variations. metalinguistic awareness across languages. In K. Koda, & A. M. Zehler (Eds.), *Learning to read across languages* (pp. 39-67). New York: Routledge.

Quiroz, B., G., & Snow, C., E. (2010). Vocabulary skills of spanish-english bilinguals: Impact of mother-child language interactions and home language and literacy support. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 14*(4), 379-399.

Rauch, D., P., Naumann, J., & Jude, N. (2013). Metalinguistic awareness mediates effects of full biliteracy on third language reading proficiency in turkish-german bilinguals. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 16*(4), 402-418.

Raven, J., Raven, J.,C., & Court, J. H. (1996). *Standard progressive matrices*. Oxford, England: Oxford Psychologist Press.

Reder, F., Marec-Breton, N., Gombert, J., & Demont, E. (2013). Second-language learners' advantage in metalinguistic awareness: A question of languages' characteristics. *British Journal of Educational Psychology, 83*, 686-702.

Renou, J. (2010). An examination of the relationship between metalinguistic awareness and second-language proficiency of adult learners of french. *Language Awareness, 10*(4), 248-267.

Reyes, I. (2012). Biliteracy among children and youths. *Reading Research Quarterly, 47*(3), 307-327.

Reyes, I., & Azuara, P. (2008). Emergent biliteracy in young mexican immigrant children. *Reading Research Quarterly, 43*(4), 374-398.

Rothou, K., M., Padeliadu, S., & Sideridis, G., D. (2013). Predicting early reading in greek: The contribution of phonological awareness and non-phonological language skills. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 93*, 1504-1509.

Saiegh-Haddad, E., Kogan, N., & Walters, J. (2010). Universal and language-specific constraints on phonemic awareness: Evidence from russian-hebrew bilingual children. *Reading Writing, 23*, 359-384.

Savage, R., & Carless, S. (2005). Phoneme manipulation not onset-rime manipulation ability is a unique predictor of early reading. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 46*(12), 1297-1308.

Schwartz, M., Geva, E., Share, D. L., & Leikin, M. (2007). Learning to read in english as third language: The cross-linguistic transfer of phonological processing skills. *Written Language & Literacy, 10*(1), 25-52.

Silven, M., & Rubinov, E. (2010). Language and preliteracy skills in BIlinguals and monolinguals at preschool age: Effects of exposure to richly inflected speech from birth. *Reading Writing, 23*, 385-414.

Stahl, S. A., & Murray, B., A. (1994). Defining phonological awareness and ints relationship to early reading. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 86*(2), 221-234.

Takallou, F. (2011). The effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on EFL on learners' reading comprehension performance and metacognitive awareness. *Asian EFL Journal, ,* 272-300.

Thompson, A. S. (2013). The interface of language aptitude and multilingualism: Reconsidering the bilingual/multilingual dichotomy. *The Modern Language Journal, 97*(3), 685-701.

Treiman, R., & Kessler, B. (1995). In defense of an onset-rime syllable structure for english. *Language and Speech, 38*(2), 127-142.

Treiman, R., & Zukowski, A. (1991). Levels of phonological awareness. In S. A. Brady, & D. P. Shankweiler (Eds.), *Phonological processes in literacy* (pp. 67-84)

Vellutino, F., R., Fletcher, J., M., Snowling, M. J., & Scanlon, D., M. (2004). Secific reading ability (dyslexia): What we have learnt in the past four decades? *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry, 45*(1), 2-40.

Verhoeven, L. (2007). Early bilingualism, language transfer, and phonological awareness. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 28*, 425-439.

Walley, A., C., Metsala, J., L., & Garlock, V., M. (2003). Spoken vocabulary growth: Its role in the development of phonological awareness and early reading ability. *Reading & Writing: An Interdiciplinary Journal, 16*, 5-20.

Wang, M., Ko, I. Y., & Choi, J. (2009). The importance of morphological awareness in korean-english biliteracy acquisition. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 34*, 132-142.

Wang, M., Park, Y., & Lee, K. R. (2006). Korean-english biliteracy acquisition: Cross-language phonological and orthographic transfer. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 98*(1), 148-158.

Winskel, H., & Widjaja, V. (2007). Phonological awareness, letter knowledge, and literacy development in indonesian beginner readers and spellers. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 28*, 23-45.

Yeung, S., S, & Chan, C., K. K. (2013). Phonological awareness and oral language proficiency in learning to read english among chinese kindergarten children in hong kong. *British Journal of Ecucational Psychology, 83*, 550-568.

Zhang, D., Koda, K., & Sun, X. (2014). Morphological awareness in biliteracy acquisition: A study of young chinese EFL readers. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 18*(6), 570-585.

Ziegler, J. C., & Goswami, U. (2005). Reading acquisition, developmental dyslexia, and skilled reading across languages: A psycholinguistic grain size theory. . 131, 3-29. *Psychological Bulletin, 131*, 3-29.

Zipke, M., Ehri, L. C., & Cairns, H. L. (2009). Using semantic ambiguity instruction to improve third graders metalinguistic awareness and reading comprehension: An experimental study. *Reading Research Quarterly, 44*, 300-321.

The PPP model to teaching grammar: Evidence from Indonesian contexts of the effectiveness of explicit teaching instructions

Muhammad Ahkam Arifin[a], Erwin Hafid[b], and Sitti Nurpahmi[c]

Institut Parahikma Indonesia[a], Universitas Islam Negeri Alauddin Makassar, Indonesia[bc]

Bio-profiles:

Muhammad Ahkam Arifin is a permanent lecturer at English Teaching Faculty at *Institut Parahikma Indonesia*. His research interest is currently on technology and language learning. For research collaboration, he can be contacted via ahkam.arifin@parahikma.ac.id or ahkam.arifin@gmail.com

Dr. Erwin Hafid is a senior lecturer at *Universitas Islam Negeri Alauddin Makassar*, Indonesia. He has published a number of books and journals with the topics not only on English teaching but also on Islamic studies. For research collaboration, he can be contacted via erwin.hafid@uin-alauddin.ac.id.

Dr. Sitti Nurpahmi is a permanent lecturer at *Universitas Islam Negeri Alauddin Makassar*, Indonesia. Her doctorate research was specifically upon Bilingualism, yet she is also open for research collaboration in other topics related to linguistics and English teaching studies. For research collaboration, she can be contacted via sitti.nurpahmi@uin-alauddin.ac.id.

Abstract

The current study was expected to see how a deductive approach in teaching grammar, PPP (Presentation, Practice, Production), could help develop university students` mastery in Subject-Verb Agreement. The research design was a quasi-experimental design. The study was

conducted at the second-semester students of English Education, Universitas Islam Negeri Alauddin Makassar. Among four classes as the population, two classes with seventy-eight students were selected as the sample of the research. One of the two classes was the experimental class, and the other became the controlled class. The data were collected through an error analysis test. The study found that students' mastery in subject-verb agreement was poor in the pre-test. Most students got very low scores, and none of them could reach a fair or higher level. After the treatment of the PPP approach, the experimental group scores rose significantly. 34% of the students reached fairly good to a very good level and 53 % of other students got fair and poor scores. On the other hand, the controlled group both in the pretest and posttest achieved scores from fairly good to excellent category. Most of the students got very poor scores and less than 11% of the students could reach both fair and poor scores. It means that in the controlled class there was no slight increase between students' performance in the pretest and students' performance in the posttest.

Keywords: PPP approach, grammar, implicit and explicit instructions

Introduction

The three authors found that English students at English Education of Teaching Science Faculty, Alauddin State Islamic University Makassar had problems with their grammar accuracy in writing. This was particularly in terms of their use of subject-verb agreement, that is, students were found to incorrectly use plural verbs for singular subjects or singular verbs for plural subjects. The authors, who were the students` lecturers, were specifically concerned over the fact that the students` lack of understanding in subject-verb agreement could lead to difficulties for readers understanding their writing. Thus, the current research aimed to improve students` grammar understanding and accuracy. To narrow the scope, the researchers decided to specifically focus upon implementing the traditional PPP (presentation, production, and practice) to teaching grammar in helping students` mastery over subject-verb agreement.

Although the PPP model as a deductive and explicit approach to teaching grammar has received much criticism (e.g., Tomlinson, Dat, Masuhara, & Rubdy, 2001), there has been increasing support over the `reuse` of the PPP approach. Norris and Ortega (2000) and Spada and Yasuyo (2010) conducted meta-analysis research studies comparing the effectiveness

between the expect and implicit approaches to teaching grammar. Both of the studies found that research studies in general have been in favour of explicit instructions and reported that explicit approaches to teaching grammar were not found to be less effective than implicit techniques.

The support of the PPP-type lesson is further emphasized by Anderson (2016) who claimed that the PPP model is especially effective for classes over 30 students with learners having the same native language and only with a few hours of instruction per week. Considering that the contexts of the classes of the current research participants are similar to the types of contexts that Anderson claimed to be appropriate for a more explicit instruction type of techniques to teaching grammar, the researchers hypothesised that the PPP could be beneficial to help their students learn grammar more effectively. Thus, the current research aimed to explore how the PPP model as the dependent variable could affect students` mastery in learning subject-verb agreement as the independent variable.

Participants

The research participants were two registered classes of English Education of Teaching Science Faculty, Alauddin State Islamic University Makassar. One class as the control group consisted of 35 students, whereas the other class as the experimental group was 40 students. Because of the incomplete data, nevertheless, 9 students` data in the control class and 2 students` data in the experimental class were excluded for the data analysis. Hence, the participants were 64 in total comprising 26 and 38 students for the control and experimental classes respectively.

Research Design

The design of the research was quasi-experimental design (the pretest-posttest non-equivalent group design). The researchers attempted to determine whether the traditional PPP approach (the independent variable) could affect students` mastery in subject-verb agreement (the independent variable). Pretest and posttest with 50 grammar questions on subject-verb agreement in the form of error analysis were distributed to both the experimental and control

groups. Only was the experimental group given treatment with 3 meetings learning subject-verb agreement, each lasting 90 minutes.

The implementation of PPP

Presentation

Within this procedure, the teacher explicitly presented the grammar topic, subject-verb agreement. The teacher specifically used examples, charts, and notes to help students understand the grammar material.

Practice

In this stage, the students made their first efforts in using the target grammar in meaningful – but controlled – contexts. The teacher provided written exercises to help student directly practice their understanding after the teacher`s presentation. The students were given written exercises. Prior to the last phase, grammar production, the teacher provided feedback to the student's difficulties in the target structure.

Production

Within this stage, students were then given a certain topic for them to discuss. Students were specifically encouraged to utilise their understanding of subject-verb agreement. From this, the teacher took notes for the corrective feedback at the end of the class.

Results

As shown within Table 1, the mean score of the experimental class was 34.8 (SD 12.7) in the pretest and 58.2 (SD 14.2) in the posttest. It means that the gap of the students' score of the experimental group between the pretest and posttest was 23.4. On the other hand, the mean score of the controlled class was 41.2 (SD 10.8) in the pretest and 41.9 (SD 13.2) in the posttest. It means that the gap of the students' score of the controlled group between the pretest and posttest was 0.7. Thus, it can be seen that the experimental group appeared to increase significantly with the gap score of 23.4, whereas the experimental group only showed a very slight increase with the gap score of 0.7.

Table 1

Descriptive statistics for pre-test and post-test results.

	N-size	Pre-test			Post-test		
		Min - max	M	SD	Min - max	M	SD
Control group	26	11 - 31	41.2	10.8	7 - 32	41.9	13.2
Experimental group	38	4 - 29	34.8	12.7	7 - 43	58.2	14.2

The table also showed that the minimum score of the students in the experimental group was 4 (out of 50), whereas the maximum was 31. For the posttest, the minimum score was 7 and the maximum was 43. In contrast, for the control group the minimum score in the pretest and posttest was 11 and 7 respectively, while the maximum score for the pretest and posttest was 31 and 32 respectively. Overall, the standard deviation was found to be nearly similar for the pretest and posttest both for the control and experimental group.

Table 2

T-test scores

Variable	t-test	t-table
$X_1 - Y_1$	4.7	2.000

For the level of significance (p) 0, 05 and the degree of freedom (df) $(N_1 + N_2)-2 = (38 + 26) - 2 = 62$, Table 2 showed that the value of the t-test was higher than t-table, as can be seen in Table 2. The result of the test appeared to show that there was a significant difference between the students' score in the experimental and controlled class after the treatment. It indicated that the PPP approach could be beneficial to improve students' grammar mastery.

Discussion and conclusion

The results of the study seem to show that the PPP model is effective in developing students` mastery of subject-verb agreement. Thus, the current findings support other previous

studies (Norris & Ortega, 2000) (Spada & Yasuyo, 2010) (Anderson, 2016)that have shown the effectiveness of a deductive and explicit approach to teaching grammar. The current study did not aim to compare the difference between explicit and implicit instruction for grammar classes; thus, the findings did not intend to make any efforts to claim whether one type of instructions is more effective than the other. Nevertheless, it could become evidence that the PPP model is no less effective than other instructions that focus more upon implicit approaches (Tomlinson, Dat, Masuhara, & Rubdy, 2001). Hence, the current study can become a rebuttal for those who claim that explicit teaching techniques for grammar classes do not effectively and significantly help students` understanding.

It could be speculated that the differences between the effectiveness of different approaches to teaching grammar could have many reasons. One reason could be that it depends upon how the teachers implement the teaching techniques within their classes. It could be because of the different size of the classes; some teachers have to deal with more than 30 students within one class, whereas others may have fewer students. Moreover, students` expectations of their classes and teachers could also explain these phenomena, that is, some students come to class may expect to be able to speak English, while others want to focus upon certain elements of the languages. On top of all these, students may also have different types of motivations that could impact the results of their achievement. Thus, further studies may need to control any variables that could influence the study results.

The authors remind the readers that the current study is to show that the PPP model could be a beneficial alternative for grammar instructions. The findings should not be employed as proof that the PPP model could be used to effectively teach English. In other words, the PPP model may, or may not be, beneficial to teach language skills such as listening, reading, writing, and speaking and other elements such as pronunciation, vocabularies, or idioms. Thus, different purposes of instructions may need different teaching techniques.

Finally, the authors would advise teachers that the PPP model should not be fully ignored particularly to teach grammar classes. The current study has yielded the results showing the significance of this traditional grammar teaching method to teach grammar. Curriculum experts in Indonesia specifically (Arifin, 2017) may also need to revisit how their policies could impact teachers` training in teaching grammar. Further research studies may

need to explore more on how different teachers, techniques, students, and research sites could produce more data to support the idea that the PPP approach could be utilised for grammar instructions.

References

Anderson, J. (2016). Why practice makes perfect sense: the past, present and potential future of the PPP paradigm in language teacher education. *ELT Education and Development, 19*(1), 14-22.

Arifin, M. A. (2017). The teaching methodology and assessment of character education in Indonesian English curriculum: Teacher`s perceptions. *Asian EFL Journal, 10*(1), 12-28.

Norris, J. M., & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 instruction: A research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. *Language Learning, 50*(3), 417–528.

Spada, N., & Yasuyo, T. (2010). Interactions between type of instruction and type of language feature: A meta-analysis. *Language Learning, 60*(2), 263-308.

Tomlinson, B., Dat, B., Masuhara, H., & Rubdy, R. (2001). EFL courses for adults. *ELT Journal, 55*(1), 80-101.

Attitudes of Senior Education Students Towards the English Language

Robin V. Guillermo

Isabela State University

Philippines

Bioprofile

Robin V. Guillermo is a faculty member of Isabela State University where he teaches major subjects in English and professional education subjects at College of Teacher Education. He is currently a Ph.D. Language Education student in Cagayan State University. He finished his Master of Arts in Education specializing in English Language Teaching at Philippine Normal University. He can be reached at rvg.coc@gmail.com

Abstract

The study was conducted to determine the attitude level of senior education students towards the English language in a state university in the Philippines and the possible variables which can explain variations in it or may be correlated to the categories of language attitude. Using the descriptive-correlational method. Using the standardized scale by Gardner (2004) on Attitude/ Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), data were gathered from 215 respondents from different fields of specialization in Teacher Education. This was done through a questionnaire adapted from a language attitude instrument. Findings revealed that majority of the respondents were female, spoke Iloco and had an average grade level in English. Differences in language attitude level were noted in terms of major and grade level. There were also a few categories of language attitude which posted a correlation with sex, type of high school graduated from and grade level. The study concluded that Filipinos learning English realize the importance of language in their daily lives and future careers. Findings revealed that attitude is a determinant of achievement in the English language learning. Teachers are therefore advised to be agents in developing positive motivation and attitude towards the English language among their

students. Imperatively, students were given the admonition to pour positive attitudes in English language learning to ensure better academic results.

Introduction

The English language is a very essential tool that can be used by an individual to create a common understanding between him and people from other countries. Indeed, it is considered as a requisite for a wider arena or international opportunities for immigration, tour, jobs, business, and the like.

As a mandate of having English Medium of Instruction (EMI) in the Philippine educational system, studying a foreign or second language is indeed indispensable. People involved in language teaching often say that students who really want to learn will succeed whatever the circumstances in which they study. The positive attitude of students in the use of English language is a predisposition of their own success and the negative attitude may mean that they expect failure to some extent. The attitudinal level of students to the second language varies based on their own experiences as language learners that affect their performance or level of achievement in other fields.

The *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching* (Sharma, 2002, p. 279) defines language attitudes as follows: "They are the attitudes which speakers of different languages or language varieties have towards each other's languages or to their own language or expressions of positive or negative feelings towards a language may reflect impression of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, ease or difficulty in learning, degree of importance, elegance, social status, etc. Attitude towards a language may also show what people feel about the speakers of that language. Language attitude may have an effect on second language or foreign language learning. The measurement of language attitudes provides information which is useful in language teaching and language learning."

Gardner and Lambert (1972) suggested that students who felt most warmly about a language and who wanted to integrate into the culture of its speakers are more highly motivated (and learnt more successfully) than those who were only learning language as a means to

an end (e.g., getting a better job). In other words, integrative motivation was more powerful than instrumental motivation. But whatever kind of motivation students have, it is clear that highly motivated students do better than ones without any motivation at all.

Latifah et al. (2011) directed a massive research with 757 learners nationwide to assess how several factors like motivation, attitude and instrumental orientation play role in influencing learners' performance in English language course in Open University Malaysia. The study showed that the above factors are correlated with learners' performance. While personal motivation plays an insignificant impact, attitude plays a positive impact on performance in the English course conducted at Open University Malaysia.

Bobkina and Fernandez (2012) investigated the motivational patterns and attitude towards the use of English in social and educational contexts of 72 EFL engineering students at the Technical University in Madrid. They found that the predominant motivation among Spanish engineering students is extrinsic in nature and most of the students have positive attitude towards the social values and educational status of English. Moreover, students have positive orientation towards the English language.

Sicam and Lucas (2016) explored the different attitudes of bilingual high school students towards English and Filipino and examined the relationship of language attitudes in terms of gender, age, and socio-economic status (SES). A total of 473 Filipino participants, randomly selected from three secondary learning institutions (two public, one private), answered a three-part questionnaire (Language Background Questionnaire, General Language Attitudes Survey, and Language Orientation Survey). Findings revealed the following: in general, students have very high positive attitude towards English and Filipino; females have significantly higher positive attitudes towards English than males; SES is significantly related to positive attitudes towards English language; gender is significantly related with instrumental language orientation in Filipino; age is significantly related to instrumental language orientation in Filipino and integrative language orientation in English; and SES is significantly related to all language orientations. Language attitudes have been the focus of interest in sociolinguistics for the past decades.

Medriano and Maguddayao (2019) said, "Education is a responsibility. The progress of the education depends on great extent on the productive capacity of its people. While there are students' multiple responsibilities attached towards their English language learning, the

productive efforts of its people are inherent to the individual development of the potentials.". A great deal of research on the role of attitudes and motivation in second language learning is yet to be unraveled. The positive attitude and motivation must be intertwined to succeed in second language learning. Motivation in second language learning is a complex phenomenon which can be defined in two terms of two factors: learners' communicative needs and their attitudes towards the speakers of the language. While there have been various researches on English language attitudes in western parlance, this study is an enrichment of literature in the Philippine context.

Therefore, the study sought to determine the attitudes of senior education students towards the English language. Specifically, it aimed to describe the profile of the respondents in terms of sex, course, grade, native language and type of school graduated from in high school; determine the overall attitude score of the respondents towards the English language; determine the attitude score of the respondents towards the English language in terms of international posture, language anxiety, importance of English, extrinsic motivation, motivational intensity, intrinsic motivation; find out the difference between the language attitude scores of the respondents when grouped according to their profile and find out the relationship between the language attitude scores of the respondents and the categories of attitudes towards the English language.

Methodology

Research Design

Descriptive-correlational research was used in the study. Anchored by the standardized scale of Gardner (2004) on Attitude/ Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), it described with emphasis what actually exists such as practices, current conditions, and situations or any phenomena. On the other hand, correlation approaches aim to determine whether, and to what degree, a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables. Its purpose is to establish relationship in making predictions. The study shall reveal the relationships between the respondents' profile and the extent of their attitude towards the English language.

Locale of the Study

This study was conducted in the College of Education of the Isabela State University, Echague, Isabela.

Respondents of the Study and Sampling Procedures

The target respondents of this study were all 4th year students of the College of Education. The researcher applied the total population sampling since the 4th year students were only 250 in total. However, due to unavoidable circumstances, only 215 respondents participated.

Research Instruments

A questionnaire was prepared by the researcher to gather data from the respondents. The preliminary part required the respondents of some profile variables. The second part of the questionnaire was adapted from a standardized attitude instrument. The data were analysed in a quantitative approach. The choices were provided from a scale of 1-4 (i.e., 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3= Agree, 4= Strongly Agree) and the statements were classified into four categories: International Posture; Language Anxiety; Importance of English; Extrinsic Motivation; Motivational Intensity; and Intrinsic Motivation. The grades in English of the respondents were retrieved through the student enrolment system and were classified and coded.

Statistical Tools and Treatment

To describe the profile of the respondents and their attitude scores, percentages and means were used. Arbitrary scales were used to describe means. To determine if there are differences in the attitude scores of the respondents based on their profile, t-test and one-way ANOVA were used where they are applicable. Pearson-r was used to reveal whether there existed a relationship between the attitude categories and their profile variables.

Results and Discussion

Profile of the Respondents

The profile of the respondents is shown in Table 1.

In terms of sex, 51 of the respondents or 27% of the respondents were males and 164 or 73% of the respondents were females. This is apparently true to teacher education courses that females outnumber males as supported by the study of Talosa and Maguddayao (2018) that in teacher education, female students are greater in number than male students. Wong (2019) observed that the gender distribution in the profession has strangely grown more imbalanced, according to recently released data largely because women are still pursuing teaching at far greater rates than men.

In terms of major, there were 27 or 12.6% who were from the Bachelor of Secondary Education (BSEd) program major in English, 29 or 13.5% were Mathematics majors, 21 or 9.8% each were Filipino and Social Sciences majors, 26 or 12.1% were MAPEH majors, 23 or 10.7% were TLE majors and 68 or 31.6% were from the Bachelor of Elementary Education (BEEd) program. Majority of the respondents or a total of 155 or 72.5% spoke Iloco as their native language, followed by Tagalogs with 38 of 17.7% and Yogad with 9 or 4.2 %. Other languages represented had less than five speakers from the respondents. Majority of the respondents spoke Iloco since this is the lingua franca of the area where this study was conducted. The Ilocanos are the most prominent ethnic group in Isabela (PSA, 2002).

As to grade level in English, majority of the respondents, 141 equivalent to 65.6 % fall under the average category, 5 or 2.3% to the high category and 69 or 32.1% to the low category.

This finding is in consonance to the findings of Leyaley (2016) who concluded that the English language proficiency of students who are enrolled in a Teacher Education Institution is described as "Early Intermediate" or "Average" regardless of the type of school they graduated from, the program they are enrolled in, and the honors they have received.

Table 1. Profile of the Respondents

Profile		Frequency N=215	Percent
Sex	Male	51	23.7
	Female	164	76.3
Major	BSEd English	27	12.6

	BSEd Mathematics	29	13.5
	BSEd Filipino	21	9.8
	BSEd Social Sciences	21	9.8
	BSEd MAPEH	26	12.1
	BSEd TLE	23	10.7
	BEEd	68	31.6
Native Language	Iloco	155	72.1
	Ibanag	3	1.4
	Tagalog	38	17.7
	Yogad	9	4.2
	Palanan	4	1.9
	Waray	1	.5
	Bicol	1	.5
	Ifugao	1	.5
	Itawes	3	1.4
Grade Level in English	High	5	2.3
	Average	141	65.6
	Low	69	32.1

Attitude of the Respondents towards English

Table 2 shows the language attitude levels of the respondents in the various statements in the attitude instrument. The table shows mean values ranging from 3.62 described as "Strongly Agree" for the statements "English is an important subject" and "English is

428

necessary in today's internationalized world" as the highest to 2.92 described as "Agree" for the statement "Compared to other studies, I think I study English relatively hard". The overall mean for all the statements is 3.14 with a description of "Agree".g

It can be surmised that the attitude level of the respondents is in the moderate and positive level. This is supported by Gemora and Arellano (2016) who found out that the attitude of teacher education students towards English when they were taken as entire group and when they were grouped as to sex, course and year level was positive.

Table 2. Language Attitude Level of the Respondents

Statement	Mean	Description
I would like to study abroad if possible.	3.12	Agree
I want to make friends with English-speaking people.	3.23	Agree
I am interested in the cultures of English-speaking countries.	3.14	Agree
I would like to have a job in which I work overseas frequently.	3.08	Agree
Studying English is important to me because it will allow me to communicate with foreign people.	3.43	Strongly Agree
I want to speak English more in my English classes.	3.16	Agree
I want to engage in more English discussion.	3.21	Agree
I want to speak English with English Teachers outside class.	3.03	Agree
I want to speak English with foreign students.	3.20	Agree
I want to speak English with native language speakers.	3.04	Agree

I feel nervous while speaking English.	3.02	Agree
I worry about my English class exams.	2.93	Agree
I worry about the consequences of failing my English classes.	3.10	Agree
I tremble at the thought of being called on in English classes.	2.89	Agree
I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to acquire English.	3.03	Agree
I keep thinking that my peers are better at English than I am.	2.94	Agree
English is an important subject.	3.62	Strongly Agree
English is necessary in today's internationalized world.	3.62	Strongly Agree
English is necessary for CEd Students.	3.49	Strongly Agree
I know why I need to study English.	3.50	Strongly Agree
I want to study English at University.	3.39	Strongly Agree
I have impression that I am not wasting my time in studying English.	3.36	Strongly Agree
I absolutely believe that English should be taught at University.	3.54	Strongly Agree
I feel ashamed when I can't speak English well.	3.13	Agree
I feel guilty if I don't study English.	3.04	Agree
I think I will feel embarrassed if I cannot speak English in the future.	3.25	Agree
I study English because I think it will be useful in getting a good job.	3.46	Strongly Agree

I learn English to be more knowledgeable.	3.36	Strongly Agree
I study English to improve my test scores.	3.21	Agree
Compared to other studies, I think I study English relatively hard.	2.92	Agree
During my English classes, I am absorbed in what is taught and concentrate on my studies.	2.97	Agree
I study hard for quizzes and tests in English.	2.99	Agree
I spend a lot of time studying in English.	2.79	Agree
I study English on my own beyond the required English coursework.	2.93	Agree
English is my favorite class.	2.60	Agree
I enjoy learning English.	3.02	Agree
I have a good feeling when hearing and speaking English when surpassing myself in English studies.	3.07	Agree
I like being exposed to English.	2.94	Agree
I study English for the pleasure I experienced.	3.03	Agree
I study English for the satisfaction that comes in the process of accomplishing difficult exercise in English.	3.02	Agree
The more difficult English tests are, the more strongly I feel that I want to study English.	3.03	Agree
Total	**3.14**	**Agree**

Table 3 shows the language attitude level of the respondents in the different categories. The means of the categories in descending order is Importance of English as the highest with a mean of 3.503654 with a description of "Strongly Agree", followed by Extrinsic Motivation with a mean of 3.241085, International Posture with a mean of 3.165116, Language Anxiety with a mean of 2.987597, Intrinsic Motivation with a mean of 2.960133, and Motivational Intensity as the lowest with a mean of 2.919070 all with a description of "Agree".

The findings suggest that Filipinos do realize the importance of the English language. Soliven (2007) observed that many schools, public or private alike have realized that English is the only way to move forward. Today, economic globalization is going hand in hand with the growing use of English. People are being encouraged to use or send messages in English rather than in their own language. Many do not mind. They see this as part of the unavoidable trend towards worldwide uniformity and a means whereby a growing number of people can communicate directly with each other. The country's growing prosperity and commercial aggressiveness are due to the extended use of the English language by our countrymen. This was proven in the study of Medriano and Maguddayao (2019) stating that one of the main reasons why foreign students study in the Philippines is due to Filipinos fluency in English language use as well as the use of English as a medium of instruction in the Philippine educational system.

Table 3. Language Attitude Level of the Respondents in the Different Categories

Category	Mean	Description
International Posture	3.165116	Agree
Language Anxiety	2.987597	Agree
Importance of English	3.503654	Strongly Agree
Extrinsic Motivation	3.241085	Agree
Motivational Intensity	2.919070	Agree
Intrinsic Motivation	2.960133	Agree

Table 4 shows the difference in language attitude level when grouped by sex. The t-test resulted to a t-value of -.348 with a probability value of .729 which is insignificant. The attitude levels of the respondents do not differ based on their being male or female.

Table 4. Difference in Language Attitude Level of the Respondents Grouped by Sex

Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error of Differences	t-value	Probability
Male	3.13	.37	.05	$-.348^{ns}$	.729
Female	3.15	.33	.03		

^{ns} Not significant

Table 5 shows the difference in language attitude level of the respondents when grouped by major. The one-way analysis of variance yielded an F-value of 11.644 with a probability value of 0.000 which is significant at 0.05 level. There is a variation in the attitude levels of the respondents based on their field of specialization.

Table 5. Difference in Language Attitude Level of the Respondents Grouped by Major

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.992	6	.999	11.644*	.000
Within Groups	17.839	208	.086		

Total	23.831	214		

*Significant at 0.05 level

Table 6 shows where the variation lies. The Scheffe's comparison of mean differences indicate that the BSEd English majors had a significantly higher attitude level compared to the other majors in the program and to the respondents from the BEEd program. It must be noted that the English major students are already in their terminal year so it naturally follows that they have a well-developed attitude towards the English language than other students who specialize in other fields, having taken many majors subjects in the English language and exposed to many activities which required proficiency in the language.

This is in consonance with Ahmed (2015) who found out that the attitude towards English language learning and using the language in various domains of usage is extremely positive among EFL learners in a university in Malaysia. On the other hand, finding is contradicted by Santos et al. (2017) who found out that business students had a more positive attitude(s) towards English than education students in a university in Basque Country.

Table 6. Scheffe's Comparison of Mean Differences

(I) Major	(J) Major	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
BSEd English	BSEd Math	.5271158*	.0783188	.000
	BSEd Filipino	.6222738*	.0852083	.000
	BSEd Social Sciences	.3458511*	.0852083	.014

	BSEd MAPEH	.2885831*	.08046 78	.050
	BSEd TLE	.4215467*	.08309 82	.000
	BEEd	.3418885*	.06661 59	.000
BSEd Math	BSEd English	-.527115 8*	.07831 88	.000
	BSEd Filipino	.0951580	.08391 30	.972
	BSEd Social Sciences	-.181264 8	.08391 30	.588
	BSEd MAPEH	-.238532 7	.07909 49	.174
	BSEd TLE	-.105569 2	.08176 95	.947
	BEEd	-.185227 3	.06495 09	.234
BSEd Filipino	BSEd English	-.622273 8*	.08520 83	.000
	BSEd Math	-.095158 0	.08391 30	.972
	BSEd Social	-.276422 8	.09037 70	.161

	Sciences			
	BSEd MAPEH	-.3336907*	.0859222	.023
	BSEd TLE	-.2007272	.0883905	.526
	BEEd	-.2803853*	.0731111	.026
BSEd Social Sciences	BSEd English	-.3458511*	.0852083	.014
	BSEd Math	.1812648	.0839130	.588
	BSEd Filipino	.2764228	.0903770	.161
	BSEd MAPEH	-.0572679	.0859222	.998
	BSEd TLE	.0756956	.0883905	.994
	BEEd	-.0039626	.0731111	1.000
BSEd MAPEH	BSEd English	-.2885831*	.0804678	.050
	BSEd Math	.2385327	.0790949	.174

	BSEd Filipino	.3336907*	.0859222	.023
	BSEd Social Sciences	.0572679	.0859222	.998
	BSEd TLE	.1329635	.0838301	.866
	BEEd	.0533054	.0675267	.996
BSEd TLE	BSEd English	-.4215467*	.0830982	.000
	BSEd Math	.1055692	.0817695	.947
	BSEd Filipino	.2007272	.0883905	.526
	BSEd Social Sciences	-.0756956	.0883905	.994
	BSEd MAPEH	-.1329635	.0838301	.866
	BEEd	-.0796582	.0706407	.973
BEEd	BSEd English	-.3418885*	.0666159	.000

BSEd Math	.1852273	.0649509	.234
BSEd Filipino	.2803853*	.0731111	.026
BSEd Social Sciences	.0039626	.0731111	1.000
BSEd MAPEH	-.0533054	.0675267	.996
BSEd TLE	.0796582	.0706407	.973

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The difference in the language attitude level of respondents grouped by type of high school graduated from is shown in Table 7. The one-way ANOVA resulted to an F-value of 1.977 with a probability value of .141 which is insignificant. This implies that there is no difference in the language attitude level of the respondents whether they graduated from a public, private or other types of high schools.

Table 7. Differences in the Language Attitude Level of Respondents Grouped by Type of High School Graduated from

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.

438

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.436	2	.218	1.977^{ns}	.141
Within Groups	23.394	212	.110		
Total	23.831	214			

The difference in the language attitude level of respondents grouped by native language is shown in Table 8. The one-way analysis of variance resulted to an F-value of .454 with a probability value of .887 which is insignificant. This implies that there is no difference in the language attitude level of the respondents whether they spoke Iloco, Tagalog, Yogad or the other languages represented in the study.

Table 8. Differences in Language Attitude Level of Respondents Grouped by Native Language

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.413	8	.052	$.454^{ns}$	.887

Within Groups	23.418	20 6	.114	
Total	23.831	21 4		

ns Not Significant

Table 9 shows the difference in language attitude level of the respondents when grouped by grade level. The one-way analysis of variance yielded an F-value of 3.191 with a probability value of 0.043 which is significant at 0.05 level. There is a variation in the attitude level of the respondents based on grade level in English.

Table 9. Differences in Language Attitude Level of Respondents Grouped by English Grade Level

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.696	2	.348	3.191*	.043
Within Groups	23.134	212	.109		
Total	23.831	214			

*Significant at 0.05 level

Table 10 shows where the variation lies. The LSD comparison of mean differences indicates that those with average grade level had a significantly higher attitude level compared to those with a low grade level in English.

This finding is supported by Latifah et al. (2011) who directed a massive research with 757 learners nationwide to assess how several factors like motivation, attitude and instrumental orientation play role in influencing learners' performance in English language course in Open University Malaysia. The study showed that the above factors are correlated with learners' performance. While personal motivation plays an insignificant impact, attitude plays a positive impact on performance in the English course conducted at Open University Malaysia.

Also, a similar finding is found in Bobkina and Fernandez (2012) who investigated the motivational patterns and attitude towards the use of English in social and educational contexts of 72 EFL engineering students at the Technical University in Madrid. They found that the predominant motivation among Spanish engineering students is extrinsic in nature and most of the students have positive attitude towards the social values and educational status of English. Moreover, students have positive orientation towards the English language.

Table 10. LSD Comparison of Mean Differences

(I) English Grade Level	(J) English Grade Level	English Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
High	Average	.1479329	.1503284	.326
	Low	.2551432	.1529908	.097
Average	High	-.1479329	.1503284	.326
	Low	.1072103[*]	.0485327	.028
Low	High	-.2551432	.1529908	.097
	Average	-.1072103[*]	.0485327	.028

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 11 shows the relationship between the language attitude categories and sex. All of the categories showed insignificant correlation with this variable except Extrinsic Motivation. The correlation coefficient is .141 with a probability of 0.038 which is significant at 0.05 level. This means that being male or female is related to this category of language attitude.

Zhang (2011) examined gender effects in attitudes towards the three major languages of English, Cantonese, and Putonghua in the multilingual society of Hong Kong. His findings indicated significant gender effects in the attitudes held by the students towards the different languages in different components and dimensions of attitude. The results show that significant and rather complex gender effects exist in attitudes towards the language varieties used in the multilingual society of Hong Kong, and points to many possible implications and

interpretations. For example, it was found that students of both genders affectively preferred male speakers in Cantonese and female speakers in English and Putonghua. In addition, it was found that cognitively, female students were overall more favourable to the foreign languages of English and Putonghua as compared to male students, but these differences in gender preferences did not show up affectively.

Table 11. Relationship between Language Attitude Categories and Sex

Variables	Correlation	Significance	Decision
Sex and			
International Posture	.008	.909	Not Significant
Language Anxiety	.059	.385	Not Significant
Importance of English	.064	.354	Not Significant
Extrinsic Motivation	.141[*]	.038	Significant
Motivational Intensity	-.035	.611	Not Significant
Intrinsic Motivation	-.126	.065	Not Significant

Table 12 shows the relationship between the language attitude categories and major. All of the categories showed insignificant correlation with this variable. This indicates that the major of the respondents is not related to any of the categories of language attitude.

Table 12. Relationship between Language Attitude Categories and Major

Variables	Correlation	Significance	Decision
Major and			
International Posture	-.124	.069	Not Significant
Language Anxiety	.053	.441	Not Significant
Importance of English	.009	.899	Not Significant
Extrinsic Motivation	-.024	.722	Not Significant
Motivational Intensity	-.110	.106	Not Significant
Intrinsic Motivation	-.107	.118	Not Significant

The relationship between language attitude categories and type of high school graduated from is shown in Table 13. Two categories posted significant relationships with this variable. They are Language Anxiety with a correlation coefficient of -.143 with a probability value of 0.037 and Extrinsic Motivation with a correlation coefficient of -.156 and a probability value of 0.022 which are both significant at 0.05 level. The type of high school where a student graduated from has a relationship with these language attitude categories.

Ibnian (2017) concluded that the ninth graders of public and private schools in Jordan have positive attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language (EFL), as evidenced in their responses to the questionnaire that was distributed to the sample of the study. However, students of the private sector showed more positive attitudes towards learning EFL than the public schools students.

Table 13. Relationship between Language Attitude Categories and Type of High School Graduated from

Variables	Correlation	Significance	Decision
Type of High School Graduated from and International Posture	-.072	.291	Not Significant
Language Anxiety	-.143[*]	.037	Significant
Importance of English	-.036	.595	Not Significant

Variables	Correlation	Significance	Decision
Extrinsic Motivation	-.156[*]	.022	Significant
Motivational Intensity	-.079	.250	Not Significant
Intrinsic Motivation	.047	.493	Not Significant

Table 14 shows the relationship between the language attitude categories and native language. All of the categories showed insignificant correlation with this variable. This indicates that the native language of the respondents is not related to any of the categories of language attitude.

Table 14. Relationship between Language Attitude Categories and Native Language

Variables	Correlation	Significance	Decision
Native Language and			
International Posture	.048	.487	Not Significant
Language Anxiety	.079	.250	Not Significant
Importance of English	-.036	.600	Not Significant
Extrinsic Motivation	-.045	.511	Not Significant
Motivational Intensity	.038	.579	Not Significant
Intrinsic Motivation	.048	.480	Not Significant

The relationship between language attitude categories and English is shown in Table 15. Three categories posted significant relationships with this variable. They are Importance of English with a correlation coefficient of -.207 with a probability value of 0.002, Extrinsic Motivation with a correlation coefficient of -.150 and a probability value of 0.028 and Intrinsic Motivation with a correlation coefficient of -.184 and a probability value of .007 which are

significant at 0.05 level. The grade level of respondents has a relationship with these language attitude categories.

Schibeci and Riley (1986) contended that attitudes influence achievement, rather than achievements influencing attitudes. Therefore, both negative and positive attitudes have numerous influences on the success of language learning. Also, Vahdany et al. (2015) concluded in their study in Iran that there was a significant correlation between students' grades and language attitudes.

Table 15. Relationship between Language Attitude Categories and English Grade Level

Variables	Correlation	Significance	Decision
English Grade Level and			
International Posture	-.100	.143	Not Significant
Language Anxiety	-.013	.849	Not Significant
Importance of English	-.207**	.002	Significant
Extrinsic Motivation	-.150*	.028	Significant
Motivational Intensity	-.031	.647	Not Significant
Intrinsic Motivation	-.184**	.007	Significant

Conclusion and Recommendation

In the light of the findings above, the following conclusions are drawn:

1. The respondents realize that English has a lofty international standing, it is significant in many respects and they are extrinsically motivated to learn it.

2. Filipino learners above all understand that English is an indispensable tool in their everyday lives and their future.

3. Majoring in English increases positive attitude towards it. Being immersed in learning it removes negative attitudes towards the language.

4. Achievement in the English language can be predicted by a high level of positive attitude towards it. Fostering a positive attitude towards the English language predisposes one to learn it better.

The following are recommended by the study:

1. Teachers of English are advised to consistently motivate their learners to learn the language and be instrumental in removing negative impressions other learners have towards it.

2. Students are encouraged to instill in their minds that a positive attitude in something can lead them to success in it.

References

Ahmed, S. (2015). Attitudes towards English Language Learning among EFL Learners at UMSKAL. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 6 (18), 6-16.

Bobkina, J. & Fernandez de, M.C.D. (2012). Motivation and Attitudes Towards Learning English: A Study of Engineering Undergraduates at the Technical University of Madrid. *ICERI2012 Proceedings*, pp. 4492- 4501.

Gardner, R.C. (2004). Attitude/ Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). The University of Western Ontario, Canada

Gardner, R. C. & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and Motivation in Second Language Learning*. Newbury House: Rowley, MA.

Ibnian, S. S. K. (2017). Attitudes of Public and Private Schools' Students Towards Learning EFL. *International Journal of Education*, 9 (2), 70-83.

Latifah, A.L., Mansor, F., Ramli, B., Wardah, M., & Ng Man, S. (2011). *The Role of Motivation, Attitude, Anxiety, and Instrumental Orientation in Influencing Learners' Performance in English as Second Language in OUM*. Retrieved on June 12, 2019 from http://eprints.oum.edu.my/565/1/role_motivation.pdf.

Leyaley, R. V. G. (2016). The English Language Proficiency of Freshmen Students in the Institute of Teacher Education, Kalinga-Apayao State College. *International Journal of Advanced Research in Management and Social Sciences*, 5(2), 257-278.

Medriano, R. Jr. and Maguddayao, R (2019). Sojourning of Foreign Students in the Philippines in their Level of Intercultural Communicative Competence as EFL Learners. *The Asian EFL Journal.* 21 (2.2), 337-363

PSA. (2002). *Isabela: Most Populated Province in Cagayan Valley*. Retrieved on June 11, 2019 from https://psa.gov.ph/content/isabela-most-populated-province-cagayan-valley.

Schibeci, R. & Riley, J. P. (1986). Influence of Students' Background and Perceptions on Science Attitudes and Achievement. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching*, 23 (3), 177-187.

Sharma, S. (2002). *The Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching.* Longman: London.

Sicam, P. M. & Lucas, I. G. (2016). Language Attitudes of Adolescent Filipino Bilingual Learners Towards English and Filipino. *Asian Englishes*, 18, 1-20.

Soliven, S. D. (2007). *Do you realize the importance of English in the world today?* Philippine Star, April 30, 2007.

Talosa, A. and Maguddayao, R. (2018). TESOL International Journal. 13 (4). 172-181

Vahdany, F. et al. (2015). The Relationship Among EFL Teachers, Students' Attitudes and their
Teaching-learning Achievements in English. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies,* 5 (12), 2625-2630.

Wong, A. (2019). *The U.S. teaching population is getting bigger, and more female.* Retrieved on June 11, 2019 from https://www.theatlantic.com/education/archive/2019/02/the-explosion-of-women-teachers/582622/.

Zhang, B. (2011). Gender Dissonance in Language Attitudes: A Case of Hong Kong. *International Journal of Arts and Sciences*, 4 (18), 77-109

Analyzing In-Service And Pre-Service Teachers' Perceptions
On Peer Reflection At Iain Bone*

Risman Wanci

Sekolah Tinggi Ilmu Keperawatan (STIK) Famika, Indonesia

Nirwana Darwis

Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN) Bone, Indonesia

Bio-Profiles:

Risman Wanci is an English Lecturer at Sekolah Tinggi Ilmu Keperawatan (STIK) Famika, Indonesia. He is interested in teaching grammar and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Email: sapa.risman@gmail.com

Nirwana Darwis is an English Lecturer at Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN) Bone, Indonesia. She is interested on English Language Teaching Methods and English Language Teacher Training. Email: nirwana.darwis07@gmail.com

Abstract

Enhancing teaching competency and self-awareness are the aims of the ideal teachers. Reflective practice is one method to assess the quality of teaching. Yet, in the same way, lack of English teachers want to perform this way in terms of the pressure of being observed by their colleagues. This research explores the peer-evaluation of teaching for both pre-service and in-service teachers towards peer-reflection in their long term teaching goals and to what extent reflection has contributed to the teachers' competence and their professional development. Further, analyzing the perceptions will eventually help the lecturer in recognizing the student-teachers' needs and preferences in the TEFL and Microteaching

classroom. The result revealed that peer-reflection build encouragement and open-mindedness to the teachers, though sometimes the feeling of pressure by peer-reflection still happened. Regarding on the constructive reviews from their peer, the teacher could implement it in their other classroom. The focus and quality of the reflection were also considered. Therefore, it expands the understanding about how the teachers supposed to be in dealing with classroom management, and teachers' professional development.

Keyword: in-service teacher, pre-service teacher, peer-reflection

1
STIK Famika. Jl. Matahari No. 5A. Sungguminasa, Gowa, Sulsel, Indonesia.
IAIN Bone. Jl. Hos Cokroaminoto Watampone, Bone, Sulsel, Indonesia.
*This Paper is sponsored by Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education (LPDP Indonesia).

Introduction

Contributing to the learning process could be in varying ways. The success of education is always be linked with the learning process both the teacher or students' performance aspect in a classroom. Every single occupation is assumed to need to have such a coach to deepen the understanding of the particular area of a subject taken. The best soccer player needs the coach to perform better in arena, also goes to the other athletes. Thus, the occupation that the people always seek for knowledge to teacher seems to be in marginal. Teaching awareness is still lacking to be concerned. Not so many teachers realize to have such a reminder or observer when it comes to the teaching-learning process. Besides, those aspects are actually will help the teacher to enhance their professional development and also personal growth. It is also believed that good teaching also takes many forms. Teacher development is the process of becoming the best teacher can be. Teacher development is the process of becoming the best teacher can be. It stands for a broadening of the focus of teaching to include not just the subject matter and the teaching methods, but also the who is playing with the subject and practicing methods. It is important to see back to the larger picture of what happened into teaching and learning, and the relationship between teachers and students in influencing the teaching and learning.

There several ways to get those aims. In the classroom practice, reflective-teaching become one of the solutions for the teacher to relate to teaching theory and teaching practice. The reflective practice is able to be implemented by the pre-service and in-service teachers. In this research, it will be focused on how pre-service and in-service teachers perceive about reflective teaching, particularly peer-reflection. Commonly, when we are talking about what we did in the classroom, why we did it, and the success of our teaching and learning in the classroom, it is known as reflective teaching. Reflective teaching as a key phase of a cycle in an experiential learning which covers planning, activity, and studying. It means being able to think critically about an experience, to identify problems and to solve the problems. As mentioned before, there are some types of teachers do as self-observation. (Thornbury, 2006) For reflection, the teacher could use students' personal histories, dialogue journals, and small and large-group discussions about their experiences, also peer reflective groups. Further, finding the influence of reflective teaching with the academic development of teacher in the classroom is still quite challenging. Teachers have different perception and perseverance towards reflection. Some feel at ease when a peer takes a role to give some insight during the teaching process, others will be probably feel disturbed.

This research aims at developing an understanding and critical thinking toward the perceptions of pre-service and in-service teacher of peer-refection especially in the classroom of TEFL. Therefore, research on reflective teaching over the past two decades has shown that it is linked to the inquiry, and professional growth continuously. Many universities aim to promote capable lecturers or students in assessing or monitoring their performances. IAIN Bone is no different. Lecturers study from the vice versa, and teacher. The student teachers were having three times opportunities for teaching practices and the lecturers were allowed to join the teaching training. Yet, when it comes to peer-reflection, not every teacher and student teacher are welcomed to be observed and commented in the classroom. It is a challenge due to the importance of the teachers' role in this era, when teacher nowadays should deal with some demands; improving student-centered teaching, utilizing technology in the process of teaching and learning, and so on. It took time for most teachers to realize the new aspect of teaching that becomes more sophisticated and fancy. Moreover, the fact that the teachers and the student teachers should be analyzed on their performances in the classroom makes them getting

frustrated. Thus, drawing on the perceptions of the pre-service and in-service teacher critically are important for educational development.

Literature Review

Reflecting teaching means noting the things that happened in the classroom, whether the strength or the weaknesses of own teaching of the last lesson, think of what to do about a problem, why something was successful, and what should do for improvement next. As Richard stated that reflection refers to an activity or process recalling or evaluating after doing a work/something. Reflecting teaching in pre-service and in-service teacher refers to the reflection of their teaching practice to prepare teachers in reflecting their teaching. (Richard, 2015) and (Pollard, 2008).

Several types of reflections are: 1) Peer observation, that provides chances for teachers to pay attention to their teachings each other, so that, it can be exposed in different teaching styles. The teachers will do observation and collecting information by doing identification in some aspects of the lessons. 2) Self-reporting (self-reflection), the teachers are allowed to have a regular assessment of what they are doing during class is running. It can be a short note on a piece of paper, a reminder to us when we come to prepare the next lesson. The teacher can evaluate or look back their past teachings and do differently in their actual teaching practices. 3) Journal writes, it aims to provide a significant record of learning experience which has been taken place (Bailey, 1990). 4) Recording lesson, The video or audio of the lesson is able to provide a basis for reflection. The goal is to record the variety of the class interaction as much as possible (Richard, 2015).

In this paper, the researchers focus on the term of self-reflection. It was conducted after the trainees wrote reflections of their own lessons in a teacher training. So, this paper focuses on how are the pre-service and in-service teachers' perceptions toward the peer-reflection.

Peer-reflection or reflective peer coaching is defined as an interactive process between two or more teaching professionals who work together to reflect on current practices. It can be utilized for expanding new skills, Thus ideas and feedbacks are able to be shared among the group members after doing classroom observation.

Peer coaching can be found in a variety of models. (Pam, 1991), (Trent, 2013), and (Yee, 2016).

1. Collegial peer coaching concerns two or more than two teachers for working together around the shared teaching observation. Commonly there will be a pre-conference, an observation and also a post-conference. The observed teacher is in control of the lesson, and the emphasis is a reflection on the observed lesson.

2. Challenge coaching involves a group of teachers working together to solve a specific instructional challenge or problem. A coach, who is usually a specialist or an experienced teacher, steers the coaching process by identifying the focus of the guidelines, observation, data collection form, and discussion of the observed teaching.

3. Technical meeting is designed to help teacher to transfer what has been studied in a workshop to apply in a classroom. The teachers help and observe each other to understand how to implement the new learning strategies as an effective teaching and learning tools.

4. Team coaching involves a teacher who is highly skilled in a specific area to work with another teacher.

It is explained in the outlines of three 'corollaries' of viewing teaching as scholarly work. First, teaching is a process of ongoing inquiring and reflection. That is, in order to go on to be successful, the instructor must 'step back and examine' what occurs in the schoolroom and the impact of the teaching on students' learning.

Second, to be considered scholarly, teaching needs 'collegial exchange and publications. Peers are crucial for assisting a teacher to know what they do in the classroom from a more objective view. (Priya Mathew, 2017) Finally, faculty members must take professional responsibility for the quality of their work as teachers. Merely as a peer review is applied to set standards in traditional learning, faculty components must define such criteria in learning or be content with bureaucratic standards set by bodies outside the academy.

There are also two kinds of peer reviews i.e summative and formative peer reviews (Morgan, 2013). Both have different processes and aims. The summative peer review is applied for evaluation (promotion, tenure, teaching, awards, and so on) while the formative peer review is designed to help in improving instruction. The implementation of peer evaluation must be open, relatively entertaining, neutral, and structured.

The other terms of peer-reflection are peer-review or peer observation means the teachers can collaboratively observe each other for their professional development purposes. The peer observations are individual and non-evaluation in nature.

According to Moloudi that as concluded from peer-review studies, in line with the perspectives of Vigotsky on learning, a real dialogue to get any improvement in teaching is viewed as constructive. Peer-review or peer-observation benefits for both observer and observed teacher, they are 1) Observer is able to see the new techniques and get new ideas from other teachings. She/he can reflect the teaching based on his/her own assumptions and beliefs. 2) Observed teachers can develop their learning outcomes based on the observer's question and suggestion which is discussed after teaching (Moloudi, 2011).

Contemporary educational theory indicates that peer-review allows teachers or students to, 1) participate in the review process, 2) think more deeply, 3) develop important cognitive skills such as critical thinking, decision making, self- monitoring and regulation, 4) solve problems, 5) get inspiration from their peers' work and collaboration, 6) criticize constructively and suggest improvements, 7) reflect and make sensible judgment (Sung, 2005).

In accordance to peer observation stages, the researchers explore the observation stages from LAPIS ELTIS Program, they are 1) Pre-observation meeting, the observer meets with the teacher before the class to learn about the lesson's focus and objectives. The teacher should define a focus area, perhaps related to something she/he would like to improve upon or a problem that she/he is trying to solve. 2) Observation, the observed teacher should inform students about the observation before the lesson. The observer should come a few minutes early and sit at the back of class and open-minded. The observer should focus on what to be observed and fill out the observation form. 3) Post-observation meeting, The most important part of the process of the observation is in this stage. To reflect and discuss about what happened in the classroom when real learning is finished for both the teacher and observer. Teachers must treat each other with respect and offer opinions in a good and constructive manner. The observer should give comments on how the teaching goes on, the observed teacher's strength and what are should be improved (LAPIS ELTIS Team, 2007).

Furthermore, Thornbury and Watkins showed some examples to be observed for peer-reflection, such as 1) The teacher's position and body language, 2) Interaction, 3) Instruction, 4) Teacher talking Time, 5) The use of technology/aids, etc. (Thornburry, 2007). As same as

Thornbury and Watkins, the LAPIS ELTIS team also provides the observation form for peer reflection, they are 1) The setting up of activity (mostly teacher centered or learner centered), 2) Rapport, 3) Instructions, 4) Time allocation, and 5) Correcting students' error.

Methodology

This paper is an attempt to uncover the teachers' perceptions on peer-reflection for pre-service and in-service teachers at IAIN Bone. Based on the research aims, the research questions in this study are:

1. What are the pre-service and in-service teachers' perceptions on peer-reflection?
2. What is the pre-service and in-service teachers' preferences?

To provide the data based on the research questions, this paper used qualitative method. Hence, the homogeneous sample will be involved.

Instrument

The type of instrument in this research using semi-structure interview in the form of open-ended question that is applied to the 3 (three) in-service teachers when they joined the teacher training at IAIN Bone and 10 (ten) pre-service teachers when they were holding a teaching practice in the classroom. The peer-reflection was presented by the in-service and pre-service teachers and their colleagues. Besides, this is actually the formative peer-review format due to the aims are to enlighten the idea of the teachers. The interviews were analyzed through content analysis and conducted in English. The purposive sampling approach also used in this research since the researchers rely on the experience of the insight to select the sample and the interviews recorded were transcribed to make it easier in understanding the teachers' statements. Accordingly, the researchers made some sample criteria to maximize the peer-reflection teaching.

The detailed background information about the interview is shown in Table 1 and Table 2 below:

Table 1

The profiles of the pre-service teachers

Pre-service teachers	Semester	Group	Reflection Score

Student teacher A	6	1	3
Student teacher B	6	1	4
Student teacher C	6	3	4
Student teacher D	6	4	3
Student teacher E	6	2	4
Student teacher F	6	2	4
Student teacher G	6	3	3
Student teacher H	6	4	3
Student teacher I	6	4	3
Student teacher J	6	2	3

The profiles of the in-service teachers

In-service teachers	Working experience	G r o u p	Reflection score
Teacher A	2 years	Pattimura	5
Teacher B	2 years	Wahidin	5
Teacher C	3 years	Martadinata	5

Data Collection and data analysis

In collecting the data, the researchers explore three stages:

Pre-Observation

Observation

Post-Observation and Interview
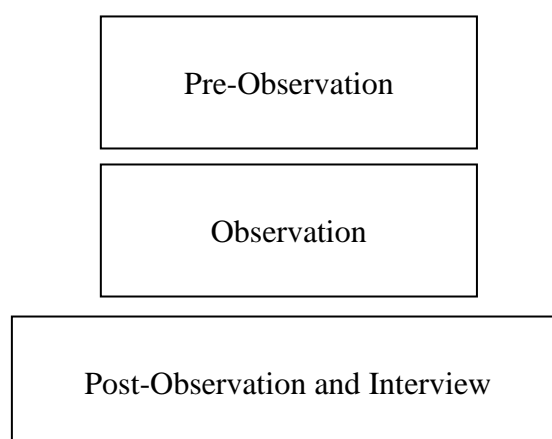
In Pre-Observation of the in-service teachers, the observer tried to dig the curriculum, lesson plan and the atmosphere in the target classroom before coming to observe the teachers. While in the observation, the researchers put herself/himself as the peer-reflectors analyze the clarification of the class purpose, how the organization of the class structure, the classroom atmosphere, the class management, and the classroom assessment. After that, in the post-observation, the researchers then gave several insights to the some missing and plus points of the learning process. It then was continued by interviewing the teachers regarding their feelings, perceptions, and views after being observed during the teaching practice process. For the pre-service teachers, the researchers took an interview after they were doing the teaching practice and peer-reflection.

The data analysis of this paper follows Miles and Huberman's guidelines, including three stages, they are data reduction, data display and conclusion verification (Miles, 2014).

Findings and Discussion
Critical Inquiry and Reflection

It is found that the teachers who have been observed could think critically towards their lesson plans. The reflectors also put a lot of contribution to analyze the strength and weakness of the lesson plan, and the way teachers implementing their thought on lesson plan in the real classroom.

" Some parts didn't run well, but most of the activities have been well. It is because I cannot predict what student response so I didn't plan if the student cannot catch what I'm trying to make it. "

Two teachers analyze his performance during the learning process. And it's responded by the reflectors that the teachers need to create a preparation notebook with some possible errors and failures in it. At some point, since the student teachers in their teaching, it is more captivating for the teachers to teach the future teacher and being observed by the other teacher. One of the most important aspects of the activities in the classroom is also instructions. Thus, when the teacher tried to use all English and repeated many times to make his students understand, the reflector gives some insight critically:

"Maybe for the first time, I see the students were a bit confused about what to do. That's a good idea for using whole English in your instructions but it will be better if you use lots of gesture

or body language to support your instruction. It will help your students to understand your instruction.

Communicating the ideas clearly and evaluating the progress could be the proper way to enhance the teacher professional development and will have valuable and practical benefit for the next teaching.

After watching the pre-service doing peer-reflection, the researchers found that they could articulate their strengths and weaknesses, also the problems occur, how to solve it and what improvement need to do for the next teaching. It seems that the reflection really helps them in their professional development.

"I feel the reflection is useful for the teacher because I can have some changes for my next teaching after being reflected….."

Teachers' Barriers and Blessings

Only 2 teachers (both in-service and pre-service) felt enjoy and interested in peer-reflection yet most of them feel under-pressure.

"I feel so nervous because, in front of our friends, it feels like we have to pretend that we teach. No, I don't feel good because I feel nervous when someone pays attention to me."

It is also reported that there is a change of attitude and behavior in peer-reflection with teaching normally.

"When nobody supervises me, when I am teaching, I can teach calmly. But when someone supervises me, I feel nervous. Although, I don't have to pay attention to that person, and I am trying to be perfect, but I still feel that I am nervous because I feel that I have been watched by that person. "

Further, compared to pre-service teachers in the university who have no experience in teaching the real classroom, they perceived that it is more challenging to be observed by the lecturer rather than the peer-reflection when they become in-service teachers already.

"I feel uncomfortable when I was observed by my friend. I do not want to be criticized by my friend. It was ashamed. It would be better if I'm observed by my lecturer or instructor…"

" Maybe my peer was not fair in observing my teaching because she is my best friend. She commented only on my strengths…."

However, an interviewer raised the concern that the friendship and trust between the members could affect the observer comment.

Teachers' Preferences

The inferiority feeling came up after interviewing 13 teachers (both in-service and pre-service teachers). Most of them feeling nervous to be observed by the other peers moreover, when the peers have more qualified in teaching.

"I think the better reflection is self-reflection, by using the critiques from the students without using the other to supervise us. "

"By using self-reflection we can identify our weakness and our strength by looking at how the students respond to our activity, and the outcome of the activity will be given to the students again"

" I can record myself when I'm teaching and after that, I watch my video teaching and analyze my strength and what things need to be improved. After watching I will try to make some changes for the next teaching materials"

From 13 teachers to be interviewed, 8 (eight) teachers prefer to have self-reflection or self-review rather than observed by their peers.

Conclusion

This study found that the pre-service and in-service teachers could think and reflect critically after being observed by their peers. Otherwise, the challenges for doing peer-reflection were anxiety and friendship. The teachers feel that they were worried and under-pressure when being observed by their peers. The teachers feel great when they reflect on their own teaching.

References

Bailey, K. M. (1990). The Use of Diary Studies in Teacher Education Programmes. In R. a. Nunan, *Second Language Teacher Education.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

LAPIS ELTIS Team. (2007). *ELTIS Training Module.* Bali, Indonesia: Unpublished.

Miles, M. B. (2014). *Qualitative Data Analysis.* The United States of America: Sage.

Moloudi, M. (2011, May). Online and Face-to-Face Peer Review: Measures of Implementation in ESL Writing Classes. *Asian EFL Journal, 2*(CEBU), 4-23.

Morgan, R. (2013). *Peer Review of Teaching: A Manual for Peer Review at IU Southeast.* The Institute for Learning and Teaching Excellence.

Pam, R. (1991). *www.ascd.org.* Retrieved from A Definition of Peer Coaching. aspx.

Pollard, A. a. (2008). *Reflective Teaching: Evidence-Informed Professional Practice.* New York: Continuum International Publishing Group.

Priya Mathew, a. a. (2017). Reflective practices: As A Means to Teacher Development. *Asia Pacific Journal of Contemporary Education and Communication Technology (APJCECT)*, 126-131.

Richard, J. a. (2015). The Effectiveness of Peer Review Teaching when Performed between Early-Career Academics. *Journal of University Teaching and Learning Practice (JUTLP)*, 1-15.

Sung, Y. T. (2005). The design and application of a web-based self and peer-assessment system. *Computer and Education*, 187-202.

Thornburry, S. a. (2007). *The CELTA Course.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Thornbury, S. (2006). *An A-Z of ELT.* Oxford: Macmillan Education.

Trent, R. (2013). *www.expandinglearninghorizons.com.au.* Retrieved from Peer Coaching: The benefits for Teacher ClassroomEffectiveness and Learning Outcomes.

Ur, P. (2007). *A Course in Languagev Teaching. Practice and Theory.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Yee, L. W. (2016). Peer Coaching for Improvement of Teaching and Learning. *Journal of Interdisciplinary Research in Education (JIRE)*, 64-70.

Students' Perception on the Implementation of Islamic Science Integration in English Teaching Materials

Uswatun Hasanah S.Pd.I., M.Pd., Mufidatunnisa S.Pd.

IAIN Bone

Email: *Uswah_intan@yahoo.com*

IAIN Bone

Email: *Mufidatunnisa16@gmail.com*

Bioprofile

Uswatun Hasanah, Bachelor of English Education IAIN Palopo and Master of English Education of Makassar State University. She is a lecturer in English Education study program in Islamic State Institution (IAIN) in Bone regency, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. Her biggest interests are in English teaching, Sociolinguistic, and English for Specific Purpose.

Mufidatunnisa, graduated from IAIN Bone and now working in Modern Islamic Boarding English School Al-Junaidiyah Biru Bone. In 2018, she was selected for CAMP EPIC Program held by US Embassy and became Indonesian delegates for YSEALI Critical Thinking Program in Bangkok from Asia Foundation and US Embassy. She is really passionate in English, writing, critical and creative thinking, and language design and curriculum development.

Abstract

Integration of Islamic science in English language learning for Muslim students is a necessity that should be realized by every teacher, especially in developing teaching materials that are applied in the classroom. This study aims at finding out the perception of STAIN Watampone students particularly Islamic Education program that have taught English by using integrated Islamic science material. Using interviews, it was revealed that the students

give positive attitudes toward the implementation of Islamic science into teaching English material. The result shows that the use of integrated English and Islamic material can produce a lot of interest and a make learning activities more effective and efficient. This gives an indication that the teacher or the stake holder can formulate the integrated teaching materials to suit the needs and interests of students.

Keywords: Integration, Islamic science, Teaching material

Introduction

INTEGRATED learning material has gained extensive notoriety in education program in recent years. The incorporation of Islamic content in teaching materials has embedded in the education system in Indonesia and not dumbfounded anymore. The standard issued from the Board of Indonesian National Standards of Education discharged new policy, giving opportunities for teachers to incorporate any specific contents in line with the schools' mission[1]. The schools are given license to take control and manage their own curriculum. Hence, some Islamic institution such as Madrasah, Pesantren or Islamic Universities are freely to choose learning experience with integrated science concept and curriculum. In STAIN Watampone, the concept of science integration gradually implemented for several subjects and programs of study.

The implementation of English and Islamic science integration is actually not a new expectance of Muslim scholars. Integrated concept has been set in since the restlessness of science dichotomy. In the development of Islamic scholarly, there are groupings of disciplines between religion and science. This implicitly shows the dichotomy of science and some assumptions comes up that Islamic science and general science as an independent subject, science is science and religion is religion. Hence, separating these two elements unconsciously lead to secularism which could have a ruinous effect on Islamic civilization.[2]

---

[1]Zuliati Rohmah," Incorporating Islamic Messages in the English Teaching in the Indonesian Context"(International J. Soc. Sci. & Education, 2012), 2.

[2] Norazmi Anas, "The Integration of Knowledge in Islam: Concept and Challenge."Global Journal of Human Social Science Research, Vol. 13, No. 10-G, 2013, p.2. Available at http://socialscienceresearch.org/index.php/GJHSS/article/view/734. Retrieved May 27, 2016.

This precarious concept seems to be an obligation instead since disregarding the value of Islam and general science will adduce lots of dangerous impacts. For instance, lots of student have a big concern on intellectual whilst forget their emotional and spiritual, also the lack of religion's awareness of the essence of science itself. In consequence, it is urgent to bring back the comprehensive understanding about science—both general science and Islamic science have a correlation and complementing each other as a unity[3].

Discerning the estrangement of Islamic and general studies lead to some question for the learners. English which is well-known as general science is no exception. The fact that English is the language of a large segment of the dominant West also contribute to the negative attitude, as the mere mention of it perhaps create a sense of correlation between the language and its speakers' culture and religion. It woefully induces the learners to have lack of motivation in comprehending English. Muslims also maintained a policy of distance and disengagement:

Being associated with conquest and and colonialism, English is seen as inherently inhospitable to Islam and as syntactically and discursively different from any of the major Islami language such as Arabic, Persian, Malay, Wolof, or Husna[4].

There seems to be contradistinction between Islam and English. It assuredly become the entrenched-mindset of student in STAIN Watampone particularly who are from Islamic Education Program prior to the implementation of English and Islamic science integration. For some reasons, they keep arguing that learning English is unavailing due to the nothingness of relation with their career as Islamic educators in the future.

For those who learn Islamic Education, learning English means learning the language that belongs to *kafir* since it is the language of Bible and Christian. In fact, throughout history Muslims have used foreign languages to engage in intellectual pursuits. They dominate the world of knowledge for about a millennium and benefited from other civilizations' intellectual and literary output, much of which scholars translated into Arabic and other

---

[3]Mufidatunnisa. "Pesantren As An Ideal Place to Implement Science Integration (An Observation of English and Islamic Studies at Modern Islamic Boarding School Al-Junaidiyah Biru Bone)." *The 1st BUAF "Introducing A Growing Scholar Community on Islamic Studies".* Pontianak: IAIN Pontianak Press, 2016. 186.

[4] Md. Mahmudul Hasan, *Islam's Encounter with English and Islami Faruqi's Concept of Islamic English: A Postcolonial Reading.* n.p., n.d. 2.

supposedly Islamic language. Actually, the rise of a multilingual culture began during the Prophet's lifetime and remains ongoing. For example, the great Islamic polymath and original thinker Abu Rayhan al-Biruni (d. 1048) was conversant with many languages[5].

The facts above probably are not enough yet to transmit some assumption regarding to the intention of English and Islamic science integration. Integrating Islamic science in English teaching material is one of the researcher's concept to introduce the urgency of learning English. The student has just not realized the forthcoming evidence to get. Some update news and information regarding to Islamic religion nowadays are conducted by English. Hence, to dig a deep understanding and avoid misinterpretation, students need to accomplish English well though their major is not English.

Integrating Islamic science in English learning materials applied by giving a train to the learners based on Islamic values and the revelations (Al-Qur'an and Sunnah)[6] The teaching materials aims to see the moral, spiritual development and personal achievement as reflected to cognitive, affective and psychomotor aspect of the learners. The appropriation of some Islamic terms and its explanation such as Halal, Sunnah, Mubah, Makruh, Haram in English and how to utilize it in discussion. Additionally, another Islamic matter such as *sirah nabi* or *sirah sahabat*, the replacement story from Cinderella into the history of Rasulullah and Khadeejah in reading section, delivering Islamic speech or story telling are about to see the cognitive aspect of the learners yet it unconsciously leads to encompass the affective and psychomotor aspect as well. It inculcates to create the well-balanced individual who have strong understanding and moral values based on Islamic principle.

Since the integrated of Islamic science in English learning materials is quite new for teaching method in STAIN Watampone, specifically in Islamic Education Program, students are assumed difficult to learn. For that reason, the researcher considered the impact of skipping the learners' perception as it would be the indicator of the integrated material itself. Therefore, this research want to analyze the learners' attention and interest during the learning process of integrated English and Islamic science. The effectiveness of how well student learnt is

---

[5] Md. Mahmudul Hasan *Islam's Encounter with English and Islami Faruqi's Concept of Islamic English: A Postcolonial Reading*. n.p., n.d. 5.

[6] Maimun Aqsha Lubis, "Integrated Islamic Education in Brunei Darussalam: Philosophical Issues and Challanges." *the Journal of Islamic and Arabic Education*, (2009), 3.

important for the continuity of this study or the possible gap the learners faced during the learning process in the integrated class. Further, this research also try to understand the learners' feeling whether the they like and comfortable with the way teacher transferred the knowledge or even dislike the concept of both materials and teacher. Overall, this paper therefore aim to investigate the students' perception on the implementation of integrating Islamic science into English learning material.

Literature Review

Integration term was from the English language, integrate. According to Oxford dictionary, integrate means combine (one thing) with another[7]. The integration synergy between religion and science or general knowledge consistently will create superb human resources in implying their knowledge even less with vigorous spirituality. Islam will not be perceived as a "left behind" religion yet a blessing to the world, when the world need, technology, religion, psychology, anthropology, linguistic, it will be easier to find in Islam. By knowing the importance of integrating knowledge, unconsciously bring Muslim community back to the golden age of Islam. This hope continued, gradually increased by understanding the way to influence students to be a passionate learner in Islam.

An integrated education emphasizes on the unison of knowledge, not merely the installation of one's knowledge but somehow follows after or emulates the approach and method of implementation and techniques used in teaching and learning in a class room[8]. An integrated education focuses mainly on implementing Islam as a whole with some philosophies of promoting a strong belief and knowledge, the balance of the physical element and the soul, the world and the hereafter, the thought, the heart, the mind and the search and application of revealed knowledge. Through the integrated education, a person can be educated and trained to understand and uphold the Islamic faith, the laws and the morals in one's life.

---

[7] Oxford Dictionaries available at http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/integrate. Retrieved January 18, 2017.

[8]Maimun Aqsha Lubis, "Integrated Islamic Education in Brunei Darussalam: Philosophical Issues and Challanges." *the Journal of Islamic and Arabic Education*, (2009), 3.

According to al-Shaybaniy (1991), Islamic education emphasizes the following concepts[9]:

1. To produce a pious human being who are devoted to God

2. To carry out lifelong learning

3. To develop total potential of a person's soul, mind, and body in an integrated way

4. To develop a person's capability to carry out his or her duties as a servant of God and as "Calipdh" of God (representative or vicegerent of God on earth).

The aspects above are actually represent the vision and mission of Islamic Education Program in STAIN Watampone which is aim to create students who are professional in Islamic Education with *akhlaqul karimah*, useful and make a contribution to society. Thus, the way to get to the purpose of this program study, the mission reflected by improving the educational and teaching system, developing the teaching and education with science-technology, faith and believe aspect. Therefore, the integration of Islamic science into teaching materials is the way to carry out the mission of this study program.

Muhammad Muda emphasize the concept of integration with the corpus of knowledge today by highlighting that the integration of knowledge and religion refers to the combination of knowledge and Islam as a unit. It should be noted, that general science and Islamic science as a unity[10]. Unfortunately, it such a heartbreaking to get the statement from some students related to their view about the importance of learning English in Islamic subject and vice versa. Most of students are still being apathic in learning material which is not coherent with their focus of study. Moreover, integration could be an approach to be used for students to make them master in various forms of science, beginning with the Islamic traditional knowledge of faith (akidah), law (syariah) and morals (akhlak). Thus, the madani generation is not an expectation of muslim anymore.

---

[9] Maimun Aqsha Lubis, "Integrated Islamic Education in Brunei Darussalam: Philosophical Issues and Challanges." *the Journal of Islamic and Arabic Education*, (2009), 4.

[10] Norazmi Anas, "The Integration of Knowledge in Islam: Concept and Challenge."Global Journal of Human Social Science Research, Vol. 13, No. 10-G, 2013, p.2. Available at http://socialscienceresearch.org/index.php/GJHSS/article/view/734. Retrieved May 27, 2016.

Relying on the perspective of some students regarding to the hedonism of learning Islam by using integrated English materials, Mohd Asraf in his research carried out that in today's world, due to English's global reach, people from different parts of the world come to a level of comprehension with one another by using English as the medium of communication. Hence, Muslim can use global languages to engage in intercultural communication and produce both literary and scientific works. [11]

The way to incorporate some general values in education has been mentioned by Ministry of Education and Culture.[12]

a. Education is integrated into all subjects. Integration may include loading the values into the substance on all subjects and the implementation of teaching and learning activities that facilitate practiced values in each learning activity inside and outside the classroom for all classes.

b. Character education is also integrated into the activities of student coaching.

c. In addition, rehabilitated and reconstructed implemented character education activities in school management of all affairs that involve all members of the school.

The statements from Ministry of Education and Culture and the standard issued from the Board of National Standards of Education (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan/BSNP) discharged new policy to opportunities for teachers to incorporate any specific contents in line with the schools' mission. Further, it helps the practitioner and educator in Islamic institution to freely integrate Islamic science in their teaching material. In this study, the main focus is the integrated Islamic science in English teaching material.

There are several aspects to observe in implementing the integrated material. Generally, according to Bambang Irfani's research, the integration of knowledge in the perspective of learning the English language can be grouped into

---

[11] Mohd-Asraf, Ratnawati. "English and Islam: A Clash of Civilizations?" *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education 4(2)*, 2005: 103-118, 104.

[12] Sunarto. *The Integration of Islamic Values in English Teaching and Learning at SD Islam Terpadu Al-Mumtaz Kota Pontianak.* Yogyakarta: n.p., 2014, 48.

three phases, namely: in designing the curriculum and syllabus development, in the selection and use of materials, teaching, and in the implementation of the course. Here is the exposure of the third phase[13]:

1. Integration of Scientific in Design Curriculum and syllabus
   Integration of science in this phase is the basis for the implementation of the integration of science in subsequent phases because the curriculum will determine the direction, purpose and content of the learning activities. James Dean Brown says:

   "The view that I wish to promote is that curriculum development is a series of activities that contribute to the growth of consensus among the staff, faculty, administration, and students. This series of curriculum activities will provide a framework that helps the students to learn as efficiently and effectively as possible in the given situation. In a sense, the curriculum design process could be viewed as being made up of the people and the paper-moving operations that make the doing of teaching and learning possible."

   Furthermore, Brown said there are some basic components of the curriculum includes needs analysis, objectives, testing, materials, teaching and program evaluation. In connection with the integration of science in curriculum development, at least, can be started from the determination of learning objectives. The learning objectives should be explicitly mentioned aspects to the Islamization which should be achieved by students.

   Additionally, the mixed type syllabus is mentioned as a problem solver in many cases such as reflecting the needs of both students and the department in the course objective and content, preparing students to work both in class and autonomously, and introducing student to the concept of formative assessment that

---

[13] Bambang Irfani, "Pengembangan Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris Dalam Bingkai Integrasi Keilmuan", n.p., n.d., 10.

serves more on a learning tool rather than a score that is to be reported to the university administration[14].

2.Scientific integration in the Use of Instructional Materials

Based on the syllabus has been prepared, which was printed teaching materials are needed, then the next step is to find, sort, select and use teaching materials that suit their needs. According to Alan Cunningsworth, there are at least four elements that should be consider to determining the teaching materials, namely:

a. Relate the teaching materials to your aims and objectives

b. Be aware of what language is for

c. Keep your students' needs in mind

d. Consider the relationship between the language, the learning process and the learner. It means that the selection of teaching materials must consider the suitability of the learning objectives, the condition of students, and learning activities designed.

3.Integration of the Scientific Learning Activities

This is a phase standing that will determine whether the integration of science that is designed completely implemented or not. Here the teacher should be able to consistently and earnestly carry out the plan that had been developed to implement learning activities within the framework of scientific integration.

English becomes the accepted International language as in line with the rapid's development of today's world. Additionally, the appearance of ASEAN Economic community demands people to have English skill and for those who are not from English background are not exceptional. Whether they like or not, English transformed into such an obligation for students. Since most of students believe the nothingness of English with their career in the future, the reasons above cover the answers up. Islamic Education students indeed need English skill to bolster their future up in social, educational or professional context. Thus, the researcher attempt to design the suitable materials for the learners from Islamic Education Program.

---

[14] Olga Kopiatina, "Teaching English to Geologists: Developing a Good Syllabus", The Asian EFP Journal Vol. 14 Issue 1, 2018, 295.

The materials are given by considering ESP, which is refer to the specific purpose for learning English. Students approach the study of English through a field that is already known and relevant to them. This means that they are able to use what they learn in the Integrated Classroom right away in their work and studies.[15]

Teaching Materials form an important part of most English teaching programs. From textbooks, videotapes and pictures to the internet, teachers rely heavily on a diverse range of materials to support their teaching and their students' learning[16]. During the learning process in this study, the researcher used a self-developing-material.

In designing the material, the researcher acquired the principles of Hutchinson and Waters (1987:107) as follows[17]

a. Materials provide a stimulus to learning that is they encourage learners to learn. Good materials should contain interesting texts, enjoyable activities which engage the learners' thinking capacities and opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge and skills.

b. Materials help to organize the teaching and learning process and provide a clear and coherent unit structure which will guide the teacher in such a way to maximize the chances of learning;

c. Material embodied a view of the nature of language and learning

d. Material reflect the nature of learning task

e. Materials can have a very useful function in broadening the basis of teacher training by introducing teachers new techniques.

f. Materials provide models of correct and appropriate language use.

During the learning process, the researcher applied some authentic materials to the learners. Authentic material is a kind of material taken from the real world and not specifically create for the purpose of language teaching. The researcher

---

[15] M. Basri Wello, Syarifuddin Dollah. *Fundamental Aspects of English for Specific Purposes.* Makassar: UNM Publisher, 2008, 36.

[16] Jocelyn Howard, Jae Major. "Guidelines for Designing Effective English Language Teaching Materials." n.d.: 101-109.

[17] M. Basri Wello, Syarifuddin Dollah. *Fundamental Aspects of English for Specific Purposes.* Makassar: UNM Publisher, 2008, 40.

used newspaper or magazine, pictures that reflect the needs of learners. Those authentic materials provide information about real-life situation or event of the students such as the *praying event on Id,* or some news related to Islamic science such as the picture which is more accurate and have high credibility. Hence, the learners are easily to express their idea due to the relevant of learners' interest as Islamic Education students.

Consideration of the types of real-world task specific groups of learners commonly need to perform will allow designer to generate materials where both the text and the things learners are required to do with them reflect the language and behaviors required of them in the world outside the classroom.[18]

The second way researcher did in creating a good progression for integrated materials are by using contextualization concept. Context refers to circumstance of setting in which a person uses a language[19]. Materials linked explicitly to what the learners already know, to their first language and culture, and very importantly, alert learners to any areas of significant culture difference.

To gain effectiveness and efficiency in the classroom, the researcher applied some strategies. The integration of Islamic Science in English teaching materials were done through several ways. Those are explained as follows[20].

1. Role play and Stimulation

Role play and stimulation essentially involve the learners' looking on a different and even identify from their usual one. In simulation, the learner is given a task to perform a problem to solve. They are more realistic and credible to lead to more natural communication since they are related to specific language point.

---

[18] Jocelyn Howard, Jae Major. "Guidelines for Designing Effective English Language Teaching Materials." n.d.: 101-109, 2.

[19] M. Basri Wello, Syarifuddin Dollah. *Fundamental Aspects of English for Specific Purposes.* Makassar: UNM Publisher, 2008, 44.

[20] M. Basri Wello, Syarifuddin Dollah. *Fundamental Aspects of English for Specific Purposes.* Makassar: UNM Publisher, 2008, 45-46.

In the role play, the students' are trained the way to make *musyawarah*, how to give a comment, suggestion or even interruption and conclude the result of the meeting. The teacher then gave them some topic to solve. It trained the student to act wisely like *ulama* as people source in resolving Islamic problem. As such, the task of being *ulama* to solve the problems of the society encountered. Several cases such as the misunderstanding of paying zakat, the misconception about something whether it's Halal or Haram, and some cases that happened in the daily life.

2. Project Work

A project work is typically task for several days or even weeks ad involves students in some out of class activities. A project work can be done in a group, or in individual base depending on the target situation.

In the project work, the researcher gave the material of *sirah nabawi* and asked the students to make a poster about *sirah sahabat* then eventually present it in front of the class. Additionally, most of past teacher asked the students to do cooking tutorial or another tutorial which is not quite relate the learners' need. Hence, the researcher implement *wudhu* or ablution tutorial in English to help students comprehend Islamic terms. There are explained as follows[21].

1. First make Niyyah (Intention) that you are making Wudu' for Salaah and begin saying "Bismillah" (in the name of Allah, the most merciful and the most kind). Wash both hands up to the wrist three times, making sure that water has reached between the fingers.
2. Put a handful of water into your mouth and rinse it thoroughly three times.
3. Sniff water gently into your nostril three times to clean them
4. Wash the tip of the nose
5. Wash your face three times from the lobe of your right ear to your left ear
6. Wash from your hairline (forehead) to your chin
7. Wash your right arms and then your left arm thoroughly from wrist up to (and including) your elbow three times.

---

[21] Rina Sari *Pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris Pendekatan Qur'ani.* Malang: UIN-Malang Press, 2007, 101-104.

8. Move the wet palms over the head from the top of forehead to the back of the head

9. Pass the wet tips of index fingers into the grooves and holes of both ears and also pass the wet thumbs behind the ears

10. Finally, was both feet to (and including) the ankles starting from the right, making sure that water has reached between the toes and all other parts of the feet.

At the end of the above steps recite:

"Asyhadu an la ilaha illallahu wa ash-hadu anna Muhammadan 'abduhu wa rasuuluh"

Meaning: I testify that there is no God but Allah and He is One and has no partner and I also testify that Muhammad is His servant and messenger.

3. Case study

Case study involve studying the facts of a real-life case, discussing the issues involved and reaching some kind of decision or action plan. All language skills are potentially involved; reading input documents, listening and speaking (discussing), and possibly writing some sort of summary or a report. In dealing with Islamic Education Program students, the researcher gave a real-life problem that was booming in the period of teaching activity such as the case of Ahok which was accused debasing Islamic religion. One of its impact is the emersion of "AKSI 212" in Indonesia. The students are trained to discuss and reduced the problems out based on their point of view.

4. Oral Presentation

Oral presentation does not merely involve discussion, but it can also involve all the language skills: writing and reading the information required for the presentation will be surely performed beforehand. In this stage, the students are required to give some reading, the history of Muhammad or another Islamic history. They are obliged to translate those reading materials by using their own words and present it orally.

The oral presentation are done thorough several ways.

1. The teacher explained to them the *sirah nabawi* and *sirah sahabat*

2. The teacher then gave the student assignment to find 10 of Muhammad's who are guaranteed to gain heaven. The students then are divided into several groups. Each group consisted of two person due to the consideration of the total amount of students in the class.

3. The explanation of those ten figures are designed by using poster. Thus, the class are magically transformed into such an Islamic Exhibition. Students stick the poster in every corner and they explained what they found orally by using English.

Generally, the fact that there are variables that may contribute success or failure to any education program lead to some questions. Philip stressed that the internal aspect could be motivation and attitudes while the external aspect might include course material, learners, teachers, and user-institution, time allocated for the course. Since this study focus on firmly deciding the implementation of integrated material, enhancing the quality of the materials, designing the concept is not enough. Thereupon, it needs some indicators to determine the effectiveness of teaching materials. Much research has also been conducted to determine students' perceptions of effective teaching, create instruments to measure these perceptions, and establish criteria by which to judge an instructor's effectiveness.

As the quite same approach for ESP with integrated teaching material, some factors can contribute success or failure. Such factors can range from the needs (course contents and objectives), proficiency level (elementary, intermediate or advance), affective (attitude, motivation, anxiety) factors, aptitude (some people are more readily able to learn another language), personality (introvert and extrovert), learning styles or learning preferences (comfortable with spoken or written). A failure to justify the learners' factors and to accommodate them in the integrated course program will result in unsatisfactory or unsuccessful outcome[22].

Thus, the researcher focus on how the students see the material that had been applied in their class. Clark (1995) identified cognitive and affective goal of

---

[22] M. Basri Wello, Syarifuddin Dollah. *Fundamental Aspects of English for Specific Purposes.* Makassar: UNM Publisher, 2008, 98.

effective teaching at the university level. He developed a questionnaire covering a wide range of teaching activities associated with effective instruction and the achievement of cognitive and affective objectives. It measures the following qualities that are useful for thinking about the quality of university teaching. Hence, in this study, the researcher will just concern on affective goals which is explained as follows[23]

1. The first of the affective goals is to stimulate student interest.

    Stimulation of interest is considered important for university teaching because it increase student attention to lectures and class discussion. Little learning occurs without such attention and interest motivates students to think about the course material and to work harder.

2. Student Participation and Openness to Ideas

    Effective teachers try to foster active involvement, participation and interaction of students in classes, and to communicate their openness to and respect for alternative and challenging point of view. It actively involves students in their learning, provides instructors with feedback about the progress and difficulties of students, and provides opportunities for instructors to model for students problem-solving behaviors and application of course materials to novel examples.

    Openness to ideas is desirable because students should be encouraged to think for themselves in a flexible and creative manner and because commitment to one view should generally follow critical evaluation of alternative perspectives.

3. Interpersonal Relations

    A third affective goal of effective teaching is to promote agreeable and friendly interpersonal relations between instructors and students and to convey concern and respect for individuals. The purpose of good rapport is to create a congenial atmosphere in which students who are having difficulty will seek help from the instructors and in which students feel welcome to offer alternative explanations in class and to get feedback on their ideas.

---

[23] Natasha Kenny, Serge Desmarais. "A Guide to Developing and Assessing Learning Outcomes at the University of Guelph." 9. n.p., n.d., 22.

Method

   This study is an attempt to uncover the students' perceptions on implementation of integrating Islamic science into English learning English Material. This study used qualitative research, qualitative research based on describtive data[24] and the objective tends to understand rather than to generalize[25]. A case study was conducted to find out the students' perception on integrating Islamic science into English learning materials. case studies tend to provide detailed descriptions of specific learners (or sometimes classes) within their learning setting[26]and presents a detailed account of the phenomenon under study. The third semester students serve as subjects in this study. They taught English courses by integrating material on Islamic science. The research conducted in one semester. The learning Activity is organized by a variety of learning strategy. And all learning materials used integrated with Islamic science that taken from many different sources.

Instrument

  The type of instrument in this study using semi structure interview in the form of open-ended question that is applied to the six students in the Department of Islamic religious education in STAIN Watampone. All of these students have acquired basic knowledge of Islamic science and has been studying English with the materials are integrated with Islamic science

  Face-to-face interviews were conducted, ranging from 10- to 20 minutes. The interview questions concentrated on three aspects of students' perception in terms of (1) the extent to which the materials are interested in subject matter and language content; (2) the students'

---

[24] Alison Mackey, Susan M. Gass. *Second Language Research:Methodology and Design.* London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates , 2005, 162.

[25] Jerome Delaney, Albert Johnson, Trudi Johnson, Dennis Treslan. "Students' Perceptions of Effective Teaching in Higher Education." *26th Annual Conference on Distance Teaching and Learning.* San Fransisco, California: Creative Commons, 2010, 17.

[26] Alison Mackey, Susan M. Gass. *Second Language Research:Methodology and Design.* London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates , 2005, 172.

participation and openness to ideas; (3) interpersonal relationship among the students and the teaching during the learning program.[27]

The interview questions were asked in indonesian language to reduce the participants' anxiety and elicit more information. All of the interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed into Indonesian langugage and then translated into English. Excerpts are illustrated in the qualitative data analysis section.

The interviews were analyzed through content analysis. The interviews recorded was transcribed to make it easier in understanding the students' statements.

The next is reading the interview transcripts and examined in depth, which may lead to formulate initial categories, themes and relationships. And the last is making interpretation based on the data presented.

Result and Discussion

Stimulating Student Interest

In the interview, it was reported that majority of students of Islamic Education Program in STAIN Watampone overwhelmed by interesting feeling. Regardless of another aspect, the students are so grateful to gain new insight and vocabularies of Islamic thought in English. The students stated that they are grateful to engage themselves into such amazing teaching atmosphere. The love of learning something can be seen by analyzing the students' curiosity, their energy and positive vibes during the learning process. Further, it could be seen by their expression when faced some troubles in their material. They would be whether stop or continue the gap they found. If so, it easier to see the perception of them. Once they stop, means they have slightly motivation in the integrated learning process. In contravention, if they keep trying and asking and vivaciously for the next task, the researcher then conclude that they have a good perception on this study.

One of interviewed students commented that:

---

[27] Jerome Delaney, Albert Johnson, Trudi Johnson, Dennis Treslan. "Students' Perceptions of Effective Teaching in Higher Education." *26th Annual Conference on Distance Teaching and Learning.* San Fransisco, California: Creative Commons, 2010. 21-22.

"It is the first time I learned by using Integrated English and Islamic material. I was really excited during the class since I found new way to do translation in English. I was be able to know the Islamic glossaries, I found new vocabularies and the pronunciation of those words. The thing is the material did not bring me feeling awkward, and I was free to express my idea. It was really amazing learning activity because I can learn English and Islam at once. It also enhanced my ability to give questions to the teacher since the teacher is not judgmental. I found that this kind of material is well enough to be continued in the next phase cause it conforms our need as Islamic Education students. We learned English, we are not feeling left behind and stay up to date yet we still studying on our track as Muslim. "

It is explained that the relevance context of topics, and develop ways of linking them to 'the real world' can motivate students within a course. It can also provide a focus on career development.

The students probably realized that by learning Islamic English related to their study not only for their ongoing study yet for their upcoming study. The students might want to spread Islam in the future by using their writing skill. Henceforth, to make their writing well-spread, they need some skills in English language due to most of terms nowadays are conducted in English.

The students started to realize that the integration curriculum is a more efficient use of time. It should serve as a constant lesson that learning is not something we "finish" when the diploma is issued, but a lifelong pursuit. If learning and teaching are ways of glorifying God, then integrated learning reflects the unity of all creation, and the marvelous connections and patterns in Allah's creation.[28]

Student Participation and Openness to Ideas

As the second aspect to see the students' participation and openness to ideas, most of them were in an agreement that integrated English and Islamic materials could sway the way of their mind thinking related to the current issue. They are more brave to bring their ideas out in English. This was probably the uplift of vocabulary items that help them to make a good communication toward others. Students experience difficulty in learning English in

---

[28] Susan Douglass, Ann El Moslimany, Sommieh Uddin. "Modelling Method for Integrated Curriculu--Three Teaching Units." *ISNA Education Forum,* , 2005: 1-18,

the class due to the slightly material include syllabi and vocabularies with has no relation to their major. Thus, integrating Islamic in English learning materials is the brighter one in improving their language skill.

> "I got so many benefit from the integrated English and Islamic learning class. The explanation was really pleasant and easier to understand. It probably because the materials appropriate with my major. I was more active since I realize about the material and I was get closer to my friend because we are not reluctant to remind each other when we faced troubles. I highly recommend this learning process "

Natasha Kenny has described the developing and assessment outcomes for students. She mentioned that to see the outcomes of students, it could be analyzed by looking at their aesthetic maturity. Aesthetic maturity described as a quality of the critical response to some object, natural or artificial, external to the self. It has a certain resemblance to both independences of thought and depth of understanding, in requiring an active creativity. Additionally, she mentioned about the understanding of forms in inquiry which is involves resolving an identified problem, collecting relevant information, evaluating the information and observing relationship in order to reach a conclusion.[29]

The integrated materials indicate that the student demand the usage of Islamic culture in the teaching of reading and other materials. Deby Irawan[30] stated numbers of reasons: (1)Ease the students' understanding, (2) maintain students' reading interest, and (3) fulfill students' expectations of enlisting in Islamic institution.

Throughout the learning activity, the researcher discovered that by using integrated materials, it did not just develop students' critical thinking, yet it tends to make students focus more on context than the language itself. The students fathomed into the materials and unconsciously use English language during the activity.

Interpersonal Relations

---

[29] Natasha Kenny, Serge Desmarais. "A Guide to Developing and Assessing Learning Outcomes at the University of Guelph." n.p., n.d., 9.

[30] Deby Irawan, "Developing Islamic English Reading Course Syllabus: Preserving Islamic Ideology and Strengthening Student's Language Proficiency", The Asian ESP Journal Volume 14 Issue 2, 2018, 54.

Among the goals of affective aspect, the interpersonal is the important part to know the hit of integrated English and Islamic material. According to some students, factors that contributed to the learning activities did not only come from the material itself yet the qualification of the teacher.

The teacher attitude can also be either encouraging or discouraging. Some teachers might consider English is difficult to learn or it is just like another subject which can be learned by anyone. Another essential aspect on the part of the teacher is the teaching strategies used by the teacher. That methodologies or techniques must suit the learning needs of the learners.[31] One of interviewed students stated that:

> "It is such an interesting material. In the past year, I just got general English learning material which is the same with I got when I was in junior and senior high school. The teacher's explanation was really clear and easier to understand. The teacher was also extremely motivational and we felt like we are friend in the class. The aspects to improve then is the material of the teaching activities more comprehensive. "

Thus, Axelrod (2008) isolated seven qualities that he believes are, "common elements of good teaching" namely[32]:

a. Accessibility and approachability
b. Fairness
c. Open-mindedness
d. Mastery and delivery
e. Enthusiasm
f. Humor
g. Knowledge and inspiration imparted

At a higher level, students become actively engaged in learning and thinking. At this level, they are given the opportunity to offer their own challenge such as asking the teacher. As students become more independent in thought, they are better able to combine

---

[31] M. Basri Wello, Syarifuddin Dollah. *Fundamental Aspects of English for Specific Purposes.* Makassar: UNM Publisher, 2008, 98.

[32] Jerome Delaney, Albert Johnson, Trudi Johnson, Dennis Treslan. "Students' Perceptions of Effective Teaching in Higher Education." *26th Annual Conference on Distance Teaching and Learning.* San Fransisco, California: Creative Commons, 2010. 21-22.

ideas and to generate new ideas. At the highest level, independence of though is a manifestation of love of learning and it may contribute to a sense of self-worth and of well-being. At this level, opportunities are provided for self-directing learning. One accomplishment may be the ability to ask the right kinds of questions[33]. Therefore, as the objective of the study concern on Islamic Education Program students who will be muslim educators, Muslim educators are obliged to ensure new generation to receive genuine Islamic education that cultivate an ideal integrated Islamic personality, and then able them to represent and preserve Islamic identity. [34]

Conclusion

Students perceive that learning English by using integrated Islamic science in the material do not make them confuse or frustrated yet they are overwhelmed by amusing feeling. The use of integrated English and Islamic material can produce lot of interest and make learning activities more effective and efficient. It is evidence that integrating Islamic science in English teaching material lead the students to be more comprehensive, depth and critical-thinking related to the Islamic issue. Astonishingly, the students tend to be more convenient to make a discourse with their peers. The students are motivated to learn such references regarding to their learning needs. Hence, they are not reluctantly asking some question to their teacher. The material and the learning process encourage the students to be bravely bring their idea up. The interest, the openness idea and interpersonal aspect are adduced in the integrated class approach. As indicated to the result, the students want the material to be continued for the sake of their major progress and their educational program. The students' perception is actually intended to find the deficiency and redundancy of the materials. It eventually helps the teacher to elaborate the standard of evaluation for a better Islamic education result.

---

[33] Natasha Kenny, Serge Desmarais. "A Guide to Developing and Assessing Learning Outcomes at the University of Guelph." n.p., n.d., 10.

[34] Sholehah Bt.Hj.Yacoob, Madame Rahimah Bt. Embong *The Concept of an Integrated Islamic Curriculum and Its Implications for Contemporary Islamic Schools,* on the International Conference in Islamic Republic of Iran on 20-22 Feb 2008 which organized by OIC, ISESCO and The Ministry Education of Islamic Republic Iran, 3.

References

Alison Mackey, S. M. (2005). *Second Language Research:Methodology and Design.* London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates .

Cochran, M. Q. (2002). *A Guide To Using Qualitative Research Methodology.* Medecins Sains Frontieres.

Darwish, S. H. (2014). Teachers' Perception on Authentic Materials in Languate Teaching in Kuwait. *Journal of Education and Practice ISSN 2222-288X*, 119-124.

Dictionary, O. (2016, October 26). *www.oxforddictionaries.com.* Retrieved from http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/englis/integrate

Dr. Solehah Bt. Hj. Yacoob, M. R. (2008). The Concept of an Integrated Islamic Curriculum and Its Implications for the Contemporary Islamic Schools. *International Conference in Islamic Republic of Iran by OIC, ISESCO and The Ministry Education of Islamic Republic Iran*, (pp. 1-17). Iran.

Hasan, M. M. (n.d.). Islam's Encounter with English and Islami Faruqi's Concept of Islamic English: A Postcolonial Reading. n.p.

Hidayatullah. (n.d.). *Haramkah Mempelajari Bahasa Asing*. Retrieved from http://www.hidayatullah.com/kajian/oase-iman/read/2015/07/22/74376/haramkah-mempelajari-bahasa-asing.html

Integrasi Ilmu dengan Agama untuk Mengangkat Harga Diri Pelajar Muslim. (n.d.). *Annual International Conference on Islamic Studies, AICIS XII* (p. 2175). Surabaya: AICIS.

Irawan, D. (2018). Developing Islamic English Reading Course Syllabus: Preserving Islamic Ideology and Strengthening Student's Language Proficiency. *The Asian ESP Journal Volume 14 Issue 2*, 54.

Irfani, B. (n.d.). Pengembangan Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris dalam Bingkai Integrasi Keilmuan. Retrieved August 14, 2016

Jerome Delaney, A. J. (2010). Students' Perceptions of Effective Teaching in Higher Education. *26th Annual Conference on Distance Teaching and Learning* (pp. 21-22). San Fransisco, California: Creative Commons.

Jocelyn Howard, J. M. (n.d.). Guidelines for Designing Effective English Language Teaching Materials. 101-109.

Kopiatina, O. (2018, 295.). Teaching English to Geologists: Developing a Good Syllabus. *The Asian EFP Journal Vol. 14 Issue 1*, 295.

Lubis, M. A. (2009). Integrated Islamic Education in Brunei Darussalam: Philosophical Issues and Challanges. *Journal of Islamic and Arabic Education*.

M. Basri Wello, S. D. (2008). *Fundamental Aspects of English for Specific Purposes.* Makassar: UNM Publisher.

Mohd-Asraf, R. (2005). English and Islam: A Clash of Civilizations? *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education 4(2)*, 103-118.

Mufidatunnisa. (2016). Pesantren As An Ideal Place to Implement Science Integration (An Observation of English and Islamic Studies at Modern Islamic Boarding School Al-Junaidiyah Biru Bone). *The 1st BUAF "Introducing A Growing Scholar Community on Islamic Studies"* (p. 186). Pontianak: IAIN Pontianak Press.

Natasha Kenny, S. D. (n.d.). A Guide to Developing and Assessing Learning Outcomes at the University of Guelph. n.p.

Norazmi Anas, E. A. (2013). *The Integration of Knowledge in Islam.* USA: Global Journal Inc.

Pendidikan, W. (n.d.). *Makalah Konsep Integrasi Keilmuan Umum dan Agama.* Retrieved from Available at http://www.wawasanpendidikan.com/2014/10/makalah-konsep-integrasi-ilmu-umum-dan-ilmu-agama.html.

Punch, K. F. (2009). *Introduction to Reseach Methods in Education.* Singapore: SAGE.

Rohmah, Z. (2012). Incorporating Islamic Messages in the English Teaching in the Indonesian Context. *International J. Soc. Sci. & Education*, 157-165.

Sari, R. (2007). *Pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris Pendekatan Qur'ani.* Malang: UIN-Malang Press.

Sunarto. (2014). *The Integration of Islamic Values in English Teaching and Learning at SD Islam Terpadu Al-Mumtaz Kota Pontianak.* Yogyakarta: n.p.

Susan Douglass, A. E. (2005). Modelling Method for Integrated Curriculu--Three Teaching Units. *ISNA Education Forum,* , 1-18.